TITLE OF THESIS:

Kids aren't the problem. Understanding police officer – school staff relationships within Safer School Partnerships.

By

Steven Sweeney

Canterbury Christ Church University

Thesis submitted

for the degree of MSc by Research

2020

ABSTRACT

Engagement with children and young people (C&YP) in schools within the context of policing is looked upon as a good idea. Yet, there are complexities in the relationships that allow and support police engagement within Safer School Partnerships (SSPs). However, despite SSPs being in existence in London since 2002, understanding the relationships within the partnerships is under researched. The aim of this study is to explore the working relationship between school staff and police officers working together within SSPs in London, to determine an effective SSP model. This study uses qualitative semi-structured interviews to explore the experiences of police officers involved in SSPs, Head Teachers and members of schools' senior leadership team.

The study concludes there are several common factors that impact the complex relationship within an SSP. There is a lack of clarity within SSP policy and guidance causing a myriad of working practices and a lack of understanding of SSPs. Establishing positive relationships within an SSP is vital in building trust but it can take between six months and one year to build trust and is made more complex due to pre-conceived impressions of the police. While it appears that ethnicity and/or gender play a part in how relationships within SSPs develop, they are only small parts to a larger group of attributes that contribute to a long-lasting SSP. However, SSOs are required to have good attributes commonly associated with 'soft policing'. Moreover, issues affecting relationships within SSPs are not dealt with in any formal evaluation. The thesis concludes by making several recommendations to assist in improving relationships and creating more effective relationships within SSPs.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CONTENTS

GLOSSARY

ASB	Anti-Social Behaviour	**POP**	Problem-Orientated Policing
BCU	Basic Command Unit	**PRU**	Pupil Referral Unit
BOCU	Borough Operational Command Unit	**PS**	Police Sergeant
C&YP	Children and Young People	**PSHE**	Personal Social and Health Education
CLA	Citizen-Led Approach	**SEN**	Special Educational Needs
CLP	Citizen-Led Policing	**SME**	Subject Matter Expert
COP	Community-Orientated Policing	**SNT**	Safer Neighbourhood Team
DWO	Dedicated Ward Officer	**SRO**	School Resource Officer
ERT	Emergency response Team	**SSO**	Safer Schools Officer
HT	Head Teacher	**SSP**	Safer School Partnership
HVP	High Visibility Policing	**STT**	Safer Transport Team
ILP	Intelligence-Led Policing	**TfL**	Transport for London
INSP	Inspector	**TP**	Territorial Policing
MOPAC	Mayors Officer for Police and Crime	**TPA**	Tactical Policy Advisor
MPS	Metropolitan Police Service	**TRB**	Total Resource Budget
NPCC	National Police Chiefs Council	**VPC**	Volunteer Police Cadets
OCU	Operational Command Unit	**YJB**	Youth Justice Board
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education	**YOS**	Youth Offending Service
PC	Police Constable	**YOT**	Youth Offending Team

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter discusses my motivations as the foundations of this study. It introduces key theoretical perspectives and provides an overview of the structure of the thesis. Safer School Partnerships (SSP) have been valued by Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) senior officers since 2002, receiving more investment in recent years as pledged by the Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime (MOPAC). Furthermore, policing has seen a greater focus on engaging and listening to young people to change attitudes and increase public confidence. Yet there is minimal research into relationships between police officers and school staff in ensuring a successful partnership which has a direct impact on how police engage with young people. This has led to positive and negative perceptions of SSPs within the police and outside of the police. Acknowledging this lack of research, this thesis examines the experiences of Safer Schools Officers (SSO), their supervisors and school staff within school's senior leadership teams to understand how relationships work and what affects them.

Research context and problem identification

For the first seven years of my policing career, it seemed that every young person I dealt with was committing crime, in a gang or had a very bad attitude towards the police. I always considered myself to be approachable and friendly, however, I remember saying hello to two boys in Harlesden, they were around eight years old, and they sucked their teeth at me and looked at me like they hated me. I remember thinking that attitude must come from their parents because they seemed too young to have had such negative experiences with the police. At that

point in my career I had varied experience in front line response policing; investigation in the Case Progression Unit and Community Safety Unit dealing with domestic abuse cases, and local operational support. I sought a change in roles when a friend told me the application process was open for the role of SSO. Initially, I was not keen on the role because of my previous experience with young people however I thought I would try it and became an SSO in 2010.

I was given responsibility for two secondary schools in Harlesden; an all-girls school and an all-boys school. I also shared a large secondary school and visited a fourth regularly with a colleague. I also visited a school that provided alternative provision to young people who had been excluded. There was no corporate guidance therefore I learned from my colleague who had already been an SSO for a few years. Initially, I found it challenging to change my mind-set on how to deal with incidents at school. There was a focus on not criminalising young people where I was used to dealing with offenders robustly through arrest with punitive disposal goals of caution or charge. I did not learn about restorative approaches for some time, however, I found myself being guided by my colleague and the schools I worked in. It was not long before I coined the phrase, *"Kids aren't the problem, adults are."*

My experiences with some staff and Head teachers (HT) were, at times, more challenging than dealing with young people. It became apparent that a cohesive relationship between the SSO and the school was so important in allowing the right outcomes for young people and making a difference in the lives. Particularly where synergy between the police and school was required to help a student. I had a heated debate with a HT because they had been told by my borough Commander that students would never be arrested in school. One HT required

an appointment to speak to them which caused conflict in the relationship. School staff gave me hypothetical scenarios for which I advised on, only later to find out they were real incidents. I even had to debate with a police officer from the local Youth Offending Team (YOT) because they wanted to charge a young person, when I believed a restorative approach was the best option for the offender and victim. However, the SSO role was the best job I have had. It was challenging, but it was rewarding.

In 2012, the opportunity came to join the MPS central Safer Schools team. It was a place I could make a difference for the SSOs across London by providing everything I wish I had when I first became an SSO. The role has since become wider, incorporating the Volunteer Police Cadets (VPC) and wider youth engagement. Consequently, I have been heavily involved in two processes of remodelling policing in the MPS which has seen a marked investment in youth-based policing, particularly within Schools policing. The most recent policing model changes increased investment to 600 police officers working with young people, with the offer to all schools that they can have a named police contact. I have seen an increase in SSOs across London from 181 to 353 SSOs working in partnership with 630 secondary schools. There are now dedicated Safer Schools supervisors and I believe the policy, guidance, training and support I have created and continue to provide has helped SSOs understand their role better.

However, the only evidence I have to support the role in the MPS in its current form, is a piece of crime pattern analysis that shows most youth related crime is committed in a two-hour period after school. It increases during term time and decreases during the school holidays. Nevertheless, analysing the entire role is a large and complex task because of the variety of functions an SSO has within

an SSP, therefore while there is continued support for the role, I believe we need to understand the relationship between the police and schools to establish best practice and formulate standard practice to form SSPs that can be most effective.

Establishing a set of rules to enable a good working relationship between the police and schools is complex, especially where there are a variety of political policing drivers from local borough policing targets and reactive activities, 87 mayoral commitments in the ending violence against women and girls strategy 2016-2020, current knife crime commitments, themes driven by media coverage of specific issues, the perceptions of the increase in officers despite the backdrop of a lack of police officers being linked to the increase in knife crime and an increased focus on mobilising communities. However, I believe an SSP framework can be established that will not be adversely affected by political pressures that can underpin the relationship within SSPs.

Research Aims

The overarching aim of this thesis is to explore the working relationship between the school staff and the police officers working together within Safer School Partnerships (SSPs) in London, to determine an effective SSP model for police forces and schools. I chose to focus on SSPs in London specifically because the MPS currently employs more SSOs and maintains more SSPs than all other police force in the UK. I also have ready access to police data and police participants because I am a serving police practitioner in the MPS.

This research does not look to test its findings due to time constraints. It asks of police officers and school staff their opinions and experiences as an alternative

to testing the effectiveness. This limitation can be addressed in a future study following the production of an SSP model for police forces and school staff informed by the findings. The future action research study would test the findings through a complex mixed method of finding a variety of schools already in an SSP to assess the impact the study has had and gauge how much has been put into practice through participant observations, interviews and surveys. It would also look to involve HTs that are not currently engaged in an SSP to instigate a partnership for carrying out further observational field research in the form of an ethnography or a randomised-control trial. The findings from that study could be used to further enhance and improve SSPs.

The aims of this thesis are:

- To understand the common factors of why SSPs work well and why they do not.
- To suggest recommendations to the MPS to assist in improving SSPs across London.
- To build an SSP model of partnership working for the police and schools.

Research Questions

- What are the experiences of MPS SSOs and school staff?
- What is important in establishing a good working relationship within an SSP?
- What is needed to assist all SSPs in working well?

<u>Thesis Overview</u>

Chapter two examines the literature relevant to this study. Chapter three discusses the methodological approach and the practical application adopted during the research. Chapters four, five, and six examines the major themes that emerged from the data. They are:

Working within a Safer School Partnership

Chapter four groups four important talking points within the context of working within an SSP. I examine the key roles and responsibilities within an SSP from the perspective of the participants. I explore participants understanding and perceptions of the key roles, the importance of understanding the purpose and setting goals, the important attributes of an SSO and the inconsistencies of practices and working within SSPs.

A clash of working cultures

Chapter five is grouped into three talking points which contribute to a clash of working cultures. It examines pre-conceived perceptions of SSOs, including first impressions and attitudes towards ethnicity, gender and age. These perceived impressions of the role of the SSO are important and link with the good attributes of an SSO and how varying impressions are formed, affected by the different working cultures of schools and police and the complexities of working together when those cultures clash. I also explore the importance of HT 'buy-in' in these circumstances and the importance of managing expectations from a policing perspective. While these points are important, there is no consistent evaluation of an SSP to rectify any of the points discussed.

Evaluation of Safer School Partnerships

Chapter six discusses the various ways in which SSPs are evaluated and highlights the inconsistencies across SSPs. Evaluating an SSP appears a complex issue when discussed within the different working cultures of schools and the police and against the variety of working practices.

Chapter seven summarises the study's findings and makes several recommendations to the MPS to assist with improving the service to schools in London. It uses the literature to support the findings, provide contrast, enlighten the discussion of the themes and show that my findings are entirely new within academic research of Safer School Partnerships

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The evolution and revolution of youth-based policing

Early intervention with children and young people (C&YP) within the context of policing is widely regarded as a good idea. However, while there are complexities to how the police engage effectively with C&YP, there are also complexities in the mechanisms and relationships that allow and support that engagement within Safer School Partnerships (SSPs). As a result, this literature review will consider the important factors that determine the working relationships between schools and the police within an SSP.

The popularisation of community policing in the 1970's has maintained relevance over the years but the partnerships between communities and the police were limited (McLaughlin, 1994; Skogan, 1995; Robinson & Stroshine Chandek, 2000; Wien, 2004) until 2011 when partnership working became central to the Government's modernisation of public services reform agenda across the UK (Prime Minister's Office, 2011). Consequently, many collaborative policing partnerships within communities were formed to reduce crime more effectively. However, SSPs came about almost ten years previously.

Although engagement in schools is not a new concept, it has taken a long time to get to its current state. In the 19th century in the UK, Sir Robert Peels creation of the policing principles brought about the first real police engagement with young people (Johnston, 2011) and the construct of childhood defined differences between adolescence and adulthood and changed society's expectations of a juvenile (Hendrick, 2004; Magarey, 2004; Muncie, 2015).

It was during the 1930's that the first known police-school partnerships existed in the United States (Morrison, 1968; Brown, 2006). However, in 1953, the Schools Resource Officer programme was introduced in Flint, Michigan in the United States as a crime prevention tactic to improve the relationship between the police and school communities. It was not until 1968 that the programme was implemented in Fresno, California (McNicholas, 2008). The programme began by utilising plain clothes police officers who provided mentoring and education in schools. During the 1980's and into the 1990's Schools Resource Officers' role evolved to facilitate more crime related prevention programs in schools (The Police Foundation, 2016). In the UK, police officers interacted with schools on an ad-hoc basis, providing the occasional personal safety lessons with no corporate drive or focus (Briers & Dickmann, 2011, pp. 161-162). However, in the 1980's disruptive behaviour and poor discipline in schools began to affect young people's grades and became a political issue. Subsequently, the Professional Association of Teachers requested the Prime Minister to look at how the police can tackle the issue by working with schools and in 1988 an enquiry was set up chaired by Lord Elton (Committee of Enquiry, 1989).

By the mid 1990's in the United States, 90 percent of those police agencies that served populations larger than 25,000 had already adopted Community Orientated Policing strategies which included working in schools (Morabito, 2010, p.564). However, in the UK, the murder of Jamie Bulger in 1993, the murder of HT Philip Lawrence in 1995 and the Dunblane Massacre in 1996 all instigated public outrage and moral panic (Committee of Enquiry, 1989; Peelo, 2006; Young, 2009; Briers & Dickmann, 2011, p. 165) which in turn opened an opportunity for change and a window of reform (Savage, 2007, pp. 12-13),

leading to changes in New Labour, the Crime and Disorder Act 1998 and an improved level of cooperation between police and schools (Newman, 2001; McLaughlin, et al., 2001). Accordingly, Lustgarten (1986) suggests that policing is unavoidably political.

In 2002, the education sector realised the benefits of the affiliation between schools and the police. This coincided with an increase in robberies by young people aged 11-15 years old (Hayden, et al., 2011). Hence, in an effort to enhance relationships between school communities and the police the Association of Chief Education Officers (ACEO), the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO), the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and the Youth Justice Board (YJB) brought a number of strategies together to launch the National Safer School Partnership (SSP) programme (Bhabra, et al., 2004; Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009; The Police Foundation, 2011). The SSP formalised an agreement between schools and police *"to bring about a more effective, joined-up response to educational and offending issues"* (Bowles, et al., 2005).

SSPs in 'hot spot' areas were implemented (Hayden, et al., 2011, p. 2) as part of a Street Crime Initiative and the MPS published its first youth strategy in 2003. The strategy provided a stage to launch and shape partnerships between police and secondary schools in London (Sellgren, 2002; Williamson, 2003; Metropolitan Police Service and Metropolitan Police Authority, 2003; Bhabra, et al., 2004). Meanwhile, New York City initiated 'Impact Schools Initiative' (New York City Department of Education, 2004) a zero-tolerance approach to policing

schools, based on the principles of broken-windows theory in tackling crime prevention (Drum Major Institute, 2005; Bannan, et al., 2006).

In 2005, Hayden (2005, p.4) highlighted the potential role school had in crime prevention and called for the lack of interest in this area from criminologists to be addressed. In 2008, the Youth Crime Action Plan (Home Office, Ministry of Justice. Cabinet Office. Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008) was published and promised that every school will have a named police contact as well as encourages the introduction of more SSPs. By 2009, the MPS assigned SSOs in every London borough (Ross, 2008; Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009; The Police Foundation, 2011).

Since 2010, policing strategies have highlighted the importance of positive encounters with C&YP and their families through working in partnership within schools, on the street and through youth offending services (Association of Chief Police Officers, 2010; Metropolitan Police Service, 2011; Mayor's Office for Policing And Crime, 2013; Home Office, 2014; London Crime Reduction Board, 2014; National Police Chief's Council, 2016; Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017; Sweeney, et al., 2017). For effective engagement of this kind, a strong partnership between the police and schools is required. In 2017 the MPS had established 639 SSPs with 295 SSOs. They also planned increased investment in SSPs through the MPS Children & Young People Strategy 2017-2021 (Sweeney, et al., 2017) which was driven by Police and Crime Plan by Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime (Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017).

Despite cuts and the threat of further cuts, MOPAC and the MPS increased resource investment in policing C&YP (Hogan-Howe, 2017) where other forces have reduced theirs. Some police forces questioned whether community policing can withstand austerity (Office of the Police and Crime Commissioner for Hertfordshire, 2015), while Hough (2013) suggested that fewer staff may actually enable the police service to achieve more, in terms of front-line response policing, the pressure on services could be unmaintainable. However, HMIC (2015, p. 14) report that resources are not keeping up with the demand on the police and other partner agencies are negatively affected in what they can achieve (Baginsky & Holmes, 2015).

Conversely, within the ethos of problem-oriented policing (POP) (Meese, 1993; Casey, 2008; Newman, et al., 2010) and evidence based policing (Sherman, 1998), policing epitomises partnership working to achieve long term solutions. Hence, the Police and Crime Plan 2017-2021 (2017) focuses on engagement with young people in London's schools to reduce gang related crime and serious youth violence. Consequently, the MPS Children and Young People Strategy 2017-2021 (Sweeney, et al., 2017) was released to increase police engagement with young people through all areas of policing. It highlights a particular focus on SSPs, Volunteer Police Cadets and wider engagement with C&YP. The new strategy also coincides with the implementation of a new MPS policing model which supports increased investment in SSOs (Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017, p. 89).

Moreover, there are several types of crime prevention strategies and approaches; from right realists target hardening (Innes, 2003; Wortley & Mazerolle, 2008), situational crime prevention (Tonry & Farrington, 1995; Barrett, 2009) and

designing out crime (Kane, et al., 2011), to evidence-based policing, Intelligence-Led Policing (Bullock, 2009) and problem solving approaches (Sim, 1982; Maguire & John, 2006; Savage, 2007). In the UK, the most widely utilised police strategy is community orientated policing; working in partnership to prevent crime through community safety partnerships (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005; Brogden & Nijhar, 2013; Crawford & Evans, 2017). Within community policing, the MPS uses youth engagement as a long-term method to keep young people safe, reduce demand, improve police legitimacy and increase confidence in policing (Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017; Sweeney, et al., 2017). Likewise, Morabito (2010), indicates that community partners enhance public safety (Morabito, 2010, p. 570) and their collaborative involvement in policing is a useful tool against criminal behaviour (Morabito, 2010, pp. 565-566). In the MPS, this will be done primarily through SSPs.

> *"The MPS will increase the number of officers working with young people, and ensure that every school has a named officer supporting them"* (Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017, p. 30; Sweeney, et al., 2017)

However, before forming an SSP, it is important to understand and define what an SSP is. The following section seeks to define an SSP by looking at various sources.

Defining a Safer Schools Partnership

Cook, et al. (2015) describe a partnership as a *"collaborative process, requiring ongoing dialogue, trust and ownership to operate effectively"* (2015, p. 11). SSPs undoubtedly sit within community-orientated policing (COP). However, SSPs

involve a range of other types of policing, including POP (Meese, 1993; Casey, 2008; Somerville, 2009; Newman, et al., 2010), Intelligence-Led Policing (ILP) approach (Bullock, 2009), and elements of Citizen-Led Policing (CLP) (Ericson & Haggerty, 1997). SSPs are also front-line policing but there is often reluctance to acknowledge that it is worthwhile and is instead seen as 'soft policing' or an 'extended family model of policing'. (Scarman, 1986; Innes, 2004; Innes, 2005; Johnston, 2005; Somerville, 2009). The activities within SSPs are also difficult to categorise because there are variety of ways it is carried out from simple engagement, through education and enforcement (Rosenbaum, 1994). However, as with most of COP, due to the inconsistencies in approaches (Bayley, 1990; Somerville, 2009) SSPs remain ambiguous (Somerville, 2009). Therefore, it is important to define what an SSP is.

It was recognised in 2006 the lack of a clear strategic framework hindered the development of SSPs. While the Department for Education and Skills (2006) describes an SSP as "a shared collaborative response to issues affecting the school" (2006, pg. 3), the SSP guidance (2009) provided a definition;

> *"a formal agreement between a school or partnership of schools and police to work together in order to keep young people safe, reduce crime and the fear of crime and improve behaviour in schools and their communities."*
> (Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009)

Moreover, by 2009 the aims of an SSP had widened to include "pupil behaviour and attendance, and less need for exclusions" and "issues beyond the school site" (Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police

Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009, p. 6). However, the guide was also open to interpretation and manipulation by encouraging SSPs to "agree the purpose, aims and key outcomes" (Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009, p. 26) together. By 2017 the MPS had transformed the aims of an SSP but the MPS definition remains of an SSP remains the same. However, the definition, aims and key roles and responsibilities within an SSP should all be clear in forming a partnership. The following section discusses the roles within an SSP in more detail.

The roles within a Safer School Partnership

The joint agency Safer School Partnership guidance (2009) suggests those working within an SSP should be clear about the roles and responsibilities, however, it does not define what the roles and responsibilities should be, instead alludes to what they might be throughout the document.

> *"The Head teacher and staff retain their responsibility for school discipline and behaviour, though looking to their officer for support and advice as necessary. The officer remains an operational police officer and will make his or her own decisions on when and how to intervene in incidents where the law is threatened." (Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009, p. 8)*

Moreover, the Department for Education and Skills (2006) found there to be a lack of clarity of the roles and poor communication where there is no clear

protocol in existence (pg. 11). Therefore, it remains challenging to piece together defined role profiles for the key individuals in an SSP. However, existing guidance does lay out the benefits of an SSP in detail, but what it does not do effectively to improve SSPs is cement a clear understanding of the challenges of partnership working within an SSP.

The challenges of partnership working

Policing is influenced by a range of factors which change by the week, month and year. However, SSPs do not appear to have changed significantly since 2002. Yet, as with COP in general, there is a lack of continuity in the way that it works across the whole of the UK. In support of SSPs, survey analysis shows that schools are the most effective place for the police to engage with young people and young people have a desire to engage (Mayor's Office for Policing And Crime, 2016, p. 17). However, while there is top level support for better working practices in schools, Hopkins, et al. (1992) proposes that SSOs are limited in the impact they have because the reports of direct contact with police are low and there are no indications that SSOs presence in schools reduces crime. However, the research does not assess partnership working to deal with crime and is therefore limited itself. Conversely, a 'whole school approach' is recommended by several researchers as necessary to successfully deal with bad behaviour in schools (McWhirter, 2008; Holt, et al., 2011; Department for Education, 2015; Fletcher, et al., 2015; Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017, p. 112). Furthermore, if police and school communities work in partnership crime can be dealt with more effectively (Palmiotto, 2011) and more can be achieved.

Research also shows that it is important to consider cultural influences within community-based partnerships (Payne & Button, 2009, p. 528) and recognise that there are sub-factors and cultures of attitude relating to specific subjects like radicalisation or drugs that might affect negotiations within a partnership. However, it is also important to consider numerous other indicators that support the need for a police resource in school or there is a risk that an SSP could lead to school communities feeling labelled (Becker, 2013).

Since the introduction of Every Child Matters (Legislation Editorial Team, 2002; Chief Secretary to the Treasury, 2003; Williams, 2004), multi-agency approaches have developed to the point where authorities are required under legislation to work with community agencies (Legislation Editorial Team, 2002; Chief Secretary to the Treasury, 2003; Williams, 2004; Home Office, 2015). Therefore, police and other agencies work in partnership more than they ever did with the formation of Multi-Agency Safeguarding Hubs (MASH), Multi-Agency Sexual Exploitation (MASE) Panels, etc. (Children's Workforce Development Council, 2009; Baker, 2014; Metropolitan Police Service, 2015). However further evaluation is required to prove the lasting effects of partnership working in schools (Na & Gottfredson, 2011; Theriot, 2013). Research also shows that partners are better influencers, participate well and can deliver objectives when they have similar interests. Moreover, often the short-term targets and lack of focus on final outcomes fail to show the true benefits of a partnership (Cemlyn, et al., 2005; Sinclair, 2011; Harvie & Manzi, 2011). The following section explores the literature on effective partnership working.

Effective partnership working

Central government has mandated partnership working across the UK (Ling, et al., 2012; Home Office, 2015), however barriers to effective partnership working and responding to local needs are negatively affected by idealistic objectives and deadlines especially within the context of funded partnerships (Carley, 2010; Hunter & Perkins, 2012; Lawless & Beatty, 2013). Likewise, several sources highlight the different working cultures between police and school staff because there is limited understanding of each other's objectives and the need for clarity around goals and outcomes of a SSP (Lamont, et al., 2011; Holt, et al., 2011; Department for Education, 2015; Chakravorty, 2016). Somerville (2009) suggests that police limit the development of partnerships because they are a 'law unto themselves'. However, The Police Foundation (2011) suggested the issue of culture clash between the police and teaching staff can be improved with clear protocols and greater involvement of senior managers (The Police Foundation, 2011, p. 4). Similarly, studies show that inconsistent services are often provided because decisions are made without consultation with those that are responsible for implementing those decisions (Whitehead, 2007; Kaehne, 2013). Moreover, the key to successful partnerships is often through building common trust to break down barriers and increasing confidence in the police (College of Policing, 2013; Deuchar, et al., 2014; Morrell, 2015). However, the literature also recognises that building trust can be a complex undertaking because there are a variety of factors that affect confidence in the police (Myhill & Bradford, 2012). This also includes having a good officer in the role of SSO to nurture positive feelings towards the police (Tyler & Huo, 2002; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Nix, et al., 2014; Sargeant, et al., 2014). However, the literature does not explore what makes a police officer a

good officer in the context of SSPs. Therefore, the theory of systems thinking (Quay, 2015) is often overlooked, particularly towards policing, where the occupation of being a police officer, the police officer's role as an SSO and the personal experiences of the police officer are not separated. Quay (2015) refers to this as "being–doing–knowing" (2015, pp. 20, 147). This theory is useful in this study to highlight the complexities within SSPs, particularly in supporting the understanding of how day-to-day activities contribute to the SSP. For example, in policing terms, being a criminal investigator, being an educator, or being a tool for engagement. Each activity in each SSP offers a different occupation: a different way of being, way of doing, and way of knowing.

Moreover, Cook, et al. (2015) suggested a successful partnership requires trust, good communication and ownership. However, Dickinson & Glasby (2010) suggests a difference between objectives and expectations often leads to an unsuccessful partnership. Equally, it is also highlighted that a lack of knowledge of the objectives of an SSP has a negative effect on a partnership (Lamont, et al., 2011; Holt, et al., 2011; Department for Education, 2015; Chakravorty, 2016).

Conversly, Gordon (1984) holds the view that community policing expands the surveillance reach of the police and is an invasion of the state on communities. Yet, to set priorities that are important to communities, the police use an Intelligence-Led Policing (ILP) approach (Bullock, 2009) by being the 'face of engagement and communication' with communities (Casey, 2008; Home Office, 2010; Parfrement-Hopkins, et al., 2011). However, Sommerville (2009) proposes that communities lack trust in the police and will not share intelligence. Moreover, Schafer, et al. (2003) and Tilley (2008) argue that any intelligence gained in this context would be wrong because there are only a minority of community members

providing a small sample of views which are not always representative of the rest of the community.

