From Police Training to Police Education: Further professionalisation through the introduction of graduate-level qualifications at constable rank

By John Nesbitt

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University of Staffordshire

Abstract

The context of this research was framed by a series of serious incidents of malpractice and criminal activity by a small number of serving police officers, resulting in negative publicity and generating the trigger points for politicians. The resultant publicity, demonstrations, and marked loss of public confidence in policing added to the pressure to reform policing in England and Wales. This centred around the initial recruitment and training for police officer recruits and witnessed the planned introduction of graduate level entry qualifications for the first time in England and Wales. However, that change was planned between 2015 and 2019 before finally being introduced in 2020, against some concerns and challenge from within policing.

This thesis examines the process of introducing new entry routes into policing at constable rank employing a mixed methods approach. Quantitative data was collected by using a survey of students following one of the three graduate entry routes, and qualitative data was solicited through the conduct of semi-structured interviews with experts directly involved in the design or implementation of the new entry route process.

Five main themes were identified through the research, firstly, the management of change in policing, which lacked any coherent plan or process and resulted in confusion. It also led to the reintroduction of a non-graduate entry route that undermined educational reform, potentially creating a two-tier police service and weakening the College of Policing's position as the professional body for policing in England and Wales. A second theme was the communication of change in policing, which was ineffective, enabling negative speculation as to the value of graduate education in policing to remain unchallenged. The third theme was the need for further professionalisation of policing. Although considered as essential in developing graduate level skills for policing in the 21st century by some individuals, others raised concerns over distinguishing between academic qualification and further professionalisation. The fourth theme related to the impact of policing cultures on organisational change, manifested as resistance to change by stakeholders. The fifth theme was students' perceptions of graduate entry programmes and considered influencing factors and the need for further research.

The results of the research reflected the complexity of managing strategic change within policing, and the issue of simultaneousness. The research also indicates a need for comprehensive and inclusive change management processes, including the need for police forces to use established change management models and processes effectively communicating the intended outcomes from the change at every stage of the process, including the implementation stage. There needs to be an acceptance that graduate level skills are necessary for policing in the 21st century, as these are transferable to investigative work by police officers, providing a holistic educational approach which equally combines practical and academic elements of the curriculum.

The future challenges faced by police forces in England and Wales require both training and education for police officer recruits and a supportive organisational culture. Strategic change in policing takes more than four or five years to implement, and requires investment in, and commitment to, longer-term strategies rather than short-term thinking for meaningful change to manifest. Without such change, the police service and the public will be worse for it.

Contents

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Author’s Declaration

I declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and have been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University.
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated.
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed.
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work.
5. Where elements of this work have been published or submitted for publication prior to submission, this is identified and references given at the end of the thesis.
6. This thesis has been prepared in accordance with the Staffordshire University and Buckinghamshire New University regulations.
7. I confirm that if the submission is based upon work that has been sponsored or supported by an agency or organisation, I have fulfilled any right of review or other obligations required by such contract or agreement.

John Nesbitt

Student 21229571 (BNU) / 18030283 (Staffordshire)

1. Introduction

By the second decade of the 21st century, policing in England and Wales faced increasing calls for further professionalisation, against a background of falling public confidence, and in a rapidly changing and increasingly complex operational environment (Martin et al., 2017). A series of high-profile incidents involving criminal behaviour by police officers, and cases of police misconduct also threatened to further undermine the police force's reputation as a legitimate organisation that was trusted to serve communities which had changed their expectations of the police (Rogers and Gravelle, 2019).

For the purposes of this research, the term 'professionalisation' relates to the existence of organisational attributes associated with policing being a profession as opposed to an occupation or a craft. Those attributes include having a professional body, a code of ethics, evidence-based practice, and accredited employment (Holdaway, 2017; Hough and Stanko, 2019). Policing in England and Wales already have these elements, so could be deemed a profession, however, there is also a view that policing is a craft, as police officers learn their role through practical application rather than academic study, and rely on proficiency in technical skills rather than on societal values and legal order (Skolnick, 1975). This difference has been the subject of academic discourse (Rogers, 2010; Rowe, Turner and Pearson, 2016; Fleming and Rhodes, 2018) and, as discussed later, is a potential source of resistance to the introduction of graduate entry programmes for police recruits. Rogers and Frevel (2018) also contend that there is a need for greater scientific education amongst police officers around the world, to meet contemporary developments.

Accompanying the professionalisation debate, were calls for graduate-level entry qualifications, which were intended to generate cultural reform (Bacon, 2014), with a focus on improvement and development of effective policing practice (Lumsden, 2017). However further professionalisation also involved meeting wide-ranging and complex challenges (McCanney and Taylor, 2023), if it was to be considered successful.

Described as "the single biggest change to police education and training for many years" (College of Policing, 2019a, p5), introducing graduate level qualifications for recruits at constable rank posed both cultural and organisational challenges for police

forces. This thesis considers these challenges, and the change management approaches used. Given the scope and scale of the change, the researcher chose a mixed methods approach to the research to capture both qualitative and quantitative data, as described in chapter three. Imposed change in organisations results from the actions of people – typically senior managers – and distinguished in the literature form environmental change, which is a broader term for changes in the organisation's operating environment, that result in change to operating processes for the organisation. In this research, the introduction of graduate programmes into policing is considered as an imposed change. However, there is a perception that 'change is continuous' (Baker, 2007, p2) and a view expressed by the pre-Socratic philosopher Heraclitus (535-475 BC) which translates as 'life is flux' (Mark, 2020, line 1).

The thesis also considers the assertions that policing is a craft, reliant on learning specific ways of working, and that police officers are trained to perform the role of a police constable in specific ways, both of which are contestable. Similarly, the suggestion that police officer initial training is limited to knowledge being learned, and skills being developed is debated, as this argument ignores the concept of education, which links knowledge and skills with understanding. Policing in the 21st century requires police officers to be reflective practitioners, who can utilise graduate level skills, including critical analysis and synthesis, to transfer their learning to the diverse nature of policing.

Viewed from a change management perspective, the main concern relates to whether the police service and its various stakeholders have both the political will and political skill to overcome the challenges of changing policing or not.

The aim of this research is to examine the process of the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank, and to address two research questions:- To what extent was the introduction of graduate-level entry routes into policing at constable rank managed as a change process? How did this change support the further professionalisation of policing in England and Wales?

There were four objectives:

- Identify change management models appropriate for use to facilitate organisational change in policing. (This is achieved in the literature review chapter.)

- Identify students' opinions regarding the new educational process for new recruits into the police service. (This is achieved by surveying existing students).
- Identify senior officers' and senior managers' opinions regarding the new educational process for new recruits into the police service. (This is achieved by conducting semi-structured interviews with senior officers and senior managers).
- Identify and analyse the arguments relating to the further professionalisation of policing and highlight issues requiring further research.

To be able to achieve the aim and therefore answer the above questions, the research includes a critical examination of the change management process to introduce the new entry routes within forces at both practitioner and strategic levels, and the influence of organisational cultures on the introduction of the new entry routes.

Following the introduction of the new entry routes during the second decade of the 21st century the number of collaborative partnerships between policing and academia increased, bringing the potential for increased benefits from collaborative research and knowledge transfer, but also recognition of the challenges in bringing academic research and policing practice together (Goode and Lumsden, 2018). Such collaboration requires a change of emphasis from academia as regards the conduct of research from "research on police… [to] research with police" (Goode and Lumsden, 2018, p2).

From a policing perspective, this collaboration offered the potential to expand the knowledge base for policing and align evidence-based policing and the further professionalisation of policing in England and Wales. It could also generate a cultural change for both academia and policing, whereby, historically, there was suspicion between both organisations, with academics perceiving police managers as resistant to evidence-based research, and police managers viewing academic research on policing as negative, intentionally critical of policing in general, and focussed on areas including accountability, performance management, measurement, micro-management, and the proliferation of bureaucracy (Goode and Lumsden, 2018). Both perceptions create a block to future collaborative research and organisational learning, including learning about the management of change.

The researcher's interest in the topic arose from thirty years of service as a police

officer in a large non-metropolitan police force and at ranks up to and including inspector, which provided experience of operational policing, police education and training, and change management. Subsequently, ten years' experience lecturing in higher education provided greater experience in terms of leading and managing change, police education and training. Post-graduate qualifications in learning and teaching in higher education, and the psychology of organisational development and change were also influencing factors. Leading on the preparatory work to introduce graduate entry programmes for policing on behalf of the University, together with the combination of theoretical and practical awareness of change management processes, generated the idea for this research, which was augmented by several professional discussions with academic colleagues across England and Wales.

The scope of the research focussed on policing within England and Wales and particularly on the introduction of graduate entry routes at constable rank, namely the Police Constable Degree Apprenticeship (PCDA), the Degree-holder Entry Programme (DHEP), and the Degree in Professional Policing (PPD). The detective version of the DHEP is included, but the Police Now programme is not, neither is the non-graduate programme, as this was introduced after this research started, and as a non-graduate programme, is not within the remit of this research. However, it is informed by research in other countries and the results of this research published as part of the final thesis, therefore may generate interest from within England and Wales, and perhaps beyond. That interest may be professional, from within policing and the College of Policing, but may also be of interest to other researchers in the same, or similar areas. It should also contribute to the increasing volume of research relating to the introduction of graduate entry programmes into policing; the change from training to education for police recruits; and the professionalisation debate. It will also highlight the paucity of research into the management of change within policing and the criticality of using effective change management processes for any change programme, particularly those seeking the introduction of fundamental changes with wide-ranging organisational impact in future years.

This has been an area of weakness within policing, potentially resulting from the historical position of police forces as hierarchical organisations utilising command and control managerial perspectives, and managers relying or positional power based on

rank. Whilst it is acknowledged that in the third decade of the 21st century such approaches have markedly changed, there remains a question whether management of change in policing is based on “assumptions about the nature of recent change… [and the] responses managers have to it” (Crouch, Sinclair, and Hintz, 1992, p24). This suggests that if previous change was not managed effectively, and ultimately did not achieve its objectives, the expectations would be that subsequent change programmes would similarly fail to deliver the expected outcomes.

A key contribution to knowledge in this area is that despite there being numerous change management models, no single model can guarantee a successful change in every organisation. Estimated failure rates for organisational change programmes are between “60-70%... [because] certain factors may be omitted or neglected… which could result in failure” (Errida and Lotfi, 2021, lines 24-27), demonstrating that the need for further research is apparent.

2. Literature Review

This chapter will provide a review of relevant literature in relation to the research question, and the identified themes of change management, (further) police professionalisation, and organisational culture. Unless specifically mentioned, the focus is on policing in England and Wales but comparisons with policing in other countries is introduced where relevant, illustrating the arguments being presented.

The aim of the review is to explore the existing knowledge and understanding of the issues, challenges and opportunities presented by introducing new entry routes as part of the change of initial police training, from the legacy Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP) to an educational process with learning being undertaken at degree level. A broad range of literature was examined relating to police training and education, organisational culture, and change management, including strategic documents issued by the College of Policing, as the professional body for policing in England and Wales, in relation to the introduction of graduate entry routes. These were primarily intended as information for police forces and, given the College of Policing's role being persuasive rather than directive, were written in a promotional style rather than providing substantive, evidence-based discussion. With this caveat, these documents appear to both inform and develop discussion relating to graduate entry routes into policing, and the stated aspiration for further professionalisation of policing in England and Wales.

Other documentation examined included publications from the UK Government, in relation to the new entry routes into policing; Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire and Rescue Services (HMICFRS); the College of Policing, as the professional body for policing in England and Wales; the National Police Chiefs' Council (NPCC), formerly the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO); and published material in professional journals, and academic texts, by authoritative authors and commentators.

Except for some seminal publications, the literature review initially focused on publications after 2000 but later supplemented with publications between 2020 and 2025, to provide currency to the discussions.

The first sub-chapter (2.1) provides context to policing in England and Wales and its

origin in 1929 as the foundation of modern policing. It will also discuss the fundamental concept of policing by consent, policing culture, the influence of government, and provide an overview of the development of initial training for police officer recruits.

The second sub-chapter (2.2) discusses the process of organisational change including the challenges of managing change. Change management models and their application to policing are discussed as well as organisational culture, resistance to change, and other potential barriers to, and enablers for, change processes.

The third sub-chapter (2.3) addresses the continuing debates surrounding the further professionalisation of policing; policing as a craft or a profession, the requirement for education as opposed to training for new recruits; and the presumed benefits of graduate, as opposed to non-graduate, programmes.

2.1 Context

Since 1829 and the establishment of modern policing in England and Wales, policing has been considered as a craft, with police recruits at constable rank requiring craft skills, learned from observing their peers, rather than formal academic qualifications. The initial recruitment policy was not to recruit 'men with the rank, habits, or station of gentlemen, but those who were physically fit, able to read and write, and of good character' (Critchley, 1972, p52) and the associated low rate of pay also led to most recruits being from working classes with little formal education. The attributes of trustworthiness, physical fitness, and being well-built were deemed more important than academic achievement and, consequently, police recruits had very similar attributes and backgrounds to their predecessors with a minority being graduates (Mark, 1978; Lee and Punch, 2004; Macvean and Cox, 2012).

The police officer's role, traditionally, included protecting and serving communities, as well as coercing and restricting citizens, which in the 21st century requires police officers to be able to reason, and produce sound operational judgements in pressured situations (Waddington, 1999b). This requires police officers to engage in meaningful reflective practice rather than being 'contemplative observers' (Wood, 2019, p377) which presents a challenge in busy operational policing environments. In a demanding, fast paced, and quantitative environment, an effective police officer must consider

problems and situations from several perspectives, question what is happening around them, contemplate the consequences of their actions and thereby avoid any unintended consequences arising from those actions. Enabling officers to develop these skills and abilities presents challenges for both universities and police forces, whilst questioning the efficacy of an applied model of police knowledge. However, such an approach is required to embed learning and assessment within police practice, whilst emphasising the importance of learning through practice (Wood, 2019).

A fundamental principle of policing in England and Wales, is that policing is done with the consent of the public, and police officers are citizens in uniform (Bowling, Reiner and Sheptycki, 2019), relates directly to the founding principles of policing attributed to Sir Robert Peel in 1829 and still resonates, being incorporated in the Police Code of Ethics (College of Policing, 2014) and referenced in both Policing Vision 2025 (APCC and NPCC, 2016) and Policing Vision 2030 (APCC, College of Policing, and NPCC, 2023). This means that the power of the police to fulfil their duties relies on public approval and their ability to secure and maintain the public's respect, trust and confidence, to be considered a legitimate organisation, holding state power, with social control being maintained through self-regulation rather than coercion (Tyler and Huo, 2002; Charman, 2017, Tyler and Nobo, 2023). Both the APCC and NPCC underlined this ethos, stating that the 'link between communities and the police will continue to form the bedrock of British policing' (APCC and NPCC, 2016, p3). It also means that the police are accountable to the public for their actions and would be unable to operate in the absence of social order (Brodeur, 2010, Jackson and Bradford, 2010; Bradford, Jackson, and Hough, 2014). However, as part of the police officer's role also includes coercing and restricting citizens in certain situations, the principle of policing by law is provided, where there is no requirement for public consent, as policing power is derived from statute (Dixon, 1997; Varghese, 2010; Loader, 2016; Shannon, 2021) enabling policing to operate in certain situations where community consent is not evident.

The concept of policing by consent has been adopted to some extent in other countries, notably Australia, Canada, and New Zealand, together with recognition that trust between law enforcement agencies and the people they protect is an essential feature in a democracy, but also alongside policing by law. Research in Australia suggests that when citizens are treated with respect, reassured, and not demeaned, they

consider police action as fair and legitimate, and are likely to be compliant in future encounters with police officers (Sunshine and Tyler, 2003; Sargeant, 2015). The USA has also taken the principle, but it is less influential on policing and closely associated with the concept of procedural justice (Tyler, 1990) whereby citizens need to consider interactions with the police as fair and that their dignity has been maintained. In terms of policing, both concepts need the consent of the public and are core features of the President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing (Department for Justice, 2015) stating that trust was "the key to the stability of our communities, the integrity of our criminal justice system, and the safe and effective delivery of policing services" (Department for Justice, 2015, p5). It is also indicative of the potential for police-community relationships to break down when the police are not trusted and not considered to be a legitimate organisation.

Another element of police legitimacy is that a police officer's authority to act is derived from law, rather than from an evidence base of research, and individual officers still have discretion over the application of the law. This reflects the principle of judicial discretion, defined as 'something to be done within the rules of reason and justice, not according to private opinion' (Lord Halsbury, 1891, p.179)'. However, the concept of newcomer socialisation can result in recruits being 'subsumed within informal occupational culture… unwilling or unable to challenge the status quo' (McDowall and Brown, 2019, p5).

2.1.1 Culture

Policing in the last quarter of the 20th century in England and Wales was presented as insular, with a 'distinct and unique occupational culture' (Lumsden, 2017, p7) which was frequently condemned as negative, deeply entrenched, discriminatory, prejudiced and pervasive (Scripture, 1997; De Lint, 1998; Fielding, 1994; Davies and Thomas, 2003; Christensen and Crank, 2001; Reiner, 2010; Charman, 2017), a perception which endured for several years. In the early years of the 21st century it arguably consisted of "multiple police cultures… [highlighting] the different elements of the police organisation" (Lumsden, 2017, p7). Recognising the interplay between historical factors and the reality of policing, its inherent dangers, conflicts, and indeterminate nature

produced a unique organisational culture, often perceived as encapsulating cynicism, pessimism, suspicion, and isolation, having a conservative, macho, action-oriented outlook (Chan, 1996; Reiner, 2010; Heslop, 2011a).

Other commentators challenged this view, (Waddington, 1999a; Sklansky, 2006; Glomseth and Gottschalk, 2009) suggesting that in the 21st century, police culture was not monolithic and many of its features were diverse, reflecting the number of specialist departments in police forces, influencing a police officer's identity and approach to their work (Heslop, 2009; Bacon, 2014; Bowling, Reiner, and Sheptycki, 2019; McCanney and Taylor, 2023). Charman (2017) posits that police culture poses many questions and provides many answers in a complex, malleable and fluid operational environment. Recognising this allows innovation to provide solutions to policing problems and is an essential component of organisational change in a police institution (Jacobs, Witteloostuijn and Christe-Zeyse, 2013). The issue of police culture is also discussed later, in the context of resistance being a barrier to change and also underlines the need for further research into the impact of organisational culture on change management within policing.

2.1.2 Influence of central government

In the 1980s, government policies focused on value for money resulting in a quantitative approach to the management of policing in England and Wales, including effectiveness and efficiency, restrictions on police officer numbers and increased levels of civilianisation (Lumsden, 2017). Other initiatives relating to the modernisation and reform included problem-oriented policing (Goldstein 1979), community-oriented policing (Sklansky, 2011), and intelligence-led policing (Ratcliffe, 2016). However, these approaches were, arguably, only limited due to 'a degree of resistance… [to] academic research' (Brown et al, 2018b, p39) and the 'loosely coupled system of regulation' (Holdaway, 2017 p1) of the forty-three operationally independent police forces in England and Wales.

Towards the end of the 20th century, different inquiries and published reports suggested improvements in police recruit training, including Scarman (1981), Home Office (1999), and MacPherson (1999). Government-led reforms in the first decade of

the 21st century included changes to the governance and control of police forces and resulted in increased centralisation and control. Pluralisation of policing saw the introduction of the extended policing family alongside standardised procedures and administration founded on new public management approaches. Shared principles of efficiency, predictability, calculability, and control, purporting to provide a 'rational system… [with] benefits for organisations and customers' (Heslop, 2011b, p.316) also produced irrationalities in policing, described as 'McDonaldization' (Heslop, 2011b).

Centralised control, driven by the Home Office setting performance targets and HMIC monitoring and measuring them resulted in a disproportionate emphasis on efficiency, calculability, and measurement (Heslop, 2011b). It also generated attempts to quantify crime rates, public confidence, and value for money, resulting in increased bureaucracy (O'Connor, 2010) resulting in police forces creating large volumes of guidance documents and becoming increasingly risk averse (Berry, 2009; Heslop, 2011b). This imposed quantitative approach for practice and process resulted in people doing what was counted, whilst a qualitative perspective focussed on public protection, reassurance and safeguarding the vulnerable' (Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018, p13) was no longer prioritised (Heslop, 2011a). However, achieving control of policing through application of, and compliance with, rules is incompatible with police officers using discretion as a key factor in operational decision-making, leading to the deskilling of police officers undermining the concept of an omnicompetent police officer (Heslop, 2011b) and impeding the delivery of increased professionalisation.

However, the need to meet future requirements for policing was not just a challenge in England and Wales. Whilst undergraduate criminal justice and criminology programmes in the USA were acknowledged as providing a 'serviceable foundation' (Department for Justice, 2015, p.51) for policing, the needs and demands facing 21st century policing required more. Police recruit training needed to be enhanced by including 'lessons to improve social interaction as well as tactical skills' (Department for Justice, 2015, p56).

The second decade of the 21st century, saw a change of government with a policy of separating central government from local policing and accountability which included replacing Police Authorities with locally elected Police and Crime Commissioners (PCC), who had the powers to appoint and dismiss Chief Constables, holding them to

account for their force's performance. This purportedly distanced central government from policing and introduced localised political influence, with most PCCs being affiliated to national political parties. However, the tendency of central governments was posited to be 'short-sighted [and] populist-oriented' (Punch, 2010, p158), with these traits also being exhibited by PCCs. Other changes contributing to the same strategy included enhancing the role of HMIC and developing the role of the Independent Police Complaints Commission (IPCC), which transitioned into the Independent Office for Police Conduct (IOPC), with a wider mandate to investigate serious complaints about police officers. The investigative functions of the IPCC had been post-event in terms of alleged police officer misconduct, however, the central intention behind the code of ethics and the IOPC was to provide a "more basic and pervasive measure" (Holdaway, 2017, p10) to effectively regulate police behaviour and prevent misconduct before it occurred.

Following changes in global economics, austerity measures imposed in 2010 arguably saw central government more directly involved and the policing budget was reduced by "just under 20%" (HMIC, 2014, p19) from 2013, as part of a wider restriction on public spending. As salaries of police officers and staff account for an estimated 80% of the police budget PCCs and Chief Officers were required to make operational decisions regarding policing priorities as well as police officer recruitment (Holdaway, 2017). These were further impacted by 'significant changes to pay and conditions' (Holdaway 2017, p13) implemented by the then Home Secretary Theresa May, following recommendations in the Winsor Report (Winsor, 2012). The subsequent appointment in 2012 of Winsor as the first non-police officer to hold the post of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Constabulary and the subsequent appointment of several non-police Inspectors of Constabulary, saw 'the potential influence of [serving] chief constables on the Inspectorate… challenged and weakened" (Holdaway, 2017, p14) effectively reducing their political powerbase.

2.1.3 Recruit training

Following the establishment of the Metropolitan Police Service in 1829, the only apparent training involved the provision of Sir Robert Peel's Nine Principles of Policing as a guide to officers as to their duties. Initial training and discipline followed a

militaristic approach, determined by chief officers the majority of whom were retired military officers. This continued without major change until the late 20th century (Rowe and Garland, 2003; Home Office, 2012; Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018) when successive governments promoted a focus on the relationship between the police and the communities (HMIC, 2002) and away from law, drill, and first aid. Recruitment also changed, with recruits in England and Wales required to have academic qualifications in English and mathematics equivalent to Level Two on the National Qualifications Framework, and to pass a selection process before undertaking a programme of training and professional development (The Police Regulations, 2003; Pepper et al, 2025). In the second decade of the 21st century, cultural and political change led to the introduction of degree-level qualifications for recruits, the rationale being to encourage applications from individuals with intellectual abilities including analytical and independent thinking, together with a theoretical understanding of problem solving (Hough and Stanko, 2019). It also reflected an aspiration that police officers would have competencies associated with higher education including critical analysis, reflective practice, and synthesis.

Whilst individual police forces retained responsibility for recruit training, the last decades of the 20th century saw initial police training being delivered at regional or district training centres under the direction of National Police Training, an arms-length department of the Home Office. The intention was to address a perceived lack of consistency in recruit training and core aspects included police officers learning police powers and procedures by rote including definitions of criminal offices (HMIC, 2002; Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018). This initial training was modular, and supplemented by a period of tutoring, or coached patrol, during which the recruit was accompanied by an experienced constable on operational duty for varying lengths of time within their home police force. Despite these changes, and guidance from National Police Training, delivery continued to vary across the forty-three Home Office forces leading to inconsistency in training and a patchwork of local delivery (Wood and Tong, 2009).

The HMIC (2002) Report ‘Training Matters’ was critical of the existing initial training programmes for, amongst other things, failing to integrate workplace training with classroom-based instruction and ineffective or inadequate supervision of recruited officers, deemed to be detrimental to effectiveness and efficiency. HMIC (2002) argued

that the development of police officers in England and Wales was a multi-million-pound operation and initial training needed to be appropriate, based on sound principles and of sufficiently high quality as to lay “firm foundations” (HMIC, 2002, p.11) for recruits. The result was the introduction of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP) which was intended to professionalise policing, create cultural change and encourage cooperation between local police forces, and new partnerships with Higher Education Institutes (Heslop, 2011a; Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018). The result was a range of accredited schemes and a polarised approach. This resulted in some police forces working in partnership with universities and colleges to develop and deliver foundation degrees in policing at level five of the National Qualifications Framework, or National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) training programmes at the same academic equivalence (Ramshaw and Soppitt 2018; Blakemore and Simpson, 2010).

The introduction of the IPLDP was intended to reform and modernise recruit training (Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018) and was influenced by the introduction of the neighbourhood policing model) which focussed on intelligence-led policing. The IPLDP was described in the early years as an ‘innovative approach… [but was] short-lived, stalling… [due to] wider socio-economic factors” (Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018 p4) including the Government’s Comprehensive Spending Review in 2010 (H.M. Treasury, 2010). The expected reform and modernisation following the IPLDP had failed to materialise, and the subsequent increased governmental desire for policing to ‘upskill and adopt new policies and practices’ (Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018, p.2) materialised at a time of both local and global challenges for 21st century society. A review of policing in England and Wales, by Flanagan (2008), considered the embedding of neighbourhood policing, efficient use of resources, reduced bureaucracy, and enhanced local accountability. It also identified people as the biggest resource in policing and suggested the correlation of ‘skills and aptitudes… [of police officers] to roles and tasks’ (Flanagan, 2008, p4) when considering workforce reform would require a strategic framework to provide career pathways through the accreditation of skills and competencies, which would also support the continuous professional development of police officers in terms of the essential skills and attributes for policing in the 21st century. This would also herald a shift from training to education within policing (Flanagan, 2008; Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018).

The delivery of recruit training was in police training schools or centres and delivered by police officers who had attended and passed National Police Training courses, gaining a City and Guilds qualification in post-compulsory adult education. The recruit training was assessed at level three on the National Qualifications Framework (equivalent to 'A' level qualifications), but without any formal accreditation. The later introduction of police staff with recognised teaching qualifications also saw police trainers undertaking teaching qualifications or NVQs in learning and development. Towards the end of the 20th century the National Police Training courses were accredited against City and Guilds teaching qualifications and, later, to NVQ Units in Training and Development, providing national recognition as post-compulsory age teaching qualifications. The first decade of the 21st century saw some police forces in England and Wales working with Higher Education Institutions to deliver foundation degrees in policing at level five on the Qualifications Framework – equivalent to Diplomas in Higher Education (Peace, 2006; White and Heslop, 2012; Bryant et al., 2014). Initial training was also accredited to a police diploma at Level three (Dominey and Hill, 2010; College of Policing, 2016).

By 2016 the legacy IPLDP was 'widely accepted as no longer being fit for purpose… [and] delivered and administered inconsistently across forces' (College of Policing, 2019a, p9) and the College of Policing introduced the PEQF, described as a radical paradigm shift (Brown, 2018) from "educating the recruited… [to] "educating the recruited and recruiting the educated" (Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018 p10). Its overall strategic purpose was to provide 'an improved service for the public' Belur et al., 2019, p77) and the rationale underpinning the PEQF was addressed by the Association of Police and Crime Commissioners and the National Police Chiefs' Council (2016) as 'supporting police education and professional development frameworks… [to attract] people with the right skills, knowledge and potential' (APCC and NPCC, 2016, p8).

This represented a major change in the approach to recruit training and, arguably, all training and education within policing, against a background of evolving crime posing new and more diverse threats to communities that were also becoming increasingly diverse and complex. The document Policing Vision 2025 (APCC and NPCC, 2016) outlined the need for workforce transformation within policing 'to be delivered by a professional workforce... [with] the skills and capabilities necessary for policing in the

21st century' (APCC and NPCC, 2016, p8). Whilst this statement seemingly echoes the underlying mantra by Flanagan (2008) to have 'the right people in the right places at the right times, doing the right things, in partnership with the public' (Flanagan, 2008, p6), an updated version – Policing Vision 2030 (APCC, College of Policing, and NPCC, 2023) – has an overall tone with a much-reduced focus on police education. This later document still acknowledges the changing landscape for policing, however the focus changes to a common 'destination for policing… [identifying] key priority themes for focus and delivery' (APCC, College of Policing and NPCC, 2023, p2) and identifies the prevention and response to crime as a core pillar in the policing vision with an 'agile service that is more efficient, productive and sustainable… [and] is effective, inclusive, and trusted by communities' (APCC, College of Policing, and NPCC, 2023, p2). This change of emphasis over eight years, coincided with the development and introduction of the graduate entry routes into policing, and indicated a change of focus away from police education and towards prevention of, and response to, crime.

The initial goal was to introduce the new entry routes by January 2020 and establish collaboration between the police forces in England and Wales and universities with degree-awarding powers. The Police Constable Degree Apprenticeship (PCDA) would provide recruits who did not have a first degree, with a degree in Professional Policing Practice, whilst graduate recruits would follow a degree-holder entry programme (DHEP) studying for a graduate diploma in Professional Policing. A Professional Policing Degree (PPD) was also available for applicants who did not have a first degree but wished to study prior to applying to become a constable.

The PCDA was introduced in September 2018 and consisted of a three-year apprenticeship including academic study combined with operational work, to be satisfactorily completed during that time. The DHEP was introduced in March 2019, involving a two-year programme of academic study with operational work enabling individuals to obtain a graduate diploma in professional policing. This was also intended as the last date for legacy IPLDP registration, and although the College of Policing 'strongly recommend' (CoP, 2019a, p29) that the legacy IPLDP and new entry route programmes should not run concurrently, different forces were ready at different times, and the legacy IPLDP was extended from 1st January 2020 until30th June 2021, a total of 18 months.

The PPD was planned for introduction from 2020 and was a three-year programme of academic study relating to policing, but without operational work, in advance of any application to join the police being made. All three entry routes covered a wide range of the police service's educational needs, including the requirement for police officer recruits to either hold a first degree, or obtain one within the first years after recruitment as a constable, for the first time in England and Wales.

An earlier introduction of graduate entry qualifications in the USA had been described as 'an organisational transition of epic proportions' (Charles, 2000, p.viii) and this sentiment was echoed when the introduction of the graduate entry routes was described as "a major undertaking… [requiring] meticulous planning… [which is] critical to aid a smooth transition" (College of Policing, 2019a, p5) and acknowledged as constituting "the single biggest change to police education and training for many years" (College of Policing, 2019a, p5) due to the complexities involved given its scale and scope.

The rationale for the PEQF was to establish a consistent national approach for police training and education, in support of the drive for professionalisation of policing (Hough and Stanko, 2019) which had become firmly established during the first two decades of the 21st century. This change of approach affects not only recruit training, but also all training and education within policing, and was in the context of evolving crime posing new and more immediate threats to communities which were becoming increasingly diverse and complex. The APCC and NPCC (2016) in its Policing Vision 2025 document stated that such a change necessitated workforce transformation whereby policing would be 'delivered by a professional workforce [with] the skills and capabilities necessary for policing in the 21st century' (APCC and NPCC, 2016, p8).

The intention was that from 2020 all new recruits into policing in England and Wales, at constable rank, either had or attained a degree-level qualification before being confirmed in post, thereby establishing policing as a regulated profession in which only those with relevant qualifications were allowed to practice (Wood, 2019; Leek, 2020). However, before the introduction of these programmes had been completed, a change of direction was announced by the then Home Secretary (Braverman, 2022) that a non-graduate entry route would still be available to recruits. This fourth route was introduced in April 2024, making the aspirations for mandatory graduate entry no longer

achievable. This undermined the attempts to further professionalise policing, the role of the College of Policing as a professional body, and the desire to distance policing from the influences of the Home Office.

This change of policy is reflected, to a degree, in the updated Policing Vision 2030 (APCC, College of Policing, and NPCC, 2023) which has a much-reduced focus on police education whilst still acknowledging the changing landscape for policing. The document focus changes to a common "destination for policing... [identifying] an agile service that is… effective, inclusive, and trusted by communities" (APCC, College of Policing, and NPCC, 2023, p2). Whilst this reflects a changed emphasis, the desired outcomes still, arguably, reflect the need for police officers to have graduate-level skills.

2.2 Organisational change and change management

Organisational change is, broadly, either transformational or incremental. Transformational change can result from a change of political leadership or administration within the organisation, resulting in changes to the usual or customary operating of the organisation. Incremental change involves improvement to the current approaches or methodologies within the organisation. Neither type of change occurs in isolation but results from circumstances or events which may be external or internal to the organisation, and in the constantly changing environment of the 21st century, organisational change is omnipresent, and its successful management is an accepted necessity (Luecke, 2003). External events include technological, political, social, or economic changes; internal events could include change within the senior management team, organisational restructure, or policy and procedure changes. The introduction of graduate entry routes into policing was described as a 'workforce transformation initiative… [to support] the education and professional development agenda…[leading to] an improved service for the public' (College of Policing, 2021a, p4). The complexity of the change was indicated when it was described as requiring 'a significant change management process… for the police service as a whole… [involving] a significant move away from traditional police training to a more professional, academic approach… to police education' (College of Policing, 2018a, p7).

Organisational change theories are concerned with complex phenomena and different perspectives with research ranging between complimentary and contradictory, and focusing on different perspectives, disciplinary boundaries, and methodologies, producing fragmented organisational change theories. There are also broad challenges for change theories in terms of scholarly quality, and practical relevance which adds to the complexity (Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron, 2001; Jacobs, Wittleoostuijn, and Christe-Zeyse, 2013).

Change management literature is dominated by planned and emergent change as the identified sources for change programmes, despite the lack of consensus about a framework. Emergent change occurs spontaneously and unexpectedly, from interactions within an organisation. Often termed 'bottom-up' it is an ongoing process rather than a single event. In contrast, the planned approach considers the process that brings about change and emphasises the importance of understanding the process necessary for an organisation to transform from an unsatisfactory position to the desired position (Burnes, 1996; Eldrod II and Tippett, 2002).

Available commentary on organisational change largely focuses on private sector organisations with relatively few from the public sector (Vann, 2004; Tsoukas and Papoulias, 2005: Fernandez and Rainey, 2006). Assertions that public sector organisations have more difficulty in making organisational change arise from the perception that specific characteristics are absent in the private sector, is questioned due to a lack of empirical research into the issue Van der Voet, Kuipers and Groeneveld (2015). Operating environments in public organisations are complicated by a combination of 'checks and balances, shared power, divergent interests and the political climate' (Van der Voet, Kuipers and Groeneveld, 2015, p290) as they deal with a range of stakeholders which impacts on both the implementation and leadership of change, and its leadership (Rowland and Higgs, 2008; Rainey and Kolb, 2014).

Reducing delivery costs of services and improved efficiency are common reasons for public sector organisations to introduce change to their organisational governance. However, environmental complexity forces public sector organisations towards using a planned, top-down approach to change, which is difficult to coordinate and direct in such complex environments and limits the effectiveness of changes and making role modelling, motivating employees, and defining the requirement to change, insufficient

driving forces (Karp and Helgø, 2009; Kuipers et al, 2014; Van der Voet, Kuipers and Groeneveld, 2015).

The degree of complexity in an organisational environment is determined by the number of dependent factors, including public accountability, scrutiny from the media and political bodies. The number of stakeholders is also a factor and for police forces includes Police and Crime Commissioners, and the Home Office, as well as the communities they police. The greater the number of stakeholders, the more likely the incidence of conflicting goals or expectations imposed on the organisation by stakeholders (Boyne, 2002; Burnes, 2009; Rainey and Kolb, 2014; Van der Voet, Kuipers and Groeneveld, 2015) and the need to deal with distributed power and authority. The relative lack of empirical research means the issue remains inconclusive (Van der Voet, Kuipers and Groeneveld, 2015), however, the activities of change leaders are recognised as key in the development of a vision for change, as role models, and for motivating employees to contribute to the change plan.

The nature of organisational change and the need for a unified change theory was addressed by Jacobs, van Witteloostuijn, and Christe-Zeyse, (2013) when discussing ten European police forces. They suggested there were risks that organisational change might violate police forces' core values and identity; that the requirement for any analysis of change was cognisant of the organisation rather than offering a universal solution; and acknowledgement of the influence of organisational cultures in different countries can have on change.

Whilst such a unified model could be applied to different organisations within the same industry or sector, for example with the forty-three police forces in England and Wales, different environmental influences may exist, or impact change to varying degrees and the changing content and context of policing is an important consideration (Caldwell, 2009).

Whether an organisation is in the private or public sector, the main function of change management is to improve the efficiency of organisations, which is acknowledged as difficult, and even though the change may be easily described, individuals who do not experience improvements from it, may view the process as wasted time (Porras and Robertson, 1992; Beer and Nohria, 2000; Ahmad, Ismail and Saleh, 2019; Bolman and Deal, 2021). This requires a depth of analysis of the organisation to create a clear

picture of how it operates and to identify any issues or problems. Improvements in relation to any identified issues or problems can then be made, rather than treating any associated symptoms. Other factors to consider include how to implement any proposed change, its likely and potential impact, the time required to effectively make the change, the cost of implementing the change, and how to monitor its impact and assess the success of the change process (Kotter, 2012).

Organisational change management has been defined as a process of constantly renewing organisational 'direction, structure, and capabilities, to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers' (Moran and Brightman, 2000, p74). Kotter and Schlesinger (1989) posit that the primary challenge for an organisation is to implement change strategies when facing intense resistance, due to a lack of change readiness amongst organisational members, which can prevent the successful implementation of change. This requires effective leadership (Gill, 2002; Marshak, 2005; Kotter, 2012) as it can affect both strategic and operational levels of an organisation but cannot be forced on employees and needs to be understood by those affected by it (Burnes, 2009; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012).

Resultant change must also be measurable, achievable and realistic, to be considered successful although there is little agreement as to how to evaluate change processes or generate insight into the concept of successful change management (Jacobs, van Witteloostuijn, and Christe-Zeyse, (2013). Change leaders need to manage the process, which involves planning and implementing change in a manner that reduces the resistance to change, the cost to the organisation, and improves effectiveness and efficiency. This includes ensuring that employees at all levels within the organisation understand what is intended to be achieved by the change, and why it is necessary (Senior, Swailes, and Carnall, 2020; Burnes, 2009). This lack of understanding for officers in policing has presented a dichotomy between professionalism being considered as a strategy by the state for promoting and facilitating occupational change, and to build "self-esteem, autonomy, solidarity and cohesiveness" (Lumsden, 2017, p15)

There needs to be clarity regarding the necessity and rationale for the change, the techniques to be used to deliver lasting change, and how to deal with the challenges of implementation the change (Palmer, Dunford, and Buchanan, 2021). The smooth

transition of any change, and achieving lasting benefits, requires a structured approach to change management which, whilst it may draw from various change management theories, does not occur in isolation from the organisational environment (Kotter, 2012). The organisation needs to identify its future position and the necessary changes to secure that position, making change management a key managerial skill (Senior, Swailes, and Carnall, 2020; Gwaka et al, 2016) and inseparable from organisational strategy (Burnes, 2009; Rieley and Clarkson, 2001). Numerous individual and workplace factors influence employees' readiness for change, but there is a paucity of integrated studies with holistic perspectives relating to those factors (Elias, 2009; Dam, 2018; Soumyaja, Kamalanabhan and Bhattacharyya, 2011).

Change management has often been associated with failures of corporate mergers and acquisitions with an estimated seventy percent of change programmes failing to deliver the intended change (Balogun and Hope Hailey, 2004; Beer and Nohria, 2000). Although most organisational change is less impactful and threatening (Jacobs, Witteloostuijn and Christe-Zeyse (2013), it still affects individuals and organisations at both operational and strategic levels (Kanter, Stein and Jick, 1992; Burnes, 2009).

Several possible reasons suggested for the failure of change management, include an inappropriately conceived future state, resistance by organisational members, incorrect implementation strategies during the transition, and a lack of knowledge of change management processes (Beckhard and Pritchard, 1992; Kanter, Stein and Jick, 1992; Burke, 1994; Siegal et al, 1996). The change management process elements are often the least considered factors which, with the lack of a suitable implementation framework, reflecting the diverse range of theories and approaches to organisational change suggest the apparent lack of supporting empirical evidence for the change (Guimares and Armstrong, 1998; Doyle, 2002; Burnes, 2009; By, 2005).

The need for change is also unpredictable but often follows a situational crisis as an example of emergent change (Burnes, 2009; De Wit and Meyer, 2005; Nelson, 2003). Factors influencing change processes include the level of trust by employees in the organisation's management, ineffective communication, and the commitment of both employees and managers to the change process (Ahmad, Ismail and Saleh, 2019). Holt et al (2007) also identified four common influences on readiness for change,

namely: the change content; the process; the internal context; and the individuals involved.

Responses to change are often ‘reactive, discontinuous, and ad hoc’ (By, 2005, p370), and change projects can also be subject to ‘poor planning, disappointing results and unintended consequences’ (Jacobs, Witteloostuijn, and Christe-Zeyse, 2013, p773). Considering these issues and the increasing pace of both technological and sociological change, indicates that ‘the primary task for management is the leadership of organisational change’ (Graetz, 2000, p550) and as change leaders, senior managers must give ‘serious thought to the kind, depth, and complexity of the changes’ (Dervitsiotis, 2003, p261) before implementing any change. Indeed, in relation to policing, Gul (2024) posits that the durability of change is dependent on the extent to which it is ‘integrated ideologically and operationally’ (Gul, 2024, p22) with other policing activities.

This is echoed in research on change programmes across ten European countries by Hirschmann and Christe-Zeyse (2013) including the academic integration and police forces’ ability to change. They posit that whilst most of the changes appeared not to encounter ‘significant resistance’ (Hirschmann and Christe-Zeyse, 2013, p156) those that did, took no account of ‘organisational, professional, or cultural parameters’ (Hirschmann and Christe-Zeyse, 2013, p156). Change is often attempted without fully understanding how the organisation works, and best practice is presumed to be applicable without considering cultural or organisational contexts (Hirschmann and Christe-Zeyse, 2013). Also, the fact that police organisations are constantly changing, means several changes may be progressing simultaneously, influencing each other, and potentially seeking to achieve conflicting results.

2.2.1 Change models

There are several suggested models for managing organisational change, however most focus on intentional, planned change and are largely developed from a three-stage model (Lewin,1951) involving the unfreezing of current behaviour, a move towards the new behaviour, and the refreezing of that new behaviour. The stages broadly represent phases that organisations needed to go through, to implement

successful change, and it was applied by Burnes (2009) who posited that whilst individuals in groups may have different motivations, but by sharing a common objective to change behaviour, they are more likely to act in collaboration, in relation to change.

Lewin's (1951) three-stage model was criticised for its focus on small-scale and incremental change (Kanter, Stein and Jick, 1992; Burnes, 1996), and the assumption that organisations operated under unchanging conditions, enabling transition from each stable stage (Bamford and Forrester, 2003). However, it has also been developed into more detailed versions, including a four-phase version involving the exploration of new courses of action, planning the change, taking action to implement the change, and integrating of the change (Bullock and Batten, 1985). Other models include a ten-point plan for organisational change (Kanter, Stein and Jick, 1992) an eight-stage process for organisational transformation (Kotter, 1996), and a seven-step process (Luecke, 2003), each of which have similar steps or stages within them.

Kotter's (1995) eight stage model is widely used by organisations including policing (Jacobs, Witteloostuijn and Christe-Zeyse, 2013; Degnegaard, 2010; Erciyes, 2018) and the consensus is that the eight stages can influence outcomes of change programmes (Burke, 2002; By, 2005), with failure being associated with any of the stages being ignored, overlooked, or underestimated by change leaders (Kotter, 1995, 1996). Change should, therefore, be considered as a process with a series of steps, with each step addressed in order, and completed, to avoid the dissipation of the urgency of change and the organisation failing to realise the intended outcomes from the change (Pettigrew and Whipp, 1993; Kotter, 1996; Burnes, 2009).

Burnes (1996) argues that these change models focus on emergent change and arose from earlier criticism of planned change models and include concepts such as continuous improvement and organisational learning. Emergent change tends to be 'driven from the bottom up… [rather than imposed] from the top down… [and is] an open-ended and continuous process of adaptation' (Burnes, 1996, p13). This also infers that change is rapid, preventing managers from effectively planning, implementing and making necessary organisational changes (Kanter, Stein and Jick, 1992), which may indicate their inappropriateness for the introduction of graduate entry routes into policing.

Given this broad range of change programmes, organisations need ‘a situational… or contingency model… to achieve the optimum fