Police Learning in the University Context

Student Perceptions of the Classroom Environment on a Police Foundation Degree Course

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The thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Criminal Justice of the University of Portsmouth.

2014
Declaration

I confirm that, except where indicated through the proper use of citations and references, this is my own original work. Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.

Signed:

Date:
Acknowledgements

The demands of this program have at times been overwhelming, and would have remained so if not for the support of family and friends. As I reach the end of this journey, I wish to acknowledge those who assisted me along the way. First of all, a very special thank you goes to my family, especially my wife and partner, Christine. My family were my most vocal supporters. Rather than question my decision to pursue a doctorate, they remained firm in their belief that I would see it through to completion. My family inspired me through their expressions of pride and interest in my work. This journey to Oz has finally come to an end.

I would like to offer a very special “Thank You” to Maria and Alana who put up with me during some very trying times with kindness, support, understanding, and patience. They spurred me on when I felt that I just could not go any further.

Appreciation also goes to my supervising tutor, John Jones, for his assistance.

Thank you all, so very much.
Dedication

This work is dedicated to the memory of L. Frank Baum, those who know me best will understand why.
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<td>ACES</td>
<td>Adult Classroom Environment Scale</td>
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<tr>
<td>ACPO</td>
<td>Association of Chief Police Officers</td>
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<td>ALI</td>
<td>Adult Learning Inspectorate</td>
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<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance</td>
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<td>APA</td>
<td>Association of Police Authorities</td>
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<td>AST</td>
<td>Advanced Skills Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>BBC</td>
<td>British Broadcasting Corporation</td>
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<tr>
<td>BME</td>
<td>Black and Minority Ethnic</td>
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<td>CBI</td>
<td>Confederation of British Industry</td>
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<tr>
<td>CENTREX</td>
<td>Central Police Training and Development Authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>CES</td>
<td>Classroom Environment Scale</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFF</td>
<td>Crime Fighting Fund</td>
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<td>CFP</td>
<td>Common Foundation Programme</td>
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<td>CKP</td>
<td>Certificate in Knowledge of Policing</td>
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<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Development</td>
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<td>CPU</td>
<td>Central Planning Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>Comprehensive Spending Review</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPTDA</td>
<td>Central Police Training and Development Authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>DCC</td>
<td>Deputy Chief Constable</td>
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<tr>
<td>DfEE</td>
<td>Department for Education and Employment</td>
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<td>E&amp;W</td>
<td>England and Wales</td>
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<td>ESW</td>
<td>Essential Skills Wales</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>FA</td>
<td>Factor Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>FdSc</td>
<td>Foundation Degree in Science</td>
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<td>FE</td>
<td>Further Education</td>
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<td>FIAC</td>
<td>Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories</td>
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<td>GCE</td>
<td>General Certificate of Education</td>
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<td>HAT</td>
<td>Human Awareness Training</td>
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<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
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<td>HEFCE</td>
<td>Higher Education Funding Council for England</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institute</td>
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<td>HEPI</td>
<td>Higher Education Policy Institute</td>
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<td>HESA</td>
<td>Higher Education Statistics Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>HMCIC</td>
<td>Her Majesty’s Chief Inspector of Constabulary</td>
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<td>HMIC</td>
<td>Her Majesty’s Inspector of Constabulary</td>
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<tr>
<td>HND</td>
<td>Higher National Diploma</td>
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<td>ICF</td>
<td>Integrated Competency Framework</td>
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<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information Communications Technology</td>
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<td>IPCC</td>
<td>Independent Police Complaints Commission</td>
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<td>IPD</td>
<td>Institute of Personnel and Development</td>
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<td>IPLDB</td>
<td>Initial Police Learning and Development Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>IPLDP</td>
<td>Initial Police Learning and Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>ITT</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>Learning Requirement</td>
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<td>MKO</td>
<td>Most Knowledgeable Other</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCA</td>
<td>National Crime Agency</td>
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<td>NMC</td>
<td>Nursing and Midwifery Council</td>
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<td>NHS</td>
<td>National Health Service</td>
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<td>NOS</td>
<td>National Occupational Standards</td>
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<td>NPIA</td>
<td>National Police Improvement Agency</td>
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<td>NPP</td>
<td>National Policing Plan</td>
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<td>National Police Training</td>
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<td>NVQ</td>
<td>National Vocational Qualification</td>
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<td>Ofqual</td>
<td>The Register of Regulated Qualifications</td>
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<td>OfSTED</td>
<td>Office for Standards in Education</td>
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<td>ONS</td>
<td>Office for National Statistics</td>
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<td>PALS</td>
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<td>PACE</td>
<td>Police and Criminal Evidence Act</td>
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<td>PCA</td>
<td>Principal Components Analysis</td>
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<td>PCI</td>
<td>Policing and Criminal Investigation</td>
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<td>PCSO</td>
<td>Police Community Support Officer</td>
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<td>PDR</td>
<td>Performance Development Review</td>
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<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>PGCE</td>
<td>Post Graduate Certificate in Education</td>
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<td>PIRT</td>
<td>Police Initial Recruitment Test</td>
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<td>PSSO</td>
<td>Police Skills Standards Organisation</td>
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<td>PTC</td>
<td>Police Training Council</td>
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<td>PTMP</td>
<td>Probationer Training Modernisation Project</td>
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<td>QAA</td>
<td>Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education</td>
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<td>QCF</td>
<td>Qualifications and Credit Framework</td>
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<td>QTS</td>
<td>Qualified Teacher Status</td>
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<td>SASE</td>
<td>Specifications of Apprenticeship Standards in England</td>
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<td>SfJ</td>
<td>Skills for Justice</td>
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<td>SOLAP</td>
<td>Student Officer Learning and Assessment Portfolio</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STATA</td>
<td>Statistics and Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TDA</td>
<td>Training and Development Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TDP</td>
<td>Police Trainer Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TUC</td>
<td>Trades Union Congress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCLan</td>
<td>University of Central Lancashire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UEA</td>
<td>University of East Anglia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFM</td>
<td>Value for Money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIHIC</td>
<td>What Is Happening In This Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZPD</td>
<td>Zone of Proximal Development</td>
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to focus on the classroom preferences of students completing a police Foundation Degree course (FdSc) at the University of Central Lancashire. A secondary factor under consideration was an attempt to identify the differences in student preferences based on seven factors (Affiliation, Teacher Support, Task Orientation, Personal Goal Attainment, Organisation and Clarity, Student Influence and Involvement) making use of The Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) to measure the social environment of adult education classrooms. The scope of this study investigated over a three year period three first year cohort intakes undertaking the FdSc through the use of a non-random volunteer sampling technique to determine the study group. A non-experimental descriptive quantitative research methodology, specifically a longitudinal trend survey consisting of 85 first year students. Findings from the study show student affiliation, the extent students like and interact positively with each other, and involvement, the extent to which students are satisfied with the class and participate actively and attentively in activities as the highest factors for consideration within the classroom environment for students. The study revealed the importance of teacher support, how students experience feelings of support, and that care and mutual respect are valued. Classroom management and how students need a well organised learning environment through an understanding of the objectives of the class were also revealed. Conclusions reached suggest that a better understanding of student perceptions can be used to improve teaching approaches and to evaluate different teaching techniques for presenting material. The significance of the study is apparent as increasing numbers of Further and Higher education establishments seek to deliver police pre-employment training. This study contributes to existing literature by considered the role of human interactions in the classroom environment of police training, an area where few studies have been conducted into the dynamics which take place.
Chapter 1

Purpose and Background to the Research

Outline of Thesis

There is a general consensus that training is essential in preparing police officers to perform their role in society. There is also limited work that has looked at how the classroom environment influences the development of police officers and more recently students engaged in pre-employment education to become police officers in a higher education setting. A structured, quantitative approach was used to measure student perceptions of the classroom environment, and recommendations for using this tool in an educational context have been considered. The programme of research to be described addresses some of the gaps in current knowledge and provides an insight into the classroom social environment valued by students of a Foundation Degree in Policing.

Chapter 1 introduces the target problem of the research study through the four research objectives, which were formulated. The basic theories upon which the research was based will be explained together with details of the motivation to conduct it.

Chapter 2 discusses the historical elements of police education presenting a review of police training within the UK, providing a context for this research and placing it within the context of similar research studies involving the training of police officers in a pre-employment or post-employment setting. An exploration of the social and political contexts of police education, as well as a review of police training and education is also presented.

It also presents how the police have been trained, in order to understand the current situation of preparing a police officer for service. This is achieved by including a brief overview of police development, outlining changes made through Government intervention.
Chapter 3 provides a pathway between the current status of police training and the potential education of prospective police officers in the pre-employment sector within a university setting. The chapter presents a premise on which the Foundation Degree is based as a means to provide pre-employment training to prospective police officers.

Chapter 4 explores the theoretical elements that support approaches applied to education, teaching and learning in the context of the Foundation Degree. Different theories of learning will be presented, as applied to police education, together with an outline of the concept of the social environment in classroom settings.

Chapter 5 covers the research methods used to conduct this study, including the population, sampling strategy, ethical considerations for conducting research, instrumentation, and data analysis.

Chapter 6 provides a focus on the results of this study starting with a summary of the overall results prior to providing an explanation of the statistical relationships of each domain of the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES). This chapter provides an exploration of those elements within the domains with the most divergent scores. The statistical analysis of ACES scores within the cohort of classes with the most divergent scores are given and explained. Several tables and charts are used throughout to highlight the data. In each section, answers to the research questions are given and explained.

The final chapter draws together the conclusions from the previous chapters and discusses the research findings. The findings are compared to previous research. The limitations of the present research are considered and areas of possible future research direction are suggested.
Introduction

The ultimate purpose of police training is to help an officer perform the job and there is a general consensus that training and education are essential to prepare officers to perform the vast number of tasks associated with policing (Ness, 1991), a social function that also requires sensitive and sensible interactions with the public (Morgan & Smith, 1989). This is further supported by Kratcoski (2004), who indicates that policing in the 21st century requires police training and education, which supports and addresses the demands of the profession.

Currently the initial preparation of police recruits is the individual responsibility of the 43 police forces in England and Wales. The training programme set for police recruits has progressed through a number of historical changes, more recently as a result of legislation enacted under Part 4 of the Criminal Justice and Police Act 2001. From 1 April 2007, the functions of Centrex and other bodies were merged into the National Policing Improvement Agency (NPIA) with the support of National Occupational Standards (NOS) developed by Skills for Justice (SfJ), the Sector Skills Council and, from October 2013, the College of Policing. Typically police initial preparation consisted of 25 weeks through a combination of classroom based activities testing knowledge and legislation together with skills based training delivered through practical exercises and role plays (Home Office, 2004). Since 1997, selected colleges of further education and a small but growing number of universities have delivered pre-employment police education courses, including the University of Portsmouth who in collaboration with Centrex launched a “national” certificate for probationary police constables, the University of Canterbury through their Advanced Detective Training (ADT) programme, and the University of Central Lancashire. At the time of writing, the training to meet the standards required to be a police officer is provided, in the main, post-employment by the individual police force or constabulary that a person joins; however the 2010 Comprehensive Spending Review (CSR) indicated that police services in
England and Wales (E&W) would experience a 20% cut in funding during the following five years. Budget deficits and the re-emergence of ‘value for money’ (VFM) have ensured an interest in the development of alternative police education models (Avery, 2012).

In his report to the UK government, Peter Neyroud (2011) advocated the introduction of a professional body to oversee the development and on-going maintenance of a pre-entry qualification set at the equivalent of level 4 on the framework for higher education qualifications to be undertaken prior to attestation as a constable. During March 2012, Tom Winsor (now Her Majesty’s Chief Inspector of Constabulary (HMCIC), published his report which focussed on creating a more skilled and effective workforce fit to face the challenges of the next 30 years. Winsor’s ‘Review of Police Officer and Staff Remuneration and Conditions’ concludes with the need to introduce a requirement for police pre-employment qualifications. While Neyroud had argued that the qualification should be at Level 4, Winsor recommended that individuals seeking to become police officers should have either a Level 3 qualification (equivalent to ‘A’ levels) or some other nationally recognised police qualification. Currently, the only nationally recognised pre-employment qualification is the Certificate in Knowledge of Policing (CKP), which is a level 3 qualification on The Register of Regulated Qualifications (Ofqual) and offered as such by Skills for Justice (Awards), OCR and City and Guilds (SFJ Awards, 2013).

**Problem Statement and Purpose**

In their report into police preparation, Cordner, McDevitt and Rosenbaum (2011) suggest that it is affected more by the nature of the training received than by the service or agency which provide it, while Rai (2012) advises that police preparation must seek to give voice to the learners and help them to discover a means through which they can critically reflect on the needs of their job and fulfil them. Forming a further consideration for my research were Birzer (2003) and McCoy (2006) who point out the importance of teaching
styles employed, and Olivia and Compton (2010) who emphasise the teacher-student relationship. With an increasing number of selected colleges of further education and higher education establishments preparing to deliver police pre-employment training, these elements need to be studied so as to provide those organisations with research-based information to make effective decisions. Therefore, the aim of this research is to understand the human interactions and social dimensions of the classroom environment on a police Foundation Degree course at the University of Central Lancashire.

The nature of this research is important because it provides guidance to those involved in the pre-employment education of policing students regarding the social environment in which such education takes place. Inferences from the result of this study could, in some part, be generalised to other university courses offering the same or a similar course of study and this may help provide a more effective and solid pre-employment formation to police recruits.

**Theoretical Framework**

Police education is seen as an important tool in the process of facilitating change within police organisations (Birzer, 2003). The approaches taken towards police education in the UK provide an indication of the social environment and changes in the last ten years. The traditional approach to police preparation in the UK has seen a gradual move away from a militaristic style with a focus on drill, with drill only recently removed from the initial training curriculum (HMIC, 2002), towards a more reflective, public relations focused approach (Wood & Tong, 2009). Whilst the traditional approach in police training may be effective when teaching technical and procedural skills, it does little to promote the acquisition of non-technical competencies such as problem-solving, judgement and leadership (McCoy, 2006).
With an aim to understand the human interactions and social dimensions of the classroom environment on a police Foundation Degree course delivered at the University of Central Lancashire between 2010 and 2012, a conceptual framework, as used by Olivia and Compton (2010), was considered for this study. This framework, the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES), is a quantitative tool, which provides clues to the ways in which the social environment can be modified to best meet the needs of the group. Another approach to understanding classroom interactions and the classroom social environment was identified by Moos (1979), who defined the concept of social environment or climate as the personality of a classroom or other social group. Valentine and Darkenwald (1990) recognised the need for adult versions of instruments to investigate adult educational environments and therefore amended the scales developed by Moos. The Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) was derived from the conceptual foundation identified by Moos, and measures seven distinct, but interrelated dimensions of Affiliation; Teacher Support; Task Orientation; Personal Goal Attainment; Organisation and Clarity; Student Influence; and Involvement. During this study, I recognised that ACES may not capture all the dynamics of the classroom and may also fail to uncover aspects of the hidden curriculum of police training, which reinforces traditional cultural prejudices and inhibits major change programmes (e.g., problem-solving, diversity, and community-focus) (White, 2006). In order to address such weaknesses, the curriculum was examined where it was clear that police ethics, integrity and accountability, together with diversity in society featured highly in the teaching modules. It was also found that a student’s prejudices and beliefs were challenged on a regular basis during in class discussion and exercises. This was an important element to be taken into account as a consequence of the research to determine the validity of ACES in uncovering the social environment. Aspects of identity were not considered in relation to
how the students view themselves as potential police officers or what “certain kind of person” (Hacking, 2000) they aspire to become. This, in itself, may form the basis of future research.

The study of classroom social environment is an outgrowth of environment theory. Lewin (1935), in his development of field theory, was a forerunner of the social environment/climate theory. He referred to the environment as the field or “life space” and defined it as that which contains the “person and the psychological environment as it exists for him” (Lewin, 1951, p. xi). Components of the psychological environment include past and present experiences, feelings, the learner's character, motivation, cognitive structure, and ways of perceiving (Bartholomay, 1996).

Luszki, Schmuck and Fox (1966) suggest many factors within the classroom environment affect a pupil’s motivation to learn. They propose “the teacher can help pupils learn their academic subjects better when he (she) takes some of these factors into account” (p.3) and that assessing the classroom learning environment can assist the teacher in identifying the factors which affect his or her learning atmosphere and thus direct his or her efforts by encouraging pupils to improve academic motivations. Verner and Davison (1982) further suggest that for learning to occur successfully, the learner must be motivated to learn; they state:

Although an adult may possess all of the internal preconditions for learning, he or she may still fail because of conditions in the immediate learning situation over which he or she has no control. Adults are influenced by the environment in which they attempt to learn. This environment consists of the physical setting as well as the emotional atmosphere. If either is incompatible with the adult learner or the learning task, the probabilities of successful achievement will be diminished (p.10)

Some of the most extensive work on classroom environment measuring was completed by Rudolf Moos during the 1970’s resulting in the Classroom Environment Scale
(Moos, 1979) which was based on three essential areas of the classroom environment: the
**Relationship Dimension** which focused on interpersonal relationships between students and
students and the teacher; the **Personal Development Dimension** which examined the
characteristics of the student; and the **Systems Maintenance and Change Dimension** which
examined classroom control and order in the room. During the mid-1990’s, a shift in the
measuring of the classroom environment took place with high-inference measure such as
‘What Is Happening In This Class’ (WIHIC) developed by Barry Fraser and others (see
Fraser, 2002). This scale focused on the student’s perceptions of the various dimensions of
the classroom and was mapped to the dimensions of Moo’s schema. As theories of learning
continue to evolve the need to create and validate more measures continues to grow.

Because learning is a complex cognitive process where there is no single best
explanation of learning, more than one learning theory should be considered when selecting
teaching styles for police recruits. In that sense, balanced combinations of behaviourist,
cognitive, constructivist, social cultural, and andragogical principles (Heslop, 2006) should
be applied instead of the traditional sole behaviourist approach (Birzer, 2003) used in
traditional police training centres. The preferences of teaching styles are the focus of the
second purpose of this study. The theoretical approach adopted in this study was primarily
influenced by Guba and Lincoln’s (1985) conception of Naturalistic Inquiry, which they later
acknowledged was a form of Constructivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1998), and to a lesser extent
Charmaz’s (2006) constructivist concept of Grounded Theory. Constructivism is a research
paradigm that denies the existence of an objective reality, “asserting instead that realities are
social constructions of the mind, and that there exist as many such constructions as there are
individuals (although clearly many constructions will be shared)” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p.
43). Focusing on the data and the possibilities for meaning that can be constructed from
them, Charmaz (1995) has used grounded theory to elicit multiple meanings. Following
Charmaz, researchers need to go beyond the surface in seeking meaning in the data, searching for and questioning tacit meanings about values, beliefs, and ideologies. There is an underlying assumption that the interaction between the researcher and participants “produces the data, and therefore the meanings that the researcher observes and defines” (Charmaz, 1995, p. 35). As constructivism is interpretive, any theorising done is dependent upon the researcher’s views and cannot stand outside of them (Charmaz, 2006). Hence any substantive theories or working hypothesis developed should ‘emerge’ in the sense that they are induced or ‘grounded’ on data generated during the research process (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Cohen, et al., 2001; Charmaz 2006).

Motivation for the Research Study

I approached this study not only as a person involved in full time academic work for a little over three years, but also having served as a police officer for 30 years in a large metropolitan police service, during which I became involved in my own academic pursuit. The previous experiences I have had with my own personal development and police training led me to personal and critical reflection on the work undertaken within the ‘police service’ to develop staff into a professional workforce capable of delivering the most efficient and effective service desired by those communities it seeks to serve. This developing nature of police professionalism continues to be a source of debate between police practitioners and academics (Rumbaut & Bittner, 1979; Perrier, 1979; Reiner, 2010; Carlan & Lewis, 2009).

Writing in 2008, Neyroud observed that: “the desire of the police service to be an independent profession working to high ethical standards deploying a recognized body of professional knowledge is an aspiration that remains to be achieved” (2008, p. 674). He noted too that viewed against some of the criteria that are normally deployed to define a profession, policing falls short. By 2011, however, Neyroud argued for establishing policing as a profession in ways explicitly modelled on the approaches of other professions such as
law and medicine. Contained in his report is the recommendation to establish a new police
Professional Body to act as a guardian of professional qualifications, provide ethical
leadership and develop strong links to universities to meet the education and research needs
of the police service (Neyroud, 2011).

On the one hand, policing clearly aligns with definitions, which emphasise that
professions are the “structural, occupational and institutional arrangements for dealing with
work associated with the uncertainties of modern lives in risk societies” (Evetts, 2003,
p.397). From this perspective, the police can be viewed like other professionals, such as law
and medicine, who routinely deal with issues of risk and risk assessment and use expert
knowledge to help people deal with uncertainty. On the other hand, if it is measured against
definitions of professions -which emphasise the importance of a period spent in higher or
further education- policing, as Neyroud acknowledges, does not match this model nor does it
have, like many professions, an established code of ethics.

Numerous studies over the years have been carried out that indicate that the police
service is not viewed as a profession, but a working class occupation. Cherry (2002) found
many people view the police service as a whole as “a low status working class profession, on
a par with nurses and teachers” (p.59), with historically most officers being recruited from the
working class (Whitfield, 2004).

One of the more fundamental questions to consider is that, generally policing is
referred to as a profession (Perrier, 1979; Crank, 1987), yet there is no common consensus, or
understanding, of what this actually means or the requirements needed to fulfil such
standards. This is a complex area, made more difficult and challenging by the fact that
policing is about being multi-skilled and able to deal with any host of issues that requires a
response sufficient to at least competently deal with a situation, whilst at all times retaining
the public’s trust and confidence in what is done. Wilson (1968) suggested that policing was
not a profession and that there were four components underlying attitudes toward police work -apprenticeship, a holistic work ethic, lack of deference to authority, and oral traditions. These constructs, he suggested, belong to the world-view of members of a craft.

Hall (1968) proposed five distinct professionalism criteria. First, professionalism depends on organizations functioning as a major referent for guiding ideas, standards, and judgments (such as journals and meetings). Second, professionalism exudes a firm belief in public service, most visible in a conviction that their services are indispensable for societal well-being. Belief in self-regulation also is a requisite because it evidences the mentality that only colleagues possess the intellectual tools and expertise to judge the merits of their work. The fourth requirement is a sense of calling so intense that it commits to a lifetime of devotion without regard for benefit. Last, autonomy - the freedom to make decisions without interference from others - is a hallmark of professionalism. Hall’s point of view was supported by research conducted by Snizek (1972) into the construct of police professionalism, which concluded that police officers are aligned with Hall’s definition of professionalism.

Professionalism is often referred to “an ideology, used by members of an occupational group whose members aspire to professional status” (Walsh, 1970, p.709). Research conducted into professionalism has been attitudinal, measuring professionalism in terms of agreement with beliefs generally considered to reflect a professional worldview. Professionalism among law-enforcement personnel has been linked to education (Smith, 1978; Miller & Fry, 1976), cynicism (Regoli, Crank, Culbertson & Poole, 1987; Lotz & Regoli, 1977), job satisfaction and work relations (Regoli, Crank & Culbertson, 1989; Schnitzius & Lester, 1980), the use of force (Walsh, 1970), and community and departmental characteristics (Crank, 1987; Kiel & Eckstrom, 1978). Although the quest for an occupational position and acceptance into the professional club is pursued, the qualities of
Professionalism is not always clear (Perrier, 1979) with the traditional mode of training police officers conducted through the apprenticeship model.

As indicated earlier, Neyroud’s assertion suggests that policing is an occupation in transition and that a major challenge confronting policing is the attainment of a professional status, which is supported by previous research (Rohl & Barnsley 1995). Neyroud stated that, viewed against the criteria that are normally deployed to define a profession, policing falls short. Indeed, while there appears to be some debate and argument regarding the criteria which may be employed to designate the ‘police professional’, some dissent is noted by Reader (1966), Johnson (1972), Bennet and Hokenstad (1972), Greenhill (1981), Geller (1985) and Dale (1994) who suggest policing does not align with common professional standards. Potts (1982) argues that strategies within law enforcement agencies to obtain professional status have been based on “misinterpretation, misapplication, misrepresentation, and miscalculation” (p.51). Bumgarner (2002) states that “professionalism as described . . . by author-practitioners frequently fails to resemble professionalism as described in scholarly works” (p.321), while Griffin (1998), for example, defines professionalism as possessing integrity, intellect, initiative, industry, and impact. There does appear to be some agreement on a core set of criteria which include a body of knowledge, a substantial training and educational period, a standard of practice and self-regulation (Carlan & Lewis, 2009). Kleismet (1985) outlines the more traditional view of the professional as a practitioner of a discipline who is trained in a university over an extended period, not controlled by bureaucratic supervision but by internalised wisdom, knowledge and skill, as well as by colleagues and finally that the professional is organised in an association that, supported by legislation, substantially controls entrance into the profession. At a minimum, professionals are expected to possess a knowledge base cultivated from tertiary education, vocational training, and experience (Evetts, 2006). The educational focus communicates that
occupations cannot transform into professions without substantial commitment to training and certification (Collins, 1979; Reiss, 1975). While in a one study by Carlan and Lewis (2009), they make reference to research conducted by Souryal (2003) that there was a clear statement that a police officer is not regarded by society as a profession because it does not fulfil societal demands.

Both Potts (1982) and Wilensky (1964) agree that professional status requires long-term commitment to education and training fostered in collegiate environments. On this issue, police commitment remains marginal, and without this educational focus, it will be difficult to professionalise policing, an aspect which Neyroud appears to wish to address in his 2011 report. As highlighted above, at the centre of that report is the recommendation to establish a professional body to act as the guardian of professional qualifications provide ethical leadership and develop strong links to universities to meet the education and research needs of the police service. In summary the differing theories regarding professionalism, as applied to policing, focus on the relations between occupational groups, theoretical knowledge and the possibilities for practitioners to exclusively apply such knowledge within their occupational practice. Applying such theories regarding professions to the field of policing demonstrates that the traditional focus of what constitutes professionalism would appear to create important tensions, which, at best, might hamper the development of police professionalism.

Creating institutions, such as the College of Policing are important and necessary steps in developing professional status in the police service. Changing the entry requirements to policing may also have a significant impact. The Winsor Report (Winsor, 2012) on police officer remuneration and conditions clearly regards the present system by which an officer can only join at the lowest rank of constable and then work their way up as unsatisfactory. Winsor recommends creating the opportunity for direct entry to Inspector level for “the best
graduates from the best universities” (p. 16) and direct entry to Superintendent level for those with skills from other fields, including the military, security services, industry, commerce and “the professions”. Fyfe (2013) suggests that during the last 20 years there have been clear advances in terms of professionalism within policing with its emphasis on legitimacy, accountability, specialised knowledge and evidence-based practice. Much of this discussion in relation to professionalisation has been led by reform minded police executives and police entrepreneurs (Savage, 2007) like Neyroud, who have advocated new thinking about police professionalism and then worked to bring those ideas into action, will ensure that the debate about the nature and meaning of police professionalism will continue well into the twenty-first century.

Although it is plausible that policing may not be a profession (according to sociological definitions), that outcome should not necessarily be regarded as a failure of policing. Regardless of one’s position regarding the issue, it ultimately has no bearing on whether police officers’ conduct their jobs with professionalism. In summary, professionalism has been conceived as being an externally imposed, articulated perception of what lies within the parameters of a profession’s collective remit and responsibilities. Of those theories, the commitment to education may be applied to the Foundation Degree in Policing whereby prospective police officers may apply such knowledge within their occupational practice once accepted in the police service. In this research, professionalism has been conceived as an improvement to knowledge, skills, and practice through the evolution of an all-graduate profession. I define it simply as: the process whereby people’s professionality and/or professionalism may be considered to be enhanced because in one sense, professionalism may be interpreted as what is effectively a representation of a service level agreement, imposed from above with the Foundation Degree in Policing vying to be
Consideration of the above has in turn led me to undertake the role I currently have in the delivery of a Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire and the teaching of potential police officers on such a course of study. However, within this role lay further practical considerations and questions as to my role: “Am I a teacher, a trainer, an instructor, or a lecturer?” On my retirement from the police service, I completed a postgraduate certificate in education (PGCE), which would qualify me to teach; however, from personal discussions with staff at the university I was instructed to consider myself a lecturer and not a teacher. When meeting with police officers the terms ‘trainer’ or ‘instructor’ were in constant use. For me whilst both a teacher and a trainer transfer knowledge to the participant (student), the methodologies are different with the trainer developing people through a ‘how and why’ process in practical, student centred learning processes. I have come to the conclusion that teaching is centred around the ‘why you do something’ as opposed to training which seems to me to be more about ‘how to do something’. The lines around teaching and training appear at times, to me, to blur with teaching and training drawing inferences from ‘how and why you do something’, almost to the point where I hear students say ‘teach me what I do not know and train me how to do it better or differently’.

My interest in learning environments began during my PGCE and subsequently in my teaching career at the University of Central Lancashire where, although I had gained the requisite knowledge to teach, I felt unprepared for the task. I used as a frame of reference the mainly didactic teaching approaches modelled for me in my formal education and that of my police training. Over the period of time I have taught, I have observed how others, staff and students, have engaged with the physical classroom environment; however, while reading the work of Hiemstra and Sisco (1990), I gained a broader understanding of the classroom.
environment through recognition that “an environment includes social, cultural and psychological elements as well as physical features” (p.245). I firmly believe that one of the most difficult tasks facing educators is “helping adults overcome the forces that deter their participation” (Valentine & Darkenwald, 1990, p.29). Although my own perspective continues to evolve, I believe that this research may assist adult educators in their practices relating to learning environments.

I agree with Crotty’s (1998) idea that “to talk about the construction of meaning (epistemology) is to talk of the construction of a meaningful reality (ontology)” (p.10). Therefore, the act of teaching and learning, and the research focused on it, should be seen as involving interactions with others. This point of view is congruent with Vygotsky’s (1978) theoretical principles of social interaction, the most knowledgeable other (MKO), and the zone of proximal development (ZPD).

As a higher education educator, I believe that my students and I co-construct knowledge together, and this is a knowledge creation process. In exploring the different views of reality, I believe that reality is constructed in collaboration with my students and that I construct meanings in relation to others. This had implications for the methodology of my research study, as I do not see knowledge as a fixed quantity but as an on-going activity. In other words, social reality is constructed through interaction with others and so my exchanges with the students, and the wider outcomes of these exchanges through these connections, represent a vital element in this research.

As a lecturer on the FdSc, I was drawn to researching the course, the student interaction with each other and staff as well as the classroom environment in the hope that changes to my own, and perhaps others practice, may become more evidence based.

The reflective and reflexive nature of this study has caused me to consider the journey I have taken in the research, presentation and ultimately the learning I have undergone.
throughout the preparation of this thesis. In my writing I shall draw upon the work of Ivanič (1998) who, based on the analysis of student writing, suggested the existence of a continuum ranging from the use of no I at all to the use of I to indicate the organisation of the text.

Along with Ivanic’s (1998) taxonomy, an additional taxonomy has seen the classification of pronominal discourse functions in academic writing made by Tang and John (1999). The authors developed their framework relating to the functionality of first person pronouns based on the concept of “creating identities”, as proposed by the Systemic Functional Linguistics tradition. Tang and John proposed a continuum of authorial “I” and the degrees of power embedded in the use of first person pronouns. The roles are: 1. I as representative; 2. I as the guide; 3. I as the architect; 4. I as the recounter of the research processes; 5. I as the opinion holder and 6. I as the originator. At the point of departure for this journey, I (as the originator) had been involved in full time academic work for a little over three years and the problem of the use of the first person pronoun and the awkwardness of the term is not new to me, indeed Hyland (2001) notes that the issue of self-mention is a “perennial problem for students, teachers and experienced writers alike...and remains controversial” (p.208). My experience of engaging with the first person pronoun began during the preparation of my PGCE where reflective and reflexive writing was considered the norm in demonstrating my ability to learn about my own learning (Bleakley, 2000). Through the encouragement of academic supervisors and the increasing emphasis in Higher Education (HE) on the use of reflective and reflexive writing as a means for the individual to demonstrate their ability to learn about their own learning (Bleakley, 2000), and about their own professional practice, I have come to understand and appreciate that ‘my’ experience is by its very nature mine and that use of the first person pronoun, if I address it satisfactorily, will continue to be an important issue which I cannot ignore.
I am, by definition, an “insider” in relation to this study which brings with it drawbacks and advantages. My “insider knowledge” (Bourdieu, 1988) helped me to understand the language and conventions, providing me with an understanding of the setting as well as a “feel for the game and the hidden rules” (p.27). However, there was the need for me to challenge my assumptions brought about because of this “insider knowledge” in order for me to search for new and underlying meanings experienced by the students. By considering the reflective and reflexive nature of this research, I attempted to stand back from any shared experience so that I could ‘make the familiar strange’ (Becker, 1971; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995).

Ultimately this thesis is not just about my journey, but also that of the students who are a significant part of the research.

In much the same way that I have started this journey by describing my consideration of writing in the first person pronoun, the research question can also be regarded as the start of a journey; this time into the methodological steps which were to be taken during the course of this thesis. Bordage and Dawson (2003) emphasise that “the single most important component of a study is the research question; it is the keystone of the entire exercise” (p. 378).

**Research Objectives**

Since the purposes of this study were: a) to establish the perceptions of human interactions and social dimensions of the classroom environment (social classroom preferences) of policing students studying a police Foundation Degree course (FdSc) and b) to identify the differences in students’ teaching preferences in relation to the seven distinct social factors of the classroom environment, the objectives of this research were:

- To identify the prevailing social characteristics of a police Foundation Degree course at the University of Central Lancashire.
• To establish the student perception of the social environment of the classroom.
• To identify what pre join trainers (learners) value in the classroom in terms of the social environment and student values.
• To establish the extent to which answers to the above questions can be used to improve the classroom environment.

Methodology

This study was quantitative and based on a survey design. The longitudinal sample included 85 first year students on the Policing FdSc at the University of Central Lancashire across three separate first year cohort intakes (2010-2011; 2011-2012; 2012-2013).

The Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) as developed by Darkenwald and Valentine (1986) - using the seven dimension (with seven items per dimension, nine in item one) instrument as a basis for data collection, together with four demographic questions- was used to gather data. The ACES scale was the only instrument used to gather statistical data. The classroom and teaching style preferences of students were measured. An evaluation of staff was not included in the study. Thus, results indicate the perceptions and preferences of students, not that of lecturers.

The methodological strategy employed in this study comprises a quantitative study of the classroom social environment in police education, data collection and analysis, and is grounded in a philosophical position, which is positivist. Adopting a positivistic stance is not only about adopting certain approaches to the design of research studies. As Crotty (1998) points out, it implies that the results of research will tend to be presented as objective facts and established truths.

A variety of statistical methods were employed. Throughout the analysis, descriptive statistics were used (means and standard deviations for numerical variables, percentages and raw numbers for categorical variables). Student’s t-test, ANOVA, and the Chi-Squared test
were used appropriately for numerical variables (Kachigan, 1991). Additionally, correlation coefficients, principal components factor analysis, cluster analysis, and multiple linear regression techniques were also used (Montgomery, Peck & Vining, 2012).

Characteristically, student outcomes have been studied using quantitative approaches based on educational measurement traditions, whereas classroom processes or environment have usually involved qualitative approaches involving informal observation, interview, etc. (Fraser, 1998). In this research, it was stated that classroom climate is disposed to quantitative study and that a considerable amount of work has been done in several countries towards the construction and refinement of techniques for assessing environments. Admittedly, quantitative measures have well-known limitations (Cresswell, 2013), with just one example being that quantitative data collection can ignore a very important human element; however this approach was adopted in order to collect data in an easy and economical fashion and also eliminate any possible subjectivity derived from the different roles the researcher held in the process. In the qualitative and mixed-methods approaches, the role of the researcher is more active and might have implied biases for the data collection and analyses.

In summary, this chapter has presented the target problem of this research study, which is the need that currently exists for studies that focus on the human interactions and social dimensions of the classroom environment on a police Foundation Degree course. They are required to provide organisations that offer police pre-employment education with research-based information to make effective decisions. To address such a problem, four research objectives were formulated and the basic theories upon which the research was based were explained. The motivation to conduct it as well as a discussion on what professionalism is and its application to policing were also included.
Chapter 2 will present a historical review of police training within the UK, providing a context for the research. This chapter will place my research in the context of similar research studies involving the education of police officers in a pre-employment, or post-employment setting. An exploration of the social and political contexts of police education, a review of police education will also be provided.
Chapter 2

Police Training

Chapter two discusses the historical elements of police training, where training is defined by Bramley (1996) as “… a process, which is planned to facilitate learning so that people can become more effective in carrying out aspects of their work” (p.2). It seeks to discuss how the police have been trained thus proving a link and route map into Chapter Four which discusses a general understanding of Learning/ Adult Learning Theory/ Classroom Social Environment.

In the Glossary of Training Terms (Manpower Services Commission, 1981), the definition of ‘training’ explains that the words ‘learning experience’ emphasize that there is no clear dividing line between education and training, and stresses the importance of the integration of these two concepts. Some useful distinctions have been made by Reid, Barrington and Brown (2004), particularly in relation to training and education. These distinctions have been made with regard to process, orientation, method, content and the degree of precision involved. Training usually involves the acquisition of behaviours, facts, ideas, etc. that are more easily defined in a specific job context. Training is more job-oriented than person-oriented, whereas education is more person-oriented, has a broader process of change and its objectives are less amenable to precise definition. Differences between training and education can also be identified with respect to course or programme content. Training aims to provide knowledge and skills and to instil the attitudes, which are needed to perform specific tasks, whereas education usually provides more theoretical and conceptual frameworks designed to stimulate analytical and critical abilities (Buckley and Caple, 2009). For the purpose of this thesis, the term 'police education' is being used in relation to university level work while the term training relates to learning acquired in force.
A detailed historical analysis is not the central purpose of this research; nevertheless, in order to understand the current situation of police education, it is necessary to provide an overview of the developments that have led police education to the point where it is today and thus provide a base from which such developments can be better understood. Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to provide a basic historical overview of the main developments in British police recruit training from the 1960’s to the publication of the ’Review of Police Leadership and Training’ in 2011 (Neyroud, 2011).

History of Training Development

From the 1960s to 1990s: Decades of Change

For many years there was little development in the approach to police recruit training. However, as early as 1956, it was recognised that police recruit training was dominated by the need to learn powers and procedures by rote learning and that it was not primarily concerned with ‘engagement with communities’ (Reith, 1956).

During the 1960s, police training was based on instruction necessary to fulfil their duties and responsibilities as police officers and, consequently, there was heavy reliance on didactic teaching methods intended to ensure detailed knowledge of law and procedures (HMIC, 2002). The Police Act 1964 pulled together a number of the recommendations which explored the weaknesses of the relationship between police and the public, like unsatisfactory relationship with young people and motorists, the decline in public standards of behaviour, and insufficient readiness on the part of the public to help the police (Royal Commission on the Police, 1962). In 1965, it was recommended that initial training for police officers should give more emphasis to social studies so as to equip them to understand minority communities and society in general (Rose, 1965).

In the 1970s, there were different evaluations of police training, which recommended the introduction of training courses. In 1971, a working party established by the Police
Training Council reported their recommendation to introduce a ten week training course with the objective that recruits were provided with the minimum skills and knowledge required to comply with duties. Mostly other learning for effective operational performance was expected to take place subsequently on the job (Allard, 1991; Oakley, 2001).

In 1972, the Parliamentary Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration examined what they called “police and immigrant relations during the early 1970s” (Rawlings, 2002, p.203). The subsequent report concluded that better communications across cultural boundaries would be enhanced by changes in a number of areas of police work, and especially in training. Consequently, in 1973, a Home Office Working Party recommended that police training should concentrate more on community relations and less on criminal law, drill and first aid (Home Office, 1973). Although race and community relations became a specific part of the curriculum that year, it has been argued that much of this early training lacked focus, and was poorly conceived (Rowe & Garland, 2003; Southgate, 1982).

Allard (1997) outlines three reasons for the change during the late sixties and early seventies. Firstly, there was growing dissent from the general public about the service they were receiving from the police. Secondly, there was increasing spread of industrial unrest across both the public and private sectors. Finally, and perhaps most significantly, there was growing concern for relations between ethnic minority communities and the police.

The 1980’s saw the continuation of concerns about the relationship between police and community reaching their peak with the four main riots that occurred in Brixton (London), the Handsworth riots in Birmingham, the Chapeltown riot in Leeds and the Toxteth riots in Liverpool. Findings of the report of the inquiry into the Brixton disorders, conducted by Lord Scarman, not only influenced the Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure, but became the basis for one of the most important pieces of legislation on
policing for several decades: the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 (commonly known as PACE). This legislation would have a major impact on Initial Police Training.

The Research and Planning Unit of the Home Office had already instigated an evaluation of the training given to probationary constables before the Scarman report; however, the Unit's report, though not published until 1982, contains a foreword, which refers to Lord Scarman's recommendations:

One of the recommendations of Lord Scarman's report on the Brixton disorders was that more attention should be paid to police training .... Two areas of the curriculum were identified as being of particular importance: the maintenance of public order; and the understanding of cultural backgrounds and attitudes in an ethnically diverse society. Recruits to the police needed on the one hand, to learn how to handle and define potential conflicts and on the other, to understand the need for obtaining community support as an essential element of efficient policing (Southgate, 1982, p.iii).

Lord Scarman’s report made a series of recommendations for the development of police training in community relations. According to it, the underlying theme of that training should be “the police officers’ role as a member of the community he (sic) polices, and his need to maintain law and order through gaining the approval, confidence and respect of the community he serves” (Scarman, 1981, p. 81). It concluded “above all, the central theme in all training must be for the police to secure the consent of and support of the public if they are successfully to perform their duties” (para. 5.31). Coinciding with this view of training, there was a critique that ‘militaristic’ training was unlikely to develop the sort of officer required by a civilian force (Community Policing, Evelyn B. Schaffer, 1980).

However, there is little insight available to suggest that the militaristic style of the 1970’s had changed with the advent of the 1980’s, although there was clearly a movement
towards suggesting that training needed to achieve more than knowledge and drill. Schaffer (1980) argued that whilst discipline is vital for the police force, especially in situations of crisis where a police officer must know their role and must respond absolutely to orders, a weakness of the training system seemed to be that a great deal of stress was laid on external discipline, with opportunities to develop initiative and control being ignored.

The Scarman Report led to the Police Training Council setting up three working groups: an internal group to consider the nature of public order training, a representative group to consider police and community relations training at all levels through policing, and a working party on police probationer training, which became known as the Stage I Review under the aegis of the Police Training Council (PTC) (MacDonald et.al., 1987). In January 1982, the Police Training Council set up a working party on community and race relations training for the police.

That working party reported in 1984, with their recommendations largely accepted by the Police Training Council, and a programme of training was introduced in the Metropolitan Police called ‘Human Awareness Training’ (HAT) (Bull & Horncastle, 1989). This was modified for the provincial forces and the Central Planning Unit produced a programme called "Social Skills of Policing" (Allard, 1997). To accommodate the extra lesson periods the ten-week course was extended to fourteen weeks.

HAT, designed by police officers with a background in the behavioural sciences, comprised three related areas of training: interpersonal skills (said to embody conversational skills and the ability to manage encounters with others), self-awareness (self-knowledge and insight into one’s effect on social situations), and community relations (embracing awareness of and knowledge about different cultures and subcultures). It accounted for approximately a quarter of the initial 20-week training course for those recruited to the Metropolitan Police (Bull & Horncastle, 1994).
Workplace learning emerged as a finding of the ‘Independent Review of the Learning Requirement for Police Probationer Training in England and Wales’, which was sponsored by Home Office and conducted by University of East Anglia (UEA) and came to be known as the Stage II Review (MacDonald et.al., 1987). With a brief to produce a Learning Requirement (LR) and associated recommendations for training infrastructure and organisation, the review team (made up predominantly of academics, supported by police officers) extended the Learning Requirement to include a Training Requirement and an Organisational Requirement. The subsequent report recommended fundamental changes to recruit training provision; including a revised programme based on modules, interspersed with workplace learning to be supported by a structured tutor constable scheme (MacDonald et.al., 1987). Although the team commended the ‘standardisation’ of training through the control by the Central Planning Unit, it highlighted that, although they were aware of exam results, there was very little scrutiny of what went on at training centres in terms of qualitative evidence. A standardised approach had started to spread to in-force training following the Scarman Report (MacDonald et.al., 1987). The redevelopment of probationer training in 1989 through “Stage Two Training” was also designed to produce change by challenging implicit cultural assumptions (Kushner, 1992, 1994; Elliott, 1988).

Despite the wait, however, the system did not meet universal acclaim (Allard, 1997; HMIC, 2002) since the Central Planning Unit focussed very much on the exam results from each centre rather than on any evaluative contact with the end customer (i.e. the student or the public). The evaluation was restricted to tangible knowledge rather than examining the softer skills of human awareness or community relations. The review team were charitable in expressing that this approach may have been acceptable for the 1970’s but, given the explosion in incidents which were resultant of a lack of community understanding, it was clear something needed to be done about this aspect of learning and development.
According to HMIC, “a lack of central direction and resourcing, together with the failure to integrate the workplace training with classroom-based instruction, led to its demise” (HMIC, 2002, p.16).

Following the recommendations of the Stage II Review, a new seven modular training programme was introduced with new recruits attending in-force training. Three Post-Foundation Courses of two weeks were spread through the remaining period of probation and were delivered by in-force training (Peacock, 2010).

As a result of the Stage II Review it was recognised that there were divisions in police training with contrasting approaches between the Central Planning Unit and training for probationers at District Training Centres - various specialist training units dotted about the country (MacDonald et.al., 1987). In December 1989, the Audit Commission, in the report “The Management of Police Training”, identified the need for strengthened co-ordination of force training at national level suggesting a national director of police training with a small permanent staff.

The 1980’s ended with a brand new training programme for all new officers: a two-year ‘long-term’ approach. However, despite police training content and style responding to changes in policing, many police forces were rarely able to research the impact due to financial and budgetary issues (Yuille, 1989).

The 1989 Audit Commission recommendation for a national role directing police training was realised in 1993 with the creation of the National Police Training (NPT) body headed by a Chief Constable Rank (Home Office, 1993). Funded and directed as a department of the Home Office, NPT became the guiding influence for all aspects of police training, reporting to the Police Training Council and reinforcing The Audit Commission (1989) statement that training was “an item of expenditure over which there is a stronger case for retaining central control than most” (p.6). Critics, such as Allard (1997), question the
honesty behind the move; seeing the Home Office as possibly “attempting to control the police by stealth in private whilst extolling the virtues of the local approach to policing in public” (p.269).

Irrespective of motivation – consistency and co-ordination versus control - developments in training continued. The 1989 Audit Commission quest for value was reinforced by the Home Office Circular in 1991 (HO Circular 105/1991) outlining Police Training Council recommendations for evaluation of training at several different levels to assess meeting objectives and measure the transferal of knowledge.

Despite the establishment of National Police Training in 1993, by 1997 there was a review of National Police Training with a view to devising a structure, which would make it a more responsive and efficient organisation while increasing its openness and tripartite responsibility (i.e. its responsibility to the Home Secretary, police forces and police authorities). Further to this ‘Project Forward’ in 1998 saw the Police Federation put forward alternative proposals for the future of police training, suggesting the creation of a Police University and an emphasis on distance learning with the use of IT for the future of police training.

The proposals of the Select Committee for Home Affairs, in 1999, recommended training be geared towards operational requirements; specifically "core" training threads: community and race relations, equal opportunities, evidence gathering, health and safety, victim needs and management, tackling patrol effectively, providing quality services, PACE and citizens’ rights, social political and community issues. The vision was for a course which moved from the acquisition of knowledge to the application of policing and social skills in practical scenarios; a commonality with many previous recommendations; however, additionally students would move beyond achieving basic policing competencies by using feedback and experiences to feed self-guided action plans supervised by trainers.
The range and scope of Home Office Circulars, Inspection Reports and Home Office Papers during the 1990’s highlighted that the subject of police training and evaluation was taking centre stage. Traditionally, police training was immune from evaluation and performance measures and, due to the uniqueness of police culture, training evaluation within the police service was seen to be different from other organisations within the public sector (Means, 2010). Generally due to the complexities of the police service and the nature of crime, performance measurements were seen as difficult to judge due to the involvement of other agencies, for example, the Health Service and Probation Service (Collier, 2001).

Ten years after Yuille (1989) had observed that police forces were rarely able to assess the impact of training, the Home Office Circular published ‘Managing Police Learning’. This was based on a thematic inspection by Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Constabulary (1999) and recommended a national strategy for the Police Service to evaluate training. The Home Office also introduced a number of associated far-reaching policies aimed at ensuring that training contributed to both national and local goals and objectives.

2000’s: Stepping into the 21st Century

As is the case in most public sector organisations in Britain, the police service has, in recent years, been the subject of significant ‘reform’ and ‘modernisation’ (Home Office 2001b, 2004b, 2008).

A key feature of the reform and modernisation agenda has been the argument that there is the need to ‘professionalise’ the police (HMIC, 1999, 2004). Home Office strategies, circulars and strategies emphasised aspects of this, with the 2000 Home Office Consultation document ‘Police Training: the Way Forward’ highlighting the centrality of high quality training to an effective police force; the 2001 National Evaluation Strategy seeking to provide a consistent approach for evaluation and the 2002 Home Office Circular ‘Promoting Effective Performance Through The Training Plan’ (HO 18/2002) providing guidance for more
effective performance and they meant to help police forces and authorities meet the requirements of the White Paper, ‘Policing A New Century’. This guidance focused on delivering a more professional training function and to meet the Best Value requirements on training and development.

Some have suggested that aspects of reform and modernisation have undermined rather than increased police professionalisation with the leading argument that performance management regimes designed to modernise have had ‘perverse effects’, eroding the traditional service ethos, and thereby public confidence in policing (Hough, 2003). Others have identified that it was ‘corruption’ which finally allowed the centre to legislate in a way that both confirmed and accelerated the triumph of professionalism over urban independence (Williams, 2003).

‘Training Matters’ (HMIC, 2002), which focussed solely on the Probationer Training Programme, put this drive for consistency and high standards very succinctly “Whatever training and development option is taken, success will only be assured if a Service-wide approach is adopted around consistency of delivery. Inconsistency can lead to a fragmented provision of learning and undermine the credibility of [recruit training]” (HMIC, 2002, p. 22).

Centralised approaches to sharing insight and encouraging benchmarking were also evident. These included the 2002 ACPO and APA report, based on a Best Value Project in Police Training advocating police forces learn and benchmark evaluation processes, and several Home Office Circulars in 2005. The influence of best value performance indicators, largely output based, allowed the public to determine whether their local constabulary could satisfy criteria laid down by the Home Office in areas such as reducing crime, investigating crime, promoting public safety, citizen focus and resource usage (Drake & Simper, 2004).
Centralisation also included the establishment of “a body corporate to be known as the Central Police Training and Development Authority” (Criminal Justice and Police Act, part V: 86.1). This body came to be known as Centrex and was responsible for managing the growing number of Police Training Centres, providing and promoting the value of learning in order to deliver training for police officers and staff, offering advice to those involved in training and acting as a consultancy service promoting professional excellence.

Although there was considerable rhetorical and emotional investment in ‘locally-organized’ policing in England and Wales, in practice there has been a long-term trend towards the growing influence of central bodies (Jones & van Sluis, 2003; Newburn, 2008). The long-term trend towards centralisation was continued by the Police Reform Act 2002 with Part 1 of the Act designed to provide the legislative framework for improved performance in the police service, bringing all forces up to the level of the best. Central to this was a National Policing Plan, setting out the Government's priorities for policing, how they are to be delivered, and the indicators by which performance is to be measured. The Criminal Justice and Police Act 2001 marked the further extension of the role of the centre with the establishment of a Central Police Training and Development Authority (Select Committee, 2003).

In ‘Training Matters’ (HMIC, 2002) a link was specifically made between the lack of community interaction at the crucial early stage of an officer’s career and concerns for diversity. This was a continuation of a theme, which had first emerged during the 1960’s and action was evident to improve this area following the Brixton riots (Scarman, 1981); for example, in the report of the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry by Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (Macpherson, 1999). HMIC recommended that training delivered to police recruits should be restructured to “provide an in depth understanding of the community to be
policed whilst ensuring that officers are also able to cope with the diversity of the police service itself” (HMIC 2002, p.49).

It was also recommended that a set of “principles should be adopted that separated learning indicators from the Integrated Competency Framework” (Elliott et al., 2003, p. 4). As a result the then Police Training and Development Authority recommended that an adapted version of Kolb’s model of Experiential Learning should be used as a basis for probationer training in England and Wales (White, 2006). In part those recommendations were implemented into the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP).

During 2004 a Probationer Training Modernisation Project (PTMP) was established by ACPO (Association of Chief Police Officers) to take forward HMIC’s recommendations. The PTMP subsequently became the Initial Police Learning and Development Board (IPLDB), and, following evaluation of a pilot, the Home Office commenced the national roll out of the IPLDP in April 2005. In line with previous recruit training systems, the new programme was structured over a two-year time frame with trainees now referred to as ‘student officers’. The training still combined formal classroom based learning, and structured role-plays, with workplace coaching, experience, reflective practice and assessment.

The primary goal of the IPLDP was to implement ‘modernised’ recruit training (Home Office 2004a) based on three key aspects: competence-based curriculum and work based assessment, locally delivered training, and community engagement. Despite the grouping of IPLDP around central standards and competencies, the Police Reform Act 2002 and the introduction of IPLDP gave police services in England and Wales greater scope in choosing how to deliver training to new recruits, including the possibility of working with local universities to provide police recruits initial police education. This ‘education’ differs
from the ‘training’ given until that moment because it focuses on theoretical and conceptual frameworks necessary to develop their analytical and critical skills.

As part of the ‘streamlining of the national policing landscape’, the National Police Improvement Agency (NPIA), introduced in 2007 by the Police and Justice Act 2006 to take responsibility for National Police Training, was phased out during 2012. Looking to take over, through the Crime and Courts Act of 2013, is the planned Police Professional Body, representing all levels of the organisation and consolidating functions of NPIA and ACPO (Neyroud, 2011), through the auspices of the National College of Policing. Its responsibilities would cover national standards, qualification framework, leadership and training, including a national delivery body that would provide training in police specific areas (e.g. covert skills, firearms and forensics) that could not be commissioned out to further and higher education institutes.

Since the introduction of the National College of Policing in 2012, a number of debates have taken place in relation to educational courses for those who are in the ‘pre-join’ stage. The introduction of pre-join development opportunities - prior to recruitment and training to become a warranted police constable have attracted considerable interest from police forces in England and Wales (College of Policing, 2013). Currently every police force in England and Wales sets its own recruitment process and selection policy, and entry requirements vary from force to force. Neyroud (2010), in his 2010 review into the delivery of police leadership and training functions, discusses pre-entry qualifications and differing routes for entry into the police, including direct entry at senior officer level.

In summary, police training has evolved from an approach based on learning laws and procedures to one characterised by the preparation of police officers in different areas that include community engagement, core standards for curriculum and assessment, and focus on
local needs. A more comprehensive view has emerged that focuses on police education provided at universities

**Pre-join Development and Apprenticeship**

The Central Authority approved guidance by ACPO Cabinet and ACPO Council on the development of pre-join programmes for the Initial Police Learning. Guidance was developed primarily to ensure consistent, standardised learning outcomes and assessments wherever pre-join to policing programmes are delivered. The College of Policing considers the benefit of a clearly defined professional framework to be, amongst other items, standardised learning delivered nationally, whether in a policing or external environment, together with a standardised single national assessment strategy, underpinned by the QCF and administered by awarding organisations (including universities and some FE providers).

The College of Policing clearly defines the learning and assessment that is to be delivered, by both internal and external sources to policing environments. Such learning and assessment could be tailored to force needs and should comply with the following requirements: the provider demonstrates that their learning will cover the mandatory outcomes as defined in the pre-join curriculum; there is need to have sufficient appropriately trained and experienced staff to deliver the pre-join curriculum; systems and processes exist to assure the delivery of the full pre-join curriculum; sufficient and appropriately trained staff are available, and processes are in place to assess candidates against the Assessment Criteria defined in the QCF Level 3 Certificate in Knowledge of Policing. The College of Policing does not however suggest how such learning will take place in the context of classroom delivery.

At present a number of universities offer pre-entry qualifications in policing and most recently foundation degrees in policing. There are three broad models in place:
1. Achievement of prior accredited knowledge delivered in further or higher education, accredited against the knowledge requirements of the Initial Policing Curriculum for the Diploma in Policing.

2. Achievement as a Special Constable of a Foundation Degree accredited against the knowledge requirements of the Initial Policing Curriculum and the competence requirements of the Diploma in Policing, as far as applicable as a Special Constable.

3. Achievement of the Police Community Support Officer (PCSO) Award (L3 Certificate in Policing) which is already accredited as prior learning.

The National College of Policing has suggested that pre-join training would encourage potential police recruits to take responsibility for their learning and development, increase the engagement of higher education, further education and the private sector in police learning as well as reducing the cost of police training to the public purse (College of Policing, 2014).

Quite clearly the individual self-funding of a pre-entry Foundation Degree in Policing approved by the College of Policing has the potential of saving resources from the budget for police training. Mick Sylvester, Learning and Operations Manager for Lincolnshire Police (2012), identified that after a two-year pre-entry foundation degree, students would complete a shorter training programme if they were employed by the police, and that would save the police, in this case Lincolnshire Constabulary, £64,000 per month. If this were to be multiplied across the 43 police forces of England and Wales, where just one student self-funds and completes an approved Foundation Degree in Policing, there could be a potential saving to the Home Office from the police-training budget of £33,024,000 on an annual basis. However, there have been critiques of the requirement of students to self-fund.
In an interview with ‘Constabulary’, Mick Sylvester, stated that in the current economic climate, and with reduced government funding, police forces urgently need to save money and that recruitment and recruit training is not exempt from this (“The Constabulary Interview”, 2012, May). Sylvester further suggested that the current economic market, in relation to employment and training together with the belief that the police service is a relatively attractive employer, would result in applicants making themselves more appealing by completion of the degree programme if simple economics require them to.

The College of Policing recently announced the Metropolitan Police as the first police force to require new police officer candidates to achieve the Certificate in Knowledge of Policing through a College of Policing Approved Provider (see Appendix A). Opponents to the Metropolitan Police policy cited the £1,000 applicant pre-enrolment charge as a ‘bobby tax’, which makes more difficult for the police to look like the community that it serves and that will prevent young people from poorer backgrounds and ethnic minorities from joining the police (McDonagh, MP for Mitcham and Morden, House of Commons Chamber, 2014). The Prime Minister stated that the certificate would help to professionalise police but the Home Secretary will look into the issue with the College of Policing to evaluate criticisms.

In contrast to the solo certificate approach, Skills for Justice, the College of Policing, the Association of Chief Police Officers and the Welsh and UK Government funded the pilot Apprenticeship programme known as The Bridge. This Level 3 Apprenticeship in Home Office Policing is delivered alongside the mandatory Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP) and has been designed to enhance the existing Initial Police Learning and Development Programme, which police forces in England and Wales use to train newly recruited police officers. The programme provides an accredited and standardised approach to the education of new recruits, ensuring that all are educated and developed in the same way. Through such accreditation, forces are able to demonstrate that
their officers have the skills that are needed to meet the demands of their communities. As highlighted in figure 2.1, key elements of the apprenticeship are completion of Essential Skills Wales (ESW) qualifications in Communications at Level 3, ICT at Level 2 and Application of Number at Level 2. The apprenticeship has been developed in consultation with the four Welsh police services and the College of Policing and piloted in Dyfed Powys Police, Gwent Police and South Wales Police.

Figure 2.1
*Delivered in Phase 1 by external provider ^ Delivered by individual police force
Taken from Skills for Justice (2014) Level 3 Apprenticeship in Home Office Policing pilot, research in progress.

Work-based mentoring (Supervised Patrol with a Tutor Constable) is an element of the Apprenticeship that makes up guided learning hours that reflect the IPLDP process and also support the potential transferability to Specifications of Apprenticeship Standards in England (SASE). Importantly, tripartite Apprenticeship review meetings every eight weeks with Police and External Training Provider are embedded into the Tutor Constable stage.
These meetings are a requirement of mainstream Apprenticeship funding and while the programme is piloting how they work, they are separate from the mentoring phase.

In terms of the structure of apprenticeships, there is a knowledge-based element, commonly referred to as a technical certificate. For the Level 3 Apprenticeship in Policing, this refers to the Certificate of Knowledge in Policing. It also contains a competency-based element, which is a vocational qualification as a Level 3 Diploma in Policing. The Certificate comprises 10 assessment units that a smaller than the full diploma (equating to 50%). Therefore, knowledge and competency elements are combined within this Apprenticeship framework. Furthermore, there is an Essential skills element, covering English, Maths, and Information Communications Technology.

The first cohort to whom this programme was administered comprised of eighty-four new police officers from across Wales (16 officers from Dyfed-Powys Police, 44 officers from South Wales Police and a further 24 officers from Gwent Police). Results of this pilot programme have been not published yet.

**Professionals and Professionalisation**

Regarding the concept of police professionalism, Adrian Jackson (2002), addressing a conference of police training professionals on behalf of the Police Skills Standards Organisation (PSSO, now Skills for Justice), stated that: “A police officer needs to know nothing more and nothing less than what is contained in a National Occupational Standard”. These standards were combined to create the Integrated Competency Framework (ICF): a complete behavioural paradigm for every aspect of policing (Skills for Justice, 2014). Jackson claimed that the ICF would standardise everything a police officer will do, specify the knowledge and skill required to undertake it and define the level of expected performance.
It is this paradigm the Home Secretary supported in the white paper to the Police Reform Act when he predicted the ‘professionalisation’ of the police service (Home Office, 2001a). However, this combination of curriculum and syllabus can be illustrated in Stenhouse’s (1983) analogy with Wind in the Willows as “Mr. Toad’s curriculum of derelict skiffs and canary coloured caravan” (p.156). Toad learned the syllabus and, as a consequence, he could row a boat and drive a car, but he did not learn their value or the social responsibilities they implied. The concept of ‘curriculum’, when distinguished from ‘syllabus’, makes the relationship between teaching and learning problematic. While the behavioural objectives can be ‘taught’, the values ‘caught’ during the process are less predictable (Hirst & Peters, 1970).

Reiner (2010) considers that, in fragmented and divided societies, the more pragmatic but attainable goal is to get public recognition of doing a ‘dirty work’ occupation as professionally, efficiently, and impartially as possible. However, it is doubtful whether that can be achieved “in a period of massive social transformation, generating profound dislocation and insecurity” (p. 36).

Although there is debate and difference concerning the status of policing as either an occupation, craft or profession (Tong & Bowling, 2006; Tong, Bryant & Hovarth, 2009), there has long been general agreement that policing is not simply another example of a ‘job’ but has a distinctive vocational dimension. However, although the professional status of policing is defined, the issue of qualifications may remain unavoidable.

At this point it may be worth comparing policing with two similar professional activities: teaching and nursing. All three occupations consider themselves professions, and require the learning of complex practices combining knowledge and behaviour. Teachers and police officers undergo training; however, nurses receive an education. Nursing education is followed at undergraduate level: a compulsory two years to obtain a diploma and an optional
third year to obtain a degree whilst teacher training is undertaken entirely at postgraduate level following completion of a degree in a subject speciality while police education is not yet recognized at higher education (Neyroud 2011).

**Comparison between Police, Nursing and Teaching**

**Police training.** ACPO defines the process of initial police training as when an individual directly approaches the Force(s) they are interested in joining for an application form; this form seeks responses to competency-based questions. If this application is successful, the applicant is invited to attend an assessment centre. The police assessment centre conducts the Police Initial Recruitment Test (PIRT) that involves an interview, four interactive exercises, two written exercises and a numerical and verbal reasoning test and is administered during one assessment day in order to standardise the recruitment process across 43 forces in England and Wales. The next stage is a Police Fitness Test, which tests overall fitness, dynamic strength and endurance. Health checks are also included in the process and finally background and security checks are undertaken to verify the applicant’s identity and background before the Force accepted them for training.

All probationary police constables in England and Wales undertake an extensive and professional training programme known as the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP). Individual forces are responsible for the local implementation and delivery of the IPLDP with an emphasis on local community involvement and a flexible timetable. The IPLDP is divided into four training phases. The precise name and length of each phase varies slightly between forces, but the IPLDP curriculum is generally divided as follows:

Phase 1: Induction. General introduction to the organisation with training in first aid, health and safety, officer safety, ICT, race and diversity, human rights and community safety strategy.
Phase 2: Community. Training in crime and disorder reduction and a community placement.

Phase 3: Supervised patrol. Workplace practice supported by class-based learning, dealing with simulated incidents and work-based learning under supervised patrol.


Continuing professional development (CPD) and on-going training are important. Annual performance and development reviews (PDRs) assess and monitor the progress of police officers to ensure that their professional skills are kept up to date and they are abreast of the demands of a constantly changing work environment.

**Nursing.** To work in the National Health Service (NHS), nurses must hold a degree or diploma in nursing (a ‘pre-registration’ programme), which leads to registration with the Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC), enabling them to practice as a nurse. Degrees and diploma programmes comprise of 50% theory and 50% practice, with time split between the higher education institute (HEI) that runs the course and practical placements in a variety of healthcare settings. Diploma courses were phased out between September 2011 and early 2013, with each university adopting a different approach towards the timescale. For example, some universities offered the new degree programme from September 2011, where others continued to offer the diploma and current degree programmes throughout 2011 and 2012. However, all nursing programmes are now degree-only and new entrants to the nursing profession from September 2013 will have to study a degree. On completion, students are awarded both an academic and a professional qualification, through integrated study of theory and supervised nursing practice. Supervised nursing practice is 50% of the programme and takes place in both community and hospital settings. The programmes are normally three years in length, beginning with a 12 month common foundation programme (CFP), followed
by around two years in one of the four branches of nursing: adult, mental health, learning disabilities or children’s nursing. One objective of nursing education is the socialization of students into the professional role of nurse. Professional socialization is described as the process whereby the attitudes, values, knowledge and skills, which characterise a profession, are gradually assimilated by (prospective) practitioners and has been the focus of many research projects (Olesen & Whittaker, 1968; Simpson, 1979; Melia, 1982).

**Teaching.** The Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) in England and Wales is a one-year course of professional training for teaching and is the one that the overwhelming majority of secondary school teachers hold. Of the 36 weeks of the PGCE course, 24 are spent in schools. Anyone wanting to teach in England and Wales must complete initial teacher training (ITT), which can be achieved alongside a degree, straight after a degree, as a part-time or as a full-time course. The Training and Development Agency (TDA) provides standards (DfEE 1998) which trainee teachers have to meet in order to gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). These standards are categorised under five headings: Q – qualified teacher status, C – core standards for main scale teachers who have successfully completed their induction, P – post-threshold teachers on the upper pay scale, E – excellent teachers, and A – advanced skills teachers (ASTs).

The standards are arranged in three inter-related sections: professional attributes, professional knowledge and understanding, and professional skills. The standards show clearly what is expected at each career stage. They are grouped as: a) Knowledge and Understanding, b) Planning, Teaching and Class Management, c) Monitoring, Assessment, Recording, Reporting and Accountability, and d) Other Professional Responsibilities. The standards are detailed and wide-ranging in their breadth and depth with external evaluation the responsibility of the Office for Standards in Education (OfSTED). Inspections are regular and frequent (each subject area is inspected at least every three years).
Tomlinson (as cited in Thompson 1997) suggests that teachers feel they need to convince the public that they are a ‘proper’ profession and often try to demonstrate their professionalism through being seen to “agonise over ways to better understand the needs of their pupils and about ways to better teach their pupils” (p.11); however, as considered by Hiebert, Gallimore, and Stigler (2002), teachers rarely draw from a shared knowledge base to improve their practice and do not routinely locate and translate research-based knowledge to inform their efforts.

Comparing the three professions. Considering the approaches to the preparation of individuals in the three professions (assuming that they have all been categorised as such for the purpose of this study), it is apparent that there are some striking similarities between nursing and teaching. For example, both professions require the applicant to have completed a degree, though this is not currently mandatory for police service. Police adopt a different approach to the application process whereby a one-day extensive assessment is undertaken as a pre-cursor for training and following which there is continuous education, as with the teaching and nursing degrees.

Evident in all three professions is the requirement to be involved in practical placements, work-based learning and assessments. It would appear that, in all instances, importance is placed upon efforts to integrate the applicant to the wider community of the profession in order for them to be equipped to deal with the on-going challenges they will face when practicing in their own right. Nurses are required to register with the NMC and, although teachers and police officers do not currently have a registered body with which to associate, it is possible that membership of a policing body will be a requirement shortly.

Applicants to police training are rigorously tested in fitness, health, background and security checks. Nursing and teaching do not appear to have a similar counterpart though it is
a requirement of trainee teaching staff to undergo criminal records checks in order to teach children.

The researcher does not believe that it would be possible to implement a standardised approach to preparation and education of the three professions, as they are immeasurably different in their nature. However, as these professions require the applicant to foster a degree of authority in terms of the responsibilities and public confidence placed on them, it seems appropriate that, as a minimum, applicants ought to be required to have successfully completed a degree. Nursing, for example, is a specialist profession that necessitates a degree in the specific field of nursing. The discipline gained whilst studying towards a degree can be applied to any profession and therefore any subject study can be undertaken prior to the PGCE in teaching. This can also be true of applicants to the police who, if a degree is completed, will still be required to undertake core training before being successful in their application.

In relation to nurse training, Hill (2002) questions the appropriateness of the HE element for nurses suggesting more ‘on the job’ training, especially as nursing moves to a degree only profession from September 2013. As policing moves closer toward a partnership with HE, the government are clearly seeking to displace teacher training from universities to schools against the advice of teacher educators (Edwards & Protheroe, 2003).

In summary, it is clear that a move toward professionalism in policing continues through the introduction of the College of Policing with its mission, to safeguard the public and support the fight against crime, by ensuring professionalism in policing by enhancing policing standards, identifying evidence of what works in policing, sharing best practice and supporting the education and professional development of staff and officers which will include taking a major role in shaping the work of the higher education sector to improve the broader body of evidence on which policing professionals rely (May, 2012).
Academic Education. Academic education is considered an essential characteristic of professions, and necessary for the complex nature of their work, their position of power and responsibility, and the guarantee that competence and educational qualifications bring professional status, as suggested by Reiner (2010) above, may give police the public recognition necessary. Wood and Tong (2009) suggested:

Whilst engaging with a university programme of study is not in itself sufficient for guaranteeing the qualities expected of a police officer, it is increasingly being recognised that such an engagement is nonetheless a necessary condition of achieving these ends. (pp. 296-297)

Taken alongside this, it is interesting to discuss Apprenticeships as an alternative to university for school leavers. The research of Allen and Ainley (2014) discusses the recession and the role of apprenticeships in reviving the British economy providing a solution to a ‘skills crisis’. They are seen as an alternative to university for school leavers to avoid ‘education without jobs’ where generations of young people increasingly overqualified for work and typically underemployed (Allen & Ainley, 2012). In their latest study, Allen and Ainley (2014) suggest that the latest crop of apprenticeships has been the result of re-grading existing workers as much as recruiting and upskilling young people. It is perhaps difficult to refute this assertion when noting that of the 44 officers, who have completed their initial training under the apprenticeships programme with the pilot Welsh police forces, 43 were former Police Community Support Officers and one was a Special Constable.

Social Context of Police Training and Education

In order to meet the needs of society, suitably designed education programmes are necessary. The literature on policing guides us towards a focus on community policing which, through the use of andragogical strategies, fosters learning that remains with police recruits beyond the classroom and addresses cultural issues (Palmiotto, Birzer & Unnithan,
This teaching strategy builds a more flexible value system that enables the police as an organisation and individuals to change as society changes (Marenin, 2004). Meadows (1985) argues that the purpose of police training is to provide a learning experience which blends theory and practice, enabling police recruits to perform more effectively within society as police officers. Drawing on the work of Jackson and Bradford (2009), the social and cultural significance of public confidence in policing is evident and comes from a number of factors, including initiatives of public reassurance “to impact upon the ...lack of public support” (Sharp, 2005, p.456). Faced with an evident lack of trust and confidence in the police, in particular among minority communities, the view has been that the first priority is to address internal issues, principally that of training (Oakley, 2001). It is therefore crucial for the police to promote a sense of trust in society (Siegrist as cited in Sciulli, 2009), to overcome the ‘Us/Them’ division of police culture, which positions the police as separate from the rest of the society (Reiner, 2010) and to secure legitimacy through improvements in public confidence.

If successful implementation of community policing is to be achieved, then the training given to police officers must reflect this change in the approach to policing (Palmiotto et al., 2000; Birzer & Nolan, 2002; Birzer, 2003). It is however argued that the strategic shift to service-oriented community policing, that has taken place over the last 20 years, has not yet been followed by a similar strategic shift in the provision of police officer training and education (Patterson, 2011).

The work of Garner (2005) into police attitudes, following initial training, indicates that most people believe that attitudes, once formed, are relatively stable over time. However, the same research also reveals that attitudes can be impacted in a number of ways with individuals not always consciously aware of their attitude shifts or the influences that may have triggered a change. Garner’s longitudinal study examined attitudinal change among a
group commencing their service as police officers. The study assessed potential attitude changes over the course of a year on job-related issues of interest to a police officer and the impact of police training - involving unique experiences, new skills, and potentially important new group influences – which can have a controlling impact on attitudes because, as asserted by Turner (1991), attitudes can assimilate to a group’s standards, especially if there is a high degree of identification. Garner (2005) found that participants in the study maintained that their attitudes had not changed; corresponding with earlier research indicating that people can become revisionist self-historians who frequently misremember what their current attitudes used to be (Bem & McConnell, 1970; Goethals & Reckman, 1973; McIntyre, Lord, Lewis, & Frye, 2003; Ross & Shulman, 1973). Garner (2005) also suggests that the influence of direct experience, such as police training, and a desire for acceptance by the normative group, can be a potent force in effecting attitude change, signifying that occasional attitudinal monitoring by individuals and policing organisations could be useful.

From a socialisation perspective Fielding (1988) describes traditional police training schools as sites into which new police officers become integrated into the police organization providing a location for some officers to experience and assimilate some of the more negative aspects of police culture. Foster (2003) contends that the training environment serves to reinforce the negative aspects of police culture, such as discrimination rather than challenge regardless of the academic content or instruction. Within the literature there is a growing body of research (Ericson and Shearing, 1991) that recognizes the importance of police officers ‘story telling’ as a crucial aspect of how police culture develops and is transmitted to others. New recruits reassess their role and identity at the start of becoming an officer, part of that process is the influence of ‘stories’ and the articulation of what they perceive their role to be. If this reassessment process commences at the site of the university experience, then the ‘stories’ will come from lecturers who may have police experience which could in turn
perpetuate the occupational culture of the police in part transferred into the university setting, albeit in a silo, bringing with it negative elements as practitioner lecturers attempt to reproduce the solidarity familiar within the police environment. While previous research has focused on police training schools, it is only more recently that research is emerging on education within higher education institutions. The relationship between police training and higher education institutions is new and in a state of transformation, and as such the culture is also subject to transformation. However, to date there is little evidence to demonstrate that the new forms of police student education have challenged the negative aspects of police culture that was expected of it (Macvean and Cox, 2012).

This study seeks to consider issues of socialisation in the classroom through identification of the student perceptions of that social environment and in turn offer suggestions for improvement of such environment.

**Political Context of Police Training and Education**

During December 2012 a number of interested parties, such as the Department of Law, Policing and Investigation and the Centre for Forensic Investigation at Teesside University, provided written evidence to a Home Affairs Committee in order to address issues relating to leadership and standards in the police service (House of Commons, 2013). The document highlights that Neyroud (2011) made an interesting observation on the education and training of police officers which is “largely delivered in house with relatively little delivered by external providers, from Higher Education (HE), Further Education (FE) or the private sector” (p.78).

The Committee were informed by representatives of Teesside University that a number of higher education qualifications have been successfully delivered in the UK and other countries in partnerships between police forces and providers. For example, Chan and Dixon (2007) detail a successful partnership between the New South Wales Police Academy
and Charles Stuart University in Australia delivering a Diploma of Policing Practice. Successful partnerships to deliver educational programmes have also been achieved in the UK, such as a short programme delivered in a partnership between Cleveland Police and Teesside University (Pepper & McGrath, 2010).

This submission to the Home Affairs Committee was in some ways countered by the Police Federation for England and Wales who argued that any requirement for a candidate to "pre-qualify" could lead to a decrease in the diversity of police officers and that, while the use of further and higher education establishments may be an attractive financial proposition for the Government, there is no firm evidence to indicate this is the best approach for officers or the public (House of Commons, 2013, p.62).

It is accepted that there are critics who have argued that the role of higher education is overly focused upon accreditation rather than education in criminal justice and policing (Farrel & Koch, 1995) and that the motives of institutions relate to income rather than educational standards. This study has approached this dichotomy of opinions and will present in subsequent chapters: the destination of students on completion of their studies; the potential benefits of the programme as conceived between the University of Central Lancashire and Lancashire Police; the assertion by Serrant-Green (2002) that a police service should reflect the communities that it serves in terms of minority ethnic groups and gender; and the data analysis undertaken.

Written evidence submitted by the Department of Law and Criminal Justice Studies at Canterbury Christ Church University to the House of Commons (2013, p.46) outlined their involvement in police education, providing details of reports which have been critical (HMIC, 2002; BBC, 2003) and where the police were criticised for errors or short comings in operational policing, as it occurred in Lawrence (Macpherson, 1999), Tomlinson (IPCC, 2010), and Hillsborough (Taylor, 1990). From their perspective, Canterbury Christ Church
believe that police training and education has been too slow in responding to the challenges identified in earlier reports where there continues to be an over emphasis placed on ‘learning on the job’ at the expense of focused knowledge and skills acquisition (Bowling & Tong, 2006; Tong, Bryant & Horvath, 2009).

There is a growing body of evidence and policy reviews that have called for more educational content in police programmes aimed at preparing police officers for a professional service (HMIC 1999; Foster, 1999; Neyroud, 2011; Flanagan 2008; Wood & Tong, 2009). In 2003, the Home Office sponsored an independent review of the learning requirement for police probationer training in England and Wales, which sought to provide a ‘modern vision of policing’ and a modernised initial policing curriculum. In the same year, a BBC undercover reporter secretly filmed student police officer training at the Centrex Bruche training centre and uncovered examples of racist behaviour by trainees and inappropriate behaviour by trainers (BBC, 2003).

Wood and Tong (2009) consider a similar setting to the one of this study. The text, while it is intended to be read as a position paper, aims primarily to stimulate debate outlining a joint collaboration between a university department and a UK police service, and which engages with the political debate emerging around police education within a higher education setting. Wood and Tong’s paper raises an important consideration and distinction between education and training, where “training falls below what universities should be engaged in and that the learning involved in police training is far too practical to count as academic” (p.299). While police education becomes increasingly incorporated within academic frameworks across the European Union (EU), enhanced through the Bologna Declaration, which aimed to create a more compatible and comparable common European Higher Education Area, differences remain between nation states. There is however a general trend
toward the “recognition that police officers need to demonstrate qualities normally associated with a university education” (p.298).

The focus of Wood and Tong (2009) is deliberately presented from a one-sided perspective, in that they consider themselves most qualified to express the views from within a university department involved in the development of a number of academic programmes linked to professional police education in the UK and the Netherlands. In an earlier work published in 2006, Tong outlines how police work has traditionally been thought of as an intuitively learned 'craft', but one where efforts have been directed for some time at developing police 'professionalism' based on a more scientific approach to policing practice. Kleinig (1999) suggests that among the defining characteristics of policing is the possession of specialist knowledge and expertise enhanced through higher education and training.

It has been widely acknowledged that policing is becoming more complex and the police role requires a range of specialist skills and approaches that are based on good research, knowledge and understanding (Foster, 1999; Stelfox, 2009; Tong, Bryant & Horvath, 2009). Kratcoski (as cited in Cowburn, Duggan, Robinson & Senior, 2013) defines education as “developing the ability to conceptualize and expand the theoretical and analytical learning process” whereas training involves “gaining the skills needed to accomplish the immediate tasks and goals of police operations” (pp. 103-104). This definition appears illustrative of the different perspectives that exist on the subject of police preparation.

HM Inspectorate of Constabulary (1999) informed that timely, relevant and effective training was a fundamental mechanism to deal with the operational complexities of the modern world, which required organisations to be creative and engaged in continual assessment where they can no longer rely on antiquated structural or philosophical approaches. Such a shift in focus places an onus on training as a strategic mechanism to bring about organisational performance, effective service delivery and risk mitigation (Clarke
& Armstrong, 2013) where training is not considered in isolation to organisational change but placed in the context of civil litigation. Scott (as cited in Haberfield, Curtis & Sheehan, 2011) argues that any organisation concerned with quality, productivity, liability, and morale must consider training as a critical and significant function to reduce the risk of civil litigation and one where Scott argues “too many wait to be sued or to be threatened with other court action before instituting preventative measures” (p.12). What has been said about police training may also be applicable to police education since the latter is focused on the development of analytical and critical abilities.

**Research in Police Training and Education**

Research in police training has been focused on issues such as the resignation rate during British police training (Fielding & Fielding as cited in Chan & Doran, 2009), the impact of basic training and occupational socialization on police recruits (Haarr as cited in Stanislas, 2013), the calls for improvements in recruitment and training (Roberg & Bonn, 2004; Holland, 2007; Wimshurst & Ransley, 2007) and the questioning of police training for neighbourhood policing in England and Wales (Peace, 2006). These studies were focused primarily within a police training school context.

The work of Vodde (2009) highlights a two year study into police education undertaken within two police training ‘academies’ within the United States which examined the learning processes associated with a traditional, pedagogic police model and that of a collegiate, andragogical (adult based) model which found the latter method to be the most effective. Vodde drew upon the work of Schunk (2004) who indicated that the process of preparing police recruits necessitates the development and acquisition of a wide skill set that involves the modification of knowledge, understanding, skills, strategies, beliefs, behaviours and attitudes. It is suggested by Vodde that the basics of police education can be viewed as two major dimensions: (1) the curriculum (what is being taught, or learned), and (2) the
instructional methodology (how is it being taught and learned). Vodde (2009) indicates that the means and style which police use to conduct training has a significant impact on its efficacy and success in achieving the desired goals. Vodde concludes the discussion by outlining that as society experiences unprecedented social, cultural, legal, political, economic and technological change, expectations of its police have also changed and that, while police education is not the panacea for addressing the changes, it plays a significant role in a police officer’s career “as such, any means available for improving or advancing its success, is worthy of consideration” (p.20)

On reflection, whilst the previously mentioned article by Wood and Tong (2009) provides little information around methodologies and data collection, it is useful in considering the tensions that arise from the status of the student. The discussion is focused on the tensions which arise from the contradictory status of a student officer programme where the student is a serving police officer, as opposed to where the student is engaged on a pre-join university educational programme to equip students with the necessary knowledge, practical, vocational and key skills to pursue a career in the policing sector combined with membership of the Special Constabulary (such as at UCLan).

This is in contrast to the qualitative study completed by Olivia and Compton (2010) who pose the question “what do police officers value in the classroom?” where the focus is on the actual education and training designed to ensure a police officer can effectively complete their duties. In addressing their research question, Olivia and Crompton uncovered one overarching theme that emerged from the data: the students' desire for adult learning techniques. This resulting premise was supported by four basic social-environmental classroom preferences expressed by the participants: the classroom must be intellectually stimulating, learning should focus on real-world job demands, the course should allow for social interaction, and the course should be delivered efficiently. Within this study it was
found that students rated teacher support (the extent of help, encouragement, concern and friendship the teacher directs towards students) together with organisation and clarity as the highest.

One of the key issues arising from the literature is that highlighted by Heslop (2006) who suggests that an important area of police education methodology remains largely unexplored: that which examines the underpinning theories of adult learning used in police education. Heslop explains that humanism remains an influential tradition within police education; a theory of learning which has been criticised for its underlying individualism (Pearson & Podeschi, 1999; Usher & Edwards, 2002) and lack of attention to diversity (Tisdell, 1995).

Police education had traditionally been provided through Centrex (formally National Police Training), the body responsible for a range of national police preparation provisions including the Police Trainer Development Programme (TDP). Within this programme of education, Heslop (2006) outlines the theories of adult learning were promoted to inform the pedagogic approach of police education in Britain and that despite the importance of the TDP for police education, this programme has received little academic attention. A literature search conducted by Heslop, and more recently by this researcher, revealed no published work focused on the issue and only two relevant masters' theses (Bateman, 1989; Turnbull, 2002).

Such lack of research emerged when reviewing literature for this thesis and was one of the compelling reasons to choose police education as its focus. The origins of TDP could be traced to a research project conducted by the University of East Anglia in 1986 (Independent Review of the Learning Requirement for Police Probationer Training in England and Wales) and the subsequent report which recommended that police preparation should emphasise the more 'humanistic elements'. The present study addresses those
elements by means of considering the role of human interactions and classroom environment in police education.

The approaches towards police education in the UK provide an indication of the social environment and changes in the last ten years. The traditional approach to police preparation in the UK has seen a gradual move away from a militaristic style with a focus on drill, with drill only recently removed from the initial training curriculum (HMIC, 2002), towards a more reflective, public relations focused approach (Wood & Tong, 2009). Whilst the traditional approach in policing preparation may be effective when teaching technical and procedural skills, it seems to do little for promoting the acquisition of non-technical competencies such as problem solving, judgement and leadership. Police education is seen as an important tool in the process of facilitating change within police organisations (Birzer, 2003). Other studies focused on police education have examined the way in which professionalisation of the police, as realised via academia, is being shuffled in as the next great hope for achieving through the prism of detective and investigative skills training (Hallenberg, 2012); as approaches taken comparatively in the organisation of training (Dogutas, Dolu & Gul, 2007) and in the examination of diversity (Oakley, 2001) to name but three.

Kleinig (1999) is useful in this regard when he suggests that amongst the defining characteristics of policing is the possession of special knowledge and expertise enhanced through higher education and also training.

The skills required by a police officer seem to be more connected to a teaching approach in which students are conceived as the adults they are and the role of the social environment or climate is taking into account (Usher & Edwards, 2002; Pearson & Podeschi, 1999; Olivia & Compton, 2010). Therefore, teaching styles (Birzer, 2003; McCoy, 2006) and
the teacher-student relationship (Olivia & Compton, 2010) are essential elements of this research study.

The need of a police officer to be conceived as an adult learner relates to the teaching theory known as andragogy proposed in 1968 by Malcolm Knowles as “a new label and a new technology” of adult learning to distinguish it from pre-adult schooling (as cited in Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner, 2006, p.84). The European concept of andragogy, which he defined as “the art and science of helping adults learn,” was contrasted with pedagogy, “the art and science of teaching children” (Knowles, 1980, p. 43). Andragogy became a rallying point for those trying to define the field of adult education as separate from other areas of education. The five assumptions underlying andragogy describe the adult learner as someone who (1) has an independent self-concept and who can direct his or her own learning, (2) has accumulated a reservoir of life experiences that is a rich resource for learning, (3) has learning needs closely related to changing social roles, (4) is problem-centred and interested in immediate application of knowledge, and (5) is motivated to learn by internal rather than external factors. From these assumptions, Knowles proposed a program-planning model for designing, implementing, and evaluating educational experiences with adults.

As a proponent of self-directed learning with the teacher’s role as facilitator in the process of adult education, Knowles asserted, “the behaviour of the instructor is without doubt the single most potent force in establishing a social climate” (Olivia & Compton, 2010, p.331). Knowles, and subsequent consideration of andragogy by Birzer (2003), McCoy (2006) and Olivia and Crompton (2010), make an important contribution towards understanding the impact of teaching styles and the role, which police trainers play.

Within the text of Birzer’s article, this researcher found a useful examination of andragogy and how its characteristics and principles can be incorporated into police
education. Although presented in a case study format, the structure of Birzer’s 2003 report was beneficial in gaining an understanding of writing styles for this research report. This is in contrast to McCoy’s 2006 text that provides a qualitative mixed methods study utilising a self-administered Principles of Adult Learning Scales (PALS) questionnaire which was followed up with in-depth interviews asking four research questions relating to learning styles as well as methods and techniques used in the classroom. McCoy suggests that adult learning theory has much to offer to improve learning and the facilitation of learning in law enforcement education. Specifically McCoy suggested that implementing a learner-centred approach to police education is better suited to developing the necessary skills in police officers. Adult education literature suggests that a teacher's actions affect student achievement (Conti, 1985). Although the questionnaire the researcher used was based on the work of Darkenwald and Valentine (1986), the relationship between the teacher's practices of the principles measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (McCoy, 2006) which tends to focus on the impact of the teacher-student relationship on the learning environment was not specifically examined. Chapter 4 will explore the various learning theories and how these could relate to police education, in particular the models and strategies of such theories together with their strengths and weaknesses.

Olivia and Compton (2010) used a conceptual framework based on the work of Moos (1979; 1980), later refined by Darkenwald and Valentine (1986). This framework, the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES), is a quantitative tool, which provided clues to the ways in which the social environment can be modified to best meet the needs of the group. The study recognised that ACES may not capture all the dynamics of the classroom and may also fail to uncover aspects of the hidden curriculum of police education (White, 2006). Olivia and Compton (2010) suggest that an inductive approach to the study may prove most beneficial. With this as a consideration, the researcher collected data in the form of a
quantitative questionnaire to measure aspects of the social environment within the adult classroom.

The work of Chao (2009) gives an indication for understanding the adult learner together with their motivations and barriers to learning. Motivation and barriers, Chao suggests, are created, formed and changed in two spaces; in the learner and in the social environment, consequently this requires an understanding of learning and of the two spaces. Chao argues that understanding these barriers permits the teachers of adult learners to gain an understanding of the learner; thereby finding ways to motivate them and break down any perceived barriers to learning. Chao’s work examines the concept of the adult learner as a social being who has to contend with the social and societal environment, which he/she belongs to. Illeris (2007) also introduces this concept of three dimensions of learning and argues that, to understand the learning process, the teacher is required to understand the internal knowledge acquisition process together with the external interactions taking place between the learner and their environment.

One final consideration came from the work of Engeström (2001) who relates activity theory to that of situated learning and communities of practice. Engeström argues (as cited in Drake & Heath, 2011) that for learning to take place in a particular setting the relationship of that setting must be acknowledged and how it frames the learning of the individual. In other words, that for students to learn they must make a connection not only between where they study, but also why they are there and what they think they are learning.

Addressing the gap in knowledge

This chapter has presented the historical context of police training and education, beginning with an overview of the significant changes within the preparation of UK police officers since the 1960s, situating this against a backdrop of responses to political, cultural and social requirements. An outline has been provided relative to the changes imposed by the
various police reform agenda as well as the move towards a competency-based framework in an integrated system containing the Police National Competency Framework, including the transformation of the police service towards a more professional and qualified workforce.

Through the absence of a coherent national structure, perceived as a barrier to the development and implementation of effective police learning and development strategy, further changes, or models, were introduced to address the national framework, which is inextricably based upon National Occupational Standards. The growth of professionalism within policing has also been charted within the context of the requirement for educational qualifications with features pertaining to the Foundation Degree.

This chapter also presented the social and political context in which police education takes place, and the need for a police officer to be treated as an adult learner in the context of the various teaching philosophies. It enabled potential questions to be identified around the subject and in turn provided a route map for research into the subject of police education.

A review of the research literature indicates that there are implications and considerations to be made in relation to the manner in which police officers, or potential police officers, are prepared for employment. One of them is related to the way police officers, as adults, learn and the role that human interactions and social dimensions of the classroom environment on a pre-employment police education programme has in their education. Prior research on police education in Britain does not discuss that issue deeply.

Whilst somewhat dated in the research, Cahalane (1929) found that society expect police officers to be ready to handle calls for service on their first tour of duty and lack of preparation is no excuse. Considering the need for well-prepared police officers British society requires (Oakley, 2001), it seems important to research the relationship between the social environment and police education, especially if this may move from the traditional police training centre into the academic sphere. This is the gap this thesis intended to fill.
Chapter 3

The Foundation Degree

As indicated in chapter 2, this chapter seeks to map the growth of the Foundation Degree, its part in the Government’s drive to ‘up-skill’ the nation by providing opportunities and reducing exclusion, and its appropriateness as an approach to police education. The main reason for this is that it provides an option to police training in a modern and more professional way based on a higher education framework, which combines work-based learning and the three strands of employer involvement suggested by the Foundation Degrees Task Force (DfES, 2004). This chapter will therefore form a pathway between the current status of police training and the potential education of prospective police officers in the pre-employment sector found within a university setting.

Foundation Degrees

Foundation Degrees are aimed at meeting a perceived shortfall in the numbers of people with intermediate higher technical and associate professional skills, and also increasing and widening participation by providing a new and accessible route into higher education (HEFCE). Identified by the Government as their main drive towards widening participation and increasing participation in higher education, the Foundation Degree has also been part of the promotion of the concept of ‘lifelong learning’ (QAA, 2004).

Foundation Degrees were introduced as a new higher education qualification to England and Wales during the academic year 2001-02. Situated at level five of the Framework for Higher Education Qualifications for England, Wales and Northern Ireland (QAA, 2008), they feature the integration of academic study and work-based learning as a central part of course design and delivery (QAA, 2004; DfES, 2004). The Foundation Degree qualification benchmark (QAA, 2004) explains the purpose of Foundation Degrees as:
Authentic and innovative work-based learning is an integral part of Foundation Degrees and their design. It enables learners to take on appropriate role(s) within the workplace, giving them the opportunity to learn and apply the skills and knowledge they have acquired as an integrated element of the programme. It involves the development of higher-level learning within both the institution and the workplace. It should be a two-way process, where the learning in one environment is applied in the other. (Para. 23)

The work-based Foundation Degree is a sub-degree focused on widening participation into higher education, particularly for non-traditional entrants, which can be traced to a proposal in the Report of the National Committee of Inquiry in Higher Education (Dearing, 1997) that paved the way for increased diversity in the undergraduate curriculum. Although the report recognised the value of the single honours degree and the part it has in developing specialism, it also suggested the need for a greater variety of programmes and key skills development at the higher education level. Recommendation 18 of the report encouraged “institutions to identify opportunities to increase the extent to which programmes help students to become familiar with work, and help them reflect on such experience” (Dearing, 1997, p.44), as well as an intermediate qualification which addresses the skills gap at higher technician and associate professional level (Foskett, 2003). This is also in line with the Government’s aim to ensure Britain’s ability to compete in the global market (OFT, 2009).

The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) further outlines the purpose of Foundation Degrees:

Foundation degrees were intended to provide the knowledge and skills that are necessary to enable employees to be versatile and adaptable in progressing to and within work. Employability is a key aspect in Foundation Degree programmes and
its inclusion should equip and assist learners to enhance their employment opportunities, and/or allow them to prepare for a career change. (2004, p.6)

The Foundation Degree therefore plays a part in the Government’s drive to ‘up-skill’ the nation by providing opportunities and reducing exclusion and, at the same time, forming part of the reforming of the qualifications framework (Pring, 2004). The Foundation Degree is aimed at meeting the perceived skills gap at advanced technician level and also to rationalise the range of qualifications below honours degree level; primarily viewed as a response both to higher education expansion and to changing attitudes towards vocational learning, as exemplified through the growing developments of work-based learning within higher education as part of ‘the new vocationalism’ (Symes & McIntyre, 2002).

The rationale for the Foundation Degree can be traced to a variety of initiatives linked to the expansion of higher education, beginning with the Robbins Report (Committee on Higher Education, 1963) which made a commitment to make a higher education place available to all those who were suitably qualified. This initiated a major expansion of higher education by recommending the establishment of polytechnics, based upon the premise that a key goal of higher education should be to develop employment-related skills.

Yet, five years later, the Committee on Manpower Resources for Science and Technology (1968) reported a continuing difficulty with attracting well-qualified and skilled graduates into science, technology and engineering in the UK. The Robbins Report had kick-started a rise in the percentage of under-21 students engaged in higher education, which increased from around 5% to nearly 15% by 1970 (Bathmaker, 2003), but expansion then levelled off until the late 1980s. In 1988 another rapid rise in student numbers was recorded, largely within polytechnics and colleges of higher education, following the Education Reform Act 1988, which created a new funding body for polytechnics and higher education colleges away from local authority control. This rise was further fuelled in 1992 when the two-sector
or binary system was abolished by the Further and Higher Education Act 1992, allowing polytechnics to declare themselves universities.

In 1997, the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education chaired by Sir Ron Dearing highlighted the importance of developing higher education level qualifications as part of a strategy for increasing participation in higher education, in effect giving the government a green light to pursue its growing commitment to widening access and participation and to explore higher education expansion. Dearing expected that much of this expansion would be at ‘sub-degree level’ – an early indication of the role that Foundation Degrees came to have in the expansion of higher education (Dearing, 1997).

Foundation Degrees were first announced in February 2000 by the then Secretary of State for Education, David Blunkett, in his speech ‘Modernising Higher Education – facing the global challenge’ (DfES, 2000). The Foundation Degree consultation document identified the qualifications framework offered by the Community College model in the USA as a format upon which Foundation Degrees were to be based (Taylor, 2012). This model provides two-year courses focussed on specialist technical and professional skills, closely aligned to employer needs and with core skills seen as central for success. A major theme in the USA was to increase participation in post-secondary education, in order to create a more inclusive society. The same targets are now associated with Foundation Degrees in England and Wales as higher education expands to include those previously disenfranchised by it. In particular, the Foundation Degree qualification benchmark states explicitly that Foundation Degrees are designed “to address shortages in particular skills …and to contribute to widening participation and lifelong learning” (QAA, 2004, p.1).

The first Foundation Degree courses started pilot schemes in September 2001 and a target of 100,000 students was set for 2010 (Foundation Degree Task Force, 2004). The Chairman of the Foundation Degree Task Force, Professor Leslie Wagner, signified the
perceived potential that Foundation Degrees have for moving vocational education on in the 21st century, yet also acknowledged the difficulties faced in fully integrating Foundation Degrees within the qualifications framework and in supporting effective and appropriate partnerships for work based learning:

Foundation Degrees represent both an opportunity and a challenge. The opportunity is to create a new type of provision meeting the need for a high quality, intermediate, vocational higher education qualification. The challenge is to produce it through partnership, developing effective work based learning and integration with the existing qualification system. (Foundation Degree Task Force, 2004, p.3)

The Task Force identified, then, an opportunity for Foundation Degrees to represent a ‘new type of provision’ – a distinctive higher level, work-based, vocational qualification. In this respect, QAA (2004) made it clear that the distinctiveness of the Foundation Degree is dependent upon not only its work based nature, but also upon the integration of certain characteristics, which are: employer involvement, accessibility, articulation and progression, flexibility, and partnership. Many of these characteristics are recognisable in other programmes, for example in the Higher National Diploma (HND) and vocational degree courses, but it is “their clear and planned integration within a single award, underpinned by work-based learning that makes the award very distinctive” (QAA, 2004, p.5).

The ‘Future of Higher Education’ report (DfES, 2003) clarified a Labour government target of 50% participation within higher education by 2010 for the 18-30 year old age group, although statistics indicated that the proportion of young adults entering higher education had stalled (DIUS, 2009). In 1999/2000, the figure stood at 39% and peaked to 42.5% in 2005/06. However, the figure for 2006/07 was recorded as 40% and 2007/08 stood at 43% (DIUS, 2009); indicating that the 50% target for 2010 may not be attained. Nevertheless, in line with the government’s target, the Higher Education Funding Council for England’s (HEFCE)
strategic plan for 2006-11 was explicit in its mission to see growth in higher education participation:

    We remain committed to funded growth in student numbers. We see this as essential if we are to meet the challenge of widening access, and increasing participation and student progression, which all remain crucial to our mission. We continue to see the drive towards widening participation as fundamental in promoting social inclusion and improving the country’s economic competitiveness (HEFCE, 2007, p.3).

The provisional participation rate for 2011/2012, though estimated to remain at 46%, had increased to 49%, as it had for the three consecutive years prior to this time. That was partly explained by students choosing not to defer their entry into HE until 2012/13, the year prior to the maximum tuition fee being increased to £9,000 (BIS, 2013). Within the context of higher education expansion, both in order to meet widening participation targets and to provide appropriately skilled employees for the nation’s workforce, the government identified Foundation Degree provision as having a key part to play:

    We want to see expansion in two-year, work-focused Foundation Degrees; and in mature students in the workforce developing their skills. As we do this, we will maintain the quality standards required for access to university, both safeguarding the standards of traditional honours degrees and promoting a step-change in the quality and reputation of work focused courses. (DfES, 2003a, 5.10)

    The Foundation Degree Task Force, charged with advising the government on future implementation strategy for Foundation Degrees, was asked to consider how best to secure employer involvement, with the resulting report describing employer involvement as “at the heart of what makes the Foundation Degree distinctive” (Foundation Degree Task Force, 2004, p.28). The Task Force suggested three strands of employer involvement, which form a
useful framework around which to consider progress in this area: involvement in development and design, delivery and assessment, supporting students, and employing Foundation Degree graduates, with a view to giving credibility to the Foundation Degree qualification.

In relation to development and design, the Leitch Report (Leitch, 2006) tasked with considering the UK’s long-term skills needs and explicitly championed the further development of work-based courses that not only responded to employer demand, but which attracted financial investment from the employer as key stakeholder. Such investment was expected to cover all levels of work-based education and training from apprenticeships for school leavers to the development of more intermediate-level degree courses (such as Foundation Degrees) for adults to support the development of higher-level skills. Foundation Degree programmes were suggested to provide the potential for a “rich but, as yet, poorly researched environment for the study of curriculum innovation” (Foskett, 2003, p.1).

Evidence from an evaluation of Foundation Degrees by York Consulting (2004) reported that institutions felt that at both operational and strategic levels, Foundation Degrees were, in fact, contributing to the widening participation agenda. The DfES report ‘Widening Participation in Higher Education’ (2003b) states, “the evidence suggests that the principal barriers to access are attainment, aspiration and application” (p.5). The QAA reported in 2005 that students on Foundation Degrees “differ from the overall profile of honours degree students in England”, (QAA, 2005, p 4) and this supports the evidence that Foundation Degrees are attracting a new cohort of learners, thus providing an opportunity for non-traditional learners that did not previously exist. The traditional route to higher education is a progression from school, with suitable academic qualifications. In the past, adults have been dissuaded from joining universities by cultural norms where “UK universities can appear remote and other-worldly” (Marks, 2002, p.114) and as a place solely for well-qualified
teenagers (Bell & Tight, 1993). Although the Foundation Degree is reaching out to non-traditional learners, it is, however, unsurprising that these mature adult learners showed a tendency to be insecure and anxious at the start of their experiences of higher education.

The Higher Education Policy Institute conducts annual research on demand for higher education, which is updated each year in the light of the most recent information. The current review is up to the year 2030. The purpose of the report is to discuss the influences and uncertainties surrounding the demand for future higher education and to illustrate the impact of some of these on future number. The Government proposed an “increasing number of mature students who participate in education throughout their working lives” (HEPI, 2011, p.12). These targets of the most recent government initiatives in higher education aim to encourage employers to be much more active in seeking to upskill their employees, and to encourage universities to respond to the anticipated demand from employers. When Foundation Degrees were first implemented, the idea was to bridge the academic vocational divide; however, the debate regarding vocational studies and academic studies was superseded by a debate on academic studies and the learning of skills deemed by the Government to be necessary in the 21st century (Leitch, 2006).

Contemporary literature on the subject of Foundation Degrees has a diversity of approaches to the subject and many differing perspectives. These are: the knowledge economy (Webb, Brine & Jackson, 2006), delivering the Foundation Degree (Thurgate, MacGregor & Brett, 2007), meeting employer needs (Little, 2005), risk (Rowley, 2005), work-based learning (Edmond, Hillier & Price, 2007; Morgan, Jones & Fitzgibbon, 2004), reconfiguring higher education (Wilson, Blewitt & Moody, 2005) and finally, progression to Honours Degree (Greenbank, 2007). These critical discourses tend to focus on political, sociological and employment issues rather than educational issues, which although important
and having implications for the future successes of Foundation Degrees, do not directly relate to the student experience which is the focus of this research.

One of the pre-requisites of the Foundation Degree is the importance of employer support. “It is beneficial if employers are involved, where possible, in the delivery and assessment of the programme and the monitoring of students, particularly within the workplace” (QAA, 2004, p.5). Therefore, an outstanding issue is whether Foundation Degrees are benefiting employers. Feinstein and Hammond (2004) claim there is a lack of research into the benefits of adult education apart from the economic returns e.g. enhanced earnings or productivity. Thelwell (2008) argues there needs to be a greater understanding of the value, importance and success of the Foundation Degree from the student’s perspective which is related to the focus of this study. Research carried out by Beaty, Gibbs and Morgan (1997) with Open University students and students from Surrey University states, “for many students, however, their own reasons for joining the university are affected by outside pressures from, for example, family, school or employment” (p.72) instead of a wish to continue their study of a particular subject, or progression towards a chosen career. Although the role of the employer in the Foundation Degree is an important element of the implementation of the Foundation Degree in Policing, which is the framework where this study is focused, the perspective of the students is also a key element of the whole equation.

The DfES White Paper, ‘The Future of Higher Education’ (2003a), noted the development of Foundation Degrees as a major area for future growth in student numbers. According to the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), the Foundation Degree is designed to equip students with the combination of technical skills, academic knowledge, and transferable skills increasingly being demanded by employers.

Evaluation of the Foundation Degree (York Consulting, 2004) has suggested they are particularly attractive to people lacking more formal qualifications, such as A-levels. Gorard
et al (2006), in research for the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), highlights that research is required to show whether Foundation Degrees are indeed “attracting new learners who would have accessed other provision if the Foundation Degree programme had not been available” (p.49).

The combination of new learners and Foundation Degrees in relation to the education of new police officers becomes therefore an important factor to be studied.

**Foundation Degrees and Police Training**

HM Inspectorate of Constabulary report, Training Matters (2002), led the way in ending the traditional approach to police preparation that had taken place at a regional level for many decades. It is also considered to be the report that first proposed the professionalization of the police service through the development of a recognised qualification to be achieved by all probationary constables. “If the service is to be viewed as a profession, the initial training and development provided must be comparable with other professions and, in particular, those within the criminal justice sector” (p.43).

The report mentioned the Probation Service programme, which enabled the students to achieve both a degree and a level 4 National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) within 2 years. This in reality is about as far as the report went on tackling the issue of professionalization. Whilst the report brought about the first national qualification (the level 3 and 4 NVQ in Policing launched in April 2007), many forces who had been ‘Early Adopters’ of the new preparation -the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP)- or who had withdrawn from regional training and begun to run in force training based on IPLDP, did not have this qualification and went down other routes, such as the Foundation Degree in partnership with higher education institutions like the University of Portsmouth and Canterbury Christ Church University (Seggie, 2010).
IPLDP was designed to implement ‘modernised’ recruit preparation and address longstanding concerns around professionalising the police service. Perhaps one of the most ‘radical’ features of IPLDP (Peace, 2006) was that recruits in several police forces undertake part of their preparation at local universities where they study for qualifications such as foundation degrees and, as suggested by Heslop (2006), follows the well-trodden path of trying to make changes to policing through training and education. Whilst there is a growing body of literature on foundation degrees in general (Thelwell, 2008; Morgan Jones & Fitzgibbon 2004; Smith & Betts 2003) and a limited number of studies of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP) (Peace 2006; Wood & Tong 2009), there is an absence of published investigations into the police foundation degree. A problem for the adoption of a national minimum qualification, as it is referred to, was that it was launched after forces in England and Wales had adopted IPLDP and not backed by a professional body that could enforce it. This is in contrast to the national qualifications required for Nursing and Midwifery, where practitioners are mandated to achieve the qualification and cannot be registered without it or be employed (Nursing and Midwifery Council). The requirement to register allows an individual to transfer and apply for posts wherever they may occur. This again is a problem for the police service, which only allows a person to apply for one force at a time and then if unsuccessful, not be able to apply to another police force for 6 months. This is part of the national SEARCH system for recruitment to the service (College of Policing, 2013). An applicant at this current time cannot achieve a nationally recognised qualification prior to joining the service and then apply to police forces as they wish.

The current learning requirement for probationary police officers was borne from an independent review carried out by Elliott et al. in 2003. McVean and Cox (2012) observe that the primary purpose of the review was to modernise police training, following the recommendations contained in HMIC’s publication ‘Training Matters’ (2002), which
concluded that the then current model of training police recruits at regional centres was no longer fit for purpose and pointed to a lack of community involvement as a significant failing. This view was reinforced by the BBC documentary ‘The Secret Policeman’ (2003) which exposed negative aspects of police culture within a regional police training centre.

The requirements set out in the review formed the basis of the national Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP), which was introduced in 2005. Police forces ultimately bear responsibility for ensuring that probationary officers meet the requirements of the IPLDP prior to their appointment being confirmed, but there is considerable flexibility as to the mode of delivery. The combination of defined learning requirements and freedom to access learning in different ways opened the way for HE, FE and private sector providers to offer a variety of pre-entry learning programmes to deliver elements of the IPLDP.

As highlighted in chapter 2, during 2002 an inspection into police training by HMIC called for a change in the delivery methods of initial police preparation, suggesting that it should no longer be delivered in a locality remote from where the officers would eventually be based. This was followed by the Government’s police reform and modernisation agenda as a result of which the Home Office required each Police force to develop a local Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP). To support local implementation of this initiative, a number of universities including Portsmouth, Canterbury Christ Church and Teesside formed a partnership with local Constabularies for the development of full and part-time policing degrees. In 2002, the Home Office made funding available for 500 places on the “national” Centrex-approved Foundation Degree. However, the Foundation degree had very high dropout rates and low completion rates and was subsequently withdrawn. A recurring problem encountered has been the lack of a consistent message within the police and government, which sent mixed messages to officers regarding the value of such
programmes to their career progression within the police (House of Commons, 2013 - 2014, p.47).

A number of HE providers currently deliver police related Foundation Degree programmes, including, for example De Montfort University, University of Wales and Canterbury Christ Church University, to name but a few, however for the purpose of this study, the focus is on The Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire.

In 2006, the School of Forensic and Investigative Sciences at the University of Central Lancashire (UCLan) approached Lancashire Constabulary with a view to implementing an educational programme that would allow students to develop knowledge and skills to assist them in joining the police service as Police Officers. As a number of Police Forces were already running their IPLDP through universities achieving a Foundation Degree, it was agreed that Lancashire would utilise their IPLDP and map it into a Foundation Degree; integral to this approach was that students would sign up to the Special Constabulary. This would allow students to study at a higher level as part of progression from Further Education and be able to transfer their academic learning into vocational learning through operational policing. This was a radical departure from how new recruit preparation took place in Lancashire. It was vital that there was support from senior management within the Constabulary. A joint programme board was set up, meeting on a monthly basis and chaired by initially A/DCC Adrian McAllister and subsequently ACC Wendy Walker (Head of the People Portfolio). The potential benefits of the programme were identified as:

- UCLan able to offer wider qualifications and access to university
- UCLan supporting the government’s drive to promote Foundation Degrees
- Increase in number of recruits to the Special Constabulary
• Increase in the number of recruits from the Black Minority Ethnic (BME) community
• Reduction in training costs to the Constabulary
• Reduction in training time saving resources and wages
• Opportunity for students and police to assess suitability for role within police service
• Increase in visibility of uniformed operational officers on the streets of Lancashire
• Opportunity to develop and provide accreditation of qualifications for internal initial training
• Improvement in training of the Special Constabulary
• Provision of community based training for students

(Holleran, Kellett & Helm, 2010, p.3).

The Foundation Degree was designed, developed and delivered using a blend of experienced police trainers and university lecturers. Key members of staff included the New Entrant Team Manager (IPLDP), who had not only experience of running new recruit preparation but also had an academic background in training and education, and the Special Constabulary Trainer. The lecturers from the University were all retired senior police officers. This sought to provide for the course needs, which were to meet the national standards for IPLDP and Lancashire Constabulary recruits’ education as well as university educational requirements and to provide students with a management and strategic perspective of policing. This was not included in the IPLDP national curriculum and could therefore provide students with an insight into management at an early stage in their career.

The Foundation Degree in Policing delivered at UCLan, supported by the Lancashire Constabulary through Special Constabulary Training and formal tutoring, was one of the first
of such schemes to deliver students to the police service following a two-year course of study. It had been previously evaluated internally by Martin Holleran, a member of staff from the Constabulary with responsibility for educational partnerships, Bob Helm, the course leader, and externally by Joseph Kellett, a former Detective Inspector (now a Training and Investigative Consultant) with responsibility for Investigative Training (Holleran, Kellett & Helm 2010).

In September 2007, UCLan in partnership with Lancashire Constabulary commenced the first intake of the two-year Foundation Degree in Policing. Of the 41 students who began the course, 36 attained the qualification in 2009. Six of the students on the course were from BME (black and minority ethnic) communities. Ten students were appointed Constables in the Lancashire Constabulary and a further eight were offered posts as Police Community Support Officers (PCSOs). None of the students from a BME background were successful. This was owing to a number of reasons, including failure to achieve the standards required to join the Special Constabulary, fitness, vetting, medical and previous sickness record. Seven students elected to continue their studies towards achieving a Bachelor of Science qualification. Prior to 2007, the School of Forensic and Investigative Sciences at UCLan had ran the Policing and Criminal Investigation Programme (PCI); however, students had experienced difficulties progressing from the course into the Police Service where there had been no direct link between the PCI Degree and entry to the Constabulary. Students on the PCI had joined the Constabulary as members of the Special Constabulary, but the education they received and the vocational experience were not blended. The partnership arrangement introduced a process curriculum (Neary, 2002; Stenhouse, 1975) which involved students spending time being assessed and developed within the workplace to gain policing experience. It incorporated the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP 2005), which meant students who progress to become police officers required only the
minimum of additional training. Many students also became Special Constables, which provided them with evidence in key skill areas to support their police applications. The selection process for entry to the Police is independent of the UCLan curriculum.

The Foundation Degree in Policing was implemented at UCLan in 2007 and titled as an Fd(Sc) Policing. To achieve a Foundation Degree as a full-time student, there is a requirement to pass 12 modules over the two years of the course – six modules per year. Most of the modules taken are single 20 credit modules. The ‘Operational Policing’ and ‘Police Performance’ modules in the second year are ‘double’ modules counting for 40 credits.

The UCLan Foundation Degree pre-dated Neyroud’s Review of Police Leadership and Training (2011) which makes the case for a more clearly defined professional qualification framework for policing and observes that “the relationship between police education and practice and higher education has not reached the level of embedded partnership that it has done in medicine or education” (p.81).

Since the launch of the UCLan Foundation Degree, there have been a number of developments in the area of initial police learning which have a bearing on the issue of pre-qualification, leading Neyroud (2011) to observe that “…the impact of individual forces liaising with their local providers has been some confusion over required standards, funding regimes and copyright …” (p.87).

This may have been a key driver; leading to the National Policing Improvement Agency (2012) publishing a revised pre-join strategy and guidance document ‘Professional Entry to Policing’. This document clarifies the relationship between the IPLDP and qualifications that can be delivered by external providers, as follows:

Under the Pre-Join arrangements, candidates applying to become a Regular Police Constable may present themselves with any of the following qualifications, which can
be accepted as evidence of Recognised (Accredited) Prior Learning (RPL) towards the Diploma in Policing:

- The Policing Knowledge Certificate – which represents circa 50% of the Diploma in Policing, but with no assessment of work based application
- The PCSO Award – 3 full units of the Diploma in Policing plus 2 x PCSO specific units and 1 linked to the Diploma
- The Policing Knowledge Certificate and the PCSO Award
- A Foundation Degree or Honours Degree which includes the Policing Knowledge Certificate
- A Foundation Degree or Honours Degree which includes the full Diploma in Policing or Units of the Diploma – these candidates would be Special Constables; or PCSOs (Units only)

(College of Policing, 2014)

As stated earlier for the purpose of this study, the focus is on The Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire, which was aimed at attracting potential police officers into higher education and delivered on a full time basis.

Although the Foundation Degree title of ‘Policing’ might suggest the students were only learning policing skills, this is not strictly the case because students were also learning how the role of the police fitted into the wider fabric of work, how political decisions and management of police decisions are made, working with others, law, funding and employment; e.g. learning the ‘why’ together with the ‘how to’ skills in order to familiarise students with the basic knowledge of policing necessary to support individual competence (Sandberg, 2000). This is an important factor, not perhaps understood by those who would demean work-based learning and opportunities provided for students to learn in the academic world and gain a foothold on the academic ladder.
Alongside these developments, research has continued to identify cultural issues arising from the migration of police learning from police training centres to Higher Education establishments, indicating that it is perhaps too simplistic to expect negative aspects of police culture to be addressed simply by re-locating. Heslop and White (2011) assert a need to understand the part that lecturers play in the construction of professional curricula. Through a comparative study of nurse, teacher and police education, they distinguished between the pedagogic practices of lecturers who have a strong disciplinary affiliation (practitioner lecturers) and those who have academic or multi-disciplinary affiliations. The implications are significant and have a direct bearing on relationships, not only between lecturers and learners.

The UCLan website provides an overview of the Foundation Degree in Policing stating:

The Foundation Degree in Policing is intended for those who wish to study policing with a view to pursuing a career with the Police either as a uniformed officer or as a member of police staff... UCLan’s Foundation Degree in Policing will be highly valued, having been developed in partnership with Lancashire Constabulary to equip you with the necessary knowledge, practical, vocational and key skills to pursue a career in the policing sector. (UCLan, 2014, Policing, FdSC)

However, as a result of the economic downturn and public sector budget reductions, recruitment rates for police forces across the country are considerably lower than when the Foundation Degree was launched in 2007. Whilst this situation prevails, there is a strong likelihood that many students who graduate from the Foundation Degree will not gain entry into the police service.

The direction given by Leitch (2006) reflects the QAA Foundation Degree qualification benchmark (2004), which states explicitly the expectation that employers will be
involved in the design and review of Foundation Degrees. In this respect, Brennan (2004) cites the Foundation Degrees in Police Studies as successful where employers are fully involved in programme design, assessment and workplace support; thus incorporating all three strands of employer involvement, as suggested by the Task Force. This is an important point to note, given that the Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire, where the research for this thesis was developed, follows this model of employer engagement, assessment and support in which it is common practice for a regular police officer, during a placement within the workplace, to ‘mentor’ a student; providing a link between the employer and the university. This aspect has been positively reported by Brennan (2004), and is accepted as not only an important principle of Foundation Degree delivery (Herde & Rohr, 2005), but also as one way in which the employer can demonstrate active engagement with the Foundation Degree (Taylor, 2013).

The partnership arrangement between universities and police could potentially be the next step in raising the status of policing; elevating it to a level where people recognise it as a ‘true profession’. Freund and McGuire (1995) believe “A profession is characterised by the power and high prestige it has in society as a whole” (p.211); however, “to speak about the process of professionalization requires one to define the direction of the process” (Freidson, 1988, p.31). It may well be that the process of police professionalization has reached a tipping point, as Neyroud (2011, p.45) explains:

...the police service has now reached a position where the developing nature of the knowledge requirement and skills development within the occupation, mean that formal professionalization has potentially significant benefits for policing and the public it serves. In particular a professional body, in the right form, would provide the opportunity to provide clearer standards, a service-owned qualification framework, greater focus on professional development across all roles and, as a
result, a new more productive relationship with other providers such as Further and Higher Education.

In November 2009, Greater Manchester Chief Constable, Peter Fahy called on police officers to obtain degrees to shed the ‘plod’ image’ and stated that “training should lead to a degree qualification” (“University of life approach is bull****”, 2009). This has also been supported by Peter Neyroud, former Chief Executive of the NPIA, who discussed the importance of advertising to and recruiting graduates, particularly from the Russell Group of universities, in order to make the Police Service much more of a profession (Neyroud, 2011).

One of the difficulties in promoting the approach of professionalising the police service, through a more academic approach espoused by a number of ACPO officers, is the ‘run-in’ time for officers to be available to patrol. During 2000, Central Government established the Crime Fighting Fund, which provided a Home Office grant to boost recruitment amongst the police service and increase force numbers alongside a move to Neighbourhood Policing Teams where frontline ‘Response’ officers were put on foot on Community Beats. This meant that there was no time to look at the academic level of officers. It created a ‘sausage factory’ approach to preparation, where competence and behaviour were the key measurements. This type of assessment fitted closely with National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ), hence the national minimum qualification. However, a number of forces either were unable to or simply did not wish to engage with any qualification.

The complexity of assessment of NVQs alongside the need for forces to train large numbers of people as A1 Assessors led to a review of IPLDP in 2008 by NPIA known as ‘The Stocktake’. Its purpose was to assess progress and achievement in relation to current practice of IPLDP at a local force level and to provide the Central Authority with a sound basis on which to make continuous improvements to IPLDP; however, the Stocktake was not an evaluation of IPLDP (NPIA, 2008). As a result, the national minimum qualification changed
to a level 3 Diploma in Policing. It could be argued that this again undermines the need to raise professional standards in order to recruit the ‘best’ people to the police service.

Traditionally, universities have been seen as places where students are free to develop their ideologies and values through the development of critical thinking and analysis (Hairston, 1992); a place, Hairston warns, that puts dogma before diversity, politics before craft, ideology before critical thinking, and the social goals of the teacher before the educational needs of the student. Welch (2004) however suggests that permitting students to develop their ideologies and values presents an effective strategy for helping students learn to read, research and write critically. Such views may be regarded as being in direct conflict with the police culture and environment, which in many instances, permit only official thinking on subjects, suppress experience, and express it in the form of an officially sanctioned model, definition, or rule delivered by institutionalised police trainers (White, 2004).

Induction into the Special Constabulary and the periods of work placements may well distort this perception for these students and others throughout the University. As Special Constables, the students patrol the streets and can come into conflict with drunken students or others who have committed crimes. It is not difficult to imagine the many differing scenarios that exist which potentially could compromise the UCLan Policing Studies students in their dual roles.

A Police Service should reflect the communities that it serves (Serrant-Green, 2002). This is acknowledged in terms of minority ethnic groups, gender and sexual orientation but there is little discussion in respect of social class. Officers and police support staff that identify with the communities and can communicate at the appropriate level, perform much of the good police work in those areas (Newburn 2008).
The following extract from the Foundation Degree qualification benchmark (QAA, 2004) reveals the assumption the mentioned experience: “employability is a key aspect in Foundation Degree programmes and its inclusion should equip and assist learners to enhance their employment opportunities, and/or allow them to prepare for a career change” (p.6).

Considering that the Foundation Degree is intended to provide a pathway into employment, an examination of the information provided by the Office for National Statistics (ONS, 2013) does not assist in identifying the rate of Foundation Degree graduates into the police service, or for arguably parallel professions such as nursing, probation, paramedics or teaching, due in the main because the ONS do not separate figures into degree classification and considers a graduate as a person who is aged over 20, not enrolled on any educational course and who has a level of higher education above ‘A’ level standard. It was however noted that, from April to June 2013, 41% of all employed graduates in the UK were working in the public administration, education and health industry. However, information provided by the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) would suggest that those students who completed a Foundation Degree and gained employment within the police service has been reducing year on year since 2010/11. Table 4.1 provides statistical information according to the 2010/11 - 2011/12 - 2012/13 HESA Destinations of Leavers Survey which indicates the numbers of leavers who qualified with a Foundation Degree and went on to be employed in specified Standard Occupational Classification Codes.
Table 3.1

*HESA Destination of Leavers Survey*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard Occupational Classification</th>
<th>2012/13</th>
<th>2011/12</th>
<th>2010/11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22310 Nurses</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32130 Paramedics</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33120 Police officers (sergeant and below)</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>535</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33150 Police community support officers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>840</strong></td>
<td><strong>1340</strong></td>
<td><strong>1365</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As highlighted earlier in the work of Allen and Ainley (2012), since the recession which followed the 2008 ‘banking crisis’ or ‘credit crunch’, there has been an expansion in ‘education without jobs’ and the increase of young people overqualified for work and typically underemployed which may, in part, account for the figures produced by the ONS and HESA. Cuts in police budgets may also be associated to the falling recruitment figures.

In summary, Foundation Degrees developed from a desire to meet employer needs in addressing skills and knowledge shortages at the same time as providing a means for entry to and progress through the higher education framework; thus contributing to widening access and participation. This has developed within the context of a continuing reappraisal of what constitutes vocational education and training as well as what constitutes valid ‘knowledge’ within the academy. Linking these debates has been the common thread of an emerging ‘new vocationalism’ or working knowledge (Symes & McIntyre, 2002), which has emphasised the need to reinterpret and reconstruct traditional understandings of higher education within the context of today’s working world (Barnett, 2000), and to embrace work-based learning in higher education contexts. Foundation Degrees have emerged as a new form of work based
learning within higher education, with specific features that give the degree its uniqueness and can therefore be considered an option to train police officers.

Writing about their own research into a scheme to send senior officers to study at university, Lee and Punch (2004, p.248) concluded: “policing needs to be continually enriched with critical, enquiring and challenging minds. Uniformity and conformity lead to stereotypical thought and conduct that undermines this. A sound university education still provides the best basis for this thought”.

Having established the premise on which the Foundation Degree is based, the following chapter will provide a general understanding of learning/adult learning theory in the context of the Foundation Degree in Policing at UCLan and the classroom social environment of such course.
Chapter 4
A General Understanding of Learning/ Adult Learning Theory/ Classroom Social Environment

The major purpose of this chapter is to present the theoretical elements that support the approaches applied to education, teaching, and learning within a police environment and specifically in the context of the Foundation Degree; with special focus on the themes of teaching and learning styles. All the elements that will be discussed contribute to the classroom environment and, therefore, will provide a basis for understanding the subject of this thesis: students’ perceptions of the classroom environment on a Foundation Degree in Policing.

Because teaching and learning involve a complex cognitive process, there is no single best explanation of these subjects. Different theories of learning, for example, offer more or less useful explanations depending on what is to be explained. This chapter will examine the nature of the Foundation Degree in Policing, as well as the teaching styles employed, the general categories of learning theories to include the behavioural, cognitive, constructivist, and humanist aspects, as applied to police education, together with an outline of the concept of the social environment in classroom settings.

Nature of Education

There has been growing involvement of universities in work-based learning, particularly in the UK, through response to government-backed initiatives such as the UK Employment Department’s work-based learning project of the early 1990s (Duckenfield & Stirner, 1992) and the University for Industry’s ‘Learning through Work’ initiative a decade later (Ufi Ltd, 2001). Against this background, and as presented in chapter 3, a Foundation
Degree in policing, that seeks to qualify those graduates wishing to become police officers, has been implemented.

As part of the government’s modernisation, the rising quality of the labour force is used as justification for a reappraisal of roles and responsibilities. This redefinition of jobs is rapidly becoming the cornerstone of the modernisation and remodelling of the workforce (Butt & Lance, 2005) leading to the ‘professionalization’ of many roles (Brennan & Gosling, 2004). Neyroud’s 2012 report considers the future of police education in light of the economic situation, and the shift of policing from a 'craft based occupation' to a 'true profession'. This notion of ‘professionalization’ is key to understanding the role of Foundation Degrees and Higher Education in workforce development.

As indicated in chapter 2, as a consequence of the Government’s police reform and modernisation agenda, the Home Office required the police to develop a local Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP). Following the report, different police forces across the UK implemented different training packages according to their perceived needs. Table 4.1 provides a snapshot of some of those forces opting at that time to go into partnership with their local universities to produce either a Certificate in Policing Studies or a Foundation Degree in Policing Studies. An initial partnership was created between the University of Portsmouth and the Metropolitan Police, which would later evolve (during 2002) into a partnership between the University of Portsmouth and the Home Office to start the Foundation Degree in Police Studies.
Table 4.1

University/Police Partnerships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Police Force</th>
<th>Partnership with HE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City of London</td>
<td>Foundation Degree with City University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kent</td>
<td>Foundation Degree with University of Canterbury Christchurch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>Certificate in Policing with Queens University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Yorkshire</td>
<td>Foundation Degree with University of Huddersfield</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan</td>
<td>Certificate in Higher Education in Police Studies with Portsmouth University.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sussex</td>
<td>Foundation Degree/Certificate in Policing Studies with the University of Brighton in collaboration with the University of Chichester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Mercia</td>
<td>Foundation Degree with Teeside University</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Foundation Degrees provide qualifications for roles for which there were no existing qualifications; for example, the Foundation Degree in Policing (Edmond, Hillier & Price, 2007). It has been suggested, however, that aspects of reform and modernisation in relation to the education of police officers within a university setting have undermined rather than increased police professionalization (Hough, 2003; Heslop, 2010). The modernising of the police workforce has therefore created demand for a number of qualifications, not least of which is the Foundation Degree in that sector, where “work-based learning is still an idea in search of a practice, a pedagogy that is undergoing development as it accommodates itself to the exigencies of the workplace and the university” (Boud & Symes, 2000, p. 3). Its relationship to more traditional models of knowledge transmission remains unclear; however, the 2002 review of Foundation Degrees found that there was a wide range of approaches to integrated work and learning and a range of definitions of work based learning in operation across the sector (FD Support Team, 2002). Research into learning at work, such as that of Gear, McIntosh and Squires. (1994), Eraut, Alderton, Cole and Senker (2000, 2005), Felstead
et al. (2005) and Eraut and Hirsh (2007), suggests that the most effective and valuable learning for people in work is often that which occurs through the medium of work.

Responding to this, there is an on-going trend within some universities to move into the ‘territory’ of the workplace (Scott et al., 2004) to enhance and accredit genuinely work-based, often individually driven learning. Much university involvement in work-based learning has therefore come to involve partnerships with employers, whether at a strategic level where the company views this kind of activity as contributing to its intellectual and structural capital (Garnett, 2001), at a tactical level with specific or general staff development aims (Lyons, 2003, Nikolou-Walker, 2007), or less formally where employer involvement is driven by individual learners, often professionals or managers, taking the initiative (Nixon et al., 2008).

The concept of work based learning draws on the thinking of John Dewey (1916, 1933, 1938), particularly in terms of his discussions of experience and reflection in relation to learning and his democratic reconceptualization of vocational learning. These themes have been taken up in the context of professional and vocational learning by Knowles (1970), Kolb (1984), Schön (1983, 1987) and Boud and Middleton (2003), who have been influential in the development of models for adult and professional learning over the last two decades. Along with Schön’s reflective practitioner philosophy, work-based learning draws heavily on the idea of action research (Lewin, 1946; Carr & Kemmis, 1986) and to an extent participative enquiry (Reason & Rowan, 1981) which is concerned with changing situations as much as researching them, and they are also essentially collaborative. Another influence that is evident in some work-based programmes is Revans’ action learning model (Revans, 1980) where learners develop insights through tackling real world issues.

The epistemological base of work-based learning tends to be rooted in a form of pragmatism, the application of knowledge for problem solving, as articulated by Dewey
(1938) and Sennett (2008) among others, coupled with a constructivist and to some extent phenomenological perspective in which the learner is regarded as an autonomous self who is making sense of his or her context and role through active participation (Tennant, 2004), it “is the philosophy, or belief, that learners create their own knowledge based on interactions with their environment including their interactions with other people” (Draper, 2002, p. 522). This is reflected in Schön’s notion of constructionism, where knowing and doing coexist in a spiral of activity where knowledge informs practice which generates further knowledge, that in turn leads to changes in practice, and so on (Schön, 1987).

There are challenges in adopting a work-based learning model to achieve the workforce development goals of government for the public sector. Keep (2003) observes that, while it is relatively easy to launch government sponsored interventions in the training market in the shape of subsidised training of one form or another, lasting change is extremely problematic. The crucial issue is how to convince the majority of employers to be engaged in the process (Keep, 2003). It is perhaps of interest to note that many people who engage with universities through work-based learning would not otherwise have considered ‘going to university,’ or they will have been put off by lack of confidence, aversion to the classroom or simply the assumption that busy lives and academic study do not mix (O’Doherty, 2006, Hughes, Slack and Baker 2006).

Hillier and Rawnsley (2006) caution in assuming that employers can fully participate in the design, delivery and assessment of any new work-based learning programme; however, in the Foundation Degree in Policing programme at UCLan, the various partner police forces play a significant part in the assessment of the students’ performance. In this programme for example, students enrol as Special Constables with partner police organisations. They are assessed to exactly the same standards as a newly recruited police officer. The student and an assigned tutor constable are fully briefed prior to the work-based learning module. Students
are familiar with the assessment criteria, which are emphasised throughout the course. The Foundation Degree in Policing UCLan has developed, in partnership with a number of police forces in the NW of England and British Transport Police, a Placement Summary Report on which the tutor constable has to identify, from a list of behaviours, the individual student performance. Workplace visits are made during the placement where the student, tutor constable and a member of the teaching staff meet to discuss progress in the workplace.

There is recognition that some students will be unable during the course of the Foundation Degree to join the Special Constabulary. One of the main reasons for this surround issues of vetting; however, aspects of physical fitness also play a part in a student’s inability to become a Special Constable. For those students unable to join the Special Constabulary, a module is presented which immerses them into a fictitious town where the divisional police commander call upon them to write a policing plan. Students attend the police station, meet with the commander, are briefed in their assignment and once completed are required to present their findings to the commander (Holleran, Kellett & Helm, 2010).

It is possible to gain the Foundation Degree in Policing at UCLan without having served as a Special Constable – in which case the student would be ineligible to enter the police but could still continue into the final year of a bachelor’s programme. The epistemological approach taken in this module is that of realism where the student sees the role of the teacher as a person who presents content in a systematic and organised way, where lesson objectives are presented in a linear fashion. In doing so, the teacher provides hints or cues as a guide to a desired behaviour, or outcome, and then uses consequences to reinforce it. The behaviourist teacher begins by introducing lower-level cognitive skills and then building higher-level cognitive skills.

Consistent with the arguments of Gleeson and Keep (2004), Hillier and Rawnsley (2006) found that employers want learning which is specific and non-transferable to avoid
‘poaching’ of trained staff whereas employees have different, not to say opposite aims. The involvement of employers in vocational education is problematic because of the incompatibility of the aims of these two stakeholders. For example, apparent consensus over terminology used to express such ‘soft skills’ as critical reflection, analysis, problem solving, management, social skills, in aims of programmes may hide real differences in interpretation of these aims by the different stakeholders. Keep’s analysis is that there is a gradual but profound shift in the nature of the skill sets that many employers are seeking from manual skills (dexterity and tool usage) and hard technical knowledge, towards a growing prioritisation of ‘softer’ social skills and personal attributes. As one employer stated “we recruit attitude” (Keep, 2004, p.7).

**Teaching Styles**

In a review of thirteen studies conducted between 1983 and 1996, Kember (1997) found only five substantively different views of teaching in higher education. All of those studies found that people conceived of teaching in ways that were remarkable similar to one or more of five perspectives on teaching. Thus, while there may be a great many variations in personal style, there seems to be relatively few substantively different ways to conceptualise the teaching of adults, at least in the context of higher education.

A review of the literature reveals a seemingly endless series of frameworks for classifying teaching styles. As shown in Table 4.2, a comparison is provided for the approaches offered by Pratt (2002), Fischer and Fischer (1979), and Grasha (2002) outlining the teaching style with a focus on the similarities and differences between the three taxonomies.
Table 4.2

Summary of Teaching Styles Taxonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Type a) Teacher-centred learning</th>
<th>(Type b) Performance-centred learning</th>
<th>(Type c) Support-centred learning</th>
<th>(Type d) Student-centred learning</th>
<th>(Type e) The disputant teacher</th>
<th>(Type f) The interested/disinterested teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transmission (Pratt, 2002)</td>
<td>Apprentice</td>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>Nurturing</td>
<td>Social Reformer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Authority (Grasha, 2002)</td>
<td>Demonstrator</td>
<td>Learner-Centred</td>
<td>Co-Operative Planner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject-Centred (Fischer &amp; Fischer, 1979)</td>
<td>Delegator</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Oriented (Fischer &amp; Fischer, 1979)</td>
<td>Subject-Centred</td>
<td>Learner-Centred and Student-Centred</td>
<td>Co-Operative Planner</td>
<td>The Emotionally Excited and its Counterpart</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pratt (2002) defines five different approaches towards learners and content referring to each as a teaching perspective: the **transmission perspective**, based on the belief that knowledge and/or procedures can be efficiently transmitted to learners and very teacher-centred; the **apprentice perspective**, within which, teaching is the process of enculturation of learners into a specific community with a common sense of identity and purpose, and clearly defined roles, usually suggesting levels of authority and responsibility. In this context, community can refer to a family, a trade or vocation, or a profession and where this view of teaching is committed to learning a role and identity as well as a set of skills or body of knowledge; the **developmental perspective**, which is based on a view of learning derived from cognitive psychology where the teachers’ role is to challenge the students perception of the world making this a ‘learner-centred’ philosophy of teaching; the **nurturing perspective**, that is characterised by a fundamental belief about what influences learning and gives
direction to teaching, and finally the social reform perspective, which is distinctive for the presence of an explicitly stated ideal or set of principles which are linked to a vision of a better society.

Fischer and Fischer (1979) suggest that teaching style is quite different from methods of instruction and is more in keeping with the approaches taken to learners. Several styles of teaching are identified in six categories which include: Task Oriented, when teachers prescribe the material and demand performance on the part of the student; Cooperative Planner, when student cooperation is sought and when learners are not only listened to but are also respected; Student Centred, when a structure is provided for students to follow what they wish to do or what interests them; Subject-Centred, when the focus is on covering the subject to the near exclusion of the learner; Learning Centred, when the teacher helps the student, whatever their ability, to develop goals and become autonomous; and the Emotionally Excited and its Counterpart, when teachers enter the teaching-learning process with zeal and excitement while their counterparts conduct the classroom in a dispassionate manner.

Grasha (2002) divide teaching styles into four areas: Formal Authority, where the focus is on content and can be very teacher-centred. The teacher defines the theories, principles, concepts or terms that the student needs to learn and organises them into a sequenced set of goals or objectives. Evaluations are a necessary part of course planning as they allow the teacher to ascertain the amount of student learning that has taken place. Demonstrator, in which the performance of an academic procedure is the main concern. The teacher defines the steps an expert in the field would use to accomplish necessary tasks as well as defines the standards, which would indicate mastery in applying these procedures. The teacher then develops situations in which these steps can be performed and results observed. The teacher may be the one who demonstrates the procedures; students may be the
ones practicing the procedures, or some combination of both. **Facilitator**, in which teachers tend to focus on activities. This teaching style emphasises student-centred learning where much more responsibility is placed on the student to take the initiative for meeting the demands of various learning tasks. Teachers typically design group activities, which necessitate active learning, student-to-student collaboration and problem solving. **Delegator**, in which teachers place control and responsibility for learning on individuals or groups of students. This teaching style will often give students a choice in designing and implementing their own complex learning projects with the teacher acting in a consultative role.

As indicated in Table 4.2, the following discussion provides for a summary of the various teaching style taxonomies:

**Type a - Teacher centred learning**

Teacher centred learning takes place when the teacher prescribes the material and demands performance on the part of the student. The teacher defines the theories, principles, and concepts that the student needs to learn, and organize these into a set of goals or objectives that the student must achieve. In addition the teacher, as prescriber of the material, often focuses on covering the subject to the near exclusion of the learner. Each taxonomy includes this teaching style, closely aligned to behaviourism, as indicated in Table 4.2.

Harden, Sowden and Dunn (1984) suggest that a shift from the traditional teacher centred approach, in which the emphasis is on teachers and what they teach, to a student centred approach, in which the emphasis is on students and what they learn, requires a fundamental change in the role of the educator from that of a didactic teacher to that of a facilitator of learning. This method can often be seen in the didactic approach found in the lecture theatre and where, according to Bligh (1998), there is virtually no published evidence for the place of lectures when teaching behavioural skills and that “if students are to learn to think, they must
be placed in situations where they have to do so...The best way to learn to solve problems is to be given problems that have to be solved” (p.15).

**Type b - Performance centred learning**

Performance centred learning takes place when the teacher defines the steps an expert in the field would use to accomplish tasks, which would indicate mastery in procedures. The teacher develops situations where these steps can be performed and results observed. The teacher may be the one who demonstrates the procedures; students may be the ones practicing the procedures, or some combination of both. Teaching is of standards and practices of a community, providing gradual acceptance of the culture of that community by the learners. Community includes family, trade or vocation, or a profession. The view of teaching is to learn a role and identity as well as skills or body of knowledge, as indicated in Table 4.2. As a cognitivist approach, this teaching style is particularly evident through student engagement in role-play activities, assessment of tasks, reflection on learning and improvement in decision-making (Biggs, 2006). Such learning takes place within the teaching styles espoused by Pratt (2002) of apprentice and the demonstrator method of Grasha (2002).

**Type c – Support centred learning**

Support centred learning takes place when the teacher places control and responsibility for learning with the students. Students are often given a choice in the design and implementing of their own learning. The teacher acts as a consultant and furthers learning by challenging students’ perception of the world, helping the student, whatever their ability, to develop goals and become autonomous. The student arrives at meaning by actively selecting, and cumulatively constructing, their own knowledge, through both individual and social activity. Due in part to the content of the course under investigation, which is determined through a set of modules delivered within a timeframe and to the nature of the subject that requires the learning of concepts, theories and principles, it is not always possible
to provide this constructivist teaching style, though it does become apparent in modules where students are taught and assessed on a weekly basis building upon teaching from previous weeks work through a portfolio of produced work. This need to take note of what has been taught and engagement in independent study are, as suggested by Hidi and Anderson (1986) and Kirby and Pedwell (1991), indicative of a student actively constructing their own knowledge. The point is that a constructivist perspective highlights the need for a range of learning activities involving the teacher and student so that “learning objectives have a greater probability of being addressed than if only one teaching method, such as lecturing, is used” (Biggs 2006, p. 356). Such learning takes place within the teaching styles espoused by Pratt (2002) of developmental, the learner-centred method of Grasha (2002) and the delegator suggested by Fischer and Fischer (1979).

**Type d – Student centred learning**

Student centred learning takes place when the teacher focuses on activities and when responsibility is placed on the student to take the initiative for meeting the demands of various learning tasks. Teachers design group activities, which necessitate active learning, student-to-student collaboration, and problem solving. Student cooperation is sought and learners are not only listened to but are also respected. A structure is provided for students to follow what they wish to do or what interests them. The fundamental belief of this humanist approach is about what influences learning and gives direction to teaching. This humanist learning style is evident when self-directed learning takes place and when a learning environment exists which takes into consideration student needs, concerns and expectations and when the learning environment stimulates motivation, encourages participation and where the student experience and perception is one of care (Powers & Guan, 2000). Such learning takes place within the teaching styles espoused by Pratt (2002) of nurturing, the co-

Type e – The disputant teacher

The disputant teacher advocates for reforms to solve social problems and presents ideals or a set of principles linked to a vision of a better society. Due to the nature of this research, focusing on the student experience, this teaching style was not under investigation in the Foundation Degree; however, Pratt (2002) suggests that this is the most difficult perspective to analyse because it has no single, uniform characteristic set of epistemic, normative or procedural beliefs and that such teachers can be found in women’s health, AIDS awareness, civil rights as well as environmental education, religious education and union education. The focus is on the group and not the individual as an object of change in order to bring about social reform. Pratt’s focus is on social injustices and a central belief that power lies at the heart of injustice in society and while this may be a discussion to be had in the wider sense of student learning it is not necessarily one which may be found within a police teaching environment where the focus of discussion is to embed knowledge of the law, with its various doctrines, practices and guidance, in order to ensure that ethical models of policing may take place.

Type f – The interested / disinterested teacher

The interested teacher enters the teaching-learning process with zeal and excitement; their counterparts conduct the classroom in a dispassionate manner, described by Heimlich and Norland (2002) as “a pervasive quality in the educational activities of an educator that persists even when content changes” (p.17). Due to the elusive nature of this teaching style, it was not possible to observe this taking place.

Developing an effective teaching style for the subject-area requires time, effort, a willingness to experiment with different teaching strategies, and an examination of what is
effective in teaching. Teaching styles applied so far to the Foundation Degree in Policing can be considered as task oriented and formal authority with an apprentice perspective because the content of the course is determined through a set of modules delivered within a timeframe and where, due to the nature of the subject, the learning of concepts, theories and principles are necessary. The teaching staff, generally either serving or former police officers, introduce students to the world of policing through the prior experiences of the teacher and use this as a means to reinforce the social norms expected of the student in the role of a police officer.

In considering my personal teaching style, I find that I fit closely to a combination of student centred and support centred learning (types c and d as indicated in Table 4.2); recognising that, in a formal classroom setting, I tend more toward group activities which encourage active participation and problem solving while at the same time placing control and responsibility for learning firmly with the student. I believe that my teaching style is mainly centred in the nurturing perspective with the use of critical thinking activities through discussions as well as problem based learning projects focused on “cooperative learning, hands-on activities, discovery learning, differentiated instruction, technology, distributed practice, critical thinking, ... are elements that embrace the constructivist educational philosophy” (White-Clark, DiCarlo and Gilchriest., 2008, p. 41).

Traditionally, the majority of students graduating from police training centres have been taught using teacher-centred and behavioural approaches. Under this philosophy, students are passive recipients of information presented to them by subject matter experts or more experienced officer; an approach that is ineffective in building the decision-making, problem-solving, and interpersonal skills needed by police officers today (Birzer, 1999; Bradford & Pynes, 1999). Recently, more attention has been given to evaluating the preparation needs of officers and the result has been a growing body of literature supporting an active, student-centred, andragogical approach to police education (Birzer, 2004; Birzer &
Learning Styles

Learning styles, the preferences in which students learn, can “influence the student’s ability to acquire information, to interact with peers and the teacher, but are often unaddressed by teachers who recognise learning differences, but fail to act upon them” (Grasha, 2002, pp. 41-42). In relation to learning theories, Coffield, Moseley, Hall and Ecclestone. (2004) suggest that, while there are several categorisations of ‘styles’, research-based evidence of their existence is sparse.

Learning has had a common and a simple definition since the 1950s, namely, that it is a change in behaviour. Baumgartner, Lee, Birden and Flowers (2003) have suggested that there are two schools amongst the variety of theories that relate to post-secondary teaching and learning: behaviourism and constructivism. In 2006, Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner used the following as a more reasoned definition of learning: “Learning is a process that brings together cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences and experiences for acquiring, enhancing, or making changes in one’s knowledge, skills, values, and world views” (p. 277). This section will discuss behaviourism and cognitivism, together with providing an overview of the learning theories or ‘styles’ of humanism and constructivism. Table 4.3 provides a summary of the four major learning styles taxonomies.
### Table 4.3
Summary of Learning Style Taxonomies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influent Figures</th>
<th>Behaviourism</th>
<th>Cognitivism</th>
<th>Humanism</th>
<th>Constructivism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Watson, Pavlov,</td>
<td>Merrill,</td>
<td>Abrahama</td>
<td>Malcolm</td>
<td>Vygotksy, Piaget,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Brief Description**

**Behaviourism**

Behaviourism is a worldview that operates on a principle of 'stimulus-response'. Behaviourism is the belief that “… instruction is achieved by observable, measurable, and controllable objectives set by the instructor and met by the learners who elicit a specific set of responses based upon a controlled set of stimuli” (Leonard, 2002, p.16). This theory, first developed by John Watson in the early twentieth century, somehow encompasses the works of Thorndike (stimulus-response), Guthrie (the contiguity explanation, or associations of learning), Tolman (latent learning), Hull (environmental interactions), and Skinner (reinforcement of learning).

The behaviourist school assumes that people learn through the development of habits. We learn new information, new frameworks, new ways, and then we embrace them as habits.
in our lives. We are reinforced in these habits by watching someone doing them, by listening to someone tells us about these habits, and by doing them ourselves and then witnessing the results of these actions. Teaching, using the behaviourist principles, involves the learning and retention of information through drill and repetition. Facts must fit within the frameworks that have already been established. The teacher is filling up the students with new information – with the rules of how the world works. This behaviourist model is fully aligned with the existing assumptions about teaching and learning.

Behaviourism has three major assumptions: (1) observable behaviour – in other words, change in the behaviour – is the focus rather than internal thought process, (2) environment shapes the behaviour, and (3) the principle of contiguity and reinforcement are central to explain the learning process (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2006).

The application of behaviourism includes driving specific outcomes from learners through a defined set of learning objectives. Instruction is systematically designed and mostly teacher centred. The learner’s mental state is not a matter of concern, and external outputs, learning products, and behavioural change are the focus (Leonard, 2002). Skinner greatly contributed to this theory by introducing the term operant conditioning to the learning literature. Essentially, it refers to reinforcing what the teacher wants the individual to do again and ignoring what he or she wants the individual to stop doing. Use of positive and negative reinforcement is meant to drive the learner to a desired target, which is described as the learning objective (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2006).

The behaviourist theory has been the foundation of several educational practices, including adult education such as adult technical and skills training. Since behaviourism focuses on the measurable overt activity of the learner, behavioural objectives that specify the behaviour to be exhibited by learners after some intervention have directed much instructional planning. Behavioural objectives specify the conditions (or stimuli), the
behaviour to be performed, and the criteria by which the behaviour will be judged (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007, p. 280). Functional behavioural assessment, positive behaviour supports (Soodak, 2003), and, to a certain extent, deliberate practice in developing expertise (Ericsson, 2007) are current applications of this perspective. When specific skills and behaviours need to be learned, teaching approaches consistent with behavioural learning theory are quite effective.

Behaviourism has as its ultimate aim the transferring of skills and knowledge learnt to solve problems of a similar nature. This emphasis on transferable skills is particularly relevant on a Foundation Degree course in which extensive coursework demands, such as to achieve vocational integration, academic awareness and personal development skills, a keen emphasis on self-initiation in order to succeed.

Relating this approach to police education, as summarized by Birzer (2003), “Behaviourist theories equate humans to machines in that, as with machines, if you introduce an input (stimulus) into a human being and control how that input is processed (operant conditioning), you will get a predetermined output (response)” (p. 31). Purist proponents of this type of learning discount learning processes that are not observable and measurable, such as affective processing and intrinsic motivation. Techniques commonly used in the classroom by behaviourists include cuing, prompting, positive reinforcement, and skill drills (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Since learning is defined as a change in behaviour, success in a class built upon behaviourist mentality would necessitate some outwardly measurable demonstration of student knowledge (written test, scenario assessment, etc.).

But, experience itself does not necessarily result in learning, as explained by Gibbs (1988) “it is not sufficient simply to have an experience in order to learn. Without reflecting upon this experience it may quickly be forgotten or its learning potential lost” (p.9). For this
reason, there is a strong emphasis within the Foundation Degree in policing subject of this research on reflective learning.

Applied to police education, this theory suggests that a teacher can control learning by designating the target stimulus and rewarding or reinforcing the desired response from the student, hence, controlling the acquisition of new behaviour. “Learning is thus brought about by an association between the desired responses, and the reinforcement (rewards and punishment), through a system of success and failure indicators” (Rogers, 2002, p. 89).

Birzer (2003) suggests that police learn in a very behaviourist and mechanistic training environment with a rigid training structure and where learning outcomes can be measured objectively and precisely, which are readily identifiable in police training; examples of which are behavioural objectives set in the training of, for example, self-defence skills. Torrence (1993) believes however that the preparation of police officers in a behavioural environment can induce unnecessary amounts of stress on the learner.

**Cognitivism**

Cognitive psychologists challenge the limitations of behaviourism in its focus on observable behaviour. They incorporate mental structure and process into their learning theories. The earliest challenge to the behaviourist model came from Boyd Bode who, in 1929, criticised behaviourists for being too dependent on overt behaviour to explain learning and proposed looking at the patterns rather than isolated events.

Piaget (1985) suggests that the learning process is iterative and that, in it, new information is shaped to fit with the learner's existing knowledge, and existing knowledge is itself modified to accommodate the new information. Cognitivism is the belief that “… human thinking and learning are similar to that of computer information processing. As such, the focus of cognitivism is on learning inputs and outputs that are processed by the human mind, much as the computer processes information” (Leonard, 2002, p. 29).
Cognitive theories of learning deal with thinking, decision-making, remembering, creating, and problem solving. How information is remembered and processed, as well as how individuals use their knowledge to regulate their thinking, are critical in this perspective. Some of the most important applications of cognitive theories are teaching students how to learn and remember by using learning tactics such as note-taking, mnemonics, and visual organizers. Teaching strategies based on cognitive views of learning, particularly on information processing, highlight the importance of attention, organization, practice, and elaboration in learning. These strategies also provide ways to give students more control over their own learning by developing and improving their meta-cognitive skills and self-regulated learning strategies. The emphasis of the cognitive approach is on what is happening inside the head of the learner.

Cognitivism, however, is particularly relevant to the use of experiential learning activities in police education which serve to reinforce and connect cognitive and theoretical constructs learned in the classroom to hypothetical, hands-on case scenarios in, for example role-play exercises; thus becoming a process of “mentally combining and recombining the various elements of a problem until a structure that solves the problem is achieved”, a process that is perceived as intuitive to policing (Ormrod, 1995, p.165). According to Bligh (1998), cognitive skills require active learning before the memory of detail received during a period of lecturing dies away and that intellectual development in a subject requires the mixing of teaching methods.

While sharing the behaviourist’s view that the study of learning must be objective and empirically based, cognitivist theory suggests that learning involves human information processing theory which involves how people acquire, process, and remember information. Curzon (2003) addressing cognitivism, explains that it is principally “concerned with the various mental activities which result in the acquisition and processing of information by the
learner” (p.35), adding that “its theories involve a perception of the learner as a purposive individual in continuous interaction with his social and psychological environment” (p.36). In contrast to the behaviourists, who emphasize the role of environmental conditions (stimuli) and overt behaviours (responses), cognitive psychologists look more at how individuals process the stimuli they encounter, i.e., how individuals perceive, interpret and mentally store the information they receive from the environment, which represents, in part, the processes associated with acquiring the requisite knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, behaviours, and competencies as part of police preparation.

Within the framework of the Foundation Degree in Policing, this is reflected through the creation of a learning environment that supports the activity of the student, where knowledge is acquired through actions and thinking is action based. Interactions with peers become an important source of cognitive development where peer interactions are essential in helping move students from an egocentric perspective and where lessons are taught which challenge current thinking or provide an imbalance between a student’s current cognitive structures and new information which is to be assimilated. In relation to police education, the cognitive viewpoint holds that it is the responsibility of a teacher to present information to students in a logical, understandable manner, and is manifest in such teaching practices as lecture, demonstrations, videos, presentations, and readings (Birzer, 2004; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Evidence of learning in a class based on cognitivism can be obtained using the same techniques described for behaviourism, but because learning is seen as a change in internal cognitive structuring as opposed to a change in behaviour, cognitivists would concede that some learning might not be easily observed.

Mugford, Corey, and Bennell (2013) discuss cognitive learning in a police setting as lessons teaching officers basic investigative skills which are likely to be high in intrinsic complexity (e.g. how to deal with suspects, victims, and witnesses as they respond to a crime
scene, how to appropriately collect evidence and ensure it is not contaminated, how to prepare a case for court, etc.). The authors continue their discussion by suggesting that, given the dynamic problems faced by police officers while on-the-job, they are often expected to perform at the highest level of Bloom's Taxonomy. That means not only they are expected to recall and understand a number of tasks but also required to analyse and evaluate a variety of problems on a daily basis (Cleveland, 2006). As such, education needs to facilitate the development of these higher-order thinking skills.

**Constructivism**

Constructivism is the label given to a set of theories about learning which fall somewhere between cognitive and humanistic views. Constructivist frameworks, such as those discussed by Lebow (1993), often focus on the following attributes: personal relevance, the opportunity to generate new knowledge, personal autonomy, active engagement, collaboration, the opportunity to reflect on learning, and pluralism. In addition, Langer and Apple-bee (1987) discuss how the core goals of constructivist teaching often include promoting democratic learning environments and student-centred instruction. As a result, “teachers are apt to feel comfortable in this role only if they view uncertainty and conflict as natural and potentially growth producing for members of the learning community” (Prawat & Floden, 1994, p. 40).

Von Glasersfeld (1989) attributes the first constructivist theory to the Italian philosopher, Giambattista Vico, in the early 18th century. As described by Von Glasersfeld, “one of Vico’s basic ideas was that epistemic agents can know nothing but the cognitive structures they themselves have put together . . . ‘to know’ means to know how to make” (1989, p. 123). Kuhn (1970), Malcomb (1988), and Rorty (1991) are frequently cited for their argument that knowledge is an individual’s construction relative to their current context rather than representing some correspondence to external reality.
Kuhn’s Structure of Scientific Revolution (1970) provided the grounding for a major paradigm shift in science toward a ‘best description’ view of theory rather than an approximation to the ‘truth’, while Rorty holds that “knowledge is not a matter of getting it right but rather acquiring habits of action for coping with reality” (1991, p. 1). Thus, rather than seeking ‘truth’ by correspondence to the real world, we seek viability, i.e., explanations that are viable in the world as we understand it.

Learning in a constructivist framework engages a search for new meaning. It involves the creation of new internal cognitive structures in individuals so that they might organize and reorganize their own world. These processes are stimulated and developed through the introduction of new material into the context of the individual learner. The learner takes the new information and tries to both assimilate it and accommodate it relative to what it is already known. In doing this, the learner creates new meaning. Teaching in the constructivist school involves determining what learners already know, and what the new information might mean to them. The teacher creates the playing field and then is the ‘guide on the side’ who leads students in their own discovery. This constructivist school of learning requires a new set of assumptions and is directly aligned with the realities of our postmodern world. Learning (whether in cognitive, affective, interpersonal or psychomotor domains) is said to involve a process of individual transformation. Thus people actively construct their knowledge (Biggs & Moore, 1993).

Constructivist theories of learning are concerned with how individuals make meaning of events and activities; hence, learning is seen as the construction of knowledge. In general, constructivism assumes that people create and construct knowledge, rather than internalize it from the external environment; additionally, it is important to note that there are different approaches to constructivism. Some constructivist views emphasize the shared and social construction of knowledge, whereas others do not emphasize social forces. Constructivist
perspectives on learning and teaching, which are increasingly influential today, are grounded in the research of Piaget, Bruner, Dewey, and Vygotsky. Inquiry and problem-based learning, cognitive apprenticeships, and cooperative learning are typical teaching strategies that are consistent with constructivist approaches. The essence of the constructivist approach is that it places the students' own efforts at the centre of the educational process, thus the notion of student-centred teaching (Bruning, Schraw, & Norby, 2010).

With the rapid expansion of awards such as the Foundation Degree, many academic institutions are becoming involved in the supporting and assessing of work based learning, a key element of the Foundation Degree. This is evident in the work-based learning, which takes place when students are placed with a police tutor and engage in a period of operational police duties. Such work is assessed both within the police service by the tutor and through work place visits made by staff of the university. Professor John Biggs (2001) argues that good teaching is that which is effective in helping students to develop higher-level skills. His approach to teaching is student-centred, and he quotes Tyler (1949) “learning takes place through the active behaviour of the student: it is what he does that he learns, not what the teacher does” (2001, p. 25). This provides something of a contrast to what has been a dominant view of teaching in higher education: that the ‘expert’ lecturer delivers knowledge to the ‘novice’ student. Biggs’ model, which has been of some influence inside Higher Education, potentially offers a way of providing guidance when required to evaluate an assessment of work-based learning. In using the term ‘constructive’, Biggs emphasizes that any learning/meaning is constructed by the student in the course of their learning experience; learning is a product of the student’s activities and experiences rather than the tutor’s.

Goldstein (1990) recognised that effective policing consisted of the proper recognition and research of ‘problems’ and the planning to try and solve those problems in real world conditions. According to Jonassen (as cited in Karagiorgi, & Symeou, 2005, p.24)
constructivism creates a learning environment where students actively engaged in the construction of their own knowledge by linking new information to what they already know. However, constructivism alone will not address the demands required of police preparation, which remains, according to Vodde (2009), as rudimentary, fragmented and reminiscent of a traditional, pedagogical, military model.

**Socio-cultural constructivism.** Socio-cultural approaches to learning and development are also constructivist and were first systematised and applied by Lev Vygotsky and his collaborators in Russia in the nineteen-twenties and thirties. They are based on the concept that human activities take place in cultural contexts, are mediated by language and other symbol systems, and can be best understood when investigated in their historical development. Socio-cultural theories of learning acknowledge the centrality of social and cultural contexts in learning. These perspectives often are called social constructivist theories. In the past 25 years, these theories of learning have become more prominent as concerns about diversity, multicultural education, and social justice increase. Concepts of culturally relevant pedagogy and racial identity emphasise the need to consider social and cultural factors in theories of learning. Of the spectrum of cognitive theories, the individual cognitive trend deriving from Piaget's studies and the socio-cultural trend based on Vygotsky's works constitute the backbone of cognitivism (Deubel 2003; Duffy & Cunningham 1996; Fosnot 1996; Gillani 2003). Both theories have also been inspirational for the subsequent constructivist movement (Fosnot 1996, Gillani 2003).

Vygotsky (1978) criticised theories such as Piaget's, in which “maturation is viewed as a precondition of learning but never the result of it” (p. 80) and developed the following position:

Learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in
cooperation with his peers. Learning is not development; however, properly
organised learning results in mental development and sets in motion a variety of
developmental processes that would be impossible apart from learning. Thus
learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally
organised, specifically human, psychological functions. (p. 90)

To help explain the way this social and participatory learning took place, Vygotsky
(1978) developed the concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which he defined
as “...the distance between the actual developmental level as determined through independent
problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem
solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (p. 86). Socio-
cultural theorists, expanding the concept of the ZPD, increasingly conceptualise learning as
distributed (Cole & Engeström, 1993), interactive (Chang-Wells & Wells, 1993), contextual
(John-Steiner, Panofsky, & Smith, 1994), and the result of the learners' participation in a
community of practice (Rogoff, 1994). Vygotsky’s work on social cognition was further
explored in subsequent works by other psychologists who developed the notion of scaffolding
(Fosnot 1996).

A feature of a learning community is that learning takes place within a social learning
dimension and an understanding that learning is a social activity, through scaffolded learning
and the ZPD, enables a pedagogy to develop that is shaped by a learning community. Lave
(2009, p.201) provides a perspective on the theories of Vygotsky to describe ‘situated
activity’ which involves changes in knowledge and activity. Situated activity describes the
context that the learner is in and their participation in a process of ‘changing and
understanding practice’. Students on a Foundation Degree become, during their placement
with a tutor, work-based learners in varied operational settings and as such are learners
engaged in their own ‘situated learning’.
Humanism

Key individuals associated with the development of humanism, and who impacted the course of police preparation, are Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, and, as mentioned above, Malcolm Knowles (Birzer, 2004; Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tennheill, 2001; Owens & Valesky, 2010).

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

The impact of Maslow on police education is evidenced by an increased awareness of the needs of adult learners within a classroom setting. According to Della (2003) and Kennedy (2003), adult learners are different than younger learners in that adult learners have a different self-image, greater life experiences, a fear of failure, the expectation that learning will be of immediate use, diminished speed of retention and learning, a decline in visual clarity, and a decline in auditory acuity. When advocating for teaching practices to address such issues as self-image differences, the fear of failure, a diminished speed of retention and learning, and a decline in visual and auditory acuity, Kennedy and Della seek to help police trainers meet Maslow’s ‘deficiency needs’ thus allowing students to learn more effectively (Della, 2004; Kennedy, 2003).
Carl Rogers was influential in describing the role of the learner and teacher in the educational process. According to Rogers, humans have a natural desire to learn, an underlying need to fulfil inherent possibilities (Rogers, 1980). Within the learning environment, the teacher was expected to serve as a facilitator, whose responsibility was to set a positive climate for learning, nurture creativity, clarify the purpose of learning, provide appropriate learning resources, unleash curiosity, and balance the cognitive and affective components of learning (Rogers, 1974, 1980, 1987, 1989). In 1957, Rogers gave what has been argued one of his most important statements relating to education (Maharg, 2000). At a conference dealing with classroom approaches, Rogers described 13 personal thoughts on teaching and learning based on his own experiences (Maharg, 2000; Rogers, 1989). These thoughts make it apparent that Roger believed two types of learning exist: learning that does not significantly influence behaviour and learning that does. Rogers goes on to claim that the only learning which significantly influences behaviour is that which is self-directed and self-appropriated (Rogers, 1989).

Other themes found within Roger’s 13 personal thoughts include the idea that students are only interested in learning topics that have significance to themselves and that students can benefit greatly by focusing on their own metacognition processes (Rogers, 1989).

Many police researchers and practitioners advocate for the use of teaching methods that can be attributed to Rogers within training centres. The idea that students should play some role in deciding what is learned and how learning takes place is dependent on students having a natural desire to learn. A change in the role of the instructor from that of teacher to learning facilitator is also an idea put forward by Rogers. Both of these ideas are advocated for use in police education by Birzer (2003, 2004), Birzer and Tannehill (2001), Cleveland and Saville (2007), Dwyer and Laufersweiler-Dwyer (2004), and McCoy (2006).
As more became known regarding the needs of adult learners in general, police
colleagues of adult learners in general, police
preparation philosophy moved towards methods consistent with adult learning principles
(Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tennehill, 2001; Della, 2004; Dwyer & Lauferweiler-Dwyer, 2004;
Kennedy, 2003; Marenin, 2004). Few believe behaviourism and cognitivism have no place in
the education of police officers. However, many believe that a more humanistic approach will
allow student officers to build proficiency in non-academic competencies (problem solving,
critical thinking, etc.) as well as subject matter knowledge. A humanistic approach will also
more closely mirror the democratic ideals that officers are supposed to embody within society
(Marenin, 2004).

Originally formulated in 1833 by Kapp who used the term to describe elements of
Plato’s education theory, andragogy, originally from two Greek words (andr, meaning “man”
and, in a broader sense, “adult” and agogus, meaning “leader of”), is the art and science of
helping adults learn (Knowles, 1990; Davenport, 1993). As “the art and science of helping
adults learn” (Knowles, 1980, p. 43), andragogy is consistent with a humanistic approach to
education recognising the principle of adults being self-directed and responsible for their own
learning. Knowles suggests that andragogy is premised on five critical assumptions: self-
concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation to learn
(Knowles, 1984). Merriam and Brockett (2007) suggest that andragogy is a term that belongs
to adult education. According to Knowles (1980), the last principle of andragogy is the need
for immediate application of theory to practice and the related focus on problems as opposed
to content. The learning strategies employed in the Foundation Degree in policing is less
involved with theory and more focused on emphasising practical applications of knowledge
relevant to the real world (Patterson & Pegg, 1999). This humanist approach has been
described as a better framework for police education than either behaviourism or cognitivism
The concept of andragogy is not without its critics and much of criticism comes from how andragogy is classified. Cross (1992) suggests that “andragogy is probably closer to a theory of teaching than a theory of learning” (p.227), while Davenport and Davenport (1985) struggle with whether andragogy is a theory, a method, a technique or a set of assumptions. Hartree (1984) argues it is not clear whether andragogy is a theory or set of assumptions about learning, or a theory or model of teaching.

Knowles (1984, pp.55-61) outlines six assumptions of andragogy that are different from those of pedagogy:

1) The need to know. Adult learners seek out the importance attributed to a learning task before undertaking the task of learning. They need to understand why it is important to learn something, rather than simply that it is required of the teacher to earn a grade.

2) The learner's self-concept. Adults need to be seen as capable of self-direction because they see themselves as responsible for their own lives. They do not require the dependence of children.

3) The role of the learner's experience. Mature individuals accumulate an expanding reservoir of experience, which becomes an exceedingly rich resource in learning. Adults have a greater quantity as well as a different quality of experiences from which to draw in the learning process than do children.

4) Readiness to learn. Adults become ready to learn those things they need to know and be able to do in order to cope effectively with their current real-life situations.

5) Orientation to learning. Adults learn more effectively when knowledge, skills, attitudes, and understandings are presented in the context of application to real-life situations.
Adults are more life-centred (or task-centred or problem-centred), whereas children are more subject-centred (at least in school).

6) Motivation. Adults are more responsive to internal sources of motivation (e.g. job satisfaction, self-esteem, or quality of life) than to external sources of motivation (e.g. salary or promotion). Adults are motivated to continue growing and developing unless blocked by other barriers (e.g. negative self-concept as a student, time constraints, inaccessibility of opportunities or resources, or programs that violate principles of adult learning).

Birzer (2003, p.35) suggests both that “andragogy presents an opportunity to more appropriately facilitate police subjects in a real and experiential manner” and that “it is beneficial to make the training of police officers as experiential, interactive and participatory as possible”. The theory of andragogy applied to police education may therefore be a methodology to improve the teaching and learning situation. Birzer concludes that the changing nature of policing will assuredly create an expanded concept of training from predominantly behavioural to the promotion of andragogical education. Research, conducted by Vodde (2008, p. 288) into andragogical methodologies in police preparation, concluded that an andragogical instructional methodology is an effective means for preparing police officers in that it serves the mutual needs and interests of the police recruit, the police organization, and society at-large. It is a methodology in which recruits are equipped with the skill sets and competencies needed to meet the changing needs of a sophisticated, fast-paced, and ever-changing constituency.

In andragogy, the educational focus is on facilitating the acquisition of and critical thinking about the content and its application in real-life practical settings. Knowles (1980) also calls for learner control, measures of knowledge acquisition based upon performance standards, and the voluntary involvement of students in the learning activity. Given these
assumptions, it becomes necessary to consider andragogy within the framework of teaching styles in the setting of this Foundation Degree in Policing.

The purpose of the Foundation Degree is to integrate academic and work based learning (QAA, 2010). With that as a focus the Foundation Degree in Policing seeks to provide students with a work placement and an opportunity through work-based learning to gain practical experience of policing. For those students who do not complete a work based placement, they work together as a team of ‘senior ranking police officers’ in a management role to prepare and present a policing plan; thus providing real world experiences through an application of theory to practice and the related focus on problems for both parties of students. Throughout the course of the Foundation Degree, the model used is designed to integrate the formal knowledge preparation of pre-join police officers with relevant practical experiences, providing opportunities for reflection of and socialisation to the field.

Each of these approaches to learning has much to offer; in fact, each brings with it advantages and disadvantages. We think of these main dimensions of learning theories as four pillars for teaching. Students first understand and make sense of the material (constructivist); then they remember what they have understood (cognitive–information processing); and then they practice and apply their new skills and understanding to make them more fluid and automatic, and a permanent part of their repertoire (behavioural). All of these processes are embedded in social and cultural settings (humanist). Failure to attend to any part of the process may yield lower-quality learning.

The most widespread theory of learning from experience is associated with David Kolb (1984), who developed ideas from earlier models of experiential learning; the Kolb model appears most frequently in the literature. Experiential learning is based on the notion that understanding is not a fixed or unchangeable element of thought and experiences can contribute to its forming and re-forming. Experiential learning is a continuous process and
implies that we all bring to learning situations our own knowledge, ideas, beliefs and practices at different levels of elaboration that should in turn be amended or shaped by the experience, if we learn from it. Experience gained through life, education and work plays a central part in learning; this constructivist perspective on learning is also called experiential learning. The continuously cycling model of learning that has become known as the ‘Kolb Learning Cycle’ requires four kinds of abilities/undertaking if learning is to be successful (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1

*The Kolb Learning Cycle*

From the perspective that learning is the product of one’s experiences, a concept that is particularly relevant to the methods of andragogy and police education, Kolb (as cited in Jarvis & Griffin, 2003, Vol. IV, p.130) defines learning as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience”. Kolb further suggests that experiential learning theory represents a holistic and integrative approach to learning because it integrates four different elements: experience, perception, cognition, and behaviour – all of which are of
particular importance to police preparation. Kolb further contends that: “when learning is
conceived as a holistic adaptive process, it provides conceptual bridges across life situations
such as school and work, portraying learning as a continuous, lifelong process” (1984, p.
172). Conceptually, this is of interest to the processes experienced in police education.
Kolb's model gave rise to the Learning Style Inventory, an assessment method used to
determine an individual's learning style. An individual may exhibit a preference for one of the
four styles: Accommodating, Converging, Diverging, and Assimilating, depending on their
approach to learning via the experiential learning theory model.

Wolf and Kolb (1984) further suggested that learners develop different leaning styles
that emphasise preference for some models of learning over others leading to particular
characteristics. Other work which developed the ideas of learning styles and which has been
widely used is that of Honey and Mumford (1992) who modified Kolb's cycle and suggested
four learning styles corresponding to each of the stages:

Activists, who respond most positively to learning situations that offer challenge
and which include new experiences and problems.

Reflectors, who respond most positively to structured learning activities in which
time is provided to think, reflect and observe. Such learners prefer to work in a
detailed manner.

Theorists, who respond most positively to logical, rational structure, and clear
aims. They need time to explore ideas and the opportunity to question.

Pragmatists, who respond most positively to practically based, immediately
relevant learning activities which allow them to practice and make use of theory.

(1992,p.2006)
Table 4.4 plots the experiential learning theories of Wolf and Kolb (1984), Kolb (1984), and Honey and Mumford (1992) as a means to provide a visual representation of the differing learning styles presented by these theorists.

Table 4.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Convergent</td>
<td>Practical application of Ideas</td>
<td>Abstract Conceptualisation</td>
<td>Abstract Active</td>
<td>Theorist Activist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divergent</td>
<td>Imaginative ability and generation of ideas</td>
<td>Concrete Experience Reflective Observation</td>
<td>Concrete Reflective</td>
<td>Pragmatist Reflector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation</td>
<td>Creating theoretical models and making sense of disparate observations</td>
<td>Abstract Conceptualisation Reflective Observation</td>
<td>Abstract Reflective</td>
<td>Theorist Reflector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodative</td>
<td>Carrying out plans and tasks that involve new experiences</td>
<td>Active Experimentation Concrete Experience</td>
<td>Concrete Active</td>
<td>Pragmatist Activist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergers (Kolb, 1984; Sharp, 1997) are people who perceive reality through abstract conceptualisation, and process it through active experimentation. Their strength is applying ideas and they use deductive reasoning to arrive at answers (Kolb, 1984; Truluck & Courtney, 1999). Kolb (1984) describes the Divergent learning style as perceiving subject material concretely and processing it reflectively. One of the strengths of Divergers (Kolb,
1984; Truluck & Courtney, 1999) is the ability to view concrete situations from many different perspectives. Assimilators are similar to Divergers in the sense that both orientations process subject material reflectively. What makes the Assimilation learning style unique is that subject material is perceived abstractly. These people (Truluck & Courtney, 1999) tend to specialise in the science/social science areas. Accommodators are similar to Convergers in the sense that both orientations process subject material through active experimentation. The distinct difference between Convergers and Accommodators is how they perceive the material. Accommodators perceive reality through concrete experience. One of their main strengths is doing things and carrying out ideas as highlighted by Kolb (1984) and Truluck and Courtney (1999). Kolb (1976) claims that there is not one learning style that is effective in every possible situation, and that flexibility is essential.

Through analysis of the various learning styles and observing the applications of these theories within the classroom, I have reached the conclusion that in order to reach each student and maximise their potential, a variety of approaches should be used hand in hand. Despite its criticisms, behaviourism remains an important aspect of education (O'Hagan 2007) and in particular police education. My research has allowed me to consider my personal philosophy for teaching and pedagogy, and my observations have further enabled me to see the implications of learning theories and strategies on an individual student's development. Through distinguishing between practice, which appears to work effectively, and practice that may not, I recognise the importance of understanding the stage of development each student has reached and how my teaching must reflect that as a result.

**Classroom Social Environment**

The study of classroom environments has received increased interest by researchers and teachers during the past 35 years with attention in the research on adult learners and emphasising the importance of the learner's active role (Brookfield, 1988) and the belief that
students learn better when they perceive the classroom environment positively (Dorman, 2001). Researchers expanded their interests to include the influence of the teacher on student satisfaction, achievement, persistence, and retention (Beder & Carrea, 1988; Charkins, O'Toole & Wetzel, 1985; Conti, 1989; Conti & Welborn, 1986), and the effect of the classroom environment on decision-making and communication patterns, outcomes, persistence, course content, and satisfaction (Beder & Carrea, 1988; Beer & Darkenwald, 1989; Darkenwald & Gavin, 1987; Ennis et al., 1989; Fraser, 1998; Gorham, 1985; Lam, 1985). Considering the psychosocial dimensions -those aspects of the environment that focus on human behaviour in origin or outcome (Boy & Pine, 1988), the concept of environment, as applied to educational settings, refers to the atmosphere, ambience, tones or climate that pervades the particular setting.

The study of classroom social environment is an outgrowth of environment theory. Lewin (1935) developed the field theory and became a forerunner of the social environment/climate theory. He said that the environment was the field or “life space” and defined it as that which contains the “person and the psychological environment as it exists for him” (Lewin, 1951, p. xi). Components of the psychological environment include past and present experiences, feelings, the learner's character, motivation, cognitive structure, and ways of perceiving.

Fox, Luszki and Schmuck (1966) suggest many factors within the classroom environment influence a pupil’s motivation to learn. They propose, “The teacher can help pupils learn their academic subjects better when he (she) takes some of these factors into account” (p.3) and that assessing the classroom learning environment can assist the teacher in identifying the factors which affect students’ learning atmosphere and thus direct their efforts by encouraging them to improve academic motivations. Verner and Davidson (1982) further
suggest that for learning to occur successfully, the learner must be motivated to learn. They state:

Although an adult may possess all of the internal preconditions for learning, he or she may still fail because of conditions in the immediate learning situation over which he or she has no control. Adults are influenced by the environment in which they attempt to learn; this environment consists of the physical setting as well as the emotional atmosphere. If either is incompatible with the adult learner or the learning task, the probabilities of successful achievement will be diminished (p.10).

Some of the most extensive work on classroom environment measuring was completed by Rudolf Moos during the 1970’s; resulting in the Classroom Environment Scale (Moos, 1979) which was based on three essential areas of the classroom environment: the Relationship Dimension which focused on interpersonal relationships between students and students and the teacher; the Personal Development Dimension which examined the characteristics of the student; and the Systems Maintenance and Change Dimension which examined classroom control and order in the room. During the mid-1990’s, a shift in the measuring of the classroom environment took place with high-inference measure such as ‘What Is Happening in This Class’ (WIHIC) developed by Barry Fraser and others (Fraser, 2002). This scale focused on the student’s perceptions of the various dimensions of the classroom and was mapped to the dimensions of Moos’ schema. As theories of learning continue to evolve the need to create and validate more measures continues to grow.

The concept of social environment or climate has been figuratively defined by Moos (1979) as the personality of a classroom or other social group where the social environment is created by the characteristics and interactions of students and teacher. Since these characteristics and interactions vary no two classes can ever be exactly alike; a concept which is especially true of adult classes.
A review of classroom environment research by Fraser (1998), Dorman (2001), Khine and Fisher (2003), and Fisher and Khine (2006) describe at least ten areas of classroom environment research, including associations between classroom environment and outcomes, evaluation of educational innovations, differences between students’ and teachers’ perceptions of classrooms, comparisons of actual and preferred environments, effect on classroom environment of antecedent variables (e.g. gender, year, establishment type, subject), transition from lower to higher education, school psychology, student metacognition, teacher education and educational productivity research, and using environmental instruments to facilitate changes in classroom life. Various literature reviews (Chavez, 1984; Fraser, 1991, 1994; Fraser, 2011) suggest that there are three general approaches to the assessment of learning environments: (1) the use of trained observers to code events, usually in terms of explicit phenomena, (2) the use of student and teacher perceptions obtained through questionnaire administration, and (3) the use of ethnographic data collection methods. In general, the first two approaches have relied on quantitative data collection methods and statistical analyses. This piece of research has followed the second suggestion, making use of a questionnaire to gather information relative to the student perceptions of the classroom social environment.

The use of students’ perceptions to assess classroom environment can be linked conceptually to Lewin’s (1951) ‘field theory’ where behaviour is a function of the person and the environment, as it exists for that person. Results of studies linking environment to outcomes conducted over the past 30 years have provided convincing evidence that the quality of the classroom environment is a significant determinant of student learning (Fraser, 1998). That is, students learn better when they perceive the classroom environment more positively.
If, as social environment theory claims, behaviour is mainly the result of person-environment interactions; then understanding effective teaching styles necessitates a social-environmental perspective that includes recognition of the importance of a person-environment fit for student satisfaction and achievement. Consequently, there becomes a need for teachers to be aware that their effectiveness requires a flexible repertoire of teaching behaviours as conditions vary. Moos (1980) concluded from a review of secondary school social climate research that: “teachers are somewhat more important in creating classroom learning environments than students are” (p.246). What appears most important is not the matter of influence over the learning climate but teachers’ awareness that they and their adult students are mutually obligated to create optimal conditions for learning (Darkenwald, 1989).

The Classroom Environment Scale (CES), used to determine the classroom environments in a school setting (Trickett & Moos, 1973), led Darkenwald to conclude that the CES was invalid for assessing adult classroom climates. Consequently, the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) was developed. Like the CES, the ACES conceptualises the classroom environment “as a dynamic social system that includes not only teacher behaviour and teacher-student interaction but also student-student interaction” (Moos, 1979, p. 138). The ACES measures seven empirically based dimensions that describe a positive or growth-enhancing adult learning environment. It is this measurement tool, which forms the basis of discussions in chapter 6 and the issue of methodology. Table 4.5 presents the dimensions and scale description as set out by Darkenwald (1987).
### Table 4.5

Dimensions and Scale Description of the ACES Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Scale Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>The extent to which students like and interact positively with each other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Support</td>
<td>The extent of help, encouragement, concern and friendship that the teacher directs toward the students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Orientation</td>
<td>The extent to which the students and teacher maintain focus on tasks and value achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Goal</td>
<td>The extent to which the teacher is flexible, providing opportunities for students to pursue their individual interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attainment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation and Clarity</td>
<td>The extent to which class activities are clear and well organised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Influence</td>
<td>The extent to which the teacher is learner-centred and allows students to participate in course planning decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>The extent to which students are satisfied with class and participate actively and attentively in activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Much of the research conducted into the classroom environment by Moos (1979) suggested that teachers generally perceive the classroom environment as a more positive and growth enhancing environment than students, and that since student assessments of the classroom environment are more valid than those of individual teachers, it can be concluded that the majority of teachers do not know how their students experience the classroom social environment. This was supported by research conducted by Darkenwald in 1989 who concluded that teachers could benefit from in-service preparation in order to create awareness of their students’ preferred learning environment and to identify discrepancies between student and teacher perceptions of classroom social environments. Research conducted by Bartholomay (1996) determined that teachers perceived more of every scale of ACES than the total group of students; suggesting there to be significant differences between the students
and teachers in their perception of the classroom environment. In the context of police education and making use of ACES in their research, Olivia and Crompton (2010) found in their study of the classroom social environment in law enforcement education that the classroom does not always foster the preferred classroom environment, concluding that teachers of police officers should consider student preferences for the classroom social environment when preparing, delivering and evaluating their course, together with selecting methods that engage students, maintain their interest, and provide opportunities for practical application.

Research conducted into the nature and quality of interpersonal relationships between teachers and students (Wubbels & Brekelmans, 1998; Wubbels & Levy, 1993) has shown that healthy teacher-student relationships are a prerequisite for engaging students in learning activities, while Brok, Brekelmans and Wubbels (2004) found that students’ perceptions of the teacher are strongly related to achievement and motivation in all subject areas. As suggested by Ames (1992) and Corrie (1997), effective teaching and learning can only take place where there is good order and a positive learning climate in the classroom, their view is that discipline within the classroom creates the necessary conditions for learning. Such elements become necessary considerations for the maintenance of a positive teaching and learning environment within the Foundation Degree in Policing. Given that the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) was created to assess adult classroom climates (Darkenwald, 1989) and is the only scale developed to measure the social environment of adult education classrooms in general (Langenbach & Aagaard, 1990), it became the chosen study method in this research study.

The major purpose of this chapter was to present the theoretical elements that support the approaches applied to education, teaching and learning in the context of the Foundation Degree with specific discussion on teaching and learning styles.
Having established the premise on which education and learning takes place within the Foundation Degree, the following chapter will provide an understanding of the methodology used in this research into the classroom social environment before presenting the findings of the student experience of the Foundation Degree in Policing at UCLan and the social characteristics of such course.
Chapter 5
Research design, methodology and ethical considerations

This study investigated, over a three-year period, the perceived preferences of first year cohort students enrolled on a police Foundation Degree at the University of Central Lancashire in relation to the social classroom environment as well as teaching and learning. This study can therefore be characterised as non-experimental descriptive quantitative research; specifically, a longitudinal trend survey study. In this type of study, a general population is sampled and studied over time in order to know attitudes, perceptions, opinions, etc., in which the population studied does not remain the same (Vogt, 2005). Samples, while different, represent the general population (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Adler and Clarke (2014) suggest that a trend study is longitudinal in design through the selection of a new probability sample from the same population for two or more data collections. This design is further supported by Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2014) who indicate that the trend survey involves a random sample each year on the same topic and is longitudinal involving the collection of data at different points in time to study change over time. This chapter presents information on the procedures used to conduct this study; including the population, sampling strategy, ethical considerations for conducting research, instrumentation, and data analysis.

Problem Statement

As presented in chapter one, with an increasing number of selected colleges of further education and higher education establishments preparing to deliver police pre-employment preparation, these elements need to be studied so as to provide those organisations with research-based information to make effective decisions. Therefore, the aim of this research is to understand the social dimensions of the classroom environment on a police Foundation Degree course at the University of Central Lancashire.
The nature of this research, consequently, becomes increasingly important because it provides guidance to those involved in the pre-employment education of policing students regarding the social environment in which it takes place. Inferences from the result of this study could be generalized to other university courses offering the same or a similar course of study and this may help provide a more effective and solid pre-employment formation to police recruits.

While much work has been completed examining the role of Higher Education courses in police education (Patterson, 2011; Cordner & Shain, 2011; Truxillo Bennett & Collins, 1998; Pepper & McGrath, 2010), Bayley (2011) suggests that Higher Education often shows no interest in trying to measure its effectiveness; that is, how well policing students actually learn. Although some prior work has focused on the school-level environment in colleges and universities (Walberg & Anderson, 1968; Moos, 1979; Fraser, Anderson & Walber, 1982; Fraser & Treagust, 1986; Fraser, Treagust & Dennis, 1986; Moos & Trickett, 1987; Fraser, 1990), surprisingly little work has been done in higher education classrooms which is parallel to the traditions of classroom environment research at the secondary and primary school levels (Fraser, 1998).

What is already known is the role that Higher Education takes in police education but not the social context in which such education takes place. Therefore, the intent of this descriptive research is to produce statistical information regarding aspects of the classroom environment that would be of interest to policy makers and educators.

**Research Objectives**

Since the purposes of this study were: a) to establish the perceptions of human interactions and social dimensions of the classroom environment (social classroom preferences) of policing students studying a police Foundation Degree course (FdSc), and b)
to identify the differences in students’ teaching preferences in relation to the seven distinct social factors proposed by Darkenwald (1989), the objectives of this research were:

- To identify the prevailing social characteristics of a police Foundation Degree course at the University of Central Lancashire.
- To establish the student perception of the social environment of the classroom.
- To identify what pre join trainers (learners) value in the classroom in terms of the social environment and student values.
- To establish the extent to which answers to the above questions can be used to improve the classroom environment.

**Research Design**

This study followed a non-experimental descriptive quantitative research, specifically a longitudinal trend survey study where the population is sampled at different moments and, although the samples are different, they represent the general population (Wiersma and Jurs, 2009; Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2014; Adler and Clarke, 2014).

The design was selected because one of the main advantages of quantitative methods is precisely the possibility of making comparisons and enabling generalisations. Quantitative research establishes statistically significant conclusions about a population by studying a representative sample of the population (Cresswell, 2013). When the population consists of the entire group being studied, it does not matter if the population is broad or narrow, only that it includes every individual that fits the description of the group being studied. Since it is impractical to conduct a census (the inclusion of everyone in the population) because of resource constraints, a representative sample is chosen from the population. If chosen properly, the sample will be statistically identical to the population and conclusions for the sample can be inferred to the population (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2012).
Depending upon the desired outcome of the research, social scientists may choose between quantitative or qualitative designs. Since they seek to explain events from different perspectives, both are valid ways to evaluate a phenomenon in the proper context (Lowhorn, 2007). While this can explain the popularity of surveys, it can also present some limitations. As highlighted in chapter 1, student outcomes have characteristically been studied using quantitative approaches based on educational measurement traditions, whereas classroom processes or environment have usually involved qualitative approaches involving informal observation, interview, etc. (Fraser, 1986). Admittedly, quantitative measures have well-known limitations (Cresswell, 2013), with just one example being that quantitative data collection can ignore very important human elements; however, this approach was adopted in order to collect data in an easy and economical fashion and also eliminate any possible subjectivity derived from the different roles I held in the process. In the qualitative and mixed-methods approach, the role of the researcher is more active and might have implied biases for the data collection and analyses.

Classroom environment has been studied extensively in the past 30 years (Li, 1999). This study was conducted through the use of the Classroom Environment Scale (CES) as devised by Rudolf Moos (1979), and later adapted by Darkenwald (1989) and Darkenwald and Valentine (1986) as the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES). Predominantly, two inventories are used in these assessments: Moos’ Classroom Environment Scale and Darkenwald’s Adult Classroom Environment Scale. Moos’ research contributed significantly to the conceptual framework of classroom environment, in that his observations on the social environment of a classroom revealed that the socio-ecological system influenced both teacher behaviour and student behaviour (Darkenwald, 1987). Moos (1980) identified three theoretical domains in classroom environment: relationship domain, personal growth or goal-orientation domain, and system-maintenance and change domain. His research on classroom
environment is supported by research on student achievements and instructional methods (Brown, 1991). Darkenwald’s Adult Classroom Environment Scale was designed specifically to assess the adult classroom social environment (1987). Based on the previous research done in classroom environment (Levin, 1936; Moos; 1980; Murray, 1947), Darkenwald extracted seven dimensions in classroom social environment of adult learners: involvement, affiliation, teacher’s support, task orientation, personal goal attainment, organization and clarity, and student influence (Darkenwald, 1989). As highlighted in Chapter 5, the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) is the only scale developed to measure the social environment of adult education classrooms in general (Langenbach & Aagaard, 1990) and this was the main reason for choosing it as the study method.

**Population and Sample**

The target population for this study were students undertaking a Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire (Burnley Campus) across three separate first year cohort intakes (2010-2011, 2011-2012, 2012-2013). Students from each cohort were invited to participate; all those who agreed to do so were included in the survey. The sample was selected through the use of a non-random sampling method; more specifically volunteer sampling in which the whole population of each cohort was invited to participate and the sample was made with those students who agreed to answer the survey. Although volunteer sampling tends to be biased because participants select themselves instead of being chosen by the survey administrator (Smith & Albaum, 2012), in this case that source of biases was diminished by the high percentage of the whole population of each cohort that decided to participate in the study: 63.88% in 2010, 86.84% in 2011, and 87.87% in 2012 for a total of 79.44% in the three-year study. The size of 85 participants out of a total population of 107 possible units implies a confidence level of 95% and a margin error of 5%. Therefore, it can be assumed that the range of scores of the survey answers would have been very similar to
the larger group if the whole population of the three Foundation Degree courses investigated had been tested.

Furthermore, as Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) state, some form of non-random scheme is the most common choice used in both quantitative and qualitative studies. Such predominance of non-random samples is related to the fact that most studies in social sciences cannot be done under experimental conditions in which pure random selection is expected. Whilst it cannot be denied that such sampling techniques may not produce a representative response, Davidson (2006) contends that some of the most influential and interesting qualitative research has nevertheless been conducted on this basis.

The sample comprised in year one (2010) 36 students were invited to participate and 23 (7 female, 16 male) took part in the survey. In year two (2011), 38 students were asked to participate, 33 took part (18 female, 15 male). In year three (2012), 33 students were invited to participate, 29 took part (11 female, 18 male), as presented in Table 5.1. A total of n=85 (90.95%) students out of a sample of 107 responded to the survey.

Table 5.1
Gender Frequencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year in University</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Participants</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Invited</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Respondents’ ages ranged between 18 and 35 years with the average age of 20.1 years, as indicated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

**Number of Respondents by Age**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Histogram of Age</strong></td>
<td><strong>Normal</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>20.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StDev</td>
<td>2.623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Procedures**

In the initial stages, research was carried out to determine the most likely instrument to achieve the research aims; the researcher-designed instrument stemmed from the review of literature. A letter was sent to the teaching staff of the first year group to gain their permission and cooperation for the survey to take place in their class (Appendix B) during the second semester of year one studies. Prior to implementation, a final review of the questionnaire was carried out as a pilot study with six students on the second year of the Foundation Degree who were invited to critique the survey’s format and contents.
The non-random sampling technique of volunteer sampling was used to determine the study group. Probability methods choose samples using random selection where every member of the population has an equal chance of selection; however, some types of non-random sampling still aim to achieve a degree of representativeness without using random methods (Davidson, 2006). Several different techniques are associated with this approach; for example, accidental or convenience sampling, snowball sampling, volunteer sampling, quota sampling, and theoretical sampling. Volunteer sampling relies on individuals or groups of individuals volunteering to be the subjects of research. A key problem with volunteer sampling is representativeness insofar as it is difficult to establish the extent to which those who volunteer to participate are typical of the group to which findings are to be generalized (Jupp, 2006). However, those who did participate in this research study were typical of the group, as it was discussed above, to which findings could be generalized.

Final questionnaires (Appendix C), together with participant information sheet (Appendix D) and consent form (Appendix E) were provided to the teaching staff and sent out to class. Teaching staff were asked to distribute the questionnaire at the end of class and to encourage students to read the contents on the consent form and the research information sheet, which outlined the study and its purpose. Information was provided to ensure voluntary and anonymous participation. Participants were also directed not to provide any information, which could result in their identification; specifically their name on the research instrument. Students were asked to sign the consent form before they took the survey.

After the study was introduced and the consent process reviewed, following class time, students were encouraged to complete the survey in their own time though they were reminded that participation in the study was purely voluntary. Students were asked to return the survey instrument in a return envelope, which was included in their survey pack. These envelopes were made available in the classroom and used to collect the research instrument.
The envelopes were returned to the administration office of the campus, a neutral venue, which the envelopes were addressed to. For subsequent cohort groups, the same process was followed.

The study was undertaken over a three-year period each February (the second semester of the first year of studies) from 2010 to 2012 with a total of 85 students across three cohort intakes over the three-year period taking part. Throughout the process of data collection, no personal identification information (i.e. name) was collected from survey participants. Each subject was assigned an identification number for the purposes of data entry. Numeric coding was assigned to background variables including gender, ethnicity, and university year. Background data indicating age was entered as a whole number into the database. Other coding procedures were used to distinguish the various subscale items of the research instrument. There was no incentive given to the students to encourage them to take the survey. Students who did not desire to participate in the survey process had the option not to participate.

**Instrument**

In order to answer the research questions, items of the survey were categorised into dimensions. Table 5.3 describes the seven dimensions divided between the two primary types of classroom aspects under investigation.
Table 5.3

Dimensions of the Research Instrument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Environment</td>
<td>Affiliation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student Influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Values</td>
<td>Teacher Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Task Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisation and Clarity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The theoretical basis supporting the researcher-designed instrument stemmed from a review of literature of the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) which, Darkenwald (1989) created to assess adult classroom climates and is stated by Langenbach and Aagaard (1990) to be the only scale developed to measure the social environment of adult education classrooms in general.

The information presented in Table 5.4 provides an illustration of how the survey questions were linked with the research objectives to ensure validity of the questions.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Objective</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To identify the prevailing social characteristics of a police Foundation Degree</td>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>A1 – A9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>course at the University of Central Lancashire.</td>
<td>Personal Goal</td>
<td>PG1 – PG7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student Influence</td>
<td>SI1 – SI7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>I1 – I7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher Support</td>
<td>TS1 – TS7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Task Orientation</td>
<td>TO1 – TO7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisation and</td>
<td>OC1 – OC7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clarity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To establish the student perception of the social environment of the classroom.</td>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>A1 – A9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Goal</td>
<td>PG1 – PG7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student Influence</td>
<td>SI1 – SI7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>I1 – I7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To identify what pre join trainers (learners) value in the classroom in terms of</td>
<td>Teacher Support</td>
<td>TS1 – TS7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the social environment and student values.</td>
<td>Task Orientation</td>
<td>TO1 – TO7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisation and</td>
<td>OC1 – OC7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clarity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Prior to implementation, a pilot study with second-year students from a previous cohort group pre-tested the instrument's reliability and validity. In order to be useful in answering the research questions posed in this study, the questionnaire needed to have both validity and reliability. Validity of a data collection instrument refers to the degree to which it measures what it is designed to measure (Ary, Jacobs, Asghar, & Sorensen, 2009). Validity can be broken down into construct, criterion, and content validity. Construct validity refers to the ability of a test to measure the intended theoretical construct (Ary et al., 2009). Construct validity was originally established for ACES by review of the questionnaire by adult education professionals from across the United States (Conti, 1978). Criterion validity refers
to the results of the measurement tool in question matching the results of another measurement tool previously shown to be valid (Ary et al., 2009). In the case of ACES, criterion validity was shown by comparing this questionnaire to the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC), which measures the same constructs as other surveys but through observation of practitioners in the field through the study of what is happening in a classroom when a teacher teaches (Conti, 1989).

Content validity refers to the ability of a data collection tool to measure the intended content area (Ary et al., 2009). Content validity for ACES was established through field testing of the instrument with 57 adult education practitioners and correlating each item in the questionnaire to the criterion measure of the total score (Conti, 1985). Previous use of the ACES with children and adults, in face-to-face learning situations only, demonstrated that it is a reliable and valid indicator of students' perceptions of classroom environment (Freddolino & Sutherland, 2000). The present study found similar high internal consistency (Cronbach alpha=.80).

A unique feature of the ACES is that it includes items referencing both teacher behaviour and student behaviour, which makes it an appropriate and valid measure of the balanced environment one would seek to create in a higher education setting (Darkenwald, 1989). The questionnaire collected demographic data and posed questions requiring responses on a Likert scale. The response categories for a Likert scale item have a quantitative relationship in which consecutive scores are assigned to consecutive categories ranging from a code or value of 5, assigned to the most positive response to a code of 1, which is assigned to the most negative response. The scoring weights for each item range from 1 to 5. The range of possible scores, on a questionnaire with fifty-one items, is 51 to 255, with 255 (strongly agree) representing the most positive responses, 51 (strongly disagree) representing the most negative responses, and 153 (undecided) being the neutral
point. Likert scaling, a type of composite measure, “is based on the assumption that the overall score, based on responses to the many items seeming to reflect the variable under consideration, provides a reasonably good measure of the variable” (Babbie, 2002, p. 164-165).

The Likert style questionnaire, with fifty-one items, used in this study was designed to collect information relative to the classroom dynamics and the classroom environment (see Appendix C). The questionnaire followed the subscales of the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) developed by Darkenwald and Valentine (1987) and examined the following aspects and dimensions:

(a) Social Environment

Affiliation (A): the extent students like and interact positively with each other;

Personal Goal Attainment (PG): the extent to which the teacher is flexible, providing opportunities for students to pursue their individual interests;

Student Influence (SI): the extent to which the teacher is learner-centred and allows students to participate in course planning decisions;

Involvement (I): the extent to which students are satisfied with the class and participate actively and attentively in activities.

(b) Student Values:

Teacher Support (TS): the extent of help, encouragement, concern and friendship the teacher directs towards students.

Task Orientation (TO): the extent to which students and the teacher maintain focus on the task and value achievement.

Organisation and Clarity (OC): the extent to which class activities are clear and well organised.
With the objective of increasing the reliability of responses, multiple questions were
designed to measure the same attitude or opinion from different perspectives, which is
sometimes referred to as a scale of measure. Scales are constructed “by assigning scores to
patterns of responses, recognizing that some items reflect a relatively weak degree of the
variable while others reflect something stronger” (Babbie, 2002, p.147-148). These were
distributed throughout the questionnaire “so that a respondent had to consider each question
individually rather than simply falling into a response pattern syndrome” (Orlich, 1978, p.
65).

Furthermore, some of these questions were composed with reverse wording to
eliminate a response bias on the part of the respondent. When such questions were used, an
affirmative response toward an issue was coded in one direction, e.g., it received a code of 5,
while a negative response was coded in the opposite direction receiving a code or value of 1
(as presented in Table 5.5).

Likert recommended constructing scales to balance the item wording and phrase
approximately half the items in the reverse (Salkind & Rasmussen, 2006). The
recommendation to use reverse scaling continues because many in the field of psychometrics
believe that the inclusion of reverse coded items motivates participants to process items more
carefully and accommodates participants who wish to vary their responses and not always
provide the same answer. If participants misinterpret a reverse coded item, then the score
used in the analysis is not a true measure; in fact, the score is in error by the maximum
amount detected on the scale (i.e., a score of 1 instead of a score of 5). When designing
questionnaires, there is a tradition of including items with both positive and negative wording
to minimize acquiescence and extreme response biases. Two disadvantages of this approach
are respondents accidentally agreeing with negative items (mistakes) and researchers
forgetting to reverse the scales (miscoding).
In order to address the possibility of miscoding, I labelled variables and entered the scores as normal, i.e., as if no items were reverse coded, and then through use of the tabulate into reverse order was able to transform the data with the reverse coding. I found this to be a safer and more efficient method than to mentally reversing the scores for certain items and entering them as reversed in case a mistake was made along the way.

Table 5.5

Negative Scored Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affiliation</th>
<th>A3</th>
<th>A few students dominate the discussions in the class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A6</td>
<td>Students seldom interact with one another during class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A9</td>
<td>Students in the class learn little from one other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>TS1</td>
<td>The teacher makes little effort to help the students succeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>TS2</td>
<td>The teacher talks down to students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>TO3</td>
<td>Students often discuss things not related to course content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>TO7</td>
<td>The class is more a social hour than a place to learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Goal</td>
<td>PG2</td>
<td>Many students think that the class is not relevant to their lives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attainment</td>
<td>PG3</td>
<td>The teacher expects every student to learn the exact same things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation and Clarity</td>
<td>OC4</td>
<td>The class lacks a clear sense of direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OC6</td>
<td>Students do not know what is expected of them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>SI3</td>
<td>The teacher makes all the decisions in the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>SI3</td>
<td>The teacher sticks to the lesson plan regardless of student interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SI7</td>
<td>The teacher insists that you do things his or her way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>I1</td>
<td>Students are often bored in class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I6</td>
<td>A few students dominate the discussions in the class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A written questionnaire was considered the most appropriate method of inquiry for meeting the research requirements. Closed or Structured Questionnaires as a quantitative method of research were advocated by Emile Durkheim (1858 - 1917) as a positivist research method. Questionnaires are particularly suited to obtaining a structured data set (De Vaus, 2001), gaining a broad perspective of the issues (Bullock et al. 1992), and describing a
population too large to be directly observed (Babbie, 2002). They are a common research instrument to measure behaviours and perceptions in the social sciences (Bradburn, Sudman & Wansink, 2004). Written questionnaires are considered to be more practical, reliable, cost effective, and consistent in the delivery of information provided to participants (Babbie, 2002).

Structured questionnaires of this type fall under the umbrella of a quantitative methodology which has its roots in the scientific philosophy of the ‘so counted’ (Bullock et al. 1992; Williams, 2003). Its focus is generally on the macro perspective (Bullock et al. 1992; Punch, 2012). The standardised structure of questionnaires enables the data to be produced in the same format (Burns, 2000) and for the same set of variables to be measured with a large population (Babbie, 2002). Patton (1990, p.14) states “the advantage of a quantitative approach is that it’s possible to measure the reactions of a great many people to a limited set of questions, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of data”.

Finally, quantitative research consists of research processes that can be checked and replicated (Gomm, 2008) and provides results that can be generalised about the sample population.

I also considered the disadvantages of questionnaires; recognising that questionnaires do not allow for a detailed exploration of people’s experiences, thoughts and opinions. Nor do they allow for the inclusion and exploration of new ideas or for the clarification of participants’ questions (Hoyle, Stephenson, Palmgreen, Lorch & Donohew, 2002). Finally, Hoyle et al. (2002) note that there is no control over how participants may respond to the questionnaire, including who they may consult, the order in which they complete it, and whether they, in fact, return the document at all.

According to Grover and Couper (1996), reductions in non-response and its errors should be based on a theory of survey participation. This theory argues that a person's
decision to participate in a survey generally occurs during the first moments of interaction with an interviewer or the text. Groves and Couper therefore suggest four types of influences that affect a potential respondent's decision of whether or not to cooperate in a survey. First, potential respondents are influenced by two factors that the researcher cannot control: by their social environments and by their immediate households. Second, potential respondents are influenced by two factors the researcher can control: the survey design and the interviewer. To minimize non-response, Groves and Couper suggest that researchers manipulate the two factors they can control, the survey design and the interviewer. Given that this study would be conducted through the use of a self-administered questionnaire, I sought to control the design through use of the pilot test.

I accept that response errors can distort the result of a survey; unfortunately, according to Fox and Tracy (1986), response bias is difficult to eliminate. I sought to reduce response order bias and response set errors during development of the survey questionnaire through inclusion of negative questions.

I was considerate of the fact that a reminder notice may be required to trigger members’ participation. In the case of the questionnaire circulated within the police-training environment three reminders were made before I considered that no useful data would be forthcoming.

I chose to use a matrix questionnaire as a layout and as a means to combine several items. As a survey technique, this can shorten the time required to complete a questionnaire by grouping questions with a similar focus into a single large item (Walonick 2013).

A difficulty with a matrix questionnaire is that it can seem deceptively simple as a grid with topics listed on the left side, and available responses listed across the top. The respondent reacts to the pattern by going too fast, committing errors along the way, and resulting in misleading data (Sax, 1996). To counter this, Sax suggests that questionnaires
should be constructed in a way, which maintains the respondents’ attention and helps them to provide information. Taking these factors into consideration, the decision was taken to gather the data through use of a questionnaire so that responses could be gathered in a standardised way and for ease of analysis through statistical methods. It was also considered that the questionnaire would provide data, which was not directly observable, i.e. student perceptions of the classroom environment (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996).

I attempted to ensure sensitivity to the wording, format, and layout of the questionnaire, and to the need to have clear instructions for its completion. Berdie, Anderson and Niebuhr (1986) suggest that a well-planned and carefully constructed questionnaire will increase the response rate and facilitate the summarisation and analysis of data.

To add to participant confidence of the questionnaire, confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed for the participants (Babbie, 2002). This measure was considered to encourage honest answers; thereby, enhancing the ability of the questionnaire to measure what it was designed to measure and to do so on repeated occasions.

As indicated earlier, the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) was created to assess adult classroom climates (Darkenwald, 1989). It is the only scale developed to measure the social environment of adult education classrooms in general (Langenbach & Aagaard, 1990, p. 95). Moos’(1979) classroom environment theory was used in the development of the ACES where the dimensions could be classified into his three proposed domains: (a) relationship, (b) personal development, and (c) system maintenance and change (Langenbach & Aagaard, 1990).

Darkenwald and Valentine’s (1986) ACES development was an attempt to obtain a valid instrument for use in classroom environment research with adult learners. The ACES conceptualizes the classroom environment as a dynamic social system that includes teacher
behaviour, teacher-student interaction, and also student-student interaction (Darkenwald, 1989). Two forms of the ACES were produced: Real and Ideal. The Real form refers to student perceptions of the real or actual classroom environment as students experience it. The ideal form, in contrast, assesses how participants characterise their preferred classroom environment. The ACES is self-administered and consists of forty-nine items, seven items for each of the seven dimensions. Both forms contain identical items, but different directions. Either form can be administered to both teachers and students (Darkenwald, 1989). The Real form of the ACES was used in this study.

The ACES measures seven empirically derived dimensions that describe a growth-enhancing adult learning environment (Beer & Darkenwald, 1989). The ACES contains 51 items, comprised of seven 7-item and one 9-item subscales in a five-choice format ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (Beer & Darkenwald, 1989). The following seven dimensions are included in the ACES: (a) affiliation (student interaction and cohesion); (b) teacher support (teacher sensitivity and support); (c) task orientation (focus and accomplishments); (d) personal goal attainment (relevance and flexibility); (e) organization and clarity (simply organization and clarity); (f) student influence (collaborative planning and teacher non-authoritarianism); and (g) involvement (student attentiveness, participation, and satisfaction) (Langenbach & Aagaard, 1990).

Cronbach’s alpha was computed for each subscale, with subscale reliabilities ranging from barely satisfactory (.58) to very high (.89) (Darkenwald & Valentine, 1986, p. 78). Total scale reliabilities were uniformly high (Darkenwald & Valentine, 1986). With respect to discriminate validity, inter-correlations among the seven subscales generally were low to moderate, implying that they do not measure the same thing (Darkenwald & Valentine, 1986).
An alpha coefficient of 0.7-0.8 indicates acceptable internal consistency and reliability, i.e. the mean scores for each domain, can be used to create a well-fitting overall questionnaire score (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). As presented in Table 5.6, the final column indicates how the alpha coefficient would change if a particular domain was removed, upon removal of any of the domains the alpha coefficient would decrease; suggesting all the domains are required to generate an overall score. Taking the average of all the mean scores for each domain creates the overall score.

Table 5.6
Test scale = mean (unstandardized items)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Obs</th>
<th>Sign</th>
<th>Item-test correlation</th>
<th>Item-rest correlation</th>
<th>Average inter-item covariance</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AMean</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0.6428</td>
<td>0.5161</td>
<td>.0821544</td>
<td>0.7723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSMean</td>
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<td>0.6054</td>
<td>0.4634</td>
<td>.0837189</td>
<td>0.7803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOMean</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0.5899</td>
<td>0.4323</td>
<td>.0837899</td>
<td>0.7857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGMean</td>
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<td>+</td>
<td>0.6614</td>
<td>0.5137</td>
<td>.0784161</td>
<td>0.7715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCMean</td>
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<td>+</td>
<td>0.7157</td>
<td>0.5972</td>
<td>.0763632</td>
<td>0.7574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIMean</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0.6511</td>
<td>0.4854</td>
<td>.0779509</td>
<td>0.7778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMean</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0.8170</td>
<td>0.6893</td>
<td>.0618349</td>
<td>0.7342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.0777469</td>
<td>0.7957</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, prior to implementation, a review of the questionnaire was carried out as a pilot study with six students on the second year of the Foundation Degree. They were invited to critique the survey’s format and contents. This provided important feedback on how well respondents would understand the wording of the questions. Following which I took into account their remarks and made a few minor (grammatical) changes, which were considered necessary. Lavrakas (2008) suggests that before administering a questionnaire to the actual
sample of respondents, it is necessary to carry out at least one pre-test (pilot test) to verify that it is well understood and does not yield obvious bias effects.

Validity of the Study

Validity represents the truthfulness of findings (Altheide & Johnson, 1994), or as Lincoln and Guba (1985) attempted to translate for the dominant, and somewhat hostile, scientific community regarding the merits of qualitative research: internal validity to credibility, external validity to transferability, reliability to dependability, and objectivity to confirmability. Research can suffer from a wide range of potential threats to internal and external validity, which have been discussed extensively in the literature (Campbell & Stanley, 1966; Cook & Campbell, 1979). In this section, two of the main threats to internal validity faced in my research are outlined followed by areas of external threat.

I considered the following items to be of relevance to the internal validity of the study: Instrumentation and compensation. Instrumentation refers to possible changes that may occur during the study due to the way the dependent variable was measured. Instructions provided for completion, and submission of the research instrument, were consistent. Instrumental bias takes place when the measuring instrument that is used in a study changes over time. In this piece of research, the instrument used was consistently applied. The Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES), created to assess adult classroom climates (Darkenwald, 1989) and used in this research, is the only scale developed to measure the social environment of adult education classrooms in general (Langenbach & Aagaard, 1990). Compensation is another possible influence on the internal validity of a study, but no compensation was offered to participants who chose to take part in the study.

Population validity and ecological validity were also considered to be of relevance to the external validity of the study. In 1966, Campbell and Stanley proposed the commonly accepted definition of external validity “external validity asks the question of
generalizability: To what populations, settings, treatment variables and measurement variables can this effect be generalized?” (p.5). This study is characterised as a non-experimental descriptive quantitative research, from which a representative sample from the population were used so that the results of studying the sample can then be generalized back to the population. The size of 85 participants, out of a total population of 107 possible units, implies a confidence level of 95% and a margin error of 5%. Therefore, it can be assumed that the range of scores of the survey answers would have been very similar to the larger group if the whole population of the three Foundation Degree courses investigated had been tested thus negating a threat to external validity.

**Data Analysis**

Data collected for this study was analysed to meet the objectives of this study and the data management tool, Stata V.13.1, was used in preparation for analysis. A variety of statistical methods were employed. Throughout the analysis, descriptive statistics were given (means and standard deviations for numerical variables, percentages and raw numbers for categorical variables). Student’s t-test (to determine if two sets of data are significantly different from each other and if the variation between two groups is ‘significant’), ANOVA (provides a statistical test of ‘variation’ among and between groups), and the Chi-Squared test (a statistical test commonly used to compare observed data with data expected to be obtained according to a specific hypothesis) were used appropriately; that is, for numerical variables split by two categories, numerical variables split by more than two categories, and tabulations of a categorical variable by another categorical variable, respectively. Additionally, correlation coefficients (which measures the degree to which two variables are linearly related), principal components analysis (PCA) and factor analysis (FA) were statistical techniques used for data reduction or structure detection. These factors allowed for the condensing of the number of variables in the analysis by combining several variables into one
factor), cluster analysis (the task of grouping a set of objects in such a way that objects in the same group or cluster are more similar to each other than to those in other groups), and multiple linear regression techniques (which attempts to model the relationship between two or more explanatory variables and a response variable by fitting a linear equation to observed data) were also used.

**Ethics**

In the context of this research, the topic of ethics had a number of facets, which required consideration including that of being an 'insider researcher' in a number of ways: as a former police officer, as a lecturer, and as a researcher. Negotiating my roles as both a lecturer on a policing foundation degree and as a researcher became an on-going process of reflecting on my positioning and understandings in order to maintain professional integrity and the integrity of my research (Bell & Nutt, 2002). Ethical guidelines for researchers concerning participants’ rights to confidentiality, protection and privacy are now well established (Davison, 2004).

I approached this study not only as a person involved in full-time academic work for a little over three years, but also having served as a police officer for 30 years in a large metropolitan police service, during which I became involved in my own academic pursuit. The previous experiences I have had with my own personal development and police training led me to personal and critical reflection on the work undertaken within the ‘service’ to develop staff into a professional workforce capable of delivering the most efficient and effective service desired by those communities it seeks to serve. This in turn led me to undertake the role I currently have in the delivery of a Foundation Degree in Policing and the teaching of potential police officers.

As indicted in chapter 1, I am an ‘insider’ in relation to this study which brings with it drawbacks and advantages. My ‘insider knowledge’ helped me to understand the language
and conventions, providing me with an understanding of the setting as well as a “feel for the
game and the hidden rules” (Bourdieu, 1988, p.27). However, there was the need for me to
challenge my assumptions brought about, because of this ‘insider knowledge’, in order for
me to search for new and underlying meanings experienced by the students. In considering
the nature of this study, I attempted to stand back from any shared experience so that I could
‘make the familiar strange’ (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). It was also important for me to
reflect upon the identities (Mercer, 2007) and ‘status sets’ (Merton, 1972) that I brought to
this research project, as a former police officer, lecturer, student, and researcher. Gee (2001)
suggests that the concept of identity can be best characterized as an on-going process; a
process of interpreting oneself as a certain kind of person and being recognized as such in a
given context. In this context, then, identity can also be seen as an answer to a frequent
question: ‘Who am I at this moment?’ I found that I had to immerse myself into the role of
researcher and put all other considerations to one side rather than allow them to surface and
influence decisions or outcomes and, while difficult at times, it became necessary in order not
to create any bias in my interpretation of data.

There has been debate about the benefits and drawbacks of researchers being from the
communities they study. Merton (1972), for example, summarized two opposing views as
the Outsider Doctrine and the Insider Doctrine. The Outsider Doctrine values researchers
who are not from the communities they study as neutral, detached observers. Similar to
Simmel’s (1950) portrayal of the stranger, outsider researchers are valued for their
objectivity, “which permits the stranger to experience and treat even his close relationships as
though from a bird’s-eye view” (Cited by Longhofer & Winchester, 2013, p.449).

The Outsider Doctrine challenges the ability of insider researchers to analyse clearly
that of which they are a part. The Insider Doctrine, on the other hand, holds that outsider
researchers will never truly understand a culture or situation if they have not experienced it.
The Insider Doctrine further contends that insider researchers are uniquely positioned to understand the experiences of groups of which they are members.

Previous examinations of the effects of ‘insider’ and ‘outsider’ researchers have noted the particular challenges and benefits associated with each. Insider researchers are often able to engage research participants more easily and use their shared experiences to gather a richer set of data (Dwyer & Buckle 2009). However, they may find it difficult to separate their personal experiences from those of research participants (Kanuha, 2000), confront questions about potential bias in their research (Serrant-Green, 2002), and face issues of confidentiality when interviewing members of their community about sensitive subjects (Kaufman as cited in Serrant-Green, 2002). Outsider researchers are frequently valued for their objectivity and emotional distance from a situation, but may find it difficult to gain access to research participants (Chawla-Duggan, 2007; Gasman & Payton-Stewart, 2006). I considered myself an ‘insider’ and, accepting the challenges presented as such, I determined that the research method used was the one in which the least possible elements of bias could be introduced. Although I accept at times it may have felt difficult to separate my various roles from within the research, I maintained a detached and objective view in order to understand the research and to ensure no bias was introduced.

Furthermore, I had careful consideration of the ethical issues relative to researching, including that of informed consent which is considered by Parahoo (2006, p.459) as “the process of agreeing to take part in a study based on access to all relevant and easily digestible information about what participation means, in particular, in terms of harms and benefits”.

The current theoretical underpinnings of the principle of informed consent have largely been derived from bioethics and, especially research ethics, where autonomy is presented as the ability to act freely without constraint or coercion. Moral philosophers Tom Beauchamp and James Childress’ influential biomedical ethics text states:
the core idea of personal autonomy is an extension of political self-rule to self-governance by the individual: personal rule of the self while remaining free from both controlling interferences by others and personal limitations such as inadequate understanding, that prevent meaningful choice (Beauchamp & Childress 1989, p. 68).

Critics of this form of bioethics have argued that the understanding of informed consent is based largely on the autonomous individual and his or her rights, with little or no concept of social aspects (Light & McGee, 1998; Wolpe, 1998). Arguments that focus on informed consent as an absolute moral principle result in a reductionist abstraction and empty ethics that strip the principle of consent away from its social context. On the other hand, arguments that plead for the recognition of the limits of consent in certain contexts argue for a more paternalistic approach. Corrigan (2003) suggests that as researchers we should be more cautious about the role of informed consent as an ethical panacea, and that there is the need to broaden the debate on informed consent from its current tight and limited focus.

Informed consent is an important ethical tool that protects subjects from overt coercion but we cannot ignore the often-dependent relationship between researcher and subject. Conceptually, I agree that the ethical considerations of safety and the protection of human rights are of utmost importance and achieved through the process of informed consent and, while it may be at times problematic in quantitative research, it is not impossible. While informing participants about the research aims at the outset of a project is vital, final research findings may not resonate with those aims. The precise nature of ‘consent’ for the participants might only become clear eventually, at the end of a study, when the researchers’ impact on shaping the study is visible. This raises questions about what is it that the participant is consenting to. Without doubt, my research has caused me to reflect upon my own practices with regard to obtaining informed consent. I followed set standards and
procedures by giving students written consent sheets explaining the reasons for my study, the proposed data gathering procedures, and what would happen to the data once the research was completed. I explained the main purpose of the study and asked them to sign consent forms. I have to concede that my research might occasionally have had negative consequences. For example, although I believe I acted sensitively, was polite and stressed the voluntary nature of their participation in the study, the mere act of approaching participants, whether by email or through a different tutor, could have been perceived as ‘bothersome’ or intrusive. I hold the view proposed by Duffy (1986) that as a quantitative investigator I should maintain a detached, objective view in order to understand the facts, the strength of which avoids researcher involvement, guarding against biasing the study and ensuring objectivity.

The final issue of ‘working ethically’ required more than following a code of conduct; it required an examination of my motives and a scrutiny of my actions and research processes for foreseeable and perhaps unforeseeable consequences that might affect my students or have even broader repercussions to society (O'Neill, 1989; O'Neill & Trickett, 1982; Robson, 2011). During the data collection phase, I was a member of the teaching staff in the School of Forensic and Investigative Science, questioning students about their experience of the classroom environment. The potential for harm to the participants, while minimal, was of importance to me and required vigilance to ensure that the participants felt safe enough to discuss their experiences openly and were protected from identification both during the research process and afterwards. To this end, I insisted that no one other than me knew who the participants were and any concerns that represented the issues raised by the students could not identify any individual.

Research is necessarily and inescapably an ethical activity. I concur with Maturana and Varela (1988) in understanding that “every human act has an ethical meaning because it
is an act of constitution of the human world” (p.247). Researchers act as ethical beings in their making of choices about methodology, methods and techniques. Further, these choices are guided by epistemic, ontological, and axiological assumptions.

Multiple perspectives on the topic provided me with a varied understanding of how that issue appears to different people as a result of their different interpretations of the issue. In this manner, one might argue I was able to see more of the ‘truth’ associated with that issue (Berger & Luckman, 1966).

In exploring how I am improving my personal practice I have taken a research approach which I relate to Bertrand’s claim that knowledge comes first out of uncertainty or a question: “Knowledge is the opposite of the demonstration of a rule and it has nothing to do with the bureaucratisation of ideas. It is an awareness, a sensitivity to life, to things that cannot be known, to uncertainty” (Bertrand, 1998, p. 117). We have to rely on our imagination, or we risk believing that textbook, and the media -such as TV and movies- show real life. My view of educational research is that it is about improving education and at the same time contributing to knowledge.

My interest in the classroom environment was triggered by my own experience of being an undergraduate student. I found the whole experience challenging, not simply from the academic perspective, but more so in relation to the processes adopted by the university and the content of the degree I studied. The thought of not continuing occurred to me many times over the years and I began to wonder what it was that contributed to my dissatisfaction with the experience and what factors motivated me to continue. I concluded that because my entry into higher education had been through a non-traditional route, having commenced my undergraduate studies at the age of 35 at a local college, much of my dissatisfaction was due to an apparent lack of academic integration and the feeling that I was not part of a wider community of students, together with what I perceived to be a climate of indifference from
teaching staff toward the cohort of students I had enrolled with. My motivation to continue, however, came from my desire to achieve academic success through balancing my workload and gaining recognition for the academic work completed.

As a consequence of engaging in further studies and the literature presented, I gained an explanation that the constructionist perspective indicates that it was my personal worldview that was dictating the orientation that my studies were beginning to follow. Once I discovered the literature, I also discovered a language that allowed me to present my worldview.

As part of this research process, I was able to scrutinise my role as a researcher and challenge how my own experience as a student, and my views and biases, might be interacting with the student views to create my understanding and interpretation of their responses to my questions. This reflexivity is not a normal part of research conducted within the positivist paradigm because of the assumption that the researcher is separate from, or objective to, the research process. Therefore within the positivist view, while the researcher has no means of scrutinising his or her perspective to see how or to what extent his or her personal views might be affecting the interpretation of the data, positivists adopt a methodological approach toward reflexivity and concentrate on improving methods and their application (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Such reflexivity has allowed me to articulate the tacit knowledge that become part of the organisation and reframe it as theoretical knowledge. It could be argued that all researchers subject their work to scrutiny through the process of peer discussion and review. Talking with others about my research provided me with an opportunity to explore areas and ideas that I may not have considered in isolation.

Throughout my research, I shared my ideas and concerns not only with my supervisor but also with my fellow postgraduate students, other lecturers and students. I found this to be quite a challenging process because it exposed me to the critique of peers; however, the
benefits associated with adopting this approach became invaluable. For example, I began to realise that I was not lost in a sea of research and literature reviews and that others shared the same or similar anxiety.

Multiple perspectives on the topic provided me with a varied understanding of how that issue appears to different people as a result of their different interpretations of the issue. In this manner one might argue I was able to see more of the ‘truth’ associated with that issue (Berger & Luckman, 1966). My hope is that I have reflected this in my interpretation and conclusion.

Methodology is taken to mean an approach to systematic inquiry developed within a particular theoretical perspective (or paradigm), with associated ontological and epistemological assumptions. This should not be confused with research method, which refers to the more specific procedures used to gather and analyse the data. Kuhn (1970) is commonly associated with the notion of the paradigm; believing it to be a set of interrelated assumptions about the social world, which provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organised study of the world. Underpinning my research activity are my basic assumptions about the nature of ‘reality’ and the way I comprehend it. Ideas about knowledge, about what we can know (an ontological concern), and how we can know it (an epistemological question) which have been a guiding factor throughout. So too do beliefs, values (axiological concerns), and aspirations. Often research, particularly when it is thought that knowledge about the world can be made objective, is taken as generating certain or foundational knowledge. Rather than viewing research as seeking foundational knowledge, I find it more useful to regard research as an activity undertaken by socially interacting individuals employing various frames of reference that orient meaningful activity.

I am aware that endeavouring to capture people’s perspectives and meanings of the social world presented difficulties for me as a researcher because researchers also bring their
own beliefs and experiences to the research process (Denzin, 2001; Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) indicates that the “focus becomes a balance in understanding and depicting the world authentically in all its complexity while being self-analytical, politically aware, and reflexive in consciousness” (p. 494). Holstein and Gubrium (1994) consider that knowledge is not built upon a clean slate, but rather influenced by an awareness of “recognisable categories, familiar vocabularies, organisational missions, professional orientations, group cultures and other existing frameworks for assigning meaning to matters under consideration” (p. 266)

The methodology and procedures used in this study were presented in this chapter. The basis and methodological framework for the determination of the population, the procedures used to develop and refine the survey instrument, and the procedures and tools used to collect data were discussed. The following chapter will present an analysis of the data gathered and the findings from such analysis.
Chapter 6

Findings

This chapter will focus on the results of this study. It begins with a brief summary of the overall results prior to providing an explanation of the statistical relationships of each dimension of the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES). This was achieved by investigating the relationships between the individual items that combined to make each dimension, as opposed to investigating relationships between dimensions. This chapter will also provide an exploration of those elements within the dimensions with the most divergent scores. The statistical analysis of ACES scores within the cohort of classes with the most divergent scores are given and explained. Several tables and charts are used throughout to highlight the data. In each section, answers to the research objectives are given and explained. Findings will be discussed in the following chapter, Chapter 7, where an explanation of the data will be provided. The following chapter will also provide this researcher’s perspective on the findings while also linking them to prior research on the subjects of police education, together with that of the classroom environment.

Throughout this chapter, the seven dimensions -Affiliation, Teacher Support, Task Orientation, Personal Goal Attainment, Organisation and Clarity, Student Influence and Involvement- will be shorted-handed to A, TS, TO, PG, OC, SI and I respectively, whilst the different attributes that make up a dimension will be represented by codes such as A1, representing question 1 of the affiliation dimension.

Findings

Before addressing the findings for each research objective, it may be useful to present an analysis of the level of correlation between all the attributes within each dimension. Stata v.13.1 was used as a statistical program to complete analysis. A correlation coefficient
ranges from -1 to 1, with a positive coefficient of 1 suggesting that: as one attribute increases so will the other, whereas a negative coefficient of -1 suggests that as one attribute increases the other decreases. Significant correlation coefficients (where the p-value < 0.05) are indicated by a *. Therefore, all significant (> 0.4 or < -0.4) strong correlation coefficients are highlighted below. The wording for each abbreviation can be found in the questionnaire at appendix C.

**Internal Correlations**

Table 6.1

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<th>Affiliation</th>
<th>A1</th>
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<th>A3</th>
<th>A4</th>
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Students in the class work well together positively correlates with students often sharing their personal experiences during class, the students in the class often learn from each other, the students in the class enjoy working together, students in the class feel free to disagree with one another, however students in the class also learn little from one another.
Students often sharing their personal experiences positively correlates to learning from each other, enjoying working together and feeling free to disagree with each other, the development of friendships in class and students learning a lot from each other (this was a negatively scored question). This could indicate that sharing personal experiences does not always result in learning from each other.

There was no positive or negative correlation with any other affiliation factor of a few students dominating discussion in class. However this was a negatively scored question resulting in a student perception that a few students do not dominate discussion in the class. As a consequence of this question having no positive or negative correlations it does not appear to relate.

The students in the class often learn from each other is related to students in the class working well together, students often sharing their personal experiences during class, the students in the class enjoying working together and friendships having developed in the class.

Students in the class enjoy working together positively correlates with the students in the class work well together, students often sharing their personal experiences during class, the students in class often learning from each other, the students in the class feeling free to disagree with each other and friendships have developed in the class.

Students seldom interact with one another during class had no correlations positive or negative.

Students in the class feel free to disagree with each other positively correlates to the students in the class work well together, the students often share their personal experiences during class, the students in the class enjoy working together and friendships have developed in the class.

Friendships have developed in the class positively correlates with students often share their personal experiences during class, the students in the class often learn from each other,
the students in the class enjoy working together and students in the class feel free to disagree with each other.

Students in the class learn little from one another was negatively scored which means that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. strong disagreement that they learn little from one another in class became strong agreement that they learn a lot from each other. Students in the class learn a lot from one another positively correlated with students often share their personal experiences in the class.

It appears clear from this set of variables that as students work well together the extent to which students like and interact positively with each other increases and their perception of the classroom social environment increases positively. The more time spend encouraging positive working relationships between students the more likely it is that students will enjoy working together and develop friendships and often interact with each other.

Table 6.2
Teacher Support

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Teacher Support, where the teacher makes little effort to help students succeed, was negatively scored which means that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e.
Student perception is that the teacher does make an effort to help students succeed. This was strongly correlated to the teacher talks down to students, again negatively scored which means the teacher does not talk down to students, the teacher cares about students’ feelings and the teacher likes the students in the class.

Student perception that the teacher talks down to students, as indicated above, was negatively scored which means the teacher does not talk down to students. This was correlated to the teacher encourages students to do their best, the teacher cares about students’ feelings, the teacher respects students’ as individuals and the teacher likes the students’ in the class together with the teacher makes little effort to help students succeed which was negatively scored and meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does make an effort to help students succeed.

The teacher encourages students’ to do their best was correlated to the teacher cares about students’ feelings, the teacher respects students’ as individuals and the teacher likes the students’ in the class. This aspects was also correlated to the teacher talks down to students which was negatively scored which means that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does not talk down to students.

The teacher cares about students’ feelings was correlated to the teacher respects students as individuals and the teacher likes students’ in the class. This also correlated with the teacher makes little effort to help students succeed which had been negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does make an effort to help students succeed. This was strongly correlated to the teacher talks down to students, again negatively scored which means the teacher does not talk down to students and the teacher encourages students to do their best.

The teacher respects students as an individual was correlated to the teacher likes the students’ in the class. This also correlated with the teacher talks down to students, again
negatively scored which means the teacher does not talk down to students, the teacher encourages students to do their best and the teacher cares about students’ feelings.

The teacher likes the students’ in the class had correlations across the teacher makes little effort to help students succeed which had been negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does make an effort to help students succeed, the teacher talks down to students, again negatively scored which means the teacher does not talk down to students, the teacher cares about students’ feelings and the teacher respects students as individuals.

The teacher cares whether or not the students learn had no correlations positive or negative.

It appears clear from this set of variables that as the level of respect and support by the teacher increases (the extent of help, and the level of concern and friendship that the teacher directs toward the students) then the more positively the classroom environment will be perceived.

Table 6.3

Task Orientation

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The teacher seldom talks about things not related to the course was strongly correlated to activities not related to the course objectives are kept to a minimum and students do a lot of work in the class.

Students’ regularly meeting assignment deadlines was strongly correlated to getting work done is very important to the class.

Students often discuss things not related to the course content was negatively scored and meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the students do not often discuss things not related to the course had no correlations positive or negative.

Activities not related to course objectives are kept to a minimum correlated with getting work done is very important in the class and the class is more a social hour than a place to learn which was negatively scored and meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class is not a social hour and it is a place to learn. This aspect also correlated with the teacher seldom talks about things not related to the course.

Students do a lot of work in the class correlated with getting work done is important to the class, the class is more a social hour than a place to learn which was negatively scored and meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class is not a social hour and it is a place to learn. This aspect also correlated with the teacher seldom talks about things not related to the course.

Getting work done is very important in the class correlated with students regularly meet assignment deadlines, activities not related to course objectives are kept to a minimum and students do a lot of work in class.

The class is more a social hour than a place to learn was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the
class is not a social hour and it is a place to learn. This correlated with activities not related
to course objectives are kept to a minimum and students do a lot of work in class.

It appears clear from this set of variables that as the students and teacher focus on
tasks and value achievement there is a positive increase in the perception of the classroom
social environment. The more time spend maintaining a focus on tasks and ensuring that
activities not related to course objectives are kept to a minimum, the more likely it is that
students will gain a sense that getting work done is important and meet assignment deadlines.

Table 6.4
Personal Goal Attainment

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The class is flexible enough to meet the needs of individual students correlates with
many students think that the class is not relevant to their lives which was negatively scored
meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is
that the class is relevant to their lives. This aspect also correlates with most students in the
class achieve their personal learning goals, the teacher tries to find out what individual
students want to learn and students have the opportunity to learn at their own pace.

Many students think that the class is not relevant to their lives was negatively scored
meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is
that the class is relevant to their lives. This aspect correlates with students in the class can select assignments that are of personal interest to them, most students in the class achieve their personal goals and the class is flexible enough to meet the needs of individual students.

The teacher expects every student to learn the exact same things was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. the teacher does not expects every student to learn the exact same things had no correlations positive or negative.

Students in the class can select assignments that are of personal interest to them correlates to the teacher tries to find out what individual students want to learn, students have the opportunity to learn at their own pace and many students think that the class is not relevant to their lives which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class is relevant to their lives.

Most students in the class achieve their personal learning goals correlates with the teacher tries to find out what individual students want to learn, students have the opportunity to learn at their own pace, the class is flexible enough to meet the needs of individual students and many students think that the class is not relevant to their lives which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class is relevant to their lives.

The teacher tries to find out what individual students want to learn correlates with students have the opportunity to learn at their own pace, the class is flexible enough to meet the needs of individual students, students in the class can select assignments that are of personal interest to them and most students in the class achieve their personal learning goals.

Students have the opportunity to learn at their own pace correlates with the class is flexible enough to meet the needs of individual students, students in the class can select
assignments that are of personal interest to them and the teacher tries to find out what individual students want to learn.

It appears clear from this set of variables that as students work at their own pace and the teacher tries to find out what individual students want to learn then student perception is that they will achieve their own personal goals. The more time spend where the teacher is flexible, providing opportunities for students to pursue their individual interests, the greater the positive perception of the classroom environment will be for students.

Table 6.5
Organisation and Clarity

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The teacher comes to class prepared correlates with learning objectives are made clear at the start of the course, the class is well organised, the class lacks a clear sense of direction which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class does have a clear sense of direction, students do not know what is expected of them which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that they do know what is expected of them and learning activities follow a logical sequence.

Learning objectives are made clear at the start of the course correlates to the class is well organised, the class lacks a clear sense of direction which was negatively scored
meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class does have a clear sense of direction, learning activities follow a logical sequence and the teacher comes to class prepared.

The class is well organised correlates with the class lacks a clear sense of direction which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class does have a clear sense of direction, the subject matter is adequately covered, students do not know what is expected of them which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that they do know what is expected of them and learning activities follow a logical sequence. This aspect also correlates with the teacher comes to class prepared and learning objectives are made clear at the start of the course.

The class lacks a clear sense of direction was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class does have a clear sense of direction, this correlates with students do not know what is expected of them, this was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. students do know what is expected of them, learning activities follow a logical sequence, the teacher comes to class prepared, learning objectives are made clear at the start of the course and the class is well organised.

The subject matter is adequately covered correlates with students do not know what is expected of them, this was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. students do know what is expected of them, learning activities follow a logical sequence and the class is well organised.

Students do not know what is expected of them was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. students do know what is expected of them correlates with learning activities follow a logical sequence, the teacher comes to class
prepared, the class is well organised, the class lacks a sense of direction which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class does have a clear sense of direction and the subject matter is adequately covered.

Learning activities follow a logical sequence correlates with the teacher comes to class prepared, the learning objectives are made clear at the start of the course, the class is well organised, the class lacks a sense of direction which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the class does have a clear sense of direction, the subject matter is adequately covered and students do not know what is expected of them which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. students do know what is expected of them.

It appears clear from this set of variables that where there is a perceived sense of the classroom as a well organised place and where there is a logical sequence to learning activities that students will have a greater sense of value for the learning environment. The more time spend where the teacher ensures class activities are clear and well organised, the greater the positive perception of the classroom environment will be for students.

Table 6.6

Student Influence

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Students help to decide the topics in the class correlates with the teacher makes all the decisions in the class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does not make all the decisions in the class and students participate in course setting.

The teacher makes all the decisions in the class was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does not make all the decisions in the class. This correlates with the teacher sticks to the lesson plan regardless of student interest which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. the teacher does not stick to the lesson plan regardless of student interest, students participate in setting course objectives, the teacher rarely dominates classroom discussion, the teacher insists that you do things his or her way which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. the teacher does not insist that you do things his or her way and students help to decide the topics to be covered in the class.

The teacher sticks to the lesson plan regardless of student interest which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. the teacher does not stick to the lesson plan regardless of student interest correlates with students participate in setting course objectives, the teacher rarely dominates classroom discussion, the teacher insists that you do things his or her way which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. the teacher does not insist that you do things his or her way, students help to decide topics to be covered in the class and the teacher makes all the decisions in the class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does not make all the decisions in the class.
Students participate in setting course objectives correlates with students help to decide the topics to be covered in the class and the teacher makes all the decisions in the class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does not make all the decisions in the class.

The teacher rarely dominates classroom discussion had no correlations positive or negative.

Students feel free to question course requirements had no correlations positive or negative.

The teacher insists that you do things his or her way was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. the teacher does not insist that you do things his or her way. This correlates with the teacher makes all the decisions in the class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student perception is that the teacher does not make all the decisions in the class, the teacher sticks to the lesson plan regardless of student interest which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. the teacher does not stick to the lesson plan regardless of student interest and students feel free to question course requirements.

It appears clear from this set of variables that where there is a perceived sense that the teacher is learner-centred and allows students to participate in course planning decisions a more positive perception of the classroom environment will exist for students.
Table 6.7

Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I1</th>
<th>I2</th>
<th>I3</th>
<th>I4</th>
<th>I5</th>
<th>I6</th>
<th>I7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I1</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2</td>
<td>0.3625*</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I3</td>
<td>0.4104*</td>
<td>0.6672*</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I4</td>
<td>0.6118*</td>
<td>0.4890*</td>
<td>0.7522*</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I5</td>
<td>0.5490*</td>
<td>0.5177*</td>
<td>0.6560*</td>
<td>0.6327*</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I6</td>
<td>0.2372*</td>
<td>0.1806</td>
<td>0.1892</td>
<td>0.2465*</td>
<td>0.2308*</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I7</td>
<td>0.4457*</td>
<td>0.5898*</td>
<td>0.5268*</td>
<td>0.5067*</td>
<td>0.6053*</td>
<td>0.3117*</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students are often bored in class was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student are not often bored in class. This correlates with students often ask the teacher questions, most students enjoy the class, most students look forward to the class, most students in the class pay attention to what the teacher is saying, a few students dominate the discussions in the class, which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. a few students do not dominate the discussions in the class, and most students take part in class discussion.

Students often ask the teacher questions correlates with most students enjoy the class, most students look forward to the class, most students in the class pay attention to what the teacher is saying, most students take part in classroom discussion and students are often bored in class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student are not often bored in class.

Most students enjoy the class correlates with most students look forward to the class, most students in the class pay attention to what the teacher is saying, most students take part in classroom discussion, students are often bored in class which was negatively scored
meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student are not often bored in class and most students often ask the teacher questions.

Most students look forward to the class correlates with most students in the class pay attention to what the teacher is saying, a few students dominate the discussions in the class, which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. a few students do not dominate the discussions in the class, most students take part in class discussion, students are often bored in class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student are not often bored in class, students often ask the teacher questions and most students enjoy the class.

Most students in the class pay attention to what the teacher is saying correlates with a few students dominate the discussions in the class, which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. a few students do not dominate the discussions in the class, most students take part in class discussion, students are often bored in class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student are not often bored in class, students often ask the teacher questions, most students enjoy the class and most students look forward to the class.

A few students dominate the discussions in the class, which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. a few students do not dominate the discussions in the class correlates with most students take part in class discussion, students are often bored in class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. student are not often bored in class, most students look forward to the class and most students in the class pay attention to what the teacher is saying.

Most students take part in class discussions correlates with students are often bored in class which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to
apply, i.e. student are not often bored in class. This aspect correlates with students often ask the teacher questions, most students enjoy the class, most students look forward to the class, most students in the class pay attention to what the teacher is saying and a few students dominate the discussions in the class, which was negatively scored meaning that the opposite of what students said is taken to apply, i.e. a few students do not dominate the discussions in the class.

It appears clear from this set of variables that most students look forward to the class and take part in class discussion. It appears that the more students have a sense of involvement within class that they will also enjoy the class. The students are satisfied with class and participate actively and attentively in activities. The greater the positive perception of the classroom environment, the more students will value their time in the classroom.

Having provided an analysis of the level of internal correlation between all the attributes within each dimension, the following section will present findings in accordance with the research objectives.

Research objective 1:
What are the prevailing social characteristics of a police Foundation Degree course at the University of Central Lancashire?

To identify what the prevailing social characteristics were, an analysis of the means and standard deviations of the 7 dimensions was conducted. A high mean and a low standard deviation (which is a measure of spread of the data) are preferable for each dimension. As presented in Table 6.8, the first column indicates the dimension under examination, the second is the mean; the third is the standard deviation and the fourth and fifth are the minimum and maximum dimension scores.
Table 6.8

Mean and Standard Deviations: Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Mean</td>
<td>3.827451</td>
<td>.3963776</td>
<td>2.55556</td>
<td>4.66667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TS Mean</td>
<td>4.618487</td>
<td>.4137976</td>
<td>2.71428</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO Mean</td>
<td>3.751261</td>
<td>.4442446</td>
<td>2.85714</td>
<td>4.71428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG Mean</td>
<td>3.534454</td>
<td>.4645619</td>
<td>2.42857</td>
<td>4.57142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC Mean</td>
<td>4.510924</td>
<td>.4282178</td>
<td>3.28571</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI Mean</td>
<td>3.14958</td>
<td>.5026199</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.57142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Mean</td>
<td>3.890756</td>
<td>.586803</td>
<td>1.14286</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.9

Dimension Statistical Order Ranking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Standard Deviations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>TS</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>OC</td>
<td>TS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>TO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>TO</td>
<td>PG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>PG</td>
<td>SI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>SI</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.9 presents the mean and standard deviations indicating that the dimensions with the highest means (with fairly low standard deviations) are TS and OC, suggesting that the pre-join police education course has a greater student perception of teacher support and where the classroom environment is perceived as organised and clear. The dimension with the lowest mean is SI followed by PG, suggesting students on the course rated their influence and personal goal attainment lower than other aspects of the course.
Research objective 2:

What is the student perception of the social environment of the classroom?

To identify what the students’ perceptions of the social environment of the classroom were, an analysis of the means and standard deviations of 4 dimensions (affiliation, student personal goals, student involvement and influence) was conducted and is reflected in Table 6.10.

The results show that the dimensions with the largest influence on the social environment are Involvement and Affiliation, which have the highest mean scores, whilst Student Influence has the lowest rating. Improving student influence in the class may have a positive effect on the social environment in the class. As indicated above a high mean and a low standard deviation are preferable for each dimension.

Table 6.10
Mean and Standard Deviations: Social Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student_Influence</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal_Goals</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Boxplot of Affiliation, Personal_Goal, Student_Influence, Involvement
Research Objective 3:

What do pre join trainers (learners) value in the classroom in terms of the social
environment and student values?

To identify what the values were, an analysis of the means and standard deviations of
3 dimensions (teacher support, task orientation and organisation and clarity) was conducted
and is reflected in Table 6.11.

The results show that the dimensions with the largest influence on the social
environment are OC and TS, rated higher than TO. Therefore, value in the classroom may be
increased if task orientation could be improved.

Table 6.11
Mean and Standard Deviations: Student Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation_Clarity_Mean</th>
<th>Task_Orientation_Mean</th>
<th>Teacher_Support_Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Boxplot of Teacher_Support, Task.Orientation, Organisation_Clarity

Data
Research Objective 4:

To what extent can answers to the above questions be used to improve the classroom environment?

In order to address this research objective, it was necessary to identify those attributes with the lowest means taken from analyses of the above research objectives. An analysis of the mean and standard deviations for the attributes TO, SI and PG was conducted in order to identify the individual attributes that make up the dimensions which are the highest rated and which are the lowest rated as illustrated in Tables 6.12, 6.13, and 6.14 respectively.

Table 6.12
TO Mean and Standard Deviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TO1</td>
<td>2.647059</td>
<td>1.192296</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO2</td>
<td>4.552941</td>
<td>.7320207</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO3</td>
<td>2.647059</td>
<td>1.065765</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO4</td>
<td>3.905882</td>
<td>.7810788</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO5</td>
<td>3.976471</td>
<td>.8014343</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO6</td>
<td>4.270588</td>
<td>.6434327</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO7</td>
<td>4.258824</td>
<td>.709677</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those items rated the highest include:

TO2 – students meet assignment deadlines
TO6 – getting work done is important
TO7 – this was a reversed question resulting in the perception that the class is not a social hour, but is a place to learn.

Those items rated the lowest include:

TO1 - The teacher seldom talks about things not related to the course
TO3 - Students often discuss things not related to course content
It should be remembered that attribute TO3 was reversed; i.e. TO3 ‘Students often discuss things not related to course content’ was reversed to read more positively ‘Students do not discuss things not related to course content’. This attribute was scored low suggesting that there are students who do discuss things not related to the class.

Table 6.13

PG Mean and Standard Deviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PG1</td>
<td>4.352941</td>
<td>.6306815</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG2</td>
<td>4.047059</td>
<td>.9116427</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG3</td>
<td>2.741176</td>
<td>1.070747</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG4</td>
<td>1.952941</td>
<td>.9747513</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG5</td>
<td>4.094118</td>
<td>.6477714</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG6</td>
<td>3.858824</td>
<td>1.092757</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG7</td>
<td>3.694118</td>
<td>.9639148</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those items rated the highest include:

PG1 - The class is flexible enough to meet the needs of individual students

PG5 - Students achieve their learning goals

PG2 - This was a reversed question resulting in the perception that students think the class is relevant to their lives.

The items rated the lowest was PG4 – students can select assignments that are of personal interest.
Table 6.14

SI Mean and Standard Deviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
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<td>SI3</td>
<td>3.058824</td>
<td>.8359902</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI4</td>
<td>2.870588</td>
<td>1.077787</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI5</td>
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<td>1.03171</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI6</td>
<td>4.105882</td>
<td>.802133</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI7</td>
<td>3.776471</td>
<td>.9682639</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those items rated the highest include:

SI6 - Students feel free to question course requirements

SI7 – This was a reversed question resulting in the perception that students do not consider that the teacher insists that you do things his or her way

Those items rated the lowest include:

SI5 – The teacher rarely dominates classroom discussion

SI1 – Students help to decide topics to be covered in the class

This chapter has presented the findings of this study through an explanation of the statistical relationships of each dimension of the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) providing an exploration of those elements through statistical analysis. Several tables and charts were used to highlight the data and provide answers to the research objectives. This leads into the following chapter, which will provide an interpretation of the findings presented.
Chapter 7
Discussion

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an interpretation of the findings presented in Chapter 6. The relationship between the findings of this study and their implications for practice and research are addressed here. This chapter explains the data and provides this researcher’s perspective on the findings while also linking the findings to prior research on the subjects of police education, together with that of the classroom environment. The study’s strengths and weaknesses are evaluated, along with the implications and applications of the study in regards to improvement of the student experience and the classroom environment. Recommendations for future research are also provided.

Summary of Findings

The data revealed several things. Holistically, students engaged in the Foundation Degree in Policing at UCLan indicated that teacher support was the most prevalent dimension of the classroom environment, with organization and clarity and involvement ranked second and third. However, students also indicated low student influence and personal goal attainment, suggesting a possible preference for improvement in these areas and a need to both permit students to participate in course planning decisions and provide them an opportunity to pursue their individual interests.

Research objective 1:

What are the prevailing social characteristics of a police Foundation Degree course at the University of Central Lancashire?

Students focused on teacher support, together with organisation and clarity, as the prevailing characteristics within the Foundation Degree in Policing suggesting that the pre-
join police-education course has ample teacher support, is organised and clear. Students indicated student influence, together with personal goals, as the lowest factors suggesting students on the course rated their influence and personal goal attainment lower than other aspects of the course. These findings are supported by research completed by Olivia and Crompton (2010), who conducted an investigation into police officer preparation and found that participants preferred courses which were well managed and where expectations of the class and classroom rules were communicated on commencement of the course; thus setting a standard for students to follow. Olivia and Crompton also found that teacher support extended to respect for the students as well as providing classroom structure, which enhanced the student perception of organisation and clarity.

Closer examination of the data indicates that while teacher support together with organisation and clarity are high, students perceive a very teacher-centred environment. This is in contrast to the suggested principles of andragogy where students are involved in mutual planning of methods and curriculum. Knowles (1970, 1984) suggests a number of principles or guides, in andragogical practice, which would assist in the process of adult education and where the teacher should:

- Establish a physical and psychological climate conducive to learning
- Involve learners in mutual planning
- Assisting students to develop a level of competency in certain areas of interest
- To establish a contract of learning objectives which the student will work toward
- For students to devise a plan for achieving their learning objectives
- Involve students in evaluation of learning

Since students and teachers on the Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire are involved in a closer working partnership it seems to be an appropriate
context in which to establish the guiding principles of andragogy and move toward a more student-centred classroom environment, one where the students will feel a greater sense of self-direction, becoming active participants in their learning through a problem centred orientation to their learning and increasing their feelings around personal goal setting through a mutual measurement of their learning. This may be achieved by providing an environment where students feel safe and supported, where individual needs and uniqueness are recognised and where abilities and life experiences are acknowledged and respected.

**Research Objective 2:**

**What is the student perception of the social environment of the classroom?**

Student perceptions of the social environment of the classroom are dominated by their feelings of involvement and affiliation, which have the highest mean scores whilst student influence has the lowest rating. According to White (2004) and Olivia and Crompton (2010), this finding is consistent with the culture of police preparation and many existing practices in the adult police classroom, which promotes a rigid approach to education and permits only official thinking on subjects. As indicated by Verner and Davidson (1982) for learning to occur successfully, the learner must not only feel motivated to learn, but be influenced by the environment in which they attempt to learn; this environment consists of the physical setting as well as the emotional atmosphere.

The notion of feeling supported as students has also been extensively examined in the classroom environment literature. Helen Patrick and colleagues (Patrick, Ryan, & Kaplan, 2007) found that there is a strong, positive relationship between students' level of motivation and engagement and their perceptions of the classroom environment as being socially supportive. The perception of a climate of mutual respect is required in order for students to increase their use of effective study strategies and increase feelings of confidence about their ability to successfully complete assignments. Furthermore, when students perceive that they
receive emotional support and encouragement from their teachers and academic support from their peers they are more likely to be on-task in the classroom and use self-regulated strategies.

Improving student involvement in the Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire, together with increasing their feelings of mutual support from teachers and peers, may therefore have a more positive effect on the social environment in the class leading to an increasing level of motivation to succeed. It should be recognised that students bring with them experiences which can be used within the classroom, as well as opinions which ought to be listened to and appreciated. Where self-directed learning takes place, such as the student placement in the workplace, this should be designed with the student in order to fit in with any individual learning plan, which will address the needs of the student to bolster facts and theory.

**Research Objective 3:**

*What do pre join trainers (learners) value in the classroom in terms of the social environment and student values?*

Results show that the dimensions with the largest influence on the social environment are teacher support, together with organization and clarity, which were closely followed by task orientation. Value in the classroom may be increased if task orientation is improved. Nicholls (1984, 1989) identified two specific achievement goals, which he labelled *task* and *ego*. A task involved goal is defined as a focus on the development of competence, whereas an ego-involved goal is defined as underlying concern for demonstrating competence, or an avoidance of being judged as incompetent. The notion of feeling supported as students has also been extensively examined in the classroom environment literature. Patrick, Ryan, and Kaplan (2007) found that there is a strong, positive relationship between students' level of motivation and engagement and their perceptions of the classroom environment as being
socially supportive. The perception of a climate of mutual respect is required in order for students to increase their use of effective study strategies and increase feelings of confidence about their ability to successfully complete assignments. Furthermore, when students perceive that they receive emotional support and encouragement from teachers and support from their peers, they are more likely focus on tasks in the classroom.

In addition to perceptions of teacher-student relationships as being supportive, teacher messages about student-student relationships may also contribute to the classroom social environment. Teachers may consider communicating to students about their relationships with peers around academic tasks: (a) other students are valuable resources with whom they work to increase learning (promoting interaction); (b) other students are to be shown respect and support (promoting mutual respect); and (c) other students are markers of the relative ability, with whom they are compared to and compete with (promoting performance goals).

The thoughts of Delaney, Johnson, Johnson and Treslan (2010) echo loudly here: students prefer teachers who treat them with common courtesy and respect and students want to be respected as individuals by their lecturer. When students are shown respect, care, and courtesy, they are more likely to feel a sense of belonging within the classroom.

A focus on respect within the Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire should also help create an environment where students communicate positively with one another, and feel valued within their social relationships. The promotion of mutual respect generally may be especially beneficial to the promotion of mutual respect in the classroom, which may in turn relate positively to social norms with peers and the teacher, and relate negatively to disruptive behaviour. For students to develop as police officers, there must be a more direct focus on the principles of andragogy; a focus, which is more student-centred as opposed to course or teacher-centred.
Research Objective 4:

To what extent may answers to the above questions be used to improve the classroom environment?

The findings of the current study highlight the important role of the classroom social environment in supporting or undermining motivation and engagement of students. As informed by data, the classroom environment can be improved if task orientation, student involvement, and personal goal setting are enhanced. It is clear that student perception of their classroom is that it is flexible enough to meet their individual needs; however it does not permit students to select assignments that are of personal interest. It is also apparent that student perception is that they are free to question their course requirements, however in contrast to this they also consider that they are unable to decide topics to be covered in the class. Students on the Foundation Degree in Policing may have a more positive experience by exploring personal interests in relation to the course; perhaps by providing students with a choice in their individual or group assignments. Michaelsen, Fink, and Knight (1997) point out that group activity has become increasingly popular and suggest that to gauge the learning value of group assignments; teachers should examine the impact of assignments on group cohesion, especially where certain types of learning tasks contribute positively to group cohesion. In relation to greater student involvement in course and topic planning Birzer (2006) suggests that where there is limited latitude with the subject matter, it may not be possible to have students involved in mutual planning or the development of competency and thus a balance of priorities will need to be maintained.

Lewin (1948) suggested that group behaviour exhibited in a classroom reflects the dynamics of that classroom. These group dynamics consist of interpersonal relationships that are a fundamental characteristic of the classroom environment and affect learning. Understanding these dynamics can assist educators in identifying the relationships between
the teacher and the students and relationships among the students that could facilitate learning. Rogers and Freiberg (1994) argue that the learning environment can be improved by three specific teaching qualities and attitudes: (a) trust, (b) realness, and (c) empathic understanding. These qualities and attitudes facilitate learning, enhance students’ self-knowledge, and promote authentic teacher-student relationships.

The findings of this study have practical implications for teachers, and for their students' motivation, engagement, and ultimately achievement. When students believe they are encouraged to know, interact with, and help classmates during lessons; when they view their classroom as one where their ideas are respected and not belittled; when students perceive their teacher as understanding and supportive; and when they feel their teacher does not publicly identify students' relative performance, they tend to engage more in learning. Greater understanding about how teachers help to create the social environment, and how different aspects of that environment impact student motivation and engagement, are particularly important given recent trends in education involving student-centred learning.

Of equal importance is an understanding of how teachers help to create the social environment, and how different aspects of that environment impact student motivation and engagement.

While a traditional pedagogical model of education may have at one time served the needs and interests of the police, its applicability has been called into question and an andragogical methodology may be more effective. In line with research conducted by Vodde (2009), and considering the impact of police education, findings suggest that an andragogical instructional methodology could serve as an effective and responsive approach to educating potential police officers in a pre-employment university setting where students are required to identify, respond to, and solve problems. This could be achieved on the Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire through critical discussion, role-plays, and
interaction between students and suitably qualified staff based on the needs, interests, readiness, orientation, experience, and motivation of the students. The learning environment must be physically and psychologically comfortable and a place where the role of facilitator rather than lecturer is adopted.

**Directions for Future Research**

This study may provide a basis for additional studies in an attempt to examine the relationship between certain variables and effective learning. Understanding the social environment of the classroom by identifying the preferences of the students provides an important contribution to the limited knowledge of classroom social environments in police education. Additionally, an understanding of the social environment preferences may provide valuable contribution to the field of adult education.

The direction and recommendations for future research involve several fronts. Firstly, future research into the social environment of the classroom involving a larger sample size and the involvement of Police Forces to gather a diverse sample may yield further interesting implications for police education. Studies that explore the classroom of a traditional police-training centre and that of the university setting are also needed. Working with different populations may provide unique insights. This may be achieved through observational data of the classroom obtained from face-to-face interviews with students in university and police settings. Variables such as: (a) the extent to which a student wants affiliation in class, (b) the extent to which a student believes a particular class to be effective, and (c) the degree to which a student participates in class may prove useful in future research.

Secondly a factor analysis could be run on the components of each dimension, to try to reduce the number of items within a dimension, and in itself simplify the questionnaire further. This simplification would allow additional questions to be added to the questionnaire, with the possibility of more information obtained if the study were to be run again.
Finally, the results of the student questionnaires could be used to perform a cluster analysis, which attempts to pick out natural clusters of questions answered which exhibited similarity and examine the findings.

Other studies could focus on the teacher’s perception of the classroom social environment and how this may correlate with that of the students. The main focus remains to find what works best in what situations and why.

**Summary**

This study provided insight into the classroom social environment experiences valued by students of the Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire. When students are engaged, better learning takes place. Many authors (Knowles, 1970, 1984; Rogers and Freiberg, 1994; Delaney, Johnson, Johnson & Treslan, 2010) have pointed out that teachers need to build healthy teacher-student relationships in order to engage students in learning activities, that students’ perceptions of the teacher are strongly related to achievement and motivation in all subject areas, and that effective teaching and learning can only take place when there is good order and a positive learning climate in the classroom, which creates the necessary conditions for learning. This engagement was evident in the study and was a factor in why teacher support together with organization and clarity were statistically significant data.

Data revealed the importance of teacher support and how students experience feelings of support and that care and mutual respect are valued. Classroom management and how students need a well organised learning environment through an understanding of the objectives of the class are equally important. Educators, therefore, “should possess technical and interpersonal skills to be an effective facilitator of training” and be trained and skilled to “identify events taking place in a teaching and learning encounter that seem significant” (Birzer, 2003, p.39). Students’ preferences around affiliation, where they enjoy working
together and work well together, and involvement where they look forward to and enjoy the class is supported by research conducted by Olivia and Crompton (2010) who found a preference for affiliation, particularly opportunities for student interactions between police students. Winston, Valhala, Nichols, and Gillis (1994) suggest that a better understanding of student perceptions can be used to improve teaching approaches and to evaluate different teaching techniques for presenting material in diverse disciplines. Student perceptions can translate into positive or negative learning outcomes. Strategies in class must be developed and utilized to maximize the success rate of students. In spite of their previous educational endeavours and experiences, students enrol in these classes for a variety of reasons, and teachers must be dedicated to their success.

In conclusion, as Knowles asserts that “the behaviour of the instructors is without doubt the single most potent force in establishing a social climate” (Knowles, 1988, p.226), and while there may be many factors which make up the social environment of the classroom, the focal point, and constant within the classroom, is the influence exerted by the teacher in his or her interactions with students which will determine the overall teaching climate and social environment.
References


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Duffy, M. E. (1987). Quantitative and qualitative research: antagonistic or complementary? *Nursing and Health Care, 8*(6), 356-357.


217


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225


230


The County and Borough Police Act. (1856).


The Rural Constabulary Act. (1839).


Appendix A (Freedom of Information Request)

I note you seek access to the following information:

The Metropolitan Police Service announced that, from April 2013, all regular recruits to the force will be required to have attained the Certificate in Knowledge of Policing through a College of Policing Approved Provider. I would like to know the following:

1. What are the intake numbers for all regular recruits per course, after requesting that the Certificate in Knowledge of Policing must be obtained?

2. Is there scope for shortening the regular recruits course, due to the modules covered whilst studying for the obtaining of the Certificate in Knowledge of Policing?

3. If there is scope for shortening the course, what would the suggested timescales for this be?

4. Although the request for a compulsory Certificate in Knowledge of Policing for new intakes was only determined from April 2013, will the Metropolitan Police Service continue with this request for the foreseeable future?

DECISION

I have today decided to disclose the located information to you in full.

Please find attached information pursuant to your request above.

The Metropolitan Police Service announced that, from April 2013, all regular recruits to the force will be required to have attained the Certificate in Knowledge of Policing through a College of Policing Approved Provider. I would like to know the following:

1. What are the intake numbers for all regular recruits per course, after requesting that the Certificate in Knowledge of Policing must be obtained?

The MPS plans to recruit around 2,100 new police constables in 2013-14. That is around 1,200 from internal sources i.e. former serving special constables and PCSO's and the remainder directly from the public. At this stage there has been
no advertising for applications from the general public but that will happen during the summer. In-takes of new constables recruited from internal "sources" will generally be taking place on regular basis every three to fours months during 2013-14. The in-takes of new police constables, recruited directly from the public, are planned to be in February and March 2014.

2. Is there scope for shortening the regular recruits course, due to the modules covered whilst studying for the obtaining of the Certificate in Knowledge of Policing?

It is understood that the CKP course, for former special constables and PCSO's, may be shorter. This is a decision for the CKP course providers of the course in consultation the College of Policing.

The CKP will provide all candidates with the required level of knowledge of policing law when they start a police initial training course. The MPS police training course builds on this benchmark of knowledge of the law that all candidates will have. However, the duration of the course will vary according to the prior practical patrolling experience and knowledge that a candidate may have. The police initial training course for a former special constable in the MPS will be about five weeks, for a former PCSO in the MPS about nine weeks and for directly recruited member to the public about 15 weeks.

3. If there is scope for shortening the course, what would the suggested timescales for this be?

Please see answer above

4. Although the request for a compulsory Certificate in Knowledge of Policing for new intakes was only determined from April 2013, will the Metropolitan Police Service continue with this request for the foreseeable future?

That is the plan for the foreseeable future.

Directorate of Human Resources
Appendix B (Tutor Request Letter)

Study Title: ‘Perceptions of a pre-join police education course by first year university students’
REC Ref No: 14/15:03

Dear tutor,

I would like to invite your students to participate in a research study which is designed to gain an understanding of the perceptions of a pre-join police education course by first year university students.

The main purpose of this study is to measure the classroom preferences of students involved in a pre-join police education course. The second purpose is to identify the differences in students teaching preferences depending on seven factors.

Essentially the aims of the study are to answer the following research questions:

• What are the characteristics of a pre-join police education course at a higher education institute?
• What is the student perception of the social environment of the classroom?
• What do pre join learners value in the classroom and why?
• How can the answers to the above questions be used to improve the classroom environment?

Your students are being invited to participate in a research project which forms part of the requirement for the award of my Professional Doctorate in Criminal Justice; I am writing to you in the Institute of Criminal Justice Studies University of Portsmouth St. George's Building 141 High Street Portsmouth Hampshire PO1 2HY
capacity of a student researcher. Your students are under no obligation to participate, your choice to permit their involvement will have no impact, either positive or negative, on any working relationship we might have. Your students have been chosen due to their involvement and participation on a Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire. All first year students at the Burnley Campus on this course will be invited to participate, with your consent.

An information sheet, consent form and envelope (attached) will be made available to each of your students should you agree for them to take part.

Please note that there is no obligation placed on you or your students to take part and that participation is completely voluntary. Should you agree for your students to take part and change your mind at a later stage this can easily be dealt with (at least up to the point of data analysis). The same is true for your students.

If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should ask to speak to me or my supervisor, Andy Williams, who will do his best to answer your questions and can be contacted via the following number 023 9284 3934. If you remain unhappy and wish to complain formally, you can do this via the head of department or the University Complaints Officer.

If you wish to discuss any part of this research please contact me on the details below.

Contact Information
Bernard Sheridan
Institute of Criminal Justice Studies
University of Portsmouth
Email: bernard.sheridan@myport.ac.uk

Thank you for taking the time to read this information
Appendix C (Questionnaire)

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<th>strongly disagree (1)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Undecided (3)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
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**Affiliation**

1. The students in the class work well together

2. Students often share their personal experiences during class

3. A few students dominate the discussions in the class

4. The students in the class often learn from each other

5. The students in the class enjoy working together
6. Students seldom interact with one another during class

7. Students in the class feel free to disagree with one another

8. Friendships have developed in the class

9. Students in the class learn little from one another
**Teacher support**

1. The teacher makes little effort to help students succeed

2. The teacher talks down to students

3. The teacher encourages students to do their best

4. The teacher cares about students’ feelings

5. The teacher respects students as individuals
6. The teacher likes the students in the class

7. The teacher cares whether or not the students learn
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<th>strongly disagree (1)</th>
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<th>Undecided (3)</th>
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<th>strongly agree (5)</th>
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**Task orientation**

1. The teacher seldom talks about things not related to the course

2. Students regularly meet assignment deadlines

3. Students often discuss things not related to course content

4. Activities not related to course objectives are kept to a minimum

5. Students do a lot of work in the class
6. Getting work done is very important in the class

7. The class is more a social hour than a place to learn
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<th>strongly disagree (1)</th>
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**Personal Goal Attainment**

1. The class is flexible enough to meet the needs of individual students

2. Many students think that the class is not relevant to their lives

3. The teacher expects every student to learn the exact same things

4. Students in the class can select assignments that are of personal interest to them

5. Most students in the class achieve their personal learning goals
6. The teacher tries to find out what individual students want to learn

7. Students have the opportunity to learn at their own pace
Organisation and Clarity

1. The teacher comes to class prepared

2. Learning objectives are made clear at the start of the course

3. The class is well organised

4. The class lacks a clear sense of direction

5. The subject matter is adequately covered
6. Students do not know what is expected of them

7. Learning activities follow a logical sequence
**Student Influence**

1. Students help to decide the topics to be covered in the class

2. The teacher makes all the decisions in the class

3. The teacher sticks to the lesson plan regardless of student interest

4. Students participate in setting course objectives

5. The teacher rarely dominates classroom discussion
6. Students feel free to question course requirements

7. The teacher insists that you do things his or her way
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<th>Undecided (3)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>strongly agree (5)</th>
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**Involvement**

1. Students are often bored in class

2. Students often ask the teacher questions

3. Most students enjoy the class

4. Most students look forward to the class

5. Most students in the class pay attention to what the teacher is saying
6. A few students dominate the discussions in the class

7. Most students take part in class discussion
Appendix D (Participant Information Sheet)

Study Title: ‘Perceptions of a pre-join police education course by first year university students’
REC Ref No: 14/15:03

You are invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether or not to be involved it is important to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Talk to others about the study if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear

What is the purpose of the study?
Studies in adult learning have continued to increase, and become better developed, over the past century. From such studies adult learning theory emerged, comprised of andragogy, self-directed learning, and transformational learning. The main purpose of this study is to measure the classroom preferences of students involved in a pre-join police education course. The second purpose is to identify the differences in students teaching preferences depending on seven factors.

Essentially the aims of the study are to answer the following research questions:

• What are the social characteristics of a police Foundation Degree course at the University of Central Lancashire?
• What is the student perception of the social environment of the classroom?
• What do pre-join trainers (learners) value in the classroom in terms of the social environment and student values and why?
• How can the answers to the above questions be used to improve the classroom environment?

Why have I been invited?
You have been chosen through your enrolment, involvement and participation in a Foundation Degree in Policing at the University of Central Lancashire. All first year students at the Burnley Campus on this course are being asked to participate

Do I have to take part?
No, taking part in the research is entirely voluntary. It is up to you to decide to join the study. If you agree to take part you will be given this information sheet and I will then ask you to sign a consent form. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, up to the point when the data is being analysed.

**What will happen to me if I take part?**
I will ask you to complete one questionnaire lasting approximately 10 minutes which may be followed by an interview lasting no longer that one hour. Any personal information you provide will be kept anonymous. If you are invited, or wish to participate in the interview stage notes will be taken. Again these will be kept anonymous to ensure your confidentiality.

**Expenses and payments**
No expense will be incurred by your participation. All aspects of the research will be conducted during your time at university.

**What will I have to do?**
All that is expected of you is to sign the enclosed consent form, complete a questionnaire and, if you wish to do so participate in a short interview.

**What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?**
There will be no disadvantages or risk involved in you taking part in this research.

**What are the possible benefits of taking part?**
This study seeks to assist lecturers, teachers and instructors of pre-join police courses to create an awareness about the classroom preferences of students in pre-join police education and, in turn, aid instructors in creating a more effective learning environment for you.

**Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?**
Absolutely, however if you join the study, it is possible that some of the data collected will be looked at by authorised persons from the University of Portsmouth. Data may also be looked at by authorised people to check that the study is being carried out correctly. All will have a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do their best to meet this duty.

Any data collected as a result of this study will be securely retained for a minimum period of seven years. Once the requirement to retain the data has expired then it will be securely destroyed.

Where any personal data is retained you will have the right to check the accuracy of data held and correct any errors.

**What will happen if I don’t want to carry on with the study?**
You are able to withdraw from this study at any stage, however once the data reaches the stage of analysis it might prove impossible to withdraw your contribution. As indicated above, any data collected will be securely destroyed once the expiry date has elapsed, however should you wish to withdraw prior to the analysis stage your data will be immediately securely destroyed.

**What if there is a problem?**
If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should ask to speak to me or my supervisor, Andy Williams, who will do his best to answer your questions and can be contacted via the following number 023 9284 3934. If you remain unhappy and wish to complain formally, you can do this via the head of department or the University Complaints Officer.

**What will happen to the results of the research study?**
The result of this study will be shared with fellow research students, internal and external academic assessors and auditors from the University of Portsmouth. Whilst the University of Portsmouth retains the intellectual rights to the research I reserve the right to submit my findings for consideration of publication in professional or peer-reviewed academic journals. As stated earlier your personal details will be kept confidential and anonymous.

**Who is organising and funding the research?**
I am organising and funding this research as a research student with the University of Portsmouth. All costs and tuition fees are funded by me.

**Who has reviewed the study?**
‘Research in the University of Portsmouth is looked at by independent group of people, called a Research Ethics Committee, to protect your interests. This study has been reviewed and given a favourable opinion by the Research Ethics Committee.’

**Contact Information**
Bernard Sheridan  
Institute of Criminal Justice Studies  
University of Portsmouth  
Email: bernard.sheridan@myport.ac.uk

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet, regardless of your decision to participate or not. If you decide to participate you will be given a copy of the information sheet to keep and your signed consent will be sought.
Appendix E (Consent Form)

Study Title: ‘Perceptions of a pre-join police education course by first year university students’

REC Ref No:  14/15:03

Name of Researcher: Bernard Sheridan

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated 2010 (V3) for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, up to the point when the data is being analysed.

3. I understand that data collected during the study, may be looked at by individuals from the University of Portsmouth or from regulatory authorities. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my data.

4. I agree to take part in the above study.
Name of Participant:  Date:  Signature:
Name of Person taking consent:  Date:  Signature:
(If different from the researcher)
Bernard Sheridan  
Professional Doctorate  
Student Institute of Criminal Justice Studies University of Portsmouth  

REC reference number: 14/15:03  
Please quote this number on all correspondence.

22nd September 2014

Dear Bernard,

Full Title of Study: Educating and Professionalising the Police

Documents reviewed:
Information Sheets  
Letters  
Participant Consent Forms  
Protocol  
Self Assessment Form

Thank you for your recent application to The Faculty Ethics Committee of The Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. The documentation submitted to the Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee suggests that the research undertaken for the Professional Doctoral in Criminal Justice was ethically compliant.

Kind regards, FHSS FREC

Chair

Jane Winstone

Members participating in the review:

• Jane Winstone
# FORM UPR16
Research Ethics Review Checklist

Please complete and return the form to Research Section, Quality Management Division, Academic Registry, University House, with your thesis, prior to examination.

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<th>Postgraduate Research Student (PGRS) Information</th>
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<tr>
<td>Department:</td>
<td>ICJS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Supervisor:</td>
<td>John Jones</td>
</tr>
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<td>Start Date: (or progression date for Prof Doc students)</td>
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<td>Student Perceptions of the Classroom Environment on a Police Foundation Degree Course</td>
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| Thesis Word Count: (excluding ancillary data) | 53476 |

If you are unsure about any of the following, please contact the local representative on your Faculty Ethics Committee for advice. Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University’s Ethics Policy and any relevant University, academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study.

Although the Ethics Committee may have given your study a favourable opinion, the final responsibility for the ethical conduct of this work lies with the researcher(s).

### UKRIO Finished Research Checklist:
(If you would like to know more about the checklist, please see your Faculty or Departmental Ethics Committee rep or see the online version of the full checklist at: [http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/](http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/))

<table>
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<td>a) Have all of your research and findings been reported accurately, honestly and within a reasonable time frame?</td>
<td>YES</td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Have all contributions to knowledge been acknowledged?</td>
<td>YES</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) Have you complied with all agreements relating to intellectual property, publication and authorship?</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Has your research data been retained in a secure and accessible form and will it remain so for the required duration?</td>
<td>YES</td>
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<tr>
<td>e) Does your research comply with all legal, ethical, and contractual requirements?</td>
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Candidate Statement:

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<th>Ethical review number(s) from Faculty Ethics Committee (or from NRES/SCREC):</th>
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| Signed: (Student) | Date: 22nd September 2014 |

If you have *not* submitted your work for ethical review, and/or you have answered ‘No’ to one or more of questions a) to e), please explain why this is so:

| Signed: (Student) | Date: |

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