In addition, relatively few studies examine the issue of partnership improvement empirically. In addition, Rowe (2013) suggests community policing provides a variety of outcomes to avoid criminalising people because it is the right thing to do (Sherman & Strang, 2007; Ministry of Justice, 2014) like the utilisation of restorative justice (Hopkins, 2004; Johnstone & Van Ness, 2007) and community resolution by the MPS. These methods are preferable to entry into the criminal justice system because labelling and stigmatising of community members (Becker, 2013) can be counterproductive.

Furthermore, research shows a lack of focus within partnerships where processes and final outcomes were not linked. Effective processes include good level of engagement with partners, good understanding of partnership objectives, trust, and clear lines of accountability. The outcome indicators were the service accessibility, the fairness of access, quality, efficiency, staff experience and health of end users (Dowling, et al., 2004; Smith, et al., 2009; Cameron, et al., 2013). Similarly, Connell, et al. (2008, pp. 144-145) found that those working in partnership need to develop a plan to include accountability, collaboration and problem-solving changes within their own organisations.

However, lack of quantitative studies linking partnership working to final outcomes and the complexity of evaluating the effectiveness of partnerships is the most striking gap in the evidence and is discussed within the broader literature (e.g. Dowling et al 2004). Sommerville (2009) suggests that allowing Problem Orientated Policing (POP) is vital to achieving effective community outcomes

(Meese, 1993; Casey, 2008; Newman, et al., 2010). The following section discusses the literature on training and evaluation in the context of SSPs.

Training and evaluation

Connell, et. al. (2008) suggests that the police benefit from engagement with schools because they can crime related identify issues (2008, p. 134), however, the Police Foundation (2011) raised concerns that the original remit of SSOs had been expanded to include an expectation that they identify indicators within young people of future bad behaviour (2011, p. 8). This is only possible with training in key areas of youth related subjects for police officers and school staff (Ofsted, 2013; Mayors Office for Policing And Crime, 2016; Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017; Sweeney, et al., 2017). Consequently, research shows that one key enabler of a successful partnership is joint training which allows each partner to understanding how they think and act within their roles and enable them to negotiate and influence (Mann, et al., 2004; Meaklim & Sims, 2011). However, assessing the impact is challenging, particularly in relation to evaluating and assessing the partnership (Bhabra, et al., 2004, p. 21). Moreover, Lamont, et al. (2011) found it difficult to measure the impact of police in schools in a quantitative way (2011, p. 25). Similarly, Fielding (1989) suggested preventative police work is effectively "invisible" because it is not measurable in the traditional sense. Furthermore, Chakravorty, et al. (Chakravorty, 2016) stated it is difficult to identify the 'ingredients' that make prevention initiatives so effective. Consequently, Drake, et al. (2014) noted the lack of intensive study into successful working practices to identify 'moments that matter'.

Likewise, several sources have suggested clarity is needed around goals and outcomes within a SSP, particularly when school staff and police work within very different working cultures with limited understanding of each other's roles (Lamont, et al., 2011; Holt, et al., 2011; Department for Education, 2015; Chakravorty, 2016). However, understanding of the roles should not be limited to school staff and the police, but also to the young people and parents who are also impacted by the outcomes produced by a SSP. The following section discusses the literature on ideals of responsibility.

Taking responsibility

Despite some improvement shown towards longer term goals of reducing demand within a SSP (Sweeney, et al., 2017), studies suggest that the responsibility should not only be with the police to deal with and solve issues at school, but also with parents and teachers (Newbury, 2008; Young People's Scrutiny Group and the Scrutiny Management Board, 2012; Department for Education, 2015; Fletcher, et al., 2015; Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017, p. 112). However, where schools lack the time or resources the effectiveness of the SSP is limited because a whole school approach is not utilised. In addition, McWhirter (2008, p. 8) suggests an SSP has further impact and defines the programme as a 'whole community approach'. Likewise, a review by the Department for Education (2015) and Chakravorty (2016) suggests that a SSP is more effective than a whole school approach because not only does the practice address issues within the school but also with parents and the wider school community. This wider police focus on engagement with C&YP outside of

schools is supported in the MOPAC Police and Crime Plan 2017-2021 (2017) and the MPS strategy (Sweeney, et al., 2017) within the VPC or as part of the Junior Citizen Scheme and addresses the concerns of school staff that a considerable amount of crimes happens outside of school (Bhabra, et al., 2004).

Furthermore, partnership working within the Multi-Agency Safeguarding Hub (MASH) and Youth Offending Teams is an important element. However, Bhabra Hill & Gate (2004) and Lamont, et al. (2011) suggests there is a lack of consistency and joined up working between SSOs and other colleagues because of the isolated nature of the role. However, this lack of integration may be rectified with the uplift in SSO numbers. Furthermore, good working practices are noted as important by mutual agreeance on SSP protocols (Bhabra, et al., 2004, p. 41) because priorities are often different for different organisations, agencies and the police (Maguire & John, 2006; Quinton & Morris, 2008). However, Sommerville (2009) argues that police take on too much resonsibility by developing solutions (West Yorkshire Police, 2015) and maintaining a ILP approach rather than a citizen-led approach (CLA) (Ericson & Haggerty, 1997) and could encourage a dependence on the police (Society, 1997), undermining the aims of a SSP. However, the following section explores the effect of fair treatment in the context of SSPs.

Procedural Justice

While procedural justice predominantly affects young people (Norman, 2009; Metropolitan Police Service, 2012; Mayor's Office for Police And Crime, 2016), unfair treatment by the police has an impact on police legitimacy for adults

(Benson, 1981; Wolfe, et al., 2017) and can therefore be applied to relationships within a SSP. However, procedural justice appears to be a more complex subject with experiences of police treatment also influencing those within an individual's contact network, through colleagues, family and friends, and more recently through social media (Clayman & Skinns, 2012; Leiber, et al., 1998; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Stewart, et al., 2014). Consequently, being treated fairly or unfairly by the police affects how trust is built up within a partnership. The following section explores how a lack of objectives within an SSP negatively affects the way in which a partnership works.

Developing inclusivity within Safer School Partnerships

It is a widely held finding within the literature that it is important the aims and objectives for a partnership are clarified and understood from the outset (Dowling, et al., 2004). Without this understanding Dickinson and Glasby (2010) observed failing partnerships and added that the aims and objectives were not the same as those the staff within the partnership sought to deliver. In addition, unrealistic expectations led to disappointment among partners as Hunter & Perkins (2012) and Haynes & Lynch (2013) suggest that partnerships develop more meaningfully and are more robust when partners have identified the need to work in partnership themselves, rather than agencies that are simply required to work together as a result of policy or legislation. Conversely, Dickinson & Glasby (2010) found that partnerships failed when they are established simply because others are doing it or there is an expectation of a partnership. Dittman (Dittman, 2003, p. 286) suggests that the best results can be achieved when everyone

involved in the partnership feels like they are part of the process. Hickman & Reaves (2001, p. 9) found that crime mapping helped identify common goals and enabled partners to work together and achieve long term solutions, however, this was specifically between regional data sharing partnerships who tend to work better because they look to solve specific crime problems. However, Huxham and Vangen (2000) identified the Theory of Collaborative Advantage where the objectives of an organisation can only be achieved by working with a partner. In comparison, some organisations see the formation of a partnership as the very last call (Dickinson & Glasby, 2010).

However, the literature shows two main approaches to partnership working. The methods led approach where pre-identified outcomes are analysed through statistics (Lamie & Ball, 2010; S, et al., 2012) and the theory led approach, where the processes of partnership working are examined against a theory of change where specific outcomes can be attributed to the partnership. SSPs adhere to the methods led approach, however, the theory led approach is challenging because it does not allow for the evolution of a partnership over time (Sullivan, et al., 2002; Slater, et al., 2007; Lester, et al., 2008).

In addition, Petch, et al. (2013) suggests that collating the views of the service users to improve services is challenging because they are often unaware of the partnership. Therefore, it is suggested that the SSP protocol should be reactive depending on the requirements of the school (Lamont, et al., 2011; Chakravorty, 2016, p. 35) because of common causes of conflict within a SSP, like the sharing of information between a school and the police (Bhabra, et al., 2004, p. 40). Accordingly, the MOPAC Police and Crime Plan states,

"In order to get the basics right, it is, in the first instance, essential that there are robust measures in place to identify those children and young people most at risk, and critical to this is better sharing of information" (Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017, p. 82).

There are also a multitude of attitudes and differing approaches towards community policing and partnership working (Bayley, 1990; Somerville, 2009) and while it continues to be an ambiguous area of policing, authorities agree that youth engagement in schools is a good idea (Somerville, 2009) however engagement with school staff in an SSP is often a neglected within the literature.

Where partnerships are structured in a variety of different ways, Whitehead (2007) found that local authority partners benefitted over other partners with hierarchical mechanisms in place. Thus, other partners felt more excluded and became less likely to engage in the partnership (McCreadie, et al., 2008; Lamie & Ball, 2010). In addition, partners were found to devolve specific tasks to agencies where the requirements were imposed centrally.

However, research also shows the distribution of power as the key factor underpinning effective partnership, thus, there is a need for a governance structure, good leadership and a way to manage performance (Kelman, et al., 2013). Most studies will recommend ways to improve a partnership and while there is a lack of research showing effective partnership practices, there are several studies detailing unsuccessful practices (Ellis, et al., 2007; O'Neill & McCarthy, 2012). However, it is recognised that good partnership working is the result of a complex relationship that includes cultural as well as structural factors and not just about processes (Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Williams, 2002).

Powell, et al. (2014) found that allowing a partnership to evolve is important as they observed a knock-on effect when given the time for trust to develop and as the partnership showed results. They also found that performance improved and an increase in information shared across partners.

Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature relevant to this study. There is a variety of literature on School Resource Officers (SRO) in the US and police forces across the world are looking at youth engagement as one of the ways to increase public confidence in policing, prevent crime, and consequently reduce the demand on the police in the future. School staff have wanted to improve relationships with the police as far back as the 1980's (Committee of Enquiry, 1989). There has also been consistent high-level support for SSPs within the UK Government and the MPS through times of austerity. However, despite there being literature on community-police partnerships, SSPs are an under-researched subject area within UK policing. Furthermore, there is a significant lack of research on the adult relationships within an SSP between the Police Officers and Schools Staff. It is also clear, like many community-oriented initiatives, the success of a police/community partnership depends on the willing involvement of each stakeholder. However, the motivations of the police officers who take on the role of the SSO, the motivations of the schools that enter in to an SSP and the factors that impact on their performance is poorly understood.

This research helps to start to address these gaps in knowledge and understanding. The following chapter sets out the methodology to be employed during this study.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

Scientific research must contribute to a body of science by following a scientific process, therefore it is a process of observation, rationalisation, and validation (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 20). This chapter aims to lay out the process from a general theoretical perspective to answer the research question devised from the conclusions of the literature review through inductive reasoning rather than deductive (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 4) due to very few prior researches in this area. The research utilises a variety of research approaches, including statistical analysis, qualitative and quantitative data, interviews and consideration of the use of surveys (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 6).

Firstly, it was important to establish what the police and school staff understand about Safer School Partnerships to compare against published guidance. Secondly, what are their perceptions and experience of their own partnership and what are the causal or significant factors to success or failings and does current guidance do anything to address this.

To critically examine the findings, further existing literature and guidance was examined to understand any changes and differences throughout the years. The main thrust of the thesis was to examine those positive and negative perceptions and experiences within existing partnerships. Understanding perceptions of SSOs within the police and perceptions of school staff that do not work in an SSP would also be useful in expanding the knowledge base within existing literature and would add depth to the research.

My experiences of being a police officer, spending three years in the role of SSO and seven years working in a central role with oversight of SSPs across London

convinced me that what is being done in SSPs varied drastically from school to school and borough to borough, and is highly inconsistent in terms of working practices. I have seen this in my career and am told about it regularly in my role when speaking to safer schools supervisors and SSOs. Therefore, the study explores these good working practices and how it could standardise SSPs for police and school staff. This chapter looks at how the intended research methodology was put in to practice, examining the design, research and analytical processes involved.

Researcher typology

Since the 1990's police research has become more popular and less focused on criticising areas of policing, and more about improving policing. Hence, more researchers within the police have emerged. According to Brown (1996), there are four categories of police researcher:

INSIDER INSIDERS	Police officers who also conduct research on behalf of the police. The research is usually directed by requirements of police management. Research tends to be limited (Brown, 1996, p. 181).
OUTSIDER INSIDERS	Former police officers who conduct research to provide insights into the workings of the police (Holdaway, 1982; Young, 1991; Brown, 1996, pp. 181-183; Holloway, 1997).
INSIDE OUTSIDERS	Qualified civilian researchers who work for the police and manage research departments or consultant researchers to research an area of policing (Brown, 1996, pp. 181-183).
OUTSIDER OUTSIDERS	Those based in universities or research organisations who usual secure funding to research areas of policing.

Fig. 1

Although I am a police officer, I am not carrying out this research on behalf of the police. The research will benefit policing and schools; however, I have chosen this area myself and am supported by the MPS because the research is relevant to my role. Although Weatheritt (1986) suggests a police researcher is a 'foregone conclusion' (1986, p. 19), I do not strictly fit Brown's definition of an 'insider insider'. I sit closer to the category of 'Outside insider' while I carry out interviews with other police officers. However, when I conduct the interviews with school staff, from a policing perspective I do not fit any of Brown's categories because I am a police officer, carrying out research with an outside organisation on an area of partnership policing which provides mutual benefits for the police and that organisation. Consequently, refer to myself as a 'Besider' researcher – a police officer conducting their own research to improve partnership working.

| BESIDER | A police officer conducting their own research to improve partnership working. |

Fig. 2

This type of research involves the partner agency or organisation as much as the police and is to benefit both parties. Conversely, Innes (Innes, 2010, p. 128) described four types of policing research; 'Research by the police'; 'Research on the police'; 'Research for the police'; and 'Research with the police'. In this case, I am conducting research on the police.

Qualitative or quantitative

Selecting a research method is key in the research process (Johnson, 2002, p. 105), however, Bhattacherjee (Bhattacherjee, 2012) suggests consideration

should be given to the nature of the question and the best way to study it before interpretive or positivist research is carried out (2012, p. 103). However, Leedy (1989, p. 17) suggested all research depends on the quantifying of substantial or insubstantial data to compare against existing research. Furthermore, in the context of this piece of research Bryman (2004, p. 23) suggested a qualitative research strategy should be employed if a researcher is interested in the views of a social group. The qualitative data is useful to social scientists who aim for detailed accounts of human behaviour and beliefs in context (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

Qualitative research is usually conducted on small scale studies to examine data derived from perspectives based on case studies from individuals or groups to explore complex meanings from the experiences of participants. Whereas, quantitative research collects and analyses numerical data, usually on a larger scale from samples across a wider geographical area (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

Mixed methods

It is common for the two approaches to be opposing methods as Giddens (1976) describes it as positivistic versus interpretive. However, Pawson and Tilley (1994) suggests social research often combines the two (1994) and Robson suggests researchers should not be restricted to one particular method or technique (Robson, 1993, p. 290). Therefore, a mixed methods approach is often taken to enable a variety of findings and add depth to quantitative research (Bullock, et al., 1995). Equally, Neuman (2000) suggested the benefit of seeing an issue from

different angles (2000, p. 124). Conversely, Payne (1997) believes utilising mixed methods 'fudges' the issues by mixing non-compatible data (1997, p. 108).

The mixed methods style of research was utilised to achieve the aim of the study, involving quantitative research using police data, quantitative and qualitative data from face-to-face interviews. Quantitative data will derive from existing data listing London schools, what schools SSOs are assigned with SSPs deemed successful or challenging. Quantitative data from interviews includes age, length of experience in poling or in education, ethnic appearance, and qualifications. The element of qualitative data extraction will be derived from open questions and assessed in the findings to identify patterns.

In taking a mixed method approach the study takes a non-purist standpoint allowing flexibility to vary design mechanisms and increase the chances of answering the question of the research. In contrast to compatibilist, using only qualitative data or quantitative methods in my research would fall short of the mainstream approaches being used in social sciences and the aim of this research would not be achieved (Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell & Creswell, 2013). Particularly against the rising popularity of Randomised controls trials in socials sciences (Deaton & Cartwright, 2018). Since the purpose of the research is to understand the subject of SSPs by identifying trends in the qualitative and quantitative data, Creswell (2003) proposes that the mixed method allows the researcher to explore complex details (Jenkins, 2014) as well as generalise data to a specific sample and therefore get the best from both methods. Likewise, Ivankova (Ivankova, 2015) suggests the mixed method will assist researchers capture more depth and refers to this method as a 'sequential Quan-Qual' design.

In the context of evidence-based policing, the study utilises the idea of systems thinking (Richmond, 1994) in the approach to develop a deep understanding of the underlying structure and workings of SSPs and learn lessons from prior experiences. By enabling reliable inferences from the attitudes, behaviour and opinions sought from Police officers and school staff we can *"see both the forest and the trees"* (Richmond, 1994) and contribute to continuous police improvement. Additionally, Senge (1990), and Sweeney and Sterman (2000) notes the intuitive factor of systems thinking by handling the complexity of a whole subject to dynamically assess and understand interrelationships rather than a snap shot of things.

In identifying several approaches to this research, Easterby-Smith, et al. (2012) identified two very useful approaches to reflect on; positivism and phenomenology. Positivism employs quantitative techniques and are reliable using logic and scientific methods. Conversely, phenomenology derives meaning from qualitative techniques. Thus, this study is conducted using the qualitative components of phenomenology and the quantitative components of positivism (Ary, et al., 2018) to understand the relationship between the police and school staff in a SSP, to improve the way that the youth based policing element of the organisation works (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Meyer, 2000; Reason & Bradbury, 2008; Koshy, et al., 2010). Radnor (2001) supports phenomenological approaches whereby researches attempt to understand meaning from participant experiences. This study seeks to achieve a depth in understanding from participants experiences. However, it is worth noting that mixed methods do not have to equate to action research.

Action Research

This form of research is known by Eden (1996) as 'action research'. Action research was developed in the 1940's due to a lack of collaboration between researchers and practitioners (Lewin, 1946). At the time, practitioners and researchers produced inconsistent results because practitioners would carry out actions that were uninformed and researchers would develop theories that were not implemented (Dickens & Watkins, 1999). Action research is similar to General System Theory because it views the world holistically (Greenwood & Levin, 2006) and has become more popular within policing with a police focus on evidence-based policing and the growing number of practitioners involved in research who Sherman (2013) referred to as 'pracademics'. Moreover, Pedler and Trehan (2008) state that action research addresses real-world problems where traditional approaches might not. These methods also feedback to the researcher in real-time as the research is being conducted. This is useful to organisations that cannot wait several years for findings.

Thus, through developing systematic and self-reflective enquiry, knowledge can advance to influence change and improve practices (Dickens & Watkins, 1999, p. 128; Cassell & Johnson, 2006). Thus, this research will enable practitioners to have their voice heard through face-to-face interviews utilising the democratic principles based in the philosophy of action research (McNiff, 2010).

Nevertheless, the action research paradigm has been criticised by positivist scientists in the past (Susman & Evered, 1978; Argyris, 1980; Stone, 1982; Eden, 1996; Dickens & Watkins, 1999; Coughlan & Coghlan, 2002) who also believe that action research is not mainstream in social science and is not compatible

with scientific standards due to its multi-disciplinary nature (Sandford, 1970; Susman & Evered, 1978; Argyris, 1980; Stone, 1982; Cassell & Johnson, 2006). Furthermore, Coughlan & Coghlan (2002, p. 223) suggest that a researcher must act in a neutral way and remain detached when collecting data derived from the natural sciences. They also describe the differentiation between action research and positivist science,

> *"The aim of positivist science is the creation of universal knowledge, while AR focuses on knowledge in action."* (Coughlan & Coghlan, 2002, p. 223).

This comparison is important because they argue that action research is subjective because the researcher is already immersed in the subject and their findings are not validated by logic. Consequently, McKay & Marshall (2001) considered an action researcher to tend to be bias and lack objectivity (Avison & Wood-Harper, 1991). However, Steier, et al., (2015) describe action research as the 'culture of enquiry' that requires good report building to get the most from it (2015, p. 211).

Moreover, Coughlan & Coghlan (2002, p. 223) suggest the use of an actor to remain detached and unbiased, however, Cassell & Johnson (2006) consider the use of an actor inappropriate and prohibited (Susman & Evered, 1978; Argyris, 1980; Stone, 1982). Accordingly, Ivankova (2015) suggests 'bracketing' is essential for researchers to purposefully assess the reliability of their data by reflecting on developing themes. Remaining responsive is a key feature of a researcher's role (Herr & Anderson, 2005). Moreover, what is known as the 'between method' or 'triangulation' can be used to neutralise any bias intrinsic in the researcher or data sources by drawing on qualitative and quantitative data

and the use of various methods (Jick, 1979; Ary, et al., 2018). I will discuss more about designing out bias's later in this chapter.

Rapprochement

What is more, this study utilises a process known as rapprochement (Ary, et al., 2018) whereby one method is used as the groundwork for another (Hammersley, 1992). This study will use the findings from phase one to determine the sample and then the findings from phase two will be used to inform an online survey in phase three. This is also referred to as sequential triangulation by Greene, et al. (1989). Moreover, Gay and Airasian (2009) suggest that the use of multiple methods to collect data should deliver more robust evidence and triangulation is useful to corroborate data collected during the different phases. In addition, the literature suggests more data may be detected (Denzin, 2009) using triangulation through the mix of different research methods.

In this study, the mix of document data collection, semi-structure interviews and online survey will provide insights to assess the reality of policing against the rhetoric of policing (Crawford & Evans, 2017). Web & Web (1932, p. 130) described the interview as 'a conversation with purpose' and Guba and Lincoln (1981, p. 154) suggest that interviews are the backbone of research and evaluation. Similarly, Yin (2003) states that in terms of case studies, interviews are essential.

What is more, Noaks & Wincup (2004) expand on the qualities of the interview to allow probing of the participant by discussing complex questions, explore all factors that underpin a participant's response and allow response's to be clarified.

Thus, it is a method favoured by qualitative researchers and important in this study.

Plan of action

Planning is thought to be the most crucial stage of any research (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 20). Consequently, I approached this research largely as a strategic practitioner, a 'besider' who wants to improve current working practices within SSPs. When I commenced the planning stage, I was the MPS subject matter expert (SME) / tactical policy advisor (TPA) on SSPs with oversight on working practices across London and within the MPS. Being in this role gave me the much-needed access to relevant materials and the Safer School teams across London.

I also wanted to keep it as simple as possible, therefore, the following is the planned five phases of the research.

Phase 1: Collection of existing police data.

Anonomised use of existing police records relating to Safer School Partnerships.

Phase 2: Semi-structured interviews with a sample of 7 Safer Schools Officers and 6 Safer Schools supervisors (3 Sergeants and 3 Inspectors).

Semi-structured interviews with a sample of 7 Head teachers and/or school single point of contact.

Phase 3: Online survey.

Phase 4: Analysis of the data

Fig. 3

Initially, my primary concern was to create a practical guide to SSPs, as opposed to concentrating on a pure research thesis. I was aware that my long-term involvement in SSPs from a ground level practitioner to the strategic advisor comes with advantages and disadvantages and could mean that a set of pre-emptive assumptions are made (Denscombe, 2003, p. 3), therefore I deliberately treated my research as I would in any criminal investigation with an open mind and keenness to learn something new and explore other points of view. This helped in ensuring interviews remained focused on the partnership between the schools and the police rather than the outcomes of the engagement with young people. I found the Police Constables specifically wanted to talk about their work with the young people. My focus also helped me when identifying the themes and

picking out relevant points that participants made and maintain focus on aims of the research.

I already had privileged access to existing police data, although I did request and was granted access for the purposes of this study. This included a spreadsheet that showed the schools that are in an SSP and those which are not. This was useful for planning who I might want to interview in phase two. This is discussed in more detail in 'Phase one: Collection of existing data'. The phases followed logically during the planning, although the practicalities of that are now discussed in more detail.

There was no justification to use the popular experimental design where two groups are used, with one group being exposed to an independent variable (Robson, 1989) or given preferential treatment (Vito et. al. 2007, p12).

It was also important to hear from a wide range of people involved in SSPs to analyse different experiences, therefore the examination of a small number of case studies was ruled out.

Research schedule overview

Following the literature review I created a simple research schedule to assist me to remain focused. I envisioned completing the fourteen police officer interviews and seven school staff interviews within a four-month period. I decided that August through September would be acceptable for police and from October would be good for schools' staff, considering the busy September period.

2018					2019						
AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL
Police officer interviews		School staff interviews		Online survey			Research analysis				

Fig. 4

Several factors prevented me from progressing as quickly as I would have liked. Firstly, I have two young children at home so I am restricted when it comes to my availability to go in to London outside of my working hours. It was also difficult to schedule interviews around my work calendar in conjunction with the participant. Thus, my schedule became extended. I quickly realised that I should have booked interviews with the school staff at the same time I was arranging interviews with police officers. In addition, I underestimated the length of time it would take to transcribe the interviews and pull out the themes during analysis. However, I believe I could have remained on schedule by arranging school staff interviews earlier and this would have given me more time to complete the analysis. The following is my actual schedule.

2018					2019						
AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL->
Police officer and School staff interviews									Research analysis		

Fig. 5

The following sub-chapters explore the phases of my research in more detail.

Phase One: Collection of existing police data

Phase one involved the quantitative collection of police data related to SSPs. The following were investigated:

Number of SSOs

The number of SSOs in the MPS was collated from MPS workforce data. I initially planned to break down the data by gender, age, ethnicity and length of service. However, workforce data outputs do not include this data. Therefore, this data was only obtained from the participant's questionnaire in phases two and three.

During the research the MPS implemented a large-scale change to its operating model. I was in the privileged position to be part of the planning of that for youth policing under the Neighbourhood strand. This included the creation of 600 police officer posts for officers working with young people across London. During the research the number of SSOs in post increased from 294 in 2017 to 353 in 2019. Consequently, police officers' attitudes have been in a state of instability while the changes are implemented. Before I began this research, I had not considered what effect this would have on the research or what impact it would have on the relationships between the schools and the police during this time. Therefore, it became a minor talking point which is explored in the findings.

Number of Safer Schools supervisors

The number of Safer Schools supervisors (Sergeants and Inspectors) in the MPS was collated from MPS workforce data. The Police Sergeants are dedicated to

the role of Safer Schools supervisor. However, there are inconsistencies across the policing areas in how many policing portfolios an Inspector holds for a specific area. I considered this may have an impact on how much involvement the Inspector would have with the Safer Schools teams and consequently their understanding of SSPs.

The number of schools in London broken down by school type.

I had access to a full list of London schools broken down by type. The list was collated from EduBase2 (Department for Education, 2019) and included all secondary schools (including Pupil referral Units), colleges, and universities - The main types of schools SSOs have responsibility for in London. The list enabled me to analyse the police officers and school staff that volunteered to participate to certify they were from a range of school types to ensure the research remained as diverse as possible.

The number of SSPs.

From the data, there are 1010 secondary schools, 47 of those are Pupil Referral Units and there are an additional 59 further and higher education premises.

621 of the 1010 secondary schools in London have entered in to an SSP. An additional ten further education premises are in an SSP and a further 69 schools have a named police contact. That leaves 383 secondary schools and 49 further education premises with potentially no contact with the police. However, data from the schools grading spreadsheet shows that there is some form of

relationship between the police and 734 schools and further and higher education premises. 36 schools declined engagement with the police and 313 schools had not been offered a named police contact. That is not to say they do not have contact with Safer Neighbourhood officers. I did not contact each school to understand which of these schools did have police contact due to time constraints. It is helpful to know these numbers to understand the reality of policing across London. I was able to break down the number of SSPs per SSO in 2018 when there was 311 SSOs. The data revealed 97 SSOs were dedicated to one school. However, 171 SSOs had responsibility for up to five schools and 30 SSOs had responsibility for more than 5 schools.

Schools grading spreadsheet

The volume of guidance that is available to SSOs in the MPS is vast. There is a four-day youth officer course with an SSP module lasting one day, an SSP handbook, SSP protocol, SSP Data Sharing Agreement and a numerous other guidance documents relevant to SSOs.

I created a list of current schools in London and sent it to the safer school's supervisors asking them to grade their relationships with each school. The list is now utilised by the central Youth Strategy, Engagement and Schools team to understand the partnership dynamics in each area, to improve training and provide support where necessary. This data uses the following descriptors:

- **Excellent** - The police and school work well together. No issues.
- **Good** - It is a good partnership. There are some issues.
- **Challenging** - It is a difficult partnership.

- **Declined** - The school refuses to engage with police.

I utilised this data to ensure I did not simply interview those police officers and school staff where the relationship was considered good or excellent. However, I did not receive a response from schools who had declined to engage with the police when I reached out to them. I also asked HTs from schools who have a good or excellent relationship to encourage those other schools to get involved in the research.

The list contained 1083 schools, colleges and universities. It reveals there are 631 Safer School Partnerships with a further 69 schools with a named contact. The following is a breakdown of the rating data:

Data: Police relationship rating with 1083 secondary schools				
Excellent	Good	Challenging	Declined	Not offered
285	399	50	36	313

Fig. 6

Four schools rated excellent are not in an SSP, however they do have a named officer. While eleven schools rated excellent are not in an SSP and do not have a named officer.

58 schools rated good are not in an SSP, however they do have a named officer. While 24 schools rated good are not in an SSP and do not have a named officer.

Three schools rated challenging are not in an SSP, however they do have a named officer. While three schools rated challenging are not in an SSP and do

not have a named officer. Four schools that declined an SSP have a named officer. While 32 do not.

Those schools that have a rating between good and declined but are show not to be in an SSP or have a named police officer raised questions about the accuracy of the data. There are also 313 schools that have no rating at all. All of those have not SSP and no named officer.

Although the data collected in phase one is quantitative, it is noted that the anonymised grading derives from the opinion of the police supervisors using their judgement and experience.

Ethics

Canterbury Christ Church University (2014) have outlined the mandatory ethical principles for students in which researchers must protect participants rights and general well-being (CCCU, 2014, p. 2). Informed consent was obtained via a consent form that included all the details of the research. Additionally, all the participants were volunteers (Denscombe 2007, p145). It is also important that no harm comes to participants (Bryman, 2004, p. 509), including physical harm, harm to mental health and harm to development. There was no risk to physical harm in this study, however there was the potential of harm should a disclosure be made regarding breaches of the law, professional standards or the police Code of Ethics. To minimise the possibility of harm in terms of stress participants were provided with the individuals information sheet (Appendix 5(a)) and the universities ethics guide (CCCU, 2014) in advance of the interview via email.

They were also provided with the information on the day of the interview and asked if they had any questions (Grey, 2009, p. 387).

Furthermore, care was taken to ensure the identities of the participants were not revealed (Bryman, 2004, p. 510). The research does not specify participant names or work locations. Any other information that could lead to the identification of a participant was omitted. The proposed methodology and ethics checklist were submitted to the Canterbury Christ Church University ethics panel and approval was granted.

Resnick (2011) describes ethics as the normality of conduct that recognises the difference between behaviour that is acceptable and unacceptable. Ethics in the context of research is to ensure research is carried out in a legitimate manner (British Psychological Society's, 2010). Equally, Sieber (1993) describes ethics in research,

> *"the application of a system of moral principles to prevent harming or wrong-doing others, to promote the good, to be respectful, and to be fair."* (Sieber 1993, p. 14).

This is achieved through an effective methodology (Resnick, 2011) which consequently helped to push the research along to phase four. The following section discusses phase four and analysis of the data.

<u>Sampling strategy</u>

How samples were chosen

This chapter looks at the strategy employed in choosing samples. As I am an SME/TPA in the subject of SSPs I was conscious of the privileged position that Lofland and Lofland (1995) promotes in terms of access to the group I wish to sample. The sampling required current schools' staff, police inspectors with responsibility for SSP, Safer School Sergeants and SSOs. I gained authority for access to conduct the study from my line manager.

I initially decided that police and school staff participants would be chosen using the existing data I collated, balancing those police officers with good and excellent relationships with schools against those with challenging relationships and avoid sampling bias (Bhattacherjee, 2012). I also factored in those schools that declined police engagement when choosing school staff participants. I would recruit participants via phone call and email and use existing police connections to ensure a better chance of access. I decided I would carry out semi-structured interviews with three Safer Schools Police Sergeants (9.38%), three Police Inspectors with responsibility for SSPs (25%), seven SSOs (1.98%) and seven HTs/School SLT or SPOC. Initially, I decided all the police data was available, to base the choice of participant on gender, age, ethnicity, and the police supervisor grading for London Schools, ensuring at least one of each grading in phase one was utilised. However, all the data was not available to inform the choice.

Therefore, having been given corporate access, I contacted all 32 Safer Schools Sergeants towards the end of August 2018. There was no need to introduce myself because I have regular contact with them anyway. I asked if anyone was interested in assisting with the study. It was at that point I decided that I would

also put the request out to all the SSOs with the hope of receiving a high level of interest. I wanted to guarantee a willingness to participate and ensure a diverse range of SSOs could be chosen in terms using officers from a variety of boroughs, and as Johnson (2002, p. 110) suggests, I was aware that respondents vary in terms of backgrounds, policing experience, and experience of working with schools. I attached the information sheet (Appendix 5(a)) and consent form (Appendix 5(b)), to which I received several replies.

The information sheet introduced the research aims, background, what the requirements were, procedures regarding the interviews including the interview recordings will be transcribed, how I will provide feedback of the findings to them and others within the police, confidentiality and assurances of anonymity, dissemination of results, and my contact details should they wish to participate or have further questions. I did not include my rank in the information sheet to maintain a level of impartiality and to alleviate any potential power relations that can occur due to my role in a central team and in qualitative research (Johnson, 2002; Mason, 2018). I already had a professional relationship with all the Police Sergeants and SSO participants for several years, for which Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Erlandson et.al. (1993) recommend 'prolonged engagement' to establish trust between researcher and participants. I was not concerned about the boroughs the samples worked on, only that they were from different areas.

Furthermore, it is important the number of people in the sample is balanced against practicalities in terms of time constraints to be able to complete the research. However, I did interview an additional police sergeant because I felt I was gaining so much from the perspective of the Police Sergeant participants as I interviewed them.

The participants were selected through purposive sampling, also known as deliberate or non-probability sampling, which will allow a more relevant and diverse cross section of those who have a role within SSPs. These include, Police Constables, Police Sergeants, Police Inspectors, HTs and school staff (senior leaders within the school with direct involvement in the SSP).

The sample of police officers can be called convenience sampling because I have chosen to interview a set number of participants and I have easy access to. However, I also utilised judgement sampling where there were more volunteers than I needed.

Consideration was given to random and systematic sampling, however, in this research those sampling designs would not target as diverse a sample.

It is also noted that there may be specific considerations to address, for example, the ability of a participant to portray personal insights and the participant's mood is variable.

Sample breakdown

- PC - Safer Schools Officer: 7
- PS - Safer Schools Supervisor: 4
- Insp - Partnership: 3
- Head Teachers/School staff: 7
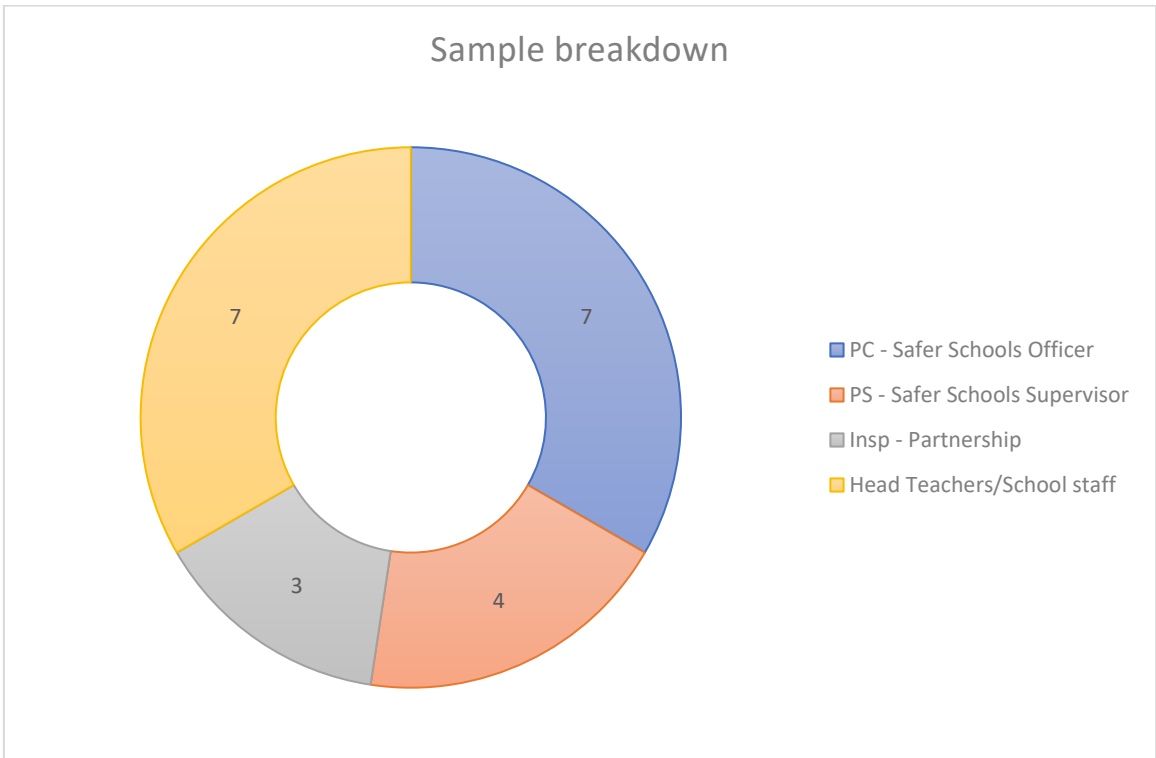
Fig. 7

Samples for Police Constables

Samples for the phase two semi-structured interviews are derived from the list of SSOs that volunteered to take part from across London. Ultimately, I chose seven Police Constables from a range of boroughs with varying levels of experience. I also checked the police schools grading spreadsheet against the school the officer had responsibility for. They ranged from challenging to excellent.

The seven SSOs interviewed were made up of four males and three females with an average age of 35 and average policing experience of eleven years. They had the largest spread of qualifications across the policing ranks from GCSEs to Post-graduate qualifications and they were the most diverse in terms of ethnicity. I

have included these personal statistics as they could be relevant when drawing conclusions and looking for patterns.

Collectively, the seven PC's interviewed had responsibility for 22 schools, made up of one Special Educational Needs, five Pupil Referral Units and sixteen secondary schools. They had responsibility for between one and five schools each. All the participants worked with schools that were officially in an SSP and schools that were not.

Samples for Police Sergeants

The four Police Sergeants were chosen from those that volunteered to be interviewed. They were made up of two males and two females with an average age of 40 and average policing experience of 23.5 years. They each carried a different level of qualifications from O-Levels to Bachelor's Degree and there were three with a self-defined ethnicity of white-British and one of Indian-British. I have included these personal statistics as they could be relevant when drawing conclusions and looking for patterns. Collectively, the four Sergeant participants had supervisory responsibility for an average of 10.5 SSOs each, ranging from eight-twelve PCs each.

Samples for Police Inspectors

Having existing knowledge of how the Inspectors worked I asked several Inspectors that had a variety of responsibilities in their role to get more data from the interviews. The three Inspectors interviewed were made up of two males and

one female with an average age of 41 and average policing experience of 20.5 years. The male Inspectors carried a diploma of higher education and the female Inspector held a post-graduate qualification. All three described themselves as white-British. I included these personal statistics as they could be relevant when drawing conclusions and looking for patterns. Collectively, the three Inspector participants had responsibility for between two-five Police Sergeants and between 15-41 SSOs.

Samples for HTs and school single point of contact.

I contacted several HTs that I had been in contact with previously and asked the police Sergeants to scope if there were any participants who work directly with SSOs who would volunteer for a semi-structured interview. Their role could be the HT, the school SPOC for the SSP or any other member of the school Senior Leadership Team. Consideration for the choice of participant was initially based on the following factors:

- The participant is the counterpart for a SSO interviewed in phase two.
- The SSP is considered good or excellent.
- The SSP is considered challenging.
- The HT has declined engagement with the police.

As school staff participants volunteered instead of being selected, the seven were made up of five HTs, one Director and one Safeguarding Lead. There were four males and three females with an average age of 46 and average working experience in the education sector of 30 years. They had the highest average

qualification of all the participants with six having post-graduate qualifications and one with a Bachelor's Degree.

Sample motivations

I considered offering a reward for each participant to motivate people to take part, however as enough participants volunteered themselves, I believe they were already motivated and did not need a reward. I also believe their motivation stems from wanting to contribute to an important piece of research to them.

Phase Two: The Interviews

The type of interview

Gilbert (2001) describes three main types of interview; the structured interview where the questions and the order, is the same in each interview. This was not considered appropriate for this study. The second type is the unstructured interview, where topics are discussed in any order that is fitting. They are like conversations (Burgess, 1984). This type of interview was also not appropriate for this study. The final type is the semi- structured interview (Miller & Glassner 1997, p. 100). This type is most common for social science researchers (Alsaawi, 2014, p. 150), where the questions are the same each time, however, the interviewer can change their order and ask for more information (Miller & Glassner 1997, p. 124; Grey 2009, p. 373) and the participant can respond to the questions however they see fit (Bryman, 2004, p. 321). The semi-structured format was chosen for this study so that responses could be explored to prompt

thoughtful and critical responses. This is important in this phase of data collection to avoid manipulation or deviation of results and to appreciate multiple realities in a naturalistic way (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1988; Fraenkel, et al., 2014). Silverman (1997) criticises qualitative research because it is too inaccurate to be taken seriously. However, the semi-structured interview goes some way to satisfy methodological Silverman suggests research needs (1997, p. 249), therefore this study uses this type of interview. The following section discusses the design process of the questionnaire for the interviews.

Designing the questionnaire

Since police officers and school staff from a variety of roles were to be interviewed, it was important to create bespoke questionnaires for each role, however, the questions were carefully ordered to ensure each questionnaire contained very similar questions, in some cases simply replacing a few words. This was done to allow easy comparison of the answers across all roles during analysis. Initially, the questionnaire was designed in keeping with Warren's (2002) advice on designing qualitative interview questions of between ten-twelve, however, six questions were solely about the various roles within an SSP therefore the number of questions reached fifteen. However, the questions were designed to allow the conversation to flow and at the end of each interview, participants were asked if they had any further comments.

The first questions were a set of closed validity questions to obtain data such as gender, ages, ethnicity, etc. Closed questions are beneficial in that they are easy to answer for participants and easy to analyse from a quantitative perspective

which helps to stick to timescales. However, most of my questions were open. I was fully aware that analysis of the answers would take more time, however, I wanted to get as much as I could from participants about their experiences and views. The order of the questions was a major consideration so the interviews could flow. Hence, I covered the validity questions first to understand the very basics about the participant, the questions about their role, then questions to look at their understanding of their role and others, before questions exploring barriers and challenges for them. From my own experience of schools policing I knew that having the right person in the role of SSO was important so I asked what they think are good attributes of an SSO. In addition, when I completed my research for my BSc (Hons) in Policing I found there was a lack of SSP evaluation therefore I asked participants how they evaluate their SSPs, before asking why they chose the role of SSO. I felt I would receive some very interesting answers to get to the bottom of my aims for this thesis. Since the interviews were face to face, any clarification needed by participants could be answered immediately.

In total, twenty-one interviews were conducted as described within the sampling strategy. With a moderate number of interviews to arrange, Warren (2002, p. 90) suggested it is problematic to make an interview happen, however, respondents to this study showed up as scheduled because the interviews were arranged at a location and time convenient to them. It was important that participants were in their own environment so they would be more comfortable (Taylor & Bogden, 1998).

In total, 18 police responses were received before I sent another email thanking everyone for their interest but no longer able to accept participants for the study. I also emailed the participants to arrange a date and time to be interviewed.

However, due to my busy work schedule, police interviews were arranged from September to April 2019.

Permission was granted to allow me access to the police officers by my line manager. There were no limitations because my research is relevant to my role.

Considerations required for a successful interview

Moser and Kalton (1971) suggested there are three conditions for a successful interview (1971, p. 244). The participants must be given the correct information, participants must understand what is required from them and participants must be motivated to provide accurate answers and avoid social desirability bias (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Therefore, I decided that I was going to travel to a location suitable for the participant where they can feel most comfortable. I did this for all my interviews and it appeared to work well.

Initially, I considered conducting the interviews with SSOs and school staff from the same SSP to gain an insight from both perspectives on the same partnership. However, as there was a risk each party may not provide wholly honest answers if they knew and there was no way to prevent each party from knowing. I will discuss this in more detail in the following chapters. Thus, during any interviews I will ensure I fully explain the purpose of the research and that their feedback will remain anonymous and not be discussed with their partner on the consent form. The potential for disclosures is also be covered on the consent form.

The questionnaires I devised contain open questions. I did this deliberately to get as much natural conversation as possible. Additionally, I believe there is the

possibility of interviews becoming robotic or restrictive if I used a full set of questions that did not allow deviation. I wanted to break the interviews up in to themes with several key prompts to allow a free flow response. However, I realised that I needed to be a little more specific to ensure the conversations did not veer from the aim of this thesis.

Additionally, the location and time of the interview must be considered to prevent possible interruptions or distractions so that the interview can flow (Taylor and Brogden 1998, p99). In addition, recording the interviews in writing was considered, however, Bucher et al. (1956) suggested up to one half of the total material is lost using this method therefore the interviews were recorded for playback later for analysis. Taylor and Brogden (1998) recommended minimising the presence of the tape recorder (1998, p. 112), however, I used my mobile phones voice recorder and I believe the presence of a mobile phone is now a normal every day event that had a minimal effect on the participants.

Furthermore, wherever possible I wanted the participant to direct the conversation. The following questions were considered; however, they were not used because they had the potential to lead the participants to support the conclusions of my literature review and the questions may be too vague.

1. Do you have shared goals in relation to the Safer School Partnership?
2. What are the school's responsibilities in the Safer School Partnership?
3. What works well in Safer School Partnerships?

Once the questions were written, the questionnaire was piloted. The following section discusses the process.

Piloting the questionnaire and processes

To facilitate the development of the semi-structured interview questions, I engaged in informal learning conversations with current police practitioners working in a youth-based role within SSPs and Volunteer Police Cadets. The objective of the conversations was to identify any issues with the research questions and to learn from the perspective of subject matter experts and officers with experience working with schools to further develop the questions. The questionnaires were tested on two colleagues with experience of schools policing. The test was informal and I allowed my colleagues to read through the questions for their initial feedback before asking reading through the questions to ensure the interviews would flow. I briefed my colleagues on my research, why I was asking them to read through the questionnaires, what was expected from them and that it would be done anonymously. I also ensured appropriate interview conditions were applied which included providing them with a participant information sheet and consent form. I felt the opinion of only two colleagues was appropriate in this case because I already knew what I wanted from the questionnaires so testing was more about the structure and flow of the questions. Consequently, I was able to create a final version of questions utilising their feedback.

Transcribing the interviews

I recorded all the interviews using the voice recorder on my mobile phone and then began the process of verbatim transcription. The transcription of a one-hour long interview took me four to five hours to complete. I am inexperienced and so

professional support would have been ideal. However, I discovered a mobile phone application called 'Otter' that converts digital recordings into written words. Although, the automated transcription is not perfect, it speeded up the transcription process for me significantly, cutting my time in half. I also found myself adding further detail to highlight pauses for thought or indicate 'sighs. I am glad that I transcribed the interviews myself as hearing the tone of voice with its variations of speed, character and volume reminded me of the participant and the environment we were in, as well as body movements and facial expressions, therefore I experienced an important intimacy with the texts as I analysed and worked through the research process.

Phase Three: Why the Survey was not used

The survey is another form of interview, where it is possible to gain a large number of self-completed questionnaires that follow a standard format. A survey can be sent through the post or online, participants can complete a survey at their own convenience, it is relatively easy to produce, it is cheap with Google Forms being free to use, and analysis is easier. However, there is the potential for a low number of completions potentially leading to non-response bias (Bhattacherjee, 2012), and participants can provide inconsistent amounts of detail with some being illegible (Gilbert 2001, p. 87). Initially, the plan was to conduct survey interviews using the interview data to inform the development of an online survey following the face-to-face interviews so that the questions would be focussed on the critical issues of the study and enhance the results (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005). However, it was deemed inappropriate for purposes of this study, although a test

survey was sent out, results were too varied to produce good analysis, therefore the survey was not progressed.

<u>Phase Four: Analysing the data</u>

In addition to the implementation of the four-day Youth officer training course, before my findings had been completely realised, the interviews I conducted as part of this research helped me understand the role in more depth in the current context of policing and the practicalities of the role. Consequently, that new knowledge has influenced policy and guidance I have written as part of my role in the MPS.

The following chapters bring together the themes that emerged from the data analysis. This research has not been conducted before so my main purpose has been to remain objective and as open minded as possible to the answers provided by the participants to learn about the efficacy of those with the Safer School Partnerships (SSPs) from an experiential standpoint. Their evidence is crucial in finding an answer to my research question. Discovering common best practices will enable me to produce a practical product that the police and schools can use to start an SSP on the right foot or improve an existing SSP.

In discussing my findings, where I refer to a specific view or opinion by one of the participants, I have included a quotation to illustrate the point. Where several participants provided the same view or opinion, I differentiate between participant roles by referring to them in the following way as I believe it is relevant to recognise varying perspectives between the different roles.

Participant Role	Subject
Police Inspector	Insp1/2/3
Police Sergeant	PS1/2/3/4/5/6/7
Safer Schools Officer (*Police Constable*)	PC1/2/3/4/5/6/7
School Staff	S1/2/3/4/5/6/7

Fig. 8

Designing out bias's

I am aware that being so close to the subject matter in terms of experience and my current role carries the potential for bias's in its different forms. I have already explored the relevant bias's within 'Action Research', 'Sampling strategy', 'Considerations required for a successful interview' and 'Phase three'. However, it is also important to consider bias's related to me and my connection to the subject matter. McKay & Marshall (2001) suggest an action researcher tends to be bias, therefore it is important to address any potential bias's in the planning stages of the study, particularly during analysis of the quantitative data and ensure I am detached and act in a neutral way (Coughlan & Coghlan, 2002, p. 223). However, if my research is to be a 'culture of enquiry' (Steier, et al., 2015, p. 211) then building good report with samples is essential. This includes being responsive (Herr & Anderson, 2005) which will allow me to get the most from the

samples to build a full picture of emerging themes (Ivankova, 2015) to identify good practice.

Consequently, to avoid confirmation bias, 'good practice' is not decided by me as the researcher. It is identified objectively by analysing responses to methodically find common themes. Therefore, I am not able to choose practices that conform to my own working model of what a good SSP looks like. For example, if all interviewees discuss the same practice and classify it as 'good', then the critical thinker may determine the practice 'good' with a reasonable amount of certainty, provided there is no competing data (Koriat, Lichtenstein, & Fischhoff, 1980). Moreover, if one interviewee describes a particular practice as 'good' and another describes the same practice as 'bad', further questions would need to be asked to conclude if it is 'good' or 'bad' and in what circumstances. Conversely, if one interviewee describes 'good practice' and the others do not describe it at all, that would also need further consideration. Just because it has been mentioned by only one interviewee does not invalidate their opinion.

Greenwald et al. (1986) suggest that confirmation bias is inescapable, particularly when researchers become 'ego-involved' to actively pursue support for variations in data (p.575) and sometimes ignore facts. However, remaining detached and sceptical will ensure this does not happen in this study. Furthermore, I will not complete the transcription and analysis of the interviews immediately so that I give myself time to reflect on the interviews, alleviate any emotional connection I may have had and give me a chance to listen to the interviews with a fresh mindset.

Dissemination of findings

The research findings are to be disseminated as widely as possible. They will assist in changing policy within the MPS, with the hope of influencing national policy. Therefore, consideration was given to formulating dissemination goals and how they will be achieved. I am already in the right policing role to dissemination the findings across London and have the right contacts to affect national policies, however, I also intend on publishing several journal articles, creating a website and presenting at conferences. I am aware how much time it can take to publish, however, the time it takes will be worth it to contribute to an area of policing already lacking in research.

Furthermore, all schools assisting with the thesis and those who have specifically requested it will receive the full findings.

Chapter 4: Working within a Safer School Partnership (SSP)

This chapter is presented in four parts to consider the discrepancies between SSP policy and guidance, and what school staff and police officers think. The study found the majority of participants had an in-depth understanding of their own particular partnerships, but lacked an overall understanding of SSPs due to inconsistent practices within each SSP.

Part one examines participants understanding of the key roles within an SSP, including their own, and finds a lack of understanding due to a lack of clarity of the roles within past literature and current guidance.

Part two discusses the importance of defining the purpose and goals of an SSP and finds a lack of purpose and inconsistency in setting goals due to the numerous ideas of what an SSP is and what the roles and responsibilities are across school staff and police officers.

Part three explores participants thoughts on the important attributes of an SSO and finds an SSO to be a type of 'new-age' police officer with attributes often associated with 'soft policing'. Consequently, it is important that the 'right sort of person' with the right attributes is deployed into the role of SSO.

Part four highlights the inconsistencies in working practices, from the varied number of schools an SSO has responsibility for, to how much time an SSO spends in a particular school. It finds that while HTs sympathise with the changing priorities of the police, there is a disconnect between the realities of policing in schools and decision makers interests in the police which limits the effectiveness of SSPs. The chapter concludes with consideration of improvements.

Understanding the roles within an SSP

Analysis of the interview data brought about wider strategic findings regarding the understanding of the roles within an SSP and the expectations placed upon those within those roles. When discussing what works well in an SSP, Insp2 stated,

"An SSP works well when everyone knows what their roles is".

Similarly, the joint agency Safer School Partnership guidance (2009) recommended,

"each partner is clear about their role and responsibilities" (Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009, pp. 26, 28)

In addition, the same guidance (2009) recommends the creation of a work plan to describe the roles and how to achieve the outcomes of the SSP (Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009, p. 29). However, there is no national framework or national guide that explicitly describes the roles, responsibilities or what the outcomes of an SSP should be.

The four main UK SSP guides published since 2005 all recommend a flexible and bespoke approach to working in a SSP, while remaining ambiguous about the specific roles each party has to play (Bowles, et al., 2005; Department for Education and Skills, 2006; Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009; The Police Foundation, 2011). Conversely, a California paper on defining the role of a school-based police officer (The Police Foundation, 2016) lays out the

foundations of the roles within a partnership, however, as the paper is based on practices in California it contains fundamental differences between the US and UK partnerships; SSOs in the UK do not serve as hall monitors or crossing guards (The Police Foundation, 2016, p. 4). Similarly, Bowles, et al. (2005) found the most prevalent activity of a SSO was patrolling the school corridor (Bowles, et al., 2005, p. 59), however, that has changed in the fourteen years since to a wider, more behavioural and crime focused role which academics argue has blurred the differential between anti-social behaviour (ASB)   and   criminal   behaviour and consequently risks increased criminalisation of young people (Hayden & Martin, 2011, p. 6; Briers & Dickmann, 2011, p. 165; Hirschfield, 2018, p. 5) . However, PC5 stated,

> *"To be a good school's officer, you should have the ethos of not criminalising young people."*

Equally, PS4 stated,

> *"Part of the role of a Safer Schools Officer is to not criminalise young people"*

In addition, PS4 suggested that part of the role of an SSO is to deal with crime through restorative approaches in partnership with schools (Smith, 1986; Hopkins, 2004; Johnstone & Van Ness, 2007). Sherman and Strang (2007) suggests this type of policing is more about doing the right thing (Sherman & Strang, 2007; Ministry of Justice, 2014) as opposed to a 'hard' response mentality where Rosenbaum (1994) suggests is a difficult transition to make for police officers. This is due to the idea that the police are seen as guardians of order (Shearing & Wood, 2013) and the struggle COP has with 'moral authoritarianism'

(Bittner, 1973; Hughes, 2007; Scraton, 2007). In contrast, PC6 described her role as 75% positive engagement which the literature also suggests is important (Lloyd & Foster, 2009; National Police Chief's Council, 2016) and follows on from the Home Office (2010) recommendation that police are the "face of engagement" within communities to allow priorities to be set by the community (Casey, 2008; Home Office, 2010; Parfrement-Hopkins, et al., 2011). PC6 describes the remaining 25% of her role as "pro-active enforcement" in the context of identifying and dealing with emerging crime trends and problem-solving issues within and outside of the school. In contrast, PC4 stated,

> *"The school informs me when crimes are committed and we both deal with the incident together so we achieve the best outcome for everyone involved. I spend a lot of my time dealing with crime or speaking with pupils to prevent situations from escalating."*

Likewise, the original idea of SSPs in the UK was to allow the police to play a greater role in tackling school related crime (Department for Education and Skills, 2006, p. 3). Conversely, PC6 talked about having a greater volume of crime to deal with in the PRU and pointed out one of the differences between a PRU and a mainstream school for them,

> *"In the PRU I do a lot more enforcement than in the mainstream school."*

Additionally, PS3 suggested that in dealing with crime SSOs should ensure they understand the backgrounds of young people most at risk or vulnerable to crime so that more can be done in terms of early intervention and prevention. Indeed, the SSP programme is referred to as an intervention initiative and a focus in the

literature (Bowles, et al., 2005, p. 7; Department for Education and Skills, 2006, p. 2). On the other hand, S2 highlighted a recent problem within their SSP,

"Crime reporting became a priority to the police and relationship building came second which effectively made their schools officer ineffective. All of the work we do with the police requires a good relationship, otherwise there is no familiarity, no understanding of how each other does business and no trust. When police officers aren't able to build relationships with staff it becomes very difficult to work together."

Consequently, there appears to be an imbalance created by a focus on general policing objectives rather than a focus on specific school related issues. Consequently, the lack of consistency and understanding of the roles leads to a mismatch in expectations in what school staff expect from an SSO and what an SSO expects from school staff. The joint agency SSP guidance (Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009) states,

"the school will have a key role in working with the line manager to help set and develop objectives" (Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009, p. 26)

However, a comparison of the interview data identifies inconsistencies across SSPs in terms of practices, relationships, expectations and attitudes, making it difficult to understand the roles from one SSP to another. PC2 has responsibility for three mainstream schools and stated,

"My schools operate differently but it depends on the Head Teacher. The Head Teachers are just very different. Two are great, one is very closed and I need an appointment to speak to him."

Similarly, PC3 stated,

"All my schools are different personalities. I don't have any issues but one doesn't seem to understand my role. The Head Teacher once asked me if I could leave because they had an open day for parents. Some feel like having the police there will affect the school's reputation."

Equally, PC3 was asked to leave the school on a parents open day so that no one would think there was a problem. This links back to possible concerns about school reputation. As with the Police Foundation evaluation (2011) schools raised concerns about how a police presence would adversely affect the school's reputation. However, the evaluation found schools were no longer concerned once they fully understood the role of the SSOs (The Police Foundation, 2011, p. 5). Equally, Becker (2013) recognised that school communities could feel labelled by having a visible police presence. However, two of the PC participants stated their relationship with the school is also affected by the amount of time they spend in a school. PC1 stated,

"I have a lot of involvement with one of my schools because I'm based there. I see the Head Teacher all the time so the working relationship is natural and organic because I'm there every day."

Equally, PC4 stated,

"I am based at one where I have an excellent relationship. The others I just go to when I'm needed. I don't spend enough time in the others to build a good relationship."

The literature on SSPs and community police partnerships does not discuss the time it may take for the police and schools to build a relationship, however, in asymmetric type partnerships (Minshall, et al., 2010) McCarthy (2014, p. 5) suggested it is vital the representatives from each agency should be stable and have the time to earn each other's trust. However, all seven PC participants and three of the four police Sergeants suggested it takes anywhere from six months to a year for an SSO to build trust and embed into the school environment. PS1 stated,

"It depends on the staff and the Head. We had to pull an SSO out of a school because the school couldn't work with that SSO. The school said he was useless, but the new SSO has been in there about six months and have built a good relationship."

The literature does not specify the length of time it takes to build a relationship in school-police partnerships or any other type of police partnership, however, PS3 stated,

"We need consistency for schools. It can take a year to establish trust. We can't change the officer every 3 months. It's not good for the school staff or students."

However, Walker & Archbold (2018, p. 15) suggests consistency is affected because police departments frequently review and rewrite policies.

Conversely, school staff participants talked about their understanding of the roles with more focus on a need for SSOs to understand the needs and priorities of the school from an idealistic point of view (Carley, 2010; Hunter & Perkins, 2012; Lawless & Beatty, 2013).

> *"A huge barrier for our relationship with the police is the lack of understanding of the needs and priorities of the school." [S2]*

Whereas, White and McKenna (2018) go further by suggesting a more strategic approach by schools to allow the SSP purpose and goals to be understood by police officers and educators (2018, p. 4).

Defining the purpose and goals of an SSP

Without defining the purpose and goals, it appears the effectiveness of Problem Orientated Policing (POP) (2009) and COP (Palmiotto, 2011, p. 27) is limited in the context of SSPs and can not be implemented effectively (Meese, 1993; Casey, 2008; Newman, et al., 2010). Consequently, participants demonstrated an awareness of a lack of understanding of SSPs overall, particularly when they talked about barriers they face in their role. Javdani's (2019) empirical review found police officers perception was that school staff did not understand have a clear understanding of SSPs (2019, p. 5). However, school staff lacked training in the subject. Conversely, a good understanding of the roles was a positive factor that makes an SSP work well. However, there were numerous ideas of what an SSP is and what the roles and responsibilities are. Research shows inconsistent support for SSPs, particularly among teachers (Cray & Weiler, 2011; Chrusciel, et al., 2015; Javdani, 2019). In addition, PS3 stated,

"There is no understanding of the role of an SSO with other departments and within the MPS local senior leadership teams".

However, this could not be explored or verified in this piece of research due to time constraints. However, Palmiotto (2011, p. 2) suggests that police decision makers would be in a better position to improve and avoid problems of the past should they have good knowledge of various police roles. The following section discusses those important attributes of the role of an SSO.

<u>Important attributes of an SSO</u>

Silvestri (2018) found policing moving away from the crime-fighting enforcers of traditional response policing to a new "problem-solving communicator" way policing (Charman 2017, p. 272) with all of the attributes of a good SSO. Equally, White & McKenna (2018, p. 7) suggests the role of the SSO requires a certain type of personality different from that of traditional policing which must link closely with the defined purpose of an SSP. Moreover, there appears to be wide-spread acceptance of the new way of policing, however the benefits are yet to be seen by those engaging in communities (Dick, Silvestri, & Westmarland, 2014).

Consequently, 100% of the participants mentioned good communication as an essential skill for an SSO to have. Effective communication is an attribute also reflected in other studies on community policing (Yeh & Wilkinson, 1994; Buerger, Petrosino & Petrosino, 1999; Haarr, 2001; Rosenbaum; Scrivner, 2006). In this study, it was specifically mentioned 34 times by all twenty-one participants and included confidence, approachability and diplomacy. S2 stated,

"They have to be the right type of person to work in an alien environment, communicating with highly educated individuals, as well as adults from a variety of backgrounds and young people."

I examined the 'right sort of person' through analysis of the good attributes of an SSO, which also included having common sense and a desire to work with young people. However, these attributes are often referred to as 'soft skills' and are examined mainly within community policing. As such, some evidence suggests female police officers support community policing principles and characterise themselves as better at this type of police work" (Lonsway et al., 2003; Meier & Nicholson-Crotty, 2006; Rabe-Hemp, 2009; Schuck, 2014; Weisburd et al., 2000). Similarly, Schuck (2017, p. 346) proposes that these 'soft' policing skills are more successfully associated with female officers. However, the fact these skills are seen as 'soft' has created the fear among female officers that it will affect their legitimacy and future work opportunities (Lonsway et al., 2003; Rabe-Hemp, 2008). These findings may change over time and vary from location to location. Nevertheless, there is a lack of research in the literature on the subject of female officers and 'soft' policing skills within community policing and schools policing to make a concrete determination on weather female officers are the 'right sort of person' for the role of SSO.

In addition, one Insp, two PS and five SSOs suggested that not all officers become an SSO for the right reasons. Insp2 stated,

"They must want to do it for the right reasons. I understand the shifts will suit officers with children, but I've seen officers struggle when they assume it's an easy job. It is an entirely specialist role that is misunderstood."

While there is no literature on SSOs term time working, research suggests variable shift patterns in the police have a negative impact on physical and psycho-social stress (Anderson, et al., 2002; James, et al., 2018). Additionally, some officers may view it as a "soft posting" that may put their career on hold (Home office, 2009). Nevertheless, Higgins (2018, pp. 56, 61) found that neighbourhood policing has matured and recognised the specialist skills and motivation required. However, Higgins also found that issues with staff suitability can be attributed to the fact neighbourhood policing has not achieved the status of a police specialism. One example of this in the analysis is participants wanted an SSO to be able to ask for help and be able to challenge those who ask them to do something outside of the role. PS2 stated,

"An SSO needs to be robust. They need to be able to challenge Head Teachers who are very demanding for things officers aren't supposed to be doing like one SSO was doing photo copying for the Head which is ridiculous."

Looking to the challenges of police community partnerships, Mangan, et al. (2017, p. 1356) found that genuine partnerships with the correct power balance are rare because those accustomed to a hierarchical system are reluctant to relinquish power (Vangen, et al., 2015).

Moreover, participants suggested having policing experience was important. It appears that having knowledge of how to investigate crime, knowledge of policy and procedure and experience in different policing roles were all important for an SSO to have. Similarly, Bowles, et al. (Bowles, et al., 2005) found that successful partnerships utilise SSOs abilities and experience (2005, p. 66). Insp2 stated,

"They (SSOs) need to have at least 5 years policing experience and able to work alone."

Equally, S4 stated,

"An officer must be able to explain how an investigation works. Knows what an ABE interview is like."

In addition, PS1 stated,

"SSOs need more experience around investigations. I've seen a skills imbalance in officers straight from response team. We have an SSO who I have on an action plan, where CRIS reports haven't gone on for a few days and he hasn't reported safeguarding issues. He doesn't want to develop himself, just wants to do the absolute minimum. In my experience, SSOs are alone most of the time, making their own decisions so when they don't do things right you really see it."

Whereas, the police participants all talked about the law, and police policy and procedure, four school staff participants talked about the SSO understanding school policy and procedure. S4 stated,

"I think an important attribute of a school's officer is they must remember they are working in a school context. The school policies and practices are very important to know. They are there to support the teachers and children so becoming part of the fabric of the school helps."

Equally, PC1 stated,

"To make it work well, you have to understanding how the school works and what is expected of you. It's about understanding that and knowing everyone will be happy with the way you deal with incidents."

While schools staff appear to want to work with the police, it is important that the right sort of person is in the SSO role, an officer with the right attributes. This may go some way to standardise the approach to SSPs. Although, the attributes of a good SSO appear to be important to the relationship within an SSP, all participants noted inconsistencies across SSPs. The following section examines those inconsistencies in more detail.

The consistency of inconsistency

Qualitative analysis of the research revealed working practices varied dramatically, with PC participants having responsibility for between one and five schools with varying levels of engagement from daily visits to only when required. Indeed, S2 described the importance of the role of the police Inspector,

"They are there to ensure consistency of practice, so the schools officers can work to one standard and be as effective as possible."

O'Neill and McCarthy (2012) found consistency in police willingness to work collaboratively with other professionals working in the community (2012, p. 144) which has become a more common activity of policing (Johnston, 2003; Crawford & Lister, 2004). Similarly, PC1 and PC4 stated they had a lot of involvement with one school where the working relationship was natural and organic because they are based at the school and worked there every day.

Additionally, PC2 gave an account of how good an SSP can be;

"I had an attempted stabbing where a teacher prevented a kid from being stabbed. I was able to get to them quicker and we both located the suspect together."

PC1 goes on to suggest that a touch down spot is needed in schools for SSOs otherwise they may feel like a burden on the school and consequently visit less often. However, PC4 suggested they do not spend enough time in their other schools to build a good relationship because they do not have an office there. Equally, Crawford and L'Hoiry (2015) suggests co-location between agencies foster a better understanding of job roles.

"Co-located and embedded multi-agency teams are often effective mechanisms to enable productive and transformative partnership working." (Crawford & L'Hoiry, 2015)

Consequently, SSOs with less schools appear to have more time to build better relationships because they spend more time with them. PC2 had responsibility for three schools and was able to parade from one of them to conduct patrols before and after school and therefore engaged more with that school and built a good partnership, whereas PC1 shared his experience of a school he spent most of his time in,

"The school wanted me to patrol the school all the time. They seemed to want me to be there, like a visible presence. But when I needed to speak to any of the students, they would say 'don't take too long' and the Head Teacher kept making negative comments whenever I asked for information. I felt like they just tolerated me being there like they had to put

up with it. It reached a point where I said, until you understand what I'm here to do its pointless me coming in. Then, I had minimum involvement with the school. The Head didn't want me there. Even some teachers would sneak me in so the Head didn't see me. Even when she wanted me to get rid of my locker, she didn't want the police van to come. It was the only vehicle I had big enough to transport the locker."

The literature suggests more meaningful partnerships are developed when partners have identified mutual benefits (Dittman, 2003; Dickinson & Glasby, 2010; Hunter & Perkins, 2012; Haynes & Lynch, 2013) rather than being forced to work together through legislation or policy, or because there is an expectation they will work together. Accordingly, PC1 suggested he gravitates more towards the school that wants him there. However, he stated,

"Being at school too regularly sometimes makes staff want to use me for something that isn't within my role. In the end, I started to parade from a police station and made more effort to visit other schools just to create a bit of professional distance. That really helped. It's a balance, you don't want the school to see you as an employee of theirs."

Conversely, PC2 shared their experience of being placed on a school break time rota,

"Sometimes the school see you as a school employee. They tried to put me on a break time rota. It was awkward to have to say no."

However, S7 noted a lack of police time spent at their school, lack of visibility and poor response time in providing information.

"The barriers for me right now are simply that we don't see the Schools Officer enough. He's not visible like he was and it takes a lot longer for him to provide information when it's requested. The Inspector needs to let officers get on with their job, instead they're pulled from one thing to the other and don't have time to do their job."

Conversely, when discussing what works well, PC4 suggested that setting up the SSP protocol and Information sharing agreement is vital so everyone knows what they should be doing. However, despite this some schools are still offered a dedicated officer. PC2 stated,

"It does not make sense. How can a school refuse to sign an agreement on how we will work together but still get an officer where other schools cry out for one but don't get one?"

It appears the police are not consistent in their approach to community policing. Likewise, PS2 stated that only five of the eleven schools in their area in an SSP have signed an information sharing agreement. This suggests the police are willing to allow inconsistencies in working practices to get police in to schools they think need an SSO. For example, PS3 talked about pressures and demands places upon the SSOs because of political pressures,

"the Mayor makes promises without knowing how that will work in practice, i.e. promising every school can have a knife wand, or promising every school a named police contact. Saying that and doing it are two different things and we feel the pressure to try and provide some kind of watered-down service to all the schools in a borough with only a handful of officers."

Therefore, with unavoidable political pressure (Lustgarten, 1986), it appears some promises are not thought through, being judged as political rhetoric (Bullock, 2009; Myhill & Quinton, 2010; Home Office, 2010) which affects the trust and confidence in the police and it is felt at the practitioner level. Furthermore, PC5 stated,

"There appears to be an authoritarian attitude within policing where police leaders, those at the top, think SSOs can go in to schools and carry out whatever action they want them to. You just can't do that. We're not the boss of Head teachers and we're working in their environment. We can only ask or persuade them. Plus, we're trying to have a good relationship with the school so ordering them around is only going to wreck my relationship with the school."

Equally, when describing their own role as a HT S5 stated,

"The police don't always appreciate that every Head teacher has a different way of working which can clash with the way the police works. There are unrealistic are unrealistic expectations within the upper ranks of the police, and beyond."

This highlights a general disconnect between those working on the ground and those at higher ranks, showing a need for decision makers to manage expectations when making promises. However, the lack of consistency across SSPs is part of a wider partnership issue of police culture and practices clashing with schools' culture and practices. The following chapter discusses the theme of clashing working cultures.

Summary

This chapter examined the complexities of police officers and school staff working together and considered discrepancies of what school staff and police officers think about their work together against SSP policy and guidance. The study found the majority of participants had an in-depth understanding of their own particular partnerships, but lacked an overall understanding of SSPs due to a lack of clarity of the roles, inconsistent practices within each SSP, and inconsistency in setting goals. It also found that it is important that an SSO is the right sort of person with attributes often associated with 'soft policing' within community policing, namely, good communication skills including confidence, approachability and diplomacy, common sense, a desire to work with young people, knowledge of how to investigate crime, knowledge of police and school policy and procedures, and experience in different policing roles. There is some evidence to suggest the attributes are common characteristics of female police officers, however there is a lack of literature on the correlation between female officers and good attributes of an SSO or those characteristics required to work within community policing. Nevertheless, there is clear recognition that some SSOs are not the 'right sort of person'. However, decision makers have the potential to increase the effectiveness of SSPs by simply understanding the realities of it to inform their decisions. The next chapter discusses the clash of working cultures between the police and schools in terms of trust, first impressions, HT 'buy-in', and conflicting priorities.

Chapter 5: A clash of working cultures

This chapter is presented in four parts to consider the different working cultures and practices between the police and schools and what effect that has on SSPs. The study found that however important building trust between partners was, the different working cultures hindered that relationship building.

Part one examines participants views on trust within SSPs and finds that establishing a positive relationship between the police and school staff is vital in building trust and ensuring a successful SSP.

Part two discusses the impressions of SSOs within the MPS, as well as HT perceptions of ethnicity and gender. It finds that while it appears that ethnicity and/or gender play a part in how relationships within SSPs develop, they are only small parts to a larger group of attributes that contribute to a long-lasting SSP.

Part three highlights the importance of the relationship between the police and the HT. It finds that negotiating a partnership gives both partners equal say, however it is important for the police to have the 'buy-in' of HTs.

Part four explores the cultural differences between the police and schools and finds the fundamental differences of the closed nature of policing in contrast to the open organisational systems of schools exacerbate the potentially harmful effects on trust within the SSP due to a lack of consistency of working practices. The chapter concludes with consideration of improvements.

A matter of trust

Despite not being mentioned in the role profile, all participants discussed breaking down barriers between the police and young people and expressed that establishing a positive relationship between police and school staff was vital in building trust and ensuring a successful SSP. Similarly, Deuchar, et al (Deuchar, et al., 2014) suggested that building common trust and community cohesion involves breaking down barriers. Equally, The College of Policing (2013) and Morrell (2015) suggested that having trust is often the key to successful policing and the collaborative approaches such as SSPs increases confidence in the police. In contrast, Myhill and Bradford (2012) recognised that there are a variety of factors that affect confidence in the police. This became apparent throughout the analysis and consequently, the effect on police legitimacy also must be considered (Benson, 1981). Insp1 described the role of an SSO,

> *"It is a vital tool within the school network. Providing a positive police presence and support for parents, students and the community. Improving perceptions of the police for everyone and treating young people fairly."*

Similarly, the police and community partnerships literature is clear that a good SSO can also produce favourable feelings towards the police (Tyler & Huo, 2002; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Nix, et al., 2014; Sargeant, et al., 2014). Consequently, fairness was a thread than ran through several subjects in terms of safeguarding. Insp3 stated,

> *"Part of my role is to listen to the school and have honest conversations with the Head. They have to know that they are being fairly treated."*

Equally, PS2 talked about important attributes of an SSO,

"They need to be able to think of alternative ways to deal with people so that the best outcomes can be reached. That's not just for young people, but also when working with their SPOC and Head Teacher."

This contrasts with the work of Brunson & Miller (2006) and Sharp & Atherton (2007) who examined procedural justice and found that police treat young people with baseless suspicion. In the context of procedural justice, police participants wanted to be fair in the way they deal with incidents. The literature shows that procedural justice is more important to young people than it is to adults (Norman, 2009; Metropolitan Police Service, 2012; Mayor's Office for Police And Crime, 2016). However, Wolfe, et al. (2017) recognised that unfair police treatment has an impact on police legitimacy.

"People who experience procedural justice are more satisfied with the police, partially because it increases the perceived legitimacy of law enforcement" (Wolfe, et al., 2017, p. 113).

Moreover, these perceptions can also be formed and influenced by friends, family and social media (Clayman & Skinns, 2012; Leiber, et al., 1998; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Stewart, et al., 2014). Conversely, school staff participants looked at fair treatment by the police from a perspective of school staff having unrealistic expectations. S6 stated,

"Sometimes we demand a lot from the police and have unrealistic expectations. We assume that police all live in the same culture and forget they have to work across two different cultures but they have to deal with things in a certain way which sometimes doesn't seem fair. But it is the responsibility of school to have a clear idea of the law and not put an officer

in compromised position. Like reporting a crime but not wanting the officer to do anything, well they can't just ignore it."

Moreover, Participants provided unsolicited insights in to what they thought were good attributes of an SSO throughout the interviews, particularly in the context of the barriers they face and what works well in a SSP. S5 stated,

"Some Schools Officers play sports with students in their own time just build relationships. It's admirable, but it should be built in to their working day. This type of dedication really does pays dividends because the good relationships they make with students spreads out to the streets. It may cause gang members to think twice."

Consequently, it became apparent that good quality engagement with HTs and staff as well as students is very important in an SSP. Equally, Cook, et al. (2015) describe a partnership as a *"collaborative process, requiring ongoing dialogue, trust and ownership to operate effectively".* However, the literature suggests failing partnerships often show a disparity between objectives and expectations (Dickinson & Glasby, 2010). Indeed the participants lack knowledge of the overall aims and objectives of an SSP and was highlighted several times and is throughout the literature (Lamont, et al., 2011; Holt, et al., 2011; Department for Education, 2015; Chakravorty, 2016).

Moreover, studies show that inconsistent services are often provided because decisions are made without consultation with those that are responsible for implementing those decisions (Whitehead, 2007; Kaehne, 2013). Therefore, while the S2 and S4 mentioned that they would like more access to senior police officers to have regular dialog and to resolve any issues, the Inspectors and PS

participants spoke about the positive effect more senior police officers can have on HTs in terms of opening their mind to enter in to an SSP or encouraging HTs to carry out activities like screening arch operations. PS1 stated,

> *"Senior officers should take more of an interest. The schools like it when they do, and it often helps change Head Teachers views on certain things so we can concentrate on keeping young people safe, rather than argue about the different ways to do it."*

However, Insp2 and all the PS participants recommended a senior officer should always be accompanied by the Inspector or Sergeant because they do not possess enough knowledge of the day-to-day business of SSPs. PS2 stated,

> *"Head Teachers want to speak to someone on their level. But senior officers don't really know the day to day business of working with schools. They don't know what we can or can't do, so the Heads don't get a realistic conversation."*

Equally, PS4 stated,

> *"Our SLT promised things we can't deliver at a Head Teachers meeting. He told them we could provide a full-time officer for them and pretty much whatever else they wanted. It took a year to unravel, that's what can happen when a senior officer speaks to Heads."*

Therefore, it is easy to provide SSOs to schools with limited resources. However, it also appears that the introduction of a new officer can be problematic. The following section discusses first impressions leading to negative perceptions of SSOs.

Impressions and perceptions

Police participants put forward feelings that it mattered what others think of the role they perform, particularly by police colleagues. They highlighted a lack of understand within the police and the impact of that on recruitment in to the role. PS1 stated,

> "It difficult to recruit into the schools team because of preconceived ideas of what the job is. They (police officers) seem surprised when they have dealings with SSOs. Surprised in a good way. They're surprised how helpful and knowledgeable they are, like they expected them to be lazy and unhelpful, probably because of the way some officers in the role used to be several years ago. I'm talking over ten years ago really. The impact it has had is unbelievable, like not so long ago, even when an SSO asked for assistance on the radio, no one rushed to help."

Similarly, PS3 talked about the feedback they have received from other police colleagues,

> "Those that haven't had any contact with SSOs can be quite disrespectful of them. But those that have had their assistance can't praise them enough."

On the other hand, PS4 suggested it is normal for officers to think other departments have an easier job,

> "Just the usual feedback, stuff you overhear. Where everybody thinks everyone else's job is easier than theirs. Sometimes officers from all ranks

don't appreciate how difficult and complex being an SSO really is. One officer became an SSO and openly admits that they thought it was a retirement role. How wrong they were. For them, they actually enjoy the job but they didn't expect it to be as challenging."

It appears that police culture is such that officers believe other departments do not work as hard as them. However, there is a lack of research about the correlation between police culture and the idea of community policing (Demirkol & Nalla, 2019, p. 695), while some scholars describe police culture in a negative context, others suggest it is a mark of their humanity (Crank, 2015, p. 3) and is extremely important within SSPs. However, Demirkol and Nalla (2019) found that departmental assignment did not affect their attitudes towards community policing, however, a correlation was found between autonomy (Lipsky, 1980; Fielding, 1984; Worden, 1989) and cynicism (Balch, 1972; Skolnick, 1975; Twersky-Glasner, 2005; Buerger, 2007) in successful implementation of community policing like SSPs (2019, p. 702). In particular, cynical officers that thought the public are obstructive supported the idea of community policing.

Conversely, PC3 talked about perceptions of HTs as she recounted an experience of handing over an all-girls school to a colleague,

"From what I've seen, the gender and ethnic appearance of an officer makes a difference to some Heads. I handed over an all-girls school to a black female SSO. The Head was so excited about her gender and ethnicity. She actually said to my colleague in front of me the school SPOC, 'it's fantastic, you're female and you're black'. She was talking about the good impression she'll have on the girls in the school because

they were predominantly black. But I think it's a bit shallow to think that, or she didn't give the students the credit they deserve. Like, in my experience, gender or skin colour doesn't matter to young people in a school environment. I think it's an adult perception. For young people, I think it's about the way you treat them."

Similarly, PS1 stated that they had seen some BME SSOs get on better with students. However, when I probed, she stated that it was hard to tell if it was because of their ethnicity or their personality. PC6 initially stated his ethnic appearance does make a difference but the more he talked about it, the more he thought of other factors that might make a difference.

"I do think my skin colour makes a difference… The uniform is very powerful too... I'd say my relationship with young people, school staff and parents are more about culture than ethnicity. I grew up in similar situation to some of these kids. It's more about culture. My race has helped more with my relationship with parents. Some have a negative view of the police. My race can remove a barrier that the uniform presents. There are many barriers. Less so with the kids. There are bigger bridges to build with kids because of the age difference and being an adult, they look at you differently. I have banter with my SPOC regarding me being Nigerian. The school staff have said it does make a difference, but I now think it's more about me. You can't have a particular ethnicity and be a crap cop, that's not going to work. You need a good cop."

Equally, PS4 suggested that being credible is important when dealing with schools because they must trust an SSO. The literature echoes that police add

credibility to subjects they have expertise in (Association of Chief Police Officers, 2010, pp. 24, 68; Black, et al., 2010) with Black et al. (2010) suggesting police add credibility and impact to lessons delivered by SSOs (2010, p. 21). Conversely, Stanko and Bradford (2009) suggest credibility is achieved through listening to the community. However, scholars studying the theory of representative bureaucracy (Selden, 1997; Mosher, 1982; Meier, et al., 1989; Meier & Stewart, 1992; Keiser, et al., 2002) suggest having police officers that are representative of the community they service in terms of passive representation through demographics is particularly important to carry out government policy (Lipsky, 1980). Conversely, PS2 stated,

> *"There was a BME officer in an all-boys school but when they moved on, the Head Teacher wrote a letter about how valuable he was and mentioned his ethnicity. The Head Teacher felt it was important. However, when a white officer went in that school he has done just as good a job. It's about the officer."*

Similarly, S3 suggested that first impressions are everything and a SSOs ethnic appearance can assist with that (Mosher, 1982). In addition, Cox (1994) suggests representative bureaucracies produce more diverse perspectives for improved problem solving. In contrast, PS3 stated,

> *"I had an Asian officer who was excellent in their school. When they left, a black officer took over. The relationship with the school rapidly declined and I had to pull him out and relocate him. There is now a white officer in there doing a good job. I believe race is only a factor for Head Teachers, not for the young people and certainly not when it comes clashes of*

personality, or an officer just not being right for the job. Even with the right

officer, relationships with schools aren't always good. It depends on the

Head Teachers attitude."

This research shows the importance of the good attributes of an SSO. However, none of the Caucasian PC participants thought that ethnic appearance made any difference to a SSP. They all believed it was about being a good officer. However, the PC participants with a minority ethnic appearance suggested it did make a difference, particularly with first impressions and more specifically, with parents. It is also apparent that the adults in a school community appear to be more concerned with ethnic appearance, although I did not interview any young people to explore it further due to time constraints.

Similarly, three quarters of participants did not think gender made a difference to the relationship of an SSP. However, I believe it is important to recognise the quarter of participants that did suggest that the gender of an SSO has some effect on SSPs. PS1 stated,

"I think it's great to have female SSOs in all girl schools. It's just like female

cadets love to see a female officer because most of the time they just see

guys. They might see themselves as a police officer when they get older.

But then, we do have guys in girl schools and it works well."

Equally, PS2 stated it is important that female SSOs are in all-girl schools. She then talked about her own experience,

"I had a boy in a girl's school and a girl in a boy's school and when the

male officer moved on, the girl's school felt a female officer would be

beneficial. The female officer I moved to the girl's school wasn't happy

about being moved there just because she's a female. However, after 3 years there she says being a female officer in that school is very important."

Due to time constraints, that officer was not spoken to, to obtain her point of view. On the other hand, PS3 stated they had witnessed a female officer command respect from young people better than the male officers.

"I've seen a female officer command respect from young people better than my male officers. I believe personality has a lot to do with it, the uniform has an effect, and so does being female, particularly with boys, I've noticed."

Furthermore, S3 suggested young girls are more challenging with female officers,

"I think girls are more challenging with female officers than they are with male officers. It's like the relationship is different, probably in the same way sons and daughters are different with their mothers and fathers."

Likewise, PC7 thought an officer's gender can make a difference,

"I think the gender of an officer can make a difference, but not just being a girl. I've seen male students act differently with female colleagues, like more respectful. But I've seen girls act differently with male colleagues. They aren't as bitchy."

Conversely, other participants stated they had not noticed a difference in student behaviours based on gender and did not think it made a difference. On the other hand, the literature suggests it is not simply about gender, but culture plays a part where pre-conceived ideas of the police are formed (Acker, 1990; 1992; 2012).

The gender of the SSO is not mentioned in the literature on SSPs, and the research does not indicate the SSO is a role associated particularly with male or female officers. However, Schuck (Schuck, 2017, p. 346) discusses female officers in the context of COP and the effect of police culture their decision to take on roles within it. Female officers carry 'soft' skills useful in SSPs such as good communication, empathy and collaboration, however, for fear their legitimacy is reduced within the organisation, female officers may not take on roles like the SSO (Schuck, 2017, p. 346). Additionally, Schuck (2017) highlights that duties associated with front-line response policing were historically rewarded and valued over COP duties and suggests it a policing challenge for officers to "embrace this more feminine definition of the ideal police officer" (Schuck, 2017, p. 346). While it appears that ethnicity and/or gender play a part in how relationships within SSPs develop, they are only small parts to a larger group of attributes that are in contrast to Silvestri's (2018) 'heroic' male theories because gender issues within policing are embedded in organisational structures whereas building relationships within SSPs requires a whole set of attributes and qualities that are synonymous with male and female officers.

Furthermore, 90.5% of participants thought that age makes no difference at all within a SSP. However, PS1 stated,

> *"There is no evidence that I've seen to say age makes a difference in working with schools. Although, I sometimes feel like schools expect that I should be an older person, like an older person can make better decisions. I think it's cultural thing to be honest because I've only experienced it with older people."*

On the other hand, PC1 stated,

> "Your age only makes a difference if you're not very adaptable, like stuck in your ways. Or not flexible and don't understand youth culture."

Similarly, PC6 suggested,

> *"Age will make a difference if you can't relate to anyone. That applies to anyone really in whatever way."*

On comparison the data is intertwined with the good attributes of an SSO in theme one. Although, the attributes of a good SSO appear to be important, all participants noted some form of difference between the police and the school that created conflict in their SSP. The differences were expressed throughout the interviews as conflicting priorities, conflicting duties, and a clash of working cultures. The following section explores these issues in more detail.

Head Teacher 'buy-in'

Furthermore, the MPS offers all schools a named contact and appear to want to engage with schools. The political pressure for police to work with all schools since the offer in the Police and Crime Plan (2017) and the MPS C&YP Strategic Plan 2017-2021 (2017) is to provide police contact for all schools. When talking about barriers, PC6 posed a question,

> *"A barrier for me? When supervisors want you to work with a school where the Head Teacher really doesn't want to work with the police. I've been a school's officer long enough to know what a good relationship is and a lot*

of it is down the attitude of the Head Teacher. How do you make a Head teacher want to work with police when they don't?"

It is evident from a policing perspective, having the 'buy-in' of HTs was important. A good understanding of the roles within an SSP is entwined in that 'buy-in' because HTs appear to have a variety of expectations and understanding of SSPs (The Police Foundation, 2011, p. 5). All police participants expressed concern that some HTs do not want an SSO and some do. Additionally, when Insp1 described the role of the HT, she stated,

"If a Head Teacher doesn't want an SSO, it doesn't matter that other school staff do."

Later in the interview, Insp1 talked about what would make her role easier,

"The schools themselves would make my role easier. Some love the Schools Officer and it works well. Others either don't understand the role, or don't want them, or are disrespectful to the fact they are a police officer. Their attitude is, you're in my school so you'll do what I say. It's almost arrogance that the SSO is part of their team to be tasked as they see fit."

In contrast, S5 stated,

"A relationship with the police works well when there is a willingness of [school] management to cooperate fully with a Schools Officer. When they look at how they can be integrated into the school as part of the safeguarding team, that trickles down to school staff."

In addition, when PS4 described the role of the HT, he suggested that some schools will not sign an SSP protocol or a data sharing agreement but demand police support when they need it. He stated,

"It should be give and take. One Head Teacher told their staff not to mention an incident involving radicalised behaviour to the SSO because they were worried the school's reputation and being known for terrorism. But the SSO has a good relationship with the school staff and one of them told the SSO anyway because they thought it was more important than the schools reputation."

Equally, PS3 suggested that an SSP works well when a HT is "fully signed up" and trusts the police. In contrast, INSP2 stated,

"Another barrier is some Head Teachers attitude when they don't trust the police. Or I sometimes think there is a power struggle where the Head is the king or Queen of their castle but they can't fully control the police. One of our schools is totally anti-police. They're nervous about what we might do in their school, like we're going to arrest everyone or something. But a new Head Teacher is coming in, so rather than write them off, we're going to give them the offer when the new Head arrives."

This authority versus power struggle highlights the importance of the relationship between the police and school Head teacher because negotiating a partnership that amalgamates COP (Palmiotto, 2011) with POP (Meese, 1993; Casey, 2008; Newman, et al., 2010) where both partners have equal say. Indeed, in the research conducted by the Youth Justice Board concluded the success of an SSP reflects the attitudes of the school towards the police.

"Acceptance of the police officer by staff members and pupils alike largely depends on the ability of those involved in the management and implementation of SSP to inform the school of the role of the police officer in the SSP team, and to reassure school members that having a police officer in the school will be a positive experience." (Bowles, et al., 2005, p. 66)

However, the police are carrying out their work in a school environment with different procedures and working culture, therefore it is not straight forward. The following section discusses the conflict in working culture.

Conflicting priorities, duties, and a clash of working culture

There is common agreeance that partnership work makes sense and is 'the way forward' for police forces (O'Neill & McCarthy, 2012, p. 147), however, the literature shows that it is important to take into account cultural influences within community-based partnerships (Payne & Button, 2009, p. 528). Similarly, S6 highlighted the different working cultures between the police and school staff,

"We have such different working cultures. We work extra all the time. We run activities after school, marking, you know, we have a vested interest in our students. But police officers do their eight- or nine-hour shift and that's it. Sometimes they aren't there after school, it's rare they work extra."

Moreover, S2 highlighted the different strategic focus each partner has,

"A school focusses on education, whereas the police focus on enforcement of the law. The police do do education but they have other priorities."

Similarly, the literature supports the idea that the closed nature of policing in contrast to the open organisational systems of schools presents unique cultural and organisational problems in forming cohesive partnerships (Lynn, 1996; Johnson, 1999). Each school holds its own vision and aims with a broader idea (Department for Education, 2015). Equally, policing is complex and early literature describes the different organisational governance norms and structures as one of the biggest barriers in successfully integrating policing in a school setting (Sanders, 1996; Anderson, 1998). These differences alone appear to create different mind sets on both sides of an SSP which can cause conflicts within the SSP. S1 talked about a school he worked in as teaching staff whose HT denied they had a gang problem because of the reputational risk. He stated,

"To deny you have a problem with violent pupils and with those in gangs is short sighted, because a school's reputation is far worse affected when it gets to a serious point. Why not nip it in the bud at the earliest opportunity? I think a decision to not inform the police or keep it from them are linked to the ego of the Head Teacher, not necessarily the reputation of the school. It is their reputation they are worried about more than that of their school."

This reputational concern appears to contrast against national safeguarding children and young people guidance (Home Office, Ministry of Justice. Cabinet Office. Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008; Department for

Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, 2009; Home Office, 2015; National Police Chief's Council, 2016; The Police Foundation, 2016; Home Office;Department for Education;Ministry of Defence, 2018) in which there is more attention to safeguarding in a contextual manner (Firmin, 2017; Firmin, et al., 2019) to take in to account adverse childhood experiences to deal with incidents as a partnership particularly within the MPS (Ford, et al., 2016; Newman, 2016; Mayors Office for Police And Crime, 2018; Khan, 2019). To have more concern for reputation is at odds with that guidance.

Furthermore, all PS participants suggested an SSP works well where the schools are involved in after school patrols and willing to run screening arch operations. Paul, et al. (2010) suggested police afterschool school patrols are useful in preventative strategies to created safe spaces for vulnerable students being bullied. However, while these activities contribute towards the MPS' mission and vision in working more closely with partners and the public, it may not contribute to a school' mission and vision in a significant way.

Furthermore, several participants mentioned experiences where the actions of the school put an SSO in a difficult position regarding their police duties. S1 stated,

> *"There have been times when I have put the officer in a position where I didn't want them to take official action. It's very different for us and I thought I could just get some advice without it being recorded. That was learning experience. I felt like I'd done something wrong and had no control over it."*

In contrast, PS4 stated,

>*"There's a lack of appreciation of what an SSO does from some schools. The Head Teacher at one school does not trust the information provided by the police. But also, won't willingly share information with us. It's a difficult relationship to manage."*

Moreover, school staff participants all highlighted that SSOs are abstracted for other police duties, which has a negative impact on the SSP. This also highlights that policing priorities affect the working routine of an SSO.

Conversely, the PS participants suggested that SSOs working alone most of the time sometimes becomes a risk in the context of police officers becoming engrained in a school working culture. PS1 stated,

>*"SSOs get used to working alone a lot and sometimes there is a risk of some people being blinked with no one else to tell them what they're doing is not right."*

Conversely, PS3 suggested being able to work alone is a good attribute of an SSO and Welsh (2008) suggests that working alone can lead to better productivity. There are clearly several differences in the way police officers and school staff work in their own organisations. Those cultural differences are enough to cause a degree of conflict with potentially harmful effects on the trust within the SSP and appears to be due to a lack of consistency of working practices. Moreover, there is currently no way to assess SSPs to identify these types of problems early and improve relationships within an SSP by way of evaluation. The following chapter discusses the various ways in which SSPs are evaluated and the lack of a corporate evaluation.

Summary

This chapter examined the different working cultures and practices between the police and schools and found that establishing a positive relationship between the police and school staff was vital in building trust and ensuring a successful SSP. However, while procedural justice is shown to be more important to young people, being treated fairly is a significant factor in building trust within SSPs. Conversely, SSOs of ethnic appearance were more inclined to agree that their skin colour makes a difference in an SSP. Similarly, the gender of the SSO appears to make a positive impact particularly with female officers in all-girls schools. However, while it appears that ethnicity and/or gender play a part in how relationships within SSPs develop, they are only small parts to a larger group of factors that contribute to a long-lasting SSP. In addition, it is important establish a partnership where both partners have equal say, however as the police carrying out their work in the school environment it is also important for the police to have the 'buy-in' of HTs. Moreover, HTs appear to have a variety of expectations and understanding of SSPs that potentially create conflict therefore a good understanding of the roles within an SSP is entwined in that 'buy-in'. However, both organisations are fundamentally different in terms of the closed nature of policing and the open organisational systems of schools. Those cultural differences are enough to cause a degree of conflict with potentially harmful effects on trust within the SSP due to a lack of consistency of working practices.

Chapter 6: Evaluation of Safer School Partnerships

This chapter considers the issue of evaluating individual SSPs in terms of the working relationship between the SSO and school staff. It finds the lack of a corporate evaluation has led to a variety of ad-hoc methods of evaluation which appear to be ineffective or futile, or a complete absence of an evaluation. The chapter concludes with consideration of improvements.

Evaluating to evolve

There is no standard way to evaluate an SSP however, there were mixed views as to the usefulness of a formalised evaluation. Most participants suggested that SSPs are continuously evaluated through ongoing conversations between the school and the police. PS2 stated,

> *"It's difficult to evaluate partnerships because some SSOs are dedicated to one so spend all their time there, whereas some share their time with several schools. Then there are officers that are on long-term sick, so it's very difficult to evaluate a partnership where there is no officer. But I don't do any proper evaluation from an analyst. However, I do notice incidents of ASB and crime rising in schools where an SSO hasn't been for around a month. Three years ago, we had gang issues at the school gates of one school, now we don't. However, we don't record this properly through analysis. I can tell you from my own knowledge that three years ago there was more fighting in schools, but now there are more sexual offences. Knife crime in schools has gone up but schools are reluctant to do knife*

arches, and I have seen bullying through social media more with kids

having mental health issues leading to self-harm."

Similarly, the Police and Crime Plan 2017-2021 (2017) refers to data to emphasises the issues that affect young people, the emphasis is on data from several surveys that focus 'on the things that matter to Londoners' (Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, 2017). However, the plan relies on opinion survey analysis and statistical data rather than evaluation work which indicates a lack of recent qualitative studies and evaluations on SSPs. Nevertheless, it remains important to use survey data to consolidate what we know and track changes in attitudes over time (Metropolitan Police Authority, 2003; Metropolitan Police Service, 2012; Mayors Office for Policing And Crime, 2014; Mayor's Office for Police And Crime, 2016). However, S5 stated,

"An evaluation can often get in the way of a relationship as it can look like

an appraisal. However, there should be a specific one for PRUS."

However, while the strategies refer to recent youth survey analysis, an important part of research is feedback and there is a lack of feedback on SSPs. For example, Bhabra, et al. (2004) suggested that school staff are concerned that a substantial amount of crime occurs outside the school. However, more recent reports make no mention of this, although historical evidence does show a link between high crime areas and high crime in schools, as well as low levels of victimisation in low crime schools (P, 1997). In contrast, S4 stated,

"When it comes to evaluation, too much is based on the quality of

relationships that might or might not exist. I think schools and SSOs need

to have a formal contract which involves senior police staff and provides accountability for everyone in a partnership."

It appears a popular idea with school staff that senior police staff should be involved in the SSP, in this case to ensure a level of culpability. Equally, The Police Foundation (2011) also found that issues between the police and teaching staff, particularly expectation management and culture clash can be improved with the, *" active personal involvement of senior managers and clear protocols to which all parties signed up."* (The Police Foundation, 2011, p. 4). However, where participants did not evaluate the SSP in any formal way, PC6 stated,

"We just have an ongoing evaluation. We keep learning and responding and change the way we deal with things when we need to. With one-off situations we have to evaluate the effectiveness of the partnership in dealing, but we already have the foundations in place to learn and adapt together."

Consequently, there appears to be a lack of consistency in working practices. PC3 stated,

"It is pointless having a set evaluation because it is not likely that anything would change anyway. If the Head Teacher thinks the SSP is working ok and we don't, there is no one to drive the improvements an evaluation might suggest are needed."

This implies support for senior police involvement to ensure improvements can be driven at the correct level. However, as with school hierarchies, if we looked at SSPs within the context of distributed leadership, Hopkins (2001) would suggest this way of working would have an opposing effect to the democracy of

the partnership because there is a conflict between managerial relationships and empowerment (Hopkins, 2001, p. 121) as schools operate in management structures. Moreover, S1 suggested the lack of evaluation stems from an apparent lack of recognition of the importance of SSPs within the police.

> *"I think the lack of a standard evaluation within the police really shows the lack of importance placed on school partnerships within the police."*

Similarly, Neyroud (2009) suggests policing research is undervalued and Jackson and Bradford (2009) found it is seen as non-essential in the UK (Jackson & Bradford, 2009). On the contrary, S6 suggested it is simply too difficult to measure the effectiveness of an SSP,

> *"You can't count the kids who didn't use a knife or didn't commit a crime or didn't assault a copper because they now feel differently about the police."*

While this statement is not specifically about the relationship between the police and school staff within an SSP, it highlights the concern preventative police work is not measurable in the traditional sense and effectively "invisible" (Fielding, 1989). Moreover, fifteen participants across all roles suggested schools and SSOs should have a formal evaluation that is not compulsory as it may only produce actionable outcomes in those schools with a dedicated SSO or in SSPs where the SSO spends much of their time at the school. In addition, Petch, et al. (2013) suggests that stakeholders are often unaware of the partnership, making it difficult to collate their views. Therefore, Lamont, et al., (2011) and Chakravorty (2016, p. 35) suggest a partnership protocol works best when it is reactive depending on the needs of the school (Bhabra, et al., 2004, p. 40). This suggests

a methods led approach where analysis of statistics are used to identify outcomes to allow for a partnership to evolve (Lamie & Ball, 2010; S, et al., 2012) rather than a theory led approach (Sullivan, et al., 2002; Slater, et al., 2007; Lester, et al., 2008).

Summary

This chapter examined how the working relationship between the SSO and school staff within SSPs are evaluated. The study found there were mixed views on the usefulness of a formal evaluation, with some participants not evaluating their partnership at all. However, those that did carry out evaluation did so through on-going assessment and dealt with issues as they happened. While others suggested formalised evaluations would be futile where a HT did not agree with an evaluations recommendation because there is no one of a higher rank within the police to drive change or improvements within a SSP. However, it appears more useful to refer to an SSP evaluation in terms of feedback so that it does not seem like an appraisal.

Chapter 7: Concluding Remarks

This chapter summaries the main findings from the research in the context of the aims of the thesis. The study used the literature to provide contrast, and enlighten the discussion of the themes. It demonstrates how this study contributes new information to the current evidence base on relationships within SSPs in the UK. In addition, several recommendations are suggested to the MPS and schools to improve relationships in the development of SSPs.

Summary of findings in relation to the research aims

The research revealed several common factors that impact the relationship within an SSP to understand why SSPs work well and why they do not. They were grouped into three main themes; working within an SSP, a clash of working cultures, and evaluation of SSPs.

Evidence from participants found relationships within SSPs to be complex with clear discrepancies between the SSP policy and guidance and what school staff and police officers in an SSP think about their work together. The majority of participants displayed an in-depth understanding of their own particular partnerships. However, they lacked an overall understanding of SSPs according to existing policy and guidance due to a lack of clarity of the roles within the policy and guidance. Consequently, new findings of this study show the lack of role clarity, varying ideas of what an SSP is and what the roles and responsibilities of school staff and police officers are, have led to inconsistent practices, a lack of purpose and inconsistency in setting partnership goals.

However, successful relationships within SSPs will not be generated by providing role clarity alone. The study also found that the 'right sort of person' is needed in the role of SSO where other studies have not explored this. The 'right sort of person' must hold certain attributes commonly associated with 'soft policing' and characteristics found within community policing. These good attributes can be categorised by ability and knowledge. SSOs must have good communication skills including confidence, approachability and diplomacy, common sense, a desire to work with young people, knowledge of how to investigate crime, knowledge of police and school policy and procedures, and experience in different policing roles. This 'new-age' police officer contrasts with the traditional idea of a police officer as a law enforcer (Silvestri, 2018). However, there remains a lack of recognition within the MPS that the role of an SSO is a specialist role.

The myriad of working practices within SSPs includes SSOs with responsibility for a varying number of schools, leading to some schools receiving more police engagement than others. Evidence from participants found that establishing a positive relationship between the police and school staff is vital in building trust. Similarly, Deuchar, et al (Deuchar, et al., 2014), the College of Policing (2013) and Morrell (2015) suggested that having trust is often the key to successful collaborative approaches. Furthermore, as well as procedural justice being a significant factor in building trust (Wolfe, et al., 2017, p. 113) within SSPs, this study found it can take between six months and one year to build trust. Therefore, establishing a positive relationship may take longer in schools that rarely see their SSO.

Furthermore, the study found developing a positive relationship within SSPs is more complex due to the pre-conceived impressions of the police in relation to

police officer gender and ethnicity. Conversely, the study found SSOs of ethnic appearance were more inclined to agree that their skin colour makes a difference in building relationships with schools, particularly with school staff and parents in breaking down barriers more quickly. Similarly, this study shows that the gender of the SSO has a positive impact, particularly with female officers working in all-girls schools and with young males in other schools. However, while it appears that ethnicity and/or gender play a part in how relationships within SSPs develop, they are only small parts to a larger group of attributes that contribute to a long-lasting SSP.

In addition, the study finds that it is important to create an SSP where both partners have equal say, however as the police are working in the school environment it is imperative to have the 'buy-in' of HTs. However, HTs appear to have a variety of expectations and understanding of SSPs that are at odds with that of the police. Therefore, a good understanding of the roles within an SSP is entwined in that 'buy-in'. Moreover, both organisations are fundamentally different in terms of the closed nature of policing and the open organisational systems of schools. Thus, those cultural differences exacerbate the potentially harmful effects on trust within the SSP.

Moreover, the study found that issues affecting relationships within SSPs were not dealt with in any formal way through evaluation. In addition, issues could not be tracked (Metropolitan Police Authority, 2003; Metropolitan Police Service, 2012; Mayors Office for Policing And Crime, 2014; Mayor's Office for Police And Crime, 2016). The lack of a corporate evaluation has led to various evaluation methods, most of which were simply dealing with partnership issues as they arise, or a complete lack of an evaluation. However, there were mixed views on the

usefulness of any formalised evaluation due to the lack of relationship building between HTs and higher-ranking police officers. SSPs currently lack the drive to change or improve if a HT does not agree with an evaluation's recommendation. Thus, it appears more useful to refer to any formal SSP evaluation in terms of 'feedback' so that it does not seem like an appraisal.

(Metropolitan Police Authority, 2003; Metropolitan Police Service, 2012; Mayors Office for Policing And Crime, 2014; Mayor's Office for Police And Crime, 2016)

Recommendations to take forward

The following recommendations are suggested to the MPS and schools arising from the findings of this study. This will assist in improving relationships and creating more effective SSPs.

1. **Include a separate role profile for each role within the SSP in the SSP protocol.** This includes, the role of the HT, Police Inspector, School point of contact, Safer Schools Sergeant, SSO and other school staff. The study found that there is confusion over everybody's role within an SSP. Providing clarity within the SSP protocol would provide a go-to document that can be referred to.

2. **Create a defined SSP framework to describe the duties of an SSO.** Whilst historical literature has recognised *"that no one overarching model of the Safer School Partnership can be applicable in all cases"* (Department for Education and Skills, 2006, p. 15), the findings from this study suggests that one overarching model of the SSP is needed where both partners have equal say. There are always going to be bespoke issues from one SSP to the other,

however, in the same way that a role profile for each role is needed, those working in an SSP need to understand how the mechanics of the SSP work and how everybody fits into that model without having to make it up as they go along.

3. **Create a corporate job description for SSOs that includes the good attributes of an SSO.** The study found that good SSOs have specific attributes that make them good in the context of SSPs. It is recommended that a standard job description, linked to the role profile is created and used when recruiting for SSOs.

4. **MPS to recognise that the SSO role is a specialism.** The study found a lack of recognition that the role of SSO is a specialist role because it is very different from other policing roles. Whilst it is clear there is an effort to professionalise the role, it is yet corporately recognised as a specialist role.

5. **MPS to build tenure in to the SSO role.** The study found that it takes between 6 months to a year to build trust in an SSP. This requires a consistent SSO presence and

6. **Create an annual SSP feedback process to allow evaluation of SSPs.** The study found SSPs lacked evaluation. Despite there being mixed views on the usefulness of an evaluation, it remains clear that SSPs may not develop if issues are not identified and deal with. The evaluation must enable discovery of 'good' practices and innovation within formal partnership structures.

7. **MPS to increase involvement of senior police officers in SSPs.** The study found a lack of engagement from senior police officers, particularly in building a relationship with HTs. This relationship would be useful to drive improvements and increase understanding of SSPs.

Summary of study limitations

The interviews took place over a nine-month period, during a time of large-scale change to the MPS operating model, therefore some of the answers given by participants may have been affected by the changes. The participants volunteered themselves following my request for volunteers, therefore there was a risk of self-selection bias and it may be that those that did not volunteer have completely different experiences and opinions to those that did. Additionally, I cannot be certain that every SSO read the email that was sent out to them via the Safer Schools Supervisors.

Additionally, this study does not cover the work schools and SSOs conduct with other agencies. For example, Local Authorities, Social Services, Multi-agency Safeguarding hubs, Fair Access Panels, the National Health Service, Youth Offending Services, as well as the myriad of local and national intervention and diversion schemes available. This is because the focus of my research is on the relationship between the police and the school, neglecting the other functions within a partnership. I designed this into the interview questions so that my research did not become too wide, in the same vain I steered away from talking about how young people are dealt with.

Furthermore, whilst not criminalising young people is a part of the ethos of SSPs, it was not within the scope of this study to explore how the act of having police officers in schools affects criminalisation of young people.

Further research

The study could be repeated with participants from each of the 32 boroughs and focus on Safer Schools Sergeants only, HTs only, SSOs only, or school SPOCs only. The study could also incorporate interviews with police officers in other police departments or teaching staff to discover directly their opinions and attitude towards SSOs.

Additionally, the study brought new findings which could be researched further. A new study could expand on the finding to investigate perceptions and the effects of SSOs' race and ethnic diversity in SSPs. Similarly, a new study could explore the perceptions and the effects of female police officers in SSPs.

Finally, my research has revealed other areas of focus that could add value to SSP literature. The way SSPs utilise other agencies to achieve its aims, understanding the real impact SSPs have on the criminalisation of young people and conversely, do SSPs have an impact on future demand on policing.

Bibliography

Acker, J., (1990) Gendered organizations and intersectionality: Problems and possibilities. *Gender and Society,* 4(1), pp. 139-158.

Acker, J., (1992) Gendering organisational theory. In: A. Mills & P. Tancred, eds. *Gendering organisational analysis.* London, England: Sage, pp. 248-260.

Acker, J., (2012) Gendered organizations and intersectionality: Problems and possibilities. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal,* 31(1), pp. 214-224.

Alexander, S. & Ruderman, M., (1987) The Role of Procedural Justice and Distributive Justice in Organisational Behaviour. *Social Justice Research,* 1(2), pp. 177-198.

Anderson, D., (1998) Curriculum, culture, and community: The challenge of school violence. *Crime and Justice,* 24(1), pp. 317-363.

Anderson, G., Litzenberger, R. & Plecas, D., (2002) Physical evidence of police officer stress. *Policing: An International Journal,* 25(2), pp. 399-420.

Argyris, C., (1980) *Inner contradictions of rigorous research.* 1st ed. New York: Academic Press.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. & Razavieh, A., (2018) *Introduction to research in education.* 10th ed. Boston, MA: Cengage.

Association of Chief Police Officers, (2010) *Children & Young People Strategy 2010-2013,* London: Association of Chief Police Officers.

Avison, D. & Wood-Harper, A., (1991) Conclusions from action research: the multiview experience. In: M. Jackson, et al. eds. *Systems Thinking in Europe.* New York: Springer Science + Business Media, pp. 591-596.

Baginsky, M. & Holmes, D., (2015) *A review of current arrangements for the operation of Local Safeguarding Children Boards,* London: Local Government Association.

Baker, N., (2014) *Working together to safeguard children: Multi-Agency Safeguarding Hubs.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/news/working-together-to-safeguard-children-multi-agency-safeguarding-hubs
[Accessed 9 June 2015].

Balch, R., (1972) The police personality: fact or fiction?. *The journal of criminal Law, criminology, and police science,* 63(1), pp. 106-119.

Bannan, N. et al., (2006) *The impact schools initiative: A critical assessment and recommendation for future implementation,* New York: A Report for the Prison Moratorium Project. Wagner School of Public Service, New York University.

Barrett, D., (2009) *Police spend £20,000 on cardboard officers.* [Online]
Available at: http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/uknews/law-and-order/4410417/Police-spend-20000-on-cardboard-officers.html
[Accessed 01 11 2014].

Bayley, D., (1990) *Patterns of Policing: A Comparative International Analysis.* 1 ed. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press.

Becker, H., (2013) 'Outsiders' . In: E. McLaughlin, J. Muncie & G. Hughes, eds. *Criminological Perspectives* . London: Sage, pp. 239-248.

Benson, P. R., (1981) Political Alienation and Public Satisfaction with Police Services. *Sociological Perspectives,* 24(1), pp. 45-64.

Bhabra, S., Hill, E. & Ghate, D., (2004) *Safe School Partnerships: National Evaluation of the Safer School Partnerships Programme,* London: The Youth Justice Board for England and Wales.

Bhattacherjee, A., (2012) *Social Science Research: Principles, Methods, and Practices.* 2nd ed. Tampa: University of South Florida.

Bittner, E., (1973) *The Functions of the Police in Modern Society.* 1st ed. Cambridge, MA: Gunn and Hain.

Black, C. et al., (2010) *Evaluation of Campus Police Officers in Scottish Schools,* Edinburgh: Education Analytical Services, Scottish Government.

Bowles, R., Reyes, M. G. & Pradiptyo, R., (2005) *Safer Schools Partnerships,* London: Youth Justice Board for England and Wales.

Briers, A. & Dickmann, E., (2011) Safer Schools Partnerships. In: C. Hayden & D. Martin, eds. *Crime, Anti-Social Behaviour and Schools.* Basingstoke: Palgrave, pp. 160-175.

Brogden, M. & Nijhar, P., (2005) *Community Policing: National and International Models and Approaches.* 1st ed. New York: Willan Publishing.

Brogden, M. & Nijhar, P., (2013) *Community Policing,* New York: Routledge.

Brown, B., (2006) Understanding and assessing school police officers: A conceptual and methodological comment. *Journal of Criminal Justice,* 34(6), p. 591–604.

Brown, J., (1996) Police research: Some critical issues. In: F. Leishman, B. Loveday & S. Savage, eds. *Core Issues in Policing.* London: Longman, pp. 177-190.

Brunson, R. & Miller, J., (2006) Young Black Men and Urban Policing in the United States. *The British Journal of Criminology,* 46(4), pp. 613-640.

Bryman, A., (2004) *Social Research Methods.* 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Buerger, M., (2007) Police cynicism. In: J. Greene, ed. *The encyclopedia of police science.* New York: Routledge, pp. 370-373.

Bullock, K., (2009) Generating and using community intelligence: the case of neighbourhood policing. *International Journal of Police Science & Management,* 12(1), pp. 1-11.

Bullock, K., (2009) Generating and using community intelligence: the case of neighbourhood policing. *International Journal of Police Science & Management,* 12(1), pp. 1-11.

Bullock, R., Little, M. & Mulham, S., (1995) *The Relationship between Qualitative and Quantitative approaches in Social Policy Research.* 1st ed. London: SAGE.

Cameron, A., Lart, R., Bostock, L. & Coomber, C., (2013) Factors that promote and hinder joint and integrated working between health and social care

services: a review of research literature. *Health and Social Care in the Community,* 22(3), pp. 225-233.

Carley, M., (2010) Urban partnerships, Governance and the Regeneration of Britain's Cities. *International Planning Studies,* 5(3), pp. 273-297.

Carr, W. & Kemmis, S., (1986) *ecoming Critical: Education, Knowledge and Action Research.* 1st ed. London: Falmer.

Casey, L., (2008) *Engaging Communities,* London: Cabinet Office.

Cassell, C. & Johnson, P., (2006) Action research: Explaining the diversity. *Human Relations,* 59(6), pp. 783-814.

CCCU, (2014) *An Introduction to Ethics Issues and Principles in Research Involving human and animal participants.* Canterbury: Canterbury Christchurch University.

Cemlyn, S., Fahmy, E. & Gordon, D., (2005) Poverty, Neighbourhood Renewal and the Voluntary and Community Sector in West Cornwall. *Community Development Journal,* 40(1), pp. 76-85.

Chakravorty, P., (2016) *Key principles of effective prevention education,* London: PSHE Association.

Chief Secretary to the Treasury, (2003) *Every child matters,* Norwich: The Stationery Office.

Children's Workforce Development Council, (2009) *The Team Around The Child (TAC) and the Lead Professional: A guide for managers,* Leeds: Children's Workforce Development Council.

Chrusciel, M. et al., (2015) Law enforcement executive and principal perspectives on school safety measures: School resource officers and armed school employees. *Policing,* 38(1), pp. 24-39.

Clayman, S. & Skinns, L., (2012) To snitch or not to snitch? An exploratory study of the factors influencing whether young people actively cooperate with the police. *Policing and Society.,* 22(4), pp. 460-480.

College of Policing, (2013) *Engagement.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.app.college.police.uk/app-content/engagement-and-communication/engaging-with-communities/#the-confidence-cycle
[Accessed 20 June 2015].

Committee of Enquiry, (1989) *The Elton Report: Discipline in Schools,* London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

Connell, N., Miggans, K. & McGloin, J., (2008) Can a community policing initiative reduce serious crime? A local evaluation. *Police Quarterly,* 11(2), pp. 127-150.

Cook, A., Mulherin, T. & Seditas, K., (2015) *Partnership Working across UK public services,* Edinburgh: What Works Scotland.

Coughlan, P. & Coghlan, D., (2002) Action research for operations management. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management,* 22(2), pp. 220-240.

Cox, T., (1994) *Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research, and Practice.* 1st ed. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Crank, J., (2015) *Understanding Police Culture.* 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Crawford, A. & Evans, K., (2017) Crime Prevention and Community Safety. In: A. Leibling, S. Maruna & L. McAra, eds. *The Oxford Handbook of Criminology.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 797-824.

Crawford, A. & L'Hoiry, X., (2015) *Partnerships in the Delivery of Policing and Safeguarding Children,* Leeds: Centre for Criminal Justice Studies, University of Leeds.

Crawford, A. & Lister, S., (2004) *The Extended Policing Family: Visible Patrols in Residential Areas.* 1at ed. York: Joseph Towntree Foundation.

Cray, M. & Weiler, S., (2011) Policy to practice: A look at national and state implementation of school resource officer programs. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas,* 84(1), p. 164–170.

Creswell, J., (2003) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches.* 2nd ed. London: SAGE.

Creswell, J. & Creswell, J., (2013) *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* 4th ed. London: SAGE.

Deaton, A. & Cartwright, N., (2018) Understanding and misunderstanding randomized controlled trials. *Social Science & Medicine,* 210(1), pp. 2-21.

Demirkol, I. C. & Nalla, M. K., (2019) How does police culture shape officers' support for community policing?. *Policing and Society,* 29(6), pp. 692-705.

Denscombe, M., (2003) *The Good Research Guide for Small Scale Sound Research Projects.* 2nd ed. Maidenhead Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Denzin, N., (2009) *The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods.* 1st ed. New York: Routledge.

Department for Children, Schools and Families; Association of Chief Police Officers; Youth Justice Board;Home Office, (2009) *Safer school partnerships guidance.* [Online]
Available at:
http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/http://www.educatio n.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/Safer_Schools_Guidance.pdf
[Accessed 13 November 2016].

Department for Education and Skills, (2006) *Mainstreaming Safer School Partnerships.* London: Department for Education and Skills.

Department for Education, (2015) *Personal, social, health and economic (PSHE) education: a review of impact and effective practice,* London: Department for Education.

Department for Education, (2015) *The purpose of education.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/the-purpose-of-education
[Accessed 13 July 2018].

Department for Education, (2019) *Get information about schools.* [Online]
Available at: https://get-information-schools.service.gov.uk/
[Accessed 19 October 2017].

Deuchar, R., Miller, J. & Barrow, M., (2014) Breaking Down Barriers with the Usual Suspects: Findings from a Research-informed Intervention with Police,

Young People and Residents in the West of Scotland. *Youth Justice,* 15(1), pp. 57-75.

Dickens, L. & Watkins, K., (1999) Action Research: Rethinking Lewin. *Management Learning,* 30(2), pp. 127-140.

Dickinson, H. & Glasby, J., (2010) Why partnership working doesn't work. Pitfalls, problems and possibilities in English health and social care. *Public management Review,* 12(6), pp. 811-828.

Dittman, R., (2003) Policing hate crime. From victim to challenger: A transgendered perspective. *Probation Journal,* 50(3), pp. 282-288.

Dowling, B., Powell, M. & Glendinning, C., (2004) Conceptualising successful partnerships. *Health and Social Care in the Community,* 12(4), pp. 309-317.

Drake, D., Fergusson, R. & Briggs, D., (2014) Hearing new voices: Re-viewing Youth Justice Policy through Practitioners' Relationships with Young People. *Youth Justice,* 14(1), pp. 22-39.

Drum Major Institute, (2005) *A look at the Impact Schools: A Drum Major Institute for Public Policy data brief.* New York, s.n.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. & Lowe, A., (2012) *Management Research.* 4th ed. London: SAGE.

Eden, C., (1996) Action Management for Management Research. *British Journal of Management,* Volume 7, pp. 75-86.

Ellis, E., Fortune, J. & Peters, G., (2007) Partnership Problems: Analysis and Re-Design. *Crime Prevention and Community Safety,* 9(1), pp. 34-51.

Ericson, R. V. & Haggerty, K. D., (1997) *Policing the Risk Society.* 1st ed. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Erlandson, D., Harris, E., Skipper, B. & Allen, S., (1993) *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods.* 1st ed. London: SAGE.

Fielding, N., (1984) Police socialization and police competence. *The British journal of sociology,* 35(4), p. 568–590.

Fielding, N., (1989) Constraints on the practice of community policing. In: R. Morgan & D. Smith, eds. *Coming to Terms with Policing.* London: Routledge.

Firmin, C., (2017) *An overview of the operational, strategic and conceptual framework,* Bedford: University of Bedforshire.

Firmin, C., Eastman, A., Wise QC, I. & Proschaka, E., (2019) *A Legal Framework for Implementing Contextual Safeguarding: Initial opportunities and consideration,* Bedford: University of Bedfordshire Institute of Applied Social Research.

Fletcher, A., (2013) *A Short Introduction to Youth Engagement,* Olympia WA: The Freechild Project.

Fletcher, A. et al., (2015) Involving young people in changing their school environment to make it safer. *Health Education,* 115(3), pp. 322-338.

Ford, K. et al., (2016) *An evaluation of the Adverse Childhood Experience (ACE) Informed Approach to Policing Vulnerability Training (AIAPVT) pilot,* Bangor, Wales: Public Health Wales.

Fraenkel, J., Wallen, N. & Hyun, H., (2014) *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education.* 9th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

France, A. & Homel, R., (2006) Societal access routes and developmental pathways: Putting social structure and young people's voice into the analysis of pathways into and out of crime. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology,* 39(3), pp. 295-309.

Gay, L., Mills, G. & Airasian, P., (2009) *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Applications.* 12th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

Giddens, A., (1976) *New Rules of Sociological Method.* 1st ed. New York: Basic Books, Hutchinson.

Gordon, P., (1984) Community policing: towards the local police state?. *Critical Social Policy,* 4(10), pp. 39-58.

Greene, J., Caracelli, V. & Graham, W., (1989) Towards a conseptual framework for mixed-method evalusation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Anaylsis,* 11(3), pp. 255-274.

Greenwood, D. & Levin, M., (2006) *Introduction to Action Research: Social Research for Social Change.* 2nd ed. London: SAGE.

Guba, E. & Lincoln, Y., (1981) *Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches.* 1st ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Hammersley, M., (1992) *Routledge Revivals: What's Wrong With Ethnography?.* 1st ed. London: Routledge.

Harrington, R. & Bailey, S., (2005) *Mental Health Needs and Effectiveness of Provision for Young Offenders in Custody and in the Community,* London: Youth Justice Board.

Harvie, P. & Manzi, T., (2011) Interpreting Multi-Agency Partnerships: Ideology, Discourse and Domestic Violence. *Social & Legal Studies,* 20(1), pp. 79-95.

Hayden, C., (2011) *Anti-Social Behaviour and Schools in Britain – are all schools 'at risk'?.* Portsmouth, University of Portsmouth.

Hayden, C., Holt, A., Martin, D. & Nee, C., (2011) Safer Schools in the UK – a case study. *International Journal on School Disaffection,* 8(2), pp. 5-13.

Hayden, C. & Martin, D., (2011) *Crime, Anti-Social Behaviour and Schools,* Basingstoke: Palgrave/MacMillan.

Haynes, G. & Lynch, S., (2013) Local partnerships: blowing in the wind of national policy changes. *British Educational Research Journal,* 39(3), pp. 425-446.

Hendrick, H., (2004) Constructions and reconstructions of British childhood: an interpretative survey, 1800 to the present. In: J. Muncie, G. Hughes & E. McLaughlin, eds. *Youth Justice: Critical readings.* London: Sage, pp. 22-44.

Herr, K. & Anderson, G., (2005) *The action research dissertation: A guide for students and faculty.* 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Hickman, M. & Reaves, B., (2001) *Community policing in local police departments, 1997 and 1999,* NCJ 184794: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.

Hicks, A. & Lawrence, J., (2004) Procedural Safeguards for Young Offenders: Views of Legal Professionals and Adolescents. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology,* 37(3), pp. 401-407.

Higgins, A., (2018) *The future of neighbourhood policing,* London: The Police Foundation.

Hirschfield, P., (2018) Schools and crime. *Annual Review of Criminology,* 1(1), p. 149–169.

Hirschfield, P. et al., (2006) Mental health and juvenille arrests: Criminality, criminilization, or compassion?. *Criminology,* 44(3), pp. 593-630.

HMIC, (2015) *In harm's way: the role of the police in keeping children safe,* London: HMIC.

Hogan-Howe, B., (2017) *Met police chief says cuts will lead to fewer officers in London.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2017/feb/03/met-police-chief-bernard-hogan-howe-policing-numbers-london
[Accessed 25 March 2017].

Holt, A., Martin, D., Hayden, C. & Nee, C., (2011) Schooled in democracy? Promoting democratic values as a whole-school approach to violence prevention. *Crime Prevention and Community Safety,* 13(3), pp. 205-217.

Home Office, Ministry of Justice. Cabinet Office. Department for Children, Schools and Families, (2008) *Youth Crime Action Plan,* London: HMSO.

Home Office;Department for Education;Ministry of Defence, (2018) *The national protocol on reducing unnecessary criminalisation of looked-after children and care leavers,* London: Home Office.

Home Office, (2010) *Safe and confident heighbourhoods strategy: Next steps in neighbourhood policing,* London: Home Office.

Home Office, (2014) *Anti-social Behaviour, Crime and Policing Act 2014: Reform of anti-social behaviour powers. Statutory guidance for frontline professionals,* London: Home Office.

Home Office, (2015) *Working together to safeguard children: A guide to inter-agency working to safeguard and promote the welfare of children,* London: HM Government.

Hopkins, B., (2004) *Just schools: A whole school approach to restorative justice.* 1st ed. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Hopkins, D., (2001) *School improvement for real.* 1st ed. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Hopkins, N., Hewstone, M. & Hantzi, A., (1992) Police-Schools iaison and young people's images of the police : An intervention evaluation. *British Journal of Psychology,* 83(2), pp. 203-220.

Hough, M., (2013) *Procedural justice and professional policing in times of austerity,* London: Birkbeck, University of London.

Hughes, G., (2007) *The Politics of Crime and Community.* 2nd ed. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hunter, D. & Perkins, N., (2012) Partnership working in public health: the implications for governance of a systems approach. *Journal of Health Services Research & Policy,* 17(2), pp. 45-52.

Huxham, C. & Vangen, S., (2000) Ambiguity, complexity and dynamics in the membership of collaboration. *Human Relations,* 53(6), pp. 771-806.

Innes, M., (2003) *Understanding social control.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.dawsonera.com
[Accessed 01 11 2014].

Innes, M., (2004) Reinventing Tradition? Reassurance, Neighbourhood Security and Policing. *Criminology and Criminal Justice,* 4(2), pp. 151-171.

Innes, M., (2005) Why 'soft' policing is hard: on the curious development of reassurance policing, how it became neighbourhood policing and what this signifies about the politics of police reform. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology,* 15(3), pp. 156-169.

Innes, M., (2010) A "Mirror" and a "Motor": Researching and Reforming in an Age of Austerity. *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice,* 4(2), pp. 127-134.

Ivankova, N., (2015) *Mixed Methods Application in Action Research: From Methods to Community Action.* 1st ed. London: SAGE.

Jackson, J. & Bradford, B., (2009) Crime, policing, and social order: On the expressive nature of public confidence in policing. *British Journal of Sociology,* 60(1), p. 493–521.

Jackson, T., (1980) Crime in American Public Schools. *The Public Interest,* 58(1), pp. 18-42.

James, L., James, S. & Vila, B., (2018) The impact of work shift and fatigue on police officer response in simulated interactions with citizens. *Journal of Experimental Criminology,* 14(1), pp. 111-120.

Javdani, S., (2019) Policing Education: An Empirical Review of the Challenges and Impact of the Work of School Police Officers. *American Journal of Community Psychology,* 63(3-4), pp. 253-269.

Jenkins, M., (2014) The use of qualitative methods and practitioners-as-authors in journal publications of police research. *Police Practice and Research,* 16(6), p. 499–511.

Jick, T., (1979) Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 24(4), pp. 602-611.

Johnson, I., (1999) School violence: The effectiveness of a school resource officer program in a southern city. *Journal of Criminal Justice,* 27(2), p. 173–192.

Johnson, J., (2002) In-Depth Interviewing. In: J. Gubrium & J. Holstein, eds. *Handbook of Interview Research: Context and Methods.* London: SAGE, pp. 103-119.

Johnson, R. & Onwuegbuzie, A., (2004) Mixed Methods Research: A Research Paradigm Whose Time Has Come. *Educational Researcher*, 1 October, p. 15.

Johnstone, G. & Van Ness, D. W., (2007) *Handbook of restorative justice.* 1st ed. New York: Routledge.

Johnston, L., (2003) From 'pluralisation' to 'the police extended family': Discourses on the governance of community policing in Britain. *International Journal of the Sociology of Law,* 31(3), pp. 185-204.

Johnston, L., (2005) From 'community' to 'neighbourhood' policing: police community support officers and the 'police extended family' in London. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology,* 15(3), pp. 241-254.

Johnston, P., (2011) *If the police are the public, let the public vote.* [Online]
Available at:
http://www.telegraph.co.uk/comment/columnists/philipjohnston/8616869/If-the-police-are-the-public-let-the-public-vote.html
[Accessed 1st March 2015].

Kaehne, A., (2013) Partnerships in Local Government: The case of transition support services for young people with learning disabilities. *Public Management Review,* 15(5), pp. 611-632.

Kane, P., advisor, C. P. D. & Police, M., (2011) *Lighting Against Crime,* London: ACPO SBD.

Keiser, L., Wilkins, V., Meier, K. & Holland, C., (2002) Lipstick and Logarithms: Gender, Institutional Context, and Representative Bureaucracy. *American Political Science Review,* 96(3), pp. 553-564.

Kelman, S., Hong, S. & Turbitt, I., (2013) Are There Managerial Practices Associated with the Outcomes of an Interagency Service Delivery Collaboration? Evidence from British Crime and Disorder Reduction

Partnerships. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory,* 23(3), pp. 609-630.

Khan, S., (2019) *A new model for preventing violence in London.* London: Mayors Office for Police And Crime.

Koshy, E., Koshy, V. & Waterman, H., (2010) Action Research in Healthcare. In: V. Koshy, ed. *What is Action Research.* London: SAGE, pp. 1-24.

Lamie, J. & Ball, R., (2010) Evaluation of partnership working within a community planning context. *Local Government Studies,* 36(1), pp. 109-127.

Lamont, E., Macleod, S. & Wilkin, A., (2011) *Police Officers in Schools: A Scoping Study,* Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research.

Lawless, P. & Beatty, C., (2013) Exploring change in local regeneration areas: evidence from the New Deal for Communities Programme in England. *Urban Studies,* 50(5), p. 942.

Leedy, P., (1989) *Practical Research: Planning and Design.* 4th ed. New York: Macmillan.

Legislation Editorial Team, (2002) *Section 5 of the Crime and Disorder Act 1998.* [Online]
Available at: http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1998/37/section/5#section-5-1A-1B
[Accessed 8 June 2015].

Leiber, M., Nalla, M. & Farnworth, M., (1998) Explaining juveniles' attitudes toward the. *Justice Quarterly,* 15(1), pp. 151-174.

Lester, H. et al., (2008) Barriers and facilitators to partnership working between Early Intervention Services and the voluntary and community sector. *Health & Social Care in the Community,* 16(5), pp. 493-500.

Lewin, K., (1946) Action Research and Minority Problems. *Journal of Social Issues,* 2(1), pp. 34-46.

Lincoln, Y. & Guba, E., (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry.* 1st ed. London: SAGE.

Ling, T., Brereton, L. & Conklin, A., (2012) Barriers and facilitators to integrating care: experiences from the English Integrated Care Pilots. *International Journal of Integrated Care,* Volume 12, pp. 12-129.

Lipsky, M., (1980) *Street-level bureaucracy: dilemmas of the individual in public services.* 1st ed. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Lloyd, K. & Foster, J., (2009) *Citizen Focus and Community Engagement,* London: The Police Foundation.

Loeber, R., Farrington, D. P., Stouthamer-Loeber, M. & Van Kammen, W. B., (2009) *Antisocial behaviour and mental health problems: Explanatory factors in childhood and adolenscence.* 2nd ed. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc.

Lofland, J. & Lofland, L., (1995) *Analysing Social Settings: A Guide to Qualitative Observation and Analysis.* 1st ed. Belmont: Wadsworth.

London Crime Reduction Board, (2014) *Strategic Ambitions for London: Gangs and Serious Youth Violence,* London: London Crime Reduction Board.

Lustgarten, L., (1986) *The Governance of Police.* 1st ed. London: Sweet & Maxwell.

Lynn, L., (1996) *Public management as art, science, and profession.* 1st ed. Chatham, NJ: Chatham House Publisher.

Magarey, S., (2004) The invention of juvenile delinquency in early nineteeth-century England. In: J. Muncie, G. Hughes & E. McLaughlin, eds. *Youth Justice: Critical Readings.* London: Sage, pp. 115-122.

Maguire, M. & John, T., (2006) Intelligence led policing, managerialism and community engagement: Competing priorities and the role of the National Intelligence Model in the UK. *Policing & Society,* 16(1), pp. 67-85.

Mangan, A., Thomas, R., Davies, A. & Gasper, R., (2017) The challenges of police-community collaboration: identity manoeuvres and power struggles in a neighbourhood based meeting. *Public Management Review,* 20(9), pp. 1353-1373.

Mann, P., Pritchard, S. & Rummery, K., (2004) Supporting inter-organisational partnerships in the public sector. *Public Management Review,* 6(3), pp. 417-439.

Mason, J., (2018) *Qualitative Researching.* 3rd ed. London: SAGE.

Mayor's Office for Police And Crime, (2016) *YOUth matter! Listening to the voice of young London,* London: MOPAC.

Mayors Office for Police And Crime, (2018) *Tackling the rise of violent crime in London,* London: Police and Crime Committee.

Mayor's Office for Policing And Crime, (2013) *Police and Crime Plan 2013-2016,* London: Mayor's Office for Policing And Crime.

Mayors Office for Policing And Crime, (2014) *MOPAC Public Attitude Survey,* London: MOPAC.

Mayors Office for Policing And Crime, (2016) *Report 2016,* London: Mayors Office for Policing And Crime.

Mayor's Office for Policing And Crime, (2016) *YOUth matter! Listening to the voice of young London,* London: MOPAC.

Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime, (2017) *Police and Crime Plan for London: A Safer City for All Londoners 2017-2021,* London: Mayors Office for Policing and Crime.

McCarthy, D. O. M., (2014) The Police and Partnership Working: Reflections on Recent Research. *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice.*

McCreadie, C., Mathew, D., Filinson, R. & Askham, J., (2008) Ambiguity and Cooperation in the Implementation of Adult Protection Policy. *Social Policy & Administration,* 42(3), pp. 248-266.

McKay, J. & Marshall, P., (2001) The dual imperatives of action research. *Information Technology & People,* 4(1), pp. 46-59.

McLaughlin, E., (1994) *Community, Policing and Accountability: The Politics of Policing in Manchester in the 1980s.* 1st ed. Aldershot: Avebury.

McLaughlin, E., Muncie, J. & Hughes, G., (2001) The permanent revolution: New Labour, new public management and the modernization of criminal justice. *Criminology and Criminal Justice,* 1(3), pp. 301-318.

McNicholas, C., (2008) *School Resource Security Officers: School Protection Officers for Public Schools.* 1st ed. s.l.:s.n.

McNiff, J., (2010) *Action Research for professional Development Concise Advice for New Action Researchers.* 4th ed. Dorset: September Books.

McWhirter, J., (2008) *A Review of Safety Education: Principles for effective practice,* Birmingham, UK: Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents.

Meaklim, T. & Sims, J., (2011) Leading Powerful Partnerships - a new model of public sector leadership development. *International Journal of Leadership in Public Services,* 7(1), pp. 21-31.

Meese, E., (1993) Community Policing and the Police Officer. *Perspectives on Policing*, 1 January, pp. 1-12.

Meier, K. & Stewart, J., (1992) Active Representation in Educational Bureaucracies: Policy Impacts. *American Review of Public Administration,* 22(3), pp. 157-171.

Meier, K., Stewart, J. & England, R., (1989) *Race, Class and Education: The Politics of Second-Generation Discrimination.* 1st ed. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.

Merriam, S., (1988) *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach.* 1st ed. San Francisco, CA, US: Jossey-Bass.

Metropolitan Police Authority, (2003) *Scrutiny report: Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships London,* London: Metropolitan Police Authority.

Metropolitan Police Service and Metropolitan Police Authority, (2003) *Joint Annual Report 2002/03,* London: Metropolitan Police Authority.

Metropolitan Police Service, (2011) *Children and Young People Strategy 2011-2014,* London: Metropolitan Police Service.

Metropolitan Police Service, (2012) *Youth Talk: The Voice of Young London,* London: Metropolitan Police Service.

Metropolitan Police Service, (2015) *The London Child Sexual Exploitation Operating Protocol,* London: Metropolitan Police Service.

Meyer, J., (2000) Using qualitative methods in health related action research. *Medical Journal,* Volume 320, pp. 178-181.

Ministry of Justice, (2014) *Putting an end to 'soft option' cautions.* [Online] Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/news/putting-an-end-to-soft-option-cautions
[Accessed 8 June 2015].

Minshall, T., Mortara, L., Napp, J. & Probert, D., (2010) Making "Asymmetric" Partnerships Work. *Research Technology Management,* 53(3), pp. 53-63.

Morabito, M., (2010) Understanding community policing as an innovation: Patterns of adoption. *Crime & Delinquency,* 56(4), pp. 564-587.

Morrell, K., (2015) *What is 'Public Confidence'?,* Warwick: Warwick Business School.

Morrison, J., (1968) The controversial police-school liaison programs. *Police,* Volume November-December, p. 60–64.

Mosher, F. C., (1982) *Democracy and the Public Service.* 1st ed. New York: Oxford University Press.

Muncie, J., (2015) *Youth & Crime.* 4th ed. London: Sage.

Murphy, K., (2005) Regulating More Effectively: The Relationship between Procedural Justice, Legitimacy and Tax Non-compliance. *Journal of Law and Society,* 32(4), pp. 562-589.

Myhill, A. & Bradford, B., (2012) an police enhance public confidence by improving quality of service? Results from two surveys in England and Wales. *Policing and Society,* 22(4), pp. 397-425.

Myhill, A. & Quinton, P., (2010) Confidence, Neighbourhood Policing, and Contact: Drawing Together the Evidence. *Policing: A journal of policy and practice,* 9(2), pp. 273-281.

Na, C. & Gottfredson, D. C., (2011) Police Officers in Schools: Effects on School Crime and the Processing of Offending Behaviors. *Justice Quarterly*, 3 October, pp. 1-32.

National Police Chief's Council, (2016) *Child centred policing: National Strategy for the Policing of Children and Young People,* London: National Police Cheif's Council.

Neuman, W., (2000) *Social Research Methods.* 1st ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

New York City Department of Education, (2004) *Presentation to Panel for Education Policy.* New York CIty: s.n.

Newbury, A., (2008) Youth Crime: Whose Responsibility?. *Journal of Law and Society,* 35(1), pp. 131-149.

Newman, J., (2001) *Modernizing governance: New Labour, policy and society.* 1st ed. London: Sage.

Newman, L., (2016) *Innovation in practice: an overview of collaboration across England,* London: Public Health England.

Newman, T. et al., (2010) *Delivering neighbourhood policing in partnership,* London: Home Office.

Nix, J., Wolfe, S., Rojek, J. & Kaminski, R., (2014) Trust in the police: The influence of procedural justice and perceived collective efficacy. *Crime & Delinquency,* 61(4), pp. 610-640.

Noaks, L. & Wincup, E., (2004) *Criminological Research - Understanding Qualitative Methods.* 1st ed. London: SAGE.

Norman, J., (2009) Seen and Not Heard: Young People's Perceptions of the Police. *Policing,* 3(4), pp. 364-372.

Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, (2004) *Safer Places: The Planning System and Crime Prevention,* London: Latimer Trend & Company Ltd.

Office of the Police and Crime Commissioner for Hertfordshire, (2015) *Commissioner says the future of policing is local.* [Online]
Available at: http://www.hertscommissioner.org/2015-06-commissioner-says-

the-future-of-policing-is-local

[Accessed 19 June 2015].

Ofsted, (2013) *Not yet good enough: personal, social, health and economic education in schools.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/not-yet-good-enough
[Accessed 18 April 2017].

O'Neill, M. & McCarthy, D., (2012) (Re)negotiating police culture through partnership working: Trust, compromise and the 'new' pragmatism. *Criminology & Criminal Justice,* 14(2), pp. 143-159.

Palmiotto, M. J., (2011) *Community Policing: A Police-Citizen Partnership.* 1 ed. New York: Routledge.

Parfrement-Hopkins, J. et al., (2011) *Perceptions of crime, engagement with the police, authorities dealing with anti-social behaviour and Community Payback:Findings from the 2010/11 British Crime Survey,* London: Home Office.

Paul, S., Smith, P. & Blumberg, H., (2010) Addressing cyberbullying in school using the quality circle approach. *Journal of Psychologists and Counsellors in Schools,* 20(2), pp. 157-168.

Pawson, R. & Tilley, N., (1994) What works in evaluation research?. *The British Journal of Criminology,* 34(3), pp. 291-306.

Payne, B. & Button, D., (2009) Developing a citywide youth violence prevention plan. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology,* 53(5), pp. 517-534.

Payne, S., (1997) Nursing Research: A Social Science?. In: 1st, ed. *Understanding Social Research.* London: Routledge, pp. 104-114.

Pedler, M. & Trehan, K., (2008) Editorial. Action learning, organisational research and the 'wicked' problem. *Action Learning: Research and Practice,* 5(3), pp. 203-205.

Peelo, M., (2006) Framing homicide narratives in newspapers: Mediated witness and the construction of virtual victimhood. *Crime, Media, Culture,* 2(2), pp. 159-175.

Peel, S. R., (1829) *Principles of Law Enforcement.* London: Metropolitan Police.

Petch, A., Cook, A. & Miller, E., (2013) Partnership working and outcomes: do health and social care partnerships deliver for people using services. *Health and Social Care in the Community,* 21(6), pp. 623-633.

Petrosino, A., Guckenburg, S. & Fronius, T., (2012) 'Policing Schools' Strategies: A Review of the Evaluation Evidence. *Journal of MultiDisciplinary Evaluation,* 8(17), pp. 80-101.

P, L., (1997) Patterns of school crime: a replication and empirical extension. *British Journal of Criminology,* 37(1), pp. 121-130.

Powell, K., Thurston, M. & Bloyce, D., (2014) Local status and power in area-based health improvement partnerships. *Health: An Interdisciplinary Journal for the Social Study of Health, Illness & Medicine,* 18(6), pp. 561-579.

Prime Minister's Office, (2011) *Public service reform.* [Online]
Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/news/public-service-reform
[Accessed 29 October 2017].

Quinton, P. & Morris, J., (2008) *Neighbourhood policing: the impact of piloting and early national implementation,* London: Home Office.

Radnor, H., (2001) *Researching your professional practice: Doing interpretive research,* Buckingham, Philadelphia, PA: Open University.

Reason, P. & Bradbury, H., (2008) *The SAGE Handbook of Action Research: Participative Inquiry and Practice.* 2nd ed. London: SAGE.

Richmond, B., (1994) *Systems Dynamics/Systems Thinking: Let's Just Get On With It.* Sterling, Scotland, International Systems Dynamics Conference.

Robinson, A. & Stroshine Chandek, M., (2000) Philosophy into Practice? Community Policing Units and Domestic Violence Victim Participation. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management,* 23(1), pp. 280-302.

Robson, C., (1993) *Real World Research: A Resource of Social Scientists and Practitioner-Researchers.* 1st ed. Oxford: Blackwell, Oxford University Press.

Romain, D. & Hassell, K., (2014) An exploratory examination of the sources of socialisation influencing juvenile perceptions of the police. *International Journal of Police Science and Management,* 16(1), pp. 36-51.

Rosenbaum, T. P., (1994) *The challenge of community policing: Testing the promises.* 2nd ed. New York: Sage publications.

Ross, T., (2008) *Policeman in every school: borough gets tough on youth crime.* [Online]

Available at: http://www.standard.co.uk/news/policeman-in-every-school-

borough-gets-tough-on-youth-crime-6914969.html

[Accessed 2 November 2016].

Rowe, M., (2013) *Policing Beyond Macpherson.* 1 ed. London: Routledge.

Rubin, H. & Rubin, I., (2005) *Qualitative Interviewing: The Art of Hearing Data.* 1st ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Sanders, M., (1996) School-family-community partnerships focused on school safety: The Baltimore example. *The Journal of Negro Education,* 65(3), p. 369–374.

Sandford, N., (1970) Whatever happened to action research?. *Journal of Social Issues,* 26(1), pp. 3-23.

Sargeant, E., Murphy, K. & Cherney, A., (2014) Ethnicity, trust and cooperation with police: Testing the dominance of the process-based model. *European Journal of Criminology,* 11(1), pp. 500-524.

Savage, S., (2007) Neighbourhood Policing and the Reinvention of the Constable. *Policing: A journal of policy and practice,* 1(2), pp. 203-213.

Savage, S., (2007) *Police reform: Forces for change.* 1st ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Scarman, L. G., (1986) *The Scarman report: the Brixton disorders 10-12 April 1981: report of an inquiry,* London: Puffin.

Schafer, J. A., Huebner, B. M. & Bynum, T. S., (2003) Citizen perceptions of police services: Race, neighborhood context, and community policing. *Police Quarterly,* 6(4), pp. 440-468.

Schuck, A., (2017) Female Officers and Community Policing: Examining the Connection between Gender Diversity and Organizational Change. *Women & Criminal Justice,* 27(5), pp. 341-362.

Scraton, P., (2007) *Power, Conflict and Criminalisation.* 1st ed. Abingdon: Routledge.

Selden, S. C., (1997) *The Promise of Representative Bureaucracy: Diversity and Responsiveness in a Government Agency.* 1st ed. Armonk, NY: Routledge.

Sellgren, K., (2002) *Police build rapport with pupils.* [Online]
Available at: http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/education/2296369.stm
[Accessed 21 May 2017].

Senge, P., (1990) *The Fifth Discipline, the Art and Practice of the Learning Organization.* 1st ed. New York, NY: Doubleday/Currency.

Senior Police Adviser to the OSCE Secretary General, (2008) *Good Practices in Building Police-Public Partnerships,* Vienna, Austria: The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE).

Sharp, D. & Atherton, S., (2007) To serve and protect: The experiences of policing in the community of young people from Black and other ethnic minority groups. *British Journal of Criminology,* 47(1), pp. 746-763.

Shearing, C. & Wood, J., (2013) *Imagining Security.* 2nd ed. New York: Routledge.

Sherman, L., (1998) *Evidence-based policing.* 2nd ed. Washington, DC: Police Foundation.

Sherman, L., (2013) The Rise of Evidence-Based Policing: Targeting, Testing, and Tracking. *Crime and Justice,* 42(1), pp. 377-451.

Sherman, L. W. & Strang, H., (2007) *Restorative justice: the evidence.* s.l.:Smith Institute.

S, H. et al., (2012) Collaboration between local health and local government agencies for health improvement. *Database of Systematic Reviews,* 15(6).

Silvestri, M., (2018) Disrupting the "Heroic" Male Within Policing: A Case of Direct Entry. *Feminist Criminology,* 13(3), p. 309–328.

Sim, J., (1982) Scarman: The Police Counter-Attack. *The socialist register,* 19(1), pp. 57-76.

Sinclair, S., (2011) Partnership or Presence? Exploring the Complexity of Community Planning. *Local Government Studies,* 37(1), pp. 77-92.

Skogan, W., (1995) *Community Participation and Community Policing,* Evanston: Northwestern University.

Skolnick, J., (1975) *Justice without trial: law enforcement in democratic society.* 1st ed. New York: Wiley.

Slater, R. et al., (2007) A critical evaluation of partnerships in municipal waste management in England. *Resources, Conservation & Recycling,* 51(3), pp. 643-664.

Smith, D., (1986) The Neighborhood Context of Police Behavior. *Crime and Justice,* 8(1), pp. 313-341.

Smith, K. et al., (2009) Partners in health? A systematic review of the impact of organizational partnerships on public health outcomes in England between 1997 and 2008. *Journal of Public Health,* 31(2), pp. 210-221.

Society, P. t. R., (1997) *R V Ericson; K D Haggerty.* 1 ed. New York: Oxford University Press.

Somerville, P., (2009) Understanding community policing. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management,* 32(2), pp. 261-277.

Stanko, E. & Bradford, B., (2009) Beyond Measuring 'How Good a Job' Police Are Doing: The MPS Model of Confidence in Policing. *Policing,* 3(4), pp. 322-330.

Steier, F., Brown, J. & Mesquita Da Silva, F., (2015) The World Cafe in Action Research Settings. In: 3rd, ed. *The SAGE handbook of Action Research.* London: Hilary Bradbury, pp. 211-219.

Stewart, D., Morris, R. & Weir, H., (2014) Youth perceptions of the police: identifying trajectories. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice,* 12(1), pp. 22-39.

Stone, E., (1982) In defence of rigorous research. *Contemporary Psychology,* Volume 27, pp. 581-595.

Sullivan, H., Barnes, M. & Matka, E., (2002) Building Collaborative Capacity through 'Theories of Change'. *Evaluation,* 8(2), pp. 205-226.

Sunshine, J. & Tyler, T., (2003) The role of procedural justice and legitimacy in shaping public support for policing. *Law and Society Review,* 37(3), p. 513–548.

Susman, G. & Evered, R., (1978) An assessment of the scientific merits of action research. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* Volume 23, pp. 582-603.

Sweeney, L. & Sterman, J., (2000) Bathtub dynamics: initial results of a systems thinking inventory. *System Dynamics Review,* 16(4), pp. 249-286.

Sweeney, S., Cooper, P. & Entwistle, L., (2017) *MPS Children and Young People Strategic Plan 2017-2021,* London: Metropolitan Police Service.

Sweeney, S., Cooper, P. & Entwistle, L., (2017) *MPS Children and Young People Strategy 2017-2021,* London: Metropolitan Police Service.

Taylor, S. & Bogden, R., (1998) *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods.* 3rd ed. Chichester: Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods.

The Police Foundation, (2011) Safer school partnerships. *The briefing,* November, 2(2), pp. 1-11.

The Police Foundation, (2016) *Defining the Role of School-Based Police Officers,* California: Police Foundation.

Theriot, M., (2013) The Impact of School Resource Officer Interaction on Students' Feelings About School and School Police. *Crime & Delinquency,* 62(4), pp. 446-469.

Thurau, L. & Wald, J., (2009) Controlling partners: When law enforcement meets discipline in public schools. *New York Law School Law Review,* 54(1), p. 977.

Tilley, N., (2008) The development of community policing in England: networks, knowledge and neighbourhoods. In: T. Williamson, ed. *Knowledge-based*

Policing: Current Conceptions and Future Directions. Chichester, West Sussex: Wiley and Sons.

Tonry, M. & Farrington, D. P., (1995) Strategic Approaches to Crime Prevention. *Crime and Justice,* Volume 19, pp. 1-20.

Twersky-Glasner, A., (2005) Police personality: what is it and why are they like that?. *Journal of police and criminal psychology,* 20(1), pp. 56-67.

Tyler, T., (1990) *Why People Obey the Law.* 1st ed. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Tyler, T. & Huo, Y., (2002) Legitimacy and Cooperation: Why Do People Help the Police Fight Crime in Their Communities?. *Public Law and Legal Theory Working Paper Group, Columbia Law School,* 1(1), pp. 6-99.

Vangen, S., Hayes, J. & Cornforth, C., (2015) Governing Cross-Sector, Inter-Organizational Collaborations. *Public Management Review,* 17(9), p. 1237–1260.

Walker, S. E. & Archbold, C. A., (2018) *The New World of Police Accountability.* 3rd ed. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

Weatheritt, M., (1986) *Innovations in Policing.* 1st ed. Dover: The Police Foundation.

Web, B. & Web, S., (1932) *Methods of Social Study,* London, UK: Longmans Green.

Welsh, T., (2008) *Working Alone May Be The Key To Better Productivity, New Research Suggests,* Calgary: University of Calgary.

West Yorkshire Police, (2015) *Neighbourhood Policing.* [Online]

Available at: http://www.westyorkshire.police.uk/about-us/department-profiles/neighbourhood-policing

[Accessed 2 June 2015].

Wheller, L., Quinton, P., Fildes, A. & Mills, A., (2013) *The Greater Manchester Police procedural justice training experiment,* Coventry: College of Policing.

Whitehead, M., (2007) The architecture of partnerships: urban communities in the shadow of hierarchy. *Policy and Politics,* 35(1), pp. 3-23.

White, S. & McKenna, J., (2018) Improving School Policing Programmes through Strategic Collaboration. *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice,* Volume pay035, pp. 1-14.

Wien, C., (2004) From policing to Participation: Overturning the Rules and Creating Amiable Classrooms. *YC Young Children,* 59(1), p. 34.

Wiersma, W. & Jurs, S., (2005) *Research methods in education: An introduction.* 9th ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Williams, F., (2004) What matters is who works: why every child matters to New Labour. Commentary on the DfES Green Paper Every Child Matters. *Critical Social Policy,* 24(3), pp. 406-427.

Williamson, D., (2003) *BIG INTERVIEW: Met's big idea starts to pay off - Commander Steve Roberts, head of youth policy unit, Metropolitan Police, London.* [Online]

Available at: http://www.cypnow.co.uk/cyp/news/1061672/big-interview-mets-big-idea-starts-to-pay-off-commander-steve-roberts-head-of-youth-policy-unit-

metalpolitan-police-london

[Accessed 23 May 2017].

Williams, P., (2002) The competent boundary spanner. *Public Administration,* 80(1), pp. 103-124.

Wolfe, S. et al., (2017) Procedural Justice, Legitimacy, and School Principals' Evaluations of School Resource Officers: Support, Perceived Effectiveness, Trust, and Satisfaction. *Criminal Justice Policy Review ,* 28(2), p. 107 –138.

Wood, S. et al., (2011) *Evaluation of the Youth Crime Action Plan (YCAP) in Liverpool,* Liverpool: Centre for Public Health, Liverpool John Moores University.

Worden, R., (1989) Situational and attitudinal explanations of police behavior: a theoretical reappraisal and empirical assessment. *Law and society review,* 23(1), pp. 667-711.

Wortley, R. & Mazerolle, L., (2008) *Environmental Criminology and Crime Analysis.* 1st ed. Devon: Willan.

Yin, R., (2003) *Case study research: Design and methods.* 1st ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Young People's Scrutiny Group and the Scrutiny Management Board, (2012) *Young People and the Police – Positive Engagement,* London: Young People's Scrutiny Group and the Scrutiny Management Board.

Young, J., (2009) Moral Panic: Its Origins in Resistance, Ressentiment and the Translation of Fantasy into Reality. *British Journal of Criminology,* 49(1), pp. 4-16.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The confidence cycle

The confidence cycle is the link between community engagement and increased public confidence in the police. It can facilitate a greater willingness for the public to cooperate with the police, thereby enriching intelligence collection.
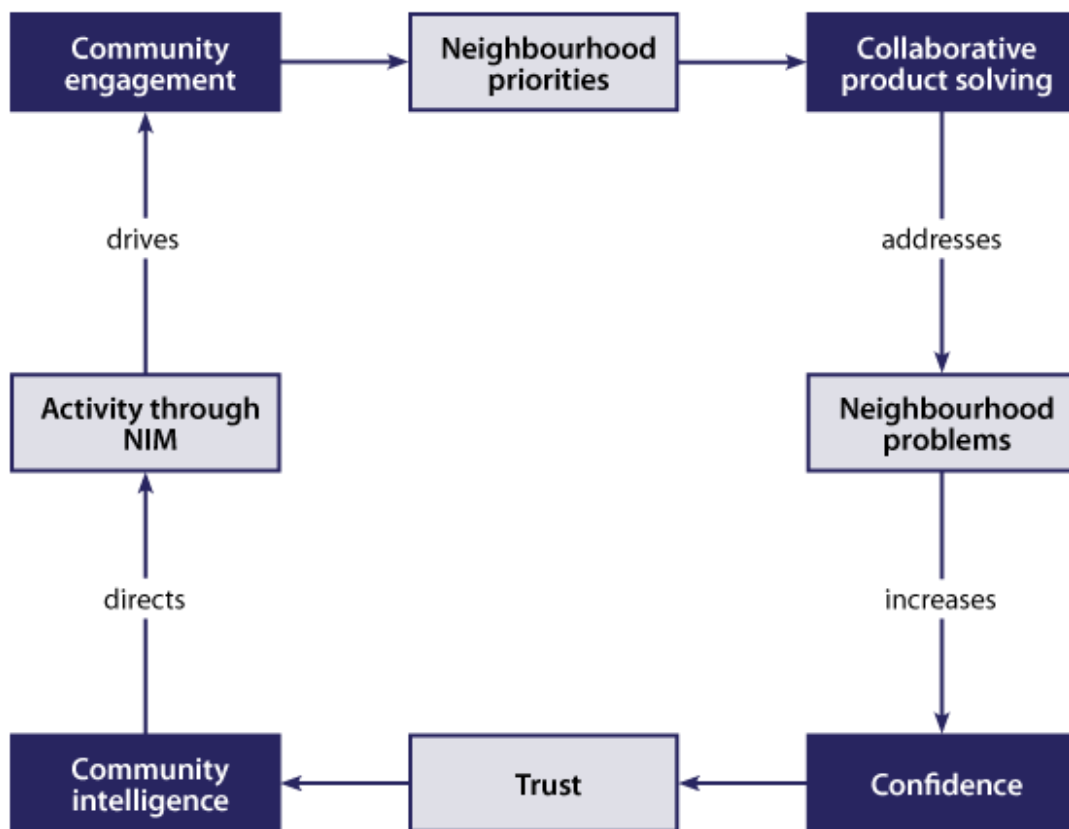
(College of Policing, 2013)

Appendix 2: 'YOUth Matters' analysis: Confidence in the Police

Table 2. Confidence in the Police		Overall Sample		Age																PRU attendees (current or previous)		Victim of crime		Made to feel unsafe by family member		Seen Taser used in real life	
				Year 7		Year 8		Year 9		Year 10		Year 11		Year 12		Age:Year 13										
		Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage	Base (number)	Percentage
To what extent do you agree that the Police..																									
Listen to the concerns of young people	Strongly Agree/Agree	5251	55%	1667	72%	1254	59%	1074	52%	602	45%	290	39%	217	41%	147	40%	224	54%	855	46%	189	55%	899	57%
Deal with issues that matter to young people	Strongly Agree/Agree	5427	57%	1678	72%	1299	62%	1125	55%	642	48%	314	42%	214	41%	155	42%	219	53%	868	47%	183	53%	912	58%
Are friendly and approachable	Strongly Agree/Agree	5952	63%	1748	75%	1404	67%	1207	59%	737	55%	386	51%	274	52%	196	53%	235	56%	1006	55%	199	57%	981	63%
Would treat you with respect if you came into contact with them for any reason	Strongly Agree/Agree	6400	68%	1800	78%	1476	70%	1336	65%	815	60%	444	59%	315	60%	214	58%	232	56%	1118	61%	210	61%	1019	65%
How good a job do you think that the police are doing in the area around your school?	Excellent/Good	3944	42%	1326	57%	899	43%	758	37%	413	31%	238	32%	171	33%	139	37%	153	37%	559	30%	133	38%	587	38%
How good a job do you think that the police are doing in your home neighbourhood?	Excellent/Good	3665	39%	1171	51%	846	40%	717	35%	408	30%	249	33%	158	30%	116	31%	142	34%	509	28%	103	30%	555	35%

(Mayor's Office for Police and Crime, 2016, p. 21)

Appendix 3 (a): Introductory Interview questions

1. Name

2. Gender (MALE / FEMALE / OTHER)

3. Age range (18-25, 26-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60+)

4. Self-defined ethnicity

5. What is your maximum qualification level completed?

    a. No Formal Qualifications

    b. GCSE / O-Levels

    c. AS / A-Levels

    d. Certificate/Diploma of HE

    e. Bachelor's Degree

    f. Post-Graduate Qualification

6. What is your length of service?

    a. 5 years or less

    b. 6-10 years

    c. 11-15 years

    d. 16-20 years

    e. 21-25 years

    f. 26-30 years

    g. More than 30 years

Appendix 3 (b): Interview questions for Safer Schools Officers (PC)

1. How many schools do you have responsibility for?

    a. If you are responsible for several schools, how does your relationship with each differ?

    b. If there is a difference, what do you think the reason for that is?

2. How would you describe your role within your Safer School Partnership(s)?

3. How would you describe the role of your single point of contact at school within your Safer School Partnership(s)? (include responsibilities)

4. How would you describe the role of the Headteacher within your Safer School Partnership(s)? (include responsibilities)

5. How would you describe the role of the school staff within your Safer School Partnership(s)? (include responsibilities)

6. How would you describe the role of your Safer Schools supervisor (Sergeant) within your Safer School Partnership(s)? (include responsibilities)

7. How would you describe the role of your Inspector in relation to your Safer School Partnership(s)? (include responsibilities)

8. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what are the barriers you face within your Safer School Partnership(s)?

9. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what do you think works well in your Safer School Partnership(s)?

10. What would make your role easier in relation to your Safer School Partnership(s)?

11. What do you think are important attributes for police officers to have to enable a good Safer School Partnership?

12. How do you evaluate your Safer School Partnership(s)?

13. Who do you consider to be the most appropriate person (role or rank) to initiate contact with a school to form a Safer School Partnership?

14. What feedback have you received about your role (if any) from police colleagues in other roles?

15. Why did you take on the role of Safer Schools Officer?

Appendix 3 (c): Interview questions for Safer Schools Supervisors (PS)

1. How many Safer Schools Officers do you have responsibility for?

2. How would you describe the role of the Safer Schools Officer within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

3. How would you describe the role of the single point of contact at school within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

4. How would you describe the role of the Headteacher within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

5. How would you describe the role of the school staff within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

6. How would you describe your role within Safer School Partnerships?

7. How would you describe the role of your Inspector in relation to Safer School Partnerships? (include responsibilities)

8. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what are the barriers you face in relation to the Safer School Partnerships?

9. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what do you think works well in Safer School Partnerships?

10. What would make your role easier in relation to Safer School Partnerships?

11. What do you think are important attributes for police officers to have to enable a good Safer School Partnership?

12. How do you evaluate the Safer School Partnerships?

13. Who do you consider to be the most appropriate person (role or rank) to initiate contact with a school to form a Safer School Partnership?

14. What feedback have you received about the role of a Safer Schools Officer from police colleagues in other roles?

Appendix 3 (d): Interview questions for Police Inspector

1. How many Safer Schools Officers do you have responsibility for?

2. How would you describe the role of the Safer Schools Officer within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

3. How would you describe the role of the single point of contact at school within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

4. How would you describe the role of the Headteacher within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

5. How would you describe the role of the school staff within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

6. How would you describe the role of the Safer Schools supervisor (Sergeant) in relation to Safer School Partnerships? (include responsibilities)

7. How would you describe your role within Safer School Partnerships?

8. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what are the barriers you face in relation to the Safer School Partnerships?

9. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what do you think works well in Safer School Partnerships?

10. What would make your role easier in relation to Safer School Partnerships?

11. What do you think are important attributes for police officers to have to enable a good Safer School Partnership?

12. How do you evaluate the Safer School Partnerships?

13. Who do you consider to be the most appropriate person (role or rank) to initiate contact with a school to form a Safer School Partnership?

14. What feedback have you received about the role of a Safer Schools Officer from police colleagues in other roles?

Appendix 3 (e): Interview questions for HTs

1. How often does your allocated Safer Schools Officer work within your school?

2. How would you describe the role of the Safer Schools Officer within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

3. How would you describe the role of the single point of contact at school within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

4. How would you describe your role within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

5. How would you describe the role of your school staff within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

6. How would you describe the role of the Police Safer Schools supervisor (Sergeant) within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

7. How would you describe the role of the Police Inspector in relation to your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

8. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what are the barriers you face within your Safer School Partnership?

9. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what do you think works well in your Safer School Partnership?

10. What would make your role easier in relation to your Safer School Partnership?

11. What do you think are important attributes for police officers to have to enable a good Safer School Partnership?

12. How do you evaluate your Safer School Partnership?

13. Who do you consider to be the most appropriate person (role or rank) to initiate contact with a school to form a Safer School Partnership?

Appendix 3 (f): Interview questions for school Single Point of Contact

1. How often does your allocated Safer Schools Officer work within your school?

2. How would you describe the role of the Safer Schools Officer within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

3. How would you describe your role within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

4. How would you describe the role of the HT within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

5. How would you describe the role of your school staff within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

6. How would you describe the role of the Police Safer Schools supervisor (Sergeant) within your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

7. How would you describe the role of the Police Inspector in relation to your Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

8. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what are the barriers you face within your Safer School Partnership?

9. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what do you think works well in your Safer School Partnership?

10. What would make your role easier in relation to your Safer School Partnership?

11. What do you think are important attributes for police officers to have to enable a good Safer School Partnership?

12. How do you evaluate your Safer School Partnership?

13. Who do you consider to be the most appropriate person (role or rank) to initiate contact with a school to form a Safer School Partnership?

Appendix 4 (a): Survey questions for Police Officers

1. What is your current role?

2. How many schools do you have responsibility for?

3. Do you work in a Pupil Referral Unit?

    a. If you are responsible for several schools, how does your relationship with each differ?

        i. If there is a difference, what do you think the reason for that is?

4. How would you describe your role within your SSP(s)?

5. How would you describe the role of the single point of contact at school within your SSP(s)? (include responsibilities)

6. How would you describe the role of the Headteacher within your SSP(s)? (include responsibilities)

7. How would you describe the role of the school staff within your SSP(s)? (include responsibilities)

8. How would you describe the role of your Safer Schools supervisor (Sergeant) within your SSP(s)? (include responsibilities)

9. How would you describe the role of your Inspector in relation to your SSP(s)? (include responsibilities)

10. Why did you take on the role of Safer Schools Officer?

11. How would you describe the role of your Inspector in relation to SSPs? (include responsibilities)

12. How would you describe the role of the Safer Schools supervisor (Sergeant) in relation to SSPs? (include responsibilities)

13. How many Safer Schools Officers do you have responsibility for?

14. How would you describe the role of the Safer Schools Officer within an SSP? (include responsibilities)

15. How would you describe the role of the single point of contact at school within an SSP? (include responsibilities)

16. How would you describe the role of the Headteacher within an SSP? (include responsibilities)

17. How would you describe the role of the school staff within an SSP? (include responsibilities)

18. How would you describe your role within SSPs?

19. Considering all of the roles within an SSP what are the barriers you face?

20. Considering all of the roles within an SSP what do you think works well in your SSP(s)?

21. What would make your role easier in relation to your SSP(s)?

22. To enable a good SSP, how important is it for police officers to have the following attributes?

    a. Good communication skills

    b. Understanding school policies and procedures

    c. Want to work with children and young people

    d. Good knowledge of police powers and procedures

    e. Good knowledge of school staff powers

    f. Commitment

    g. Treat everyone fairly

    h. Able to deliver presentations

    i. Reliable

    j. Ethos of not criminalising young people

k. Good problem solver

l. Understanding safeguarding

m. Please add any other attributes that you think are important for an SSO to have to enable a good SSP.

23. Do you think the gender of an officer matters in the context of relationships within an SSP?

a. Please explain your answer...

24. Do you think the ethnicity of an officer matters in the context of relationships within an SSP?

a. Please explain your answer...

25. Do you think the age of an officer matters in the context of relationships within an SSP?

a. Please explain your answer...

26. How do you evaluate your SSP(s)?

27. What feedback have you received about the role of a Safer Schools Officer from police colleagues in other roles? e.g. overheard comments, direct feedback, banter, etc.

28. Who do you consider to be the most appropriate person (role or rank) to initiate contact with a school to form an SSP?

29. Please add anything else you'd like to say about the relationship between school staff and the police in the context of SSPs.

Appendix 4 (b): Survey questions for HTs or other staff member currently in a Safer School Partnership

1. Are you currently working in a formal Safer School Partnership with the police?

   a. If yes to above, how often does your allocated Safer Schools Officer work within your school?

2. What is your current role?

3. How would you describe a Safer School Partnership?

4. How would you describe YOUR role within a Safer School Partnership?

5. How would you describe the role of a police Safer Schools Officer?

6. How would you describe the role of a police Safer Schools supervisor (Sergeant)?

7. How would you describe the role of a police partnership Inspector?

8. What barriers do you face in the context of the relationship between you and the police?

9. What do you think works well in the context of the relationship between you and the police?

10. What do you think are important attributes for Police officers to have to enable a good working relationship with you and your school staff?

    a. Good communication skills

    b. Understanding school policies and procedures

    c. Want to work with children and young people

    d. Good knowledge of police powers and procedures

    e. Good knowledge of school staff powers

    f. Commitment

    g. Treat everyone fairly

h. Able to deliver presentations

i. Reliable

j. Ethos of not criminalising young people

k. Good problem solver

l. Understanding safeguarding

m. Please add any other attributes that you think are important for an SSO to have to enable a good SSP.

11. What is the best way to evaluate the working relationship between you and the police?

12. Who do you consider the most appropriate person in the police to initiate contact with a school to form a Safer School Partnership?

13. Is there anything you'd like to add regarding Safer School Partnerships and the relationship between you and the police?

Appendix 4 (c): Survey questions for HTs or other staff member not currently in a Safer School Partnership

1. Have you ever been involved a Safer School Partnership with the police?

   a. If yes, what is your experience of Safer School Partnerships with the police?

   b. If no, do you have knowledge of Safer School Partnerships?

      i. If yes, what do you know about Safer School Partnerships?

2. Do you feel that your school might benefit from being in a Safer School Partnership with the police?

   a. If no, can you explain why?

   b. If yes, how do you feel your school might benefit from being in a Safer School Partnership?

If you have knowledge of Safer School Partnerships:

3. How would you describe the role of the Safer Schools Officer within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

4. How would you describe the role of the role of the HT within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

5. How would you describe the role of the single point of contact at school within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

6. How would you describe the role of other school staff within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

7. How would you describe the role of the Police Safer Schools supervisor (Sergeant) within a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

8. How would you describe the role of the Police Inspector in relation to a Safer School Partnership? (include responsibilities)

9. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what do you think works well in a Safer School Partnership?

10. What do you think are important attributes for police officers to have to enable a good Safer School Partnership?

11. How do you evaluate a Safer School Partnership?

12. Who do you consider to be the most appropriate person (role or rank) to initiate contact with a school to form a Safer School Partnership?

If you have been involved in a Safer School Partnership before:

13. Considering all of the roles within a Safer School Partnership, what are the barriers you faced within the Safer School Partnership?

14. What would make your role easier in relation to your Safer School Partnership?

AN EXAMINATION OF THE WAY SAFER SCHOOL PARTNERSHIPS (SSPS) WORK IN THE CONTEXT OF POLICING TO DETERMINE AN EFFECTIVE SSP MODEL FOR POLICE FORCES AND SCHOOLS.

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

A research study is being conducted at Canterbury Christ Church University (CCCU) by Steven Sweeney, a serving police officer in the Metropolitan Police Service.

Background

The Metropolitan Police Service is increasing the number of Safer Schools Officers as part of a change to their policing model. Whilst this is good news, a review of police and community partnerships literature shows that, over the years, research has been undertaken to identify key practices that drive or hinder police and community partnerships, however no research has been conducted specifically on Safer School Partnerships.

This gap in the research is especially important with the planned increase in Safer Schools Officers, however there are no clear principles or best practice guidance for the police and schools to ensure their partnerships have the best chance of working.

What will you be required to do?

Participants in this study will be required to provide honest feedback on their own experiences of working within a Safer School Partnership through a series of questions. This is qualitative research to explore what works and what does not within a Safer School Partnership.

To participate in this research, you must:

- Be a serving member of the Police Service in England and Wales in a federated rank (Constable, Sergeant, Inspector or Chief Inspector), currently involved in Safer School Partnerships. Or,
- Be a Head Teacher and/or the single point of contact for the police working at a school in a Safer School Partnership.

Procedures

Participants in this study will be required to be interviewed between 45 – 60 minutes on their experiences of working in a Safer School Partnership and provide biographical information.

The interview will be recorded and transcribed for analysis.

Feedback

Once the analysis is complete a summary report (this will be made available to all participants) will be finalised and the study will be circulated to Youth teams across the Metropolitan Police Service and Nationally through the NPCC Children and Young People lead. Copies of this report will be available on request.

Confidentiality

All data and personal information will be stored securely within CCCU premises in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation and the University's own data protection requirements. Data can only be accessed by Steven Sweeney, his University supervisor and the examiner. After completion of the study, all data will be made anonymous (i.e. all personal information associated with the data will be removed).

Should a participant disclose information that amounts to a crime or a safeguarding issue that has not already been dealt with by the police or provides additional information to an existing police investigation, as a servicing police officer the researcher has a lawful duty and will record the information correctly on police systems.

Dissemination of results

The results of the study will be written up into an MSc thesis which will be stored by the University. Also results of the study will form the basis of a Safer School Partnership good practice guide which will be disseminated to Youth Teams, Safer Schools Officers and schools. Copies will be available on request.

Deciding whether to participate

If you have any questions or concerns about the nature, procedures or requirements for participation do not hesitate to contact me. Should you decide to participate, you will be free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason. This can be done by any means of communication (face-to-face, phone call, email, letter) and will be confirmed via email by the researcher.

Any questions?

Please contact Steven Sweeney via email s.p.sweeney852@canterbury.ac.uk or steven.p.sweeney@met.police.uk or contact the supervisor Emma Williams via email emma.williams@canterbury.ac.uk or the School of Law, Criminal Justice and Computing at CCCU, North Holmes Campus, Canterbury, CT1 1QU.

Appendix 5 (b): Consent form

CONSENT FORM

Title of Project: An examination of the way Safer School Partnerships (SSPs) work in the context of policing to determine an effective SSP model for police forces and schools.

Name of Researcher: Steven Sweeney

Contact details:

Address:	School of Law, Criminal Justice and Computing, Canterbury Christ Church University, Hall Place, Canterbury, Kent, CT2 9AG.
Tel:	02071612403
Email:	s.p.sweeney852@canterbury.ac.uk

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

3. I understand that any personal information that I provide to the researchers will be kept strictly confidential

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

5. I agree to be audio recorded.

_____ _____ _____
Name of Participant   Date   Signature

_____ _____ _____
Name of Person taking consent   Date   Signature
(if different from researcher)

_____ _____ _____
Researcher   Date   Signature

Copies: 1 for participant
             1 for researcher

Appendix 6: Ethics approval letter

Dear Steven

The Chair of the Ethics committee has approved your ethics application providing you make the following amendments:

- The supervisor should complete section E2 of the checklist application form and sign the declaration in section F.

Once I have received the revised documentation, I will send you a formal letter confirming compliance for the interview element of your research.

For the online survey, a separate ethics application should be submitted. The survey questions are not available yet because they will be formulated based on the interview findings, and the current application says very little about the procedure of the survey.

Kind regards

Tracy

Tracy Crine
Contracts & Compliance Manager
Research & Enterprise Integrity & Development Office
Canterbury Christ Church University,
Hall Place, Canterbury, Kent CT2 9AG
Tel: +44 (0) 1227 922132
Mob: 07729640592
tracy.crine@canterbury.ac.uk

Appendix 7: Interview participant figures

		3x Police Insp	4x Police Sergeant	7x Police Constable	7x School staff
Gender	Female	✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓
	Male	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓✓✓	✓✓✓✓
Age	26-29			✓✓	
	30-39	✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓
	40-49	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓
	50-59				✓✓✓
SDE	W/British	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓
	British Indian		✓	✓	
	B/British			✓	✓
	British			✓✓	✓✓✓✓✓
	British other			✓	
Qualifications	GCSE/O-level		✓	✓	
	A-level		✓	✓✓	
	Diploma	✓✓	✓		
	Degree		✓	✓✓✓	✓
	Post grad	✓		✓	✓✓✓✓✓✓

Experience					
	6-10			✅✅	
	11-15		✅	✅✅✅	
	16-20	✅✅	✅✅	✅	✅
	21-25	✅		✅	
	26-30				✅✅✅
	30+		✅		✅✅✅

Appendix 8 (a): Role of an SSO

The MPS role profile of the Safer Schools Officer is as follows:

- Provide visible and familiar contact with assigned school(s) at priority times as agreed with the school.

- Be a point of contact between school(s) and police.

- Advise HT(s) and their staff on policing issues.

- Provide regular briefing updates to school staff on policing issues.

- Establish and maintain a student ward panel to set school policing priorities.

- Conduct crime investigations and facilitate those of their colleagues.

- Work in partnership with the school(s) to ensure a correct balance between engagement and enforcement, pursuing a restorative approach where appropriate.

- Make pupil referrals to VPC and partnership agencies as necessary, for the purpose of safeguarding the child's welfare and/or diverting them from criminal activity/ASB.

- Participate, as appropriate, in multi-agency case conferences within and outside the school environment for students coming to notice.

- Gather and disseminate intelligence in relation to pupil behaviour linked or potentially linked to crime or ASB.

- Share information with school staff in accordance with information sharing agreements

- Share information/intelligence with fellow SSOs which impacts on their assigned school(s).

- Share information/intelligence with the local Dedicated Ward Officer (DWO)

- Perform regular uniform patrols in the vicinity of the school(s) to address, truancy, ASB and crime, working with STTs and SNTs as required, particularly on after school patrols.

- Perform weapons sweeps of identified 'hotspots' within and outside the school boundaries

- Deliver MPS key messages to pupils around general policing themes of crime prevention and personal safety, and facilitate delivery on more specialist themes.

- Assist other schools not in a Safer School Partnership as required.

- Regularly liaise with the officers with responsibility for local primary schools to deliver early intervention and improve trust and confidence in police.

- Assist with the running of Senior VPC evenings

- Where appropriate, run a Junior VPC unit

Appendix 8 (b): Role of an SSO working in a PRU

An SSO in a Pupil Referral Unit or Alternative Provision

- To be the main point of contact between PRUs and police.

- To be aligned to a PRU(s) that wants to enter into a SSP.

- Regularly liaise with YOT officers regarding children and young people in assigned PRU who have entered into the criminal justice system to develop strategies to help prevent offending and reduce re-offending.

- Also see Safer Schools Officer responsibilities.

Appendix 8 (c): Role of a Safer Schools Supervisor

The Safer Schools Supervisor

- Oversee the delivery of Safer School Partnerships (SSPs) across the BCU.

- Supervise and support Safer Schools Officers (SSOs).

- To be the police supervisor point of contact for schools.

- Provide and maintain the link between the school community and Neighbourhood Policing Teams, Youth Offending teams, Gangs unit, CID, Response, TSG, etc.

- Attend periodic meetings with HTs (HT) and/or the Single Point of Contact (SPOC) at schools to manage expectations, gain feedback, discuss school priorities and address any partnership challenges.

- Attend HT meetings to manage expectations between the MPS and schools, provide updates, gain feedback, share best practice and decide priorities around local ASB and crime.

- Ensure the Youth Engagement & crime Prevention Plan is implemented to reduce demand and prevent and reduce ASB and crime in and around schools.

- Carry out analysis of recorded activities of the SSOs.

- Complete annual review of priority schools, including those schools providing full or part funding for an SSO.

- Build an overview of transport hubs and problem areas relating to school age children and young people utilising the Youth Engagement & crime Prevention

Plan. Work with other Youth supervisors to coordinate a targeted approach in solving any issues.

- Periodically review CVGS vetting status for SSOs.

- Regular liaison with other Youth supervisors, providing stats regarding Junior VPC units being run by SSOs and manage resources to support VPC and the Junior Citizen Scheme.

- Liaise with the central Youth Strategy, Engagement and Schools team for support on youth related matters.

- Ensure SSOs provide schools with safer routes to and from school where appropriate.

- Provide a SPOC for all Primary schools on the BCU.

- Provide a SPOC for all Colleges on the BCU.

- Provide a SPOC for all Universities on the BCU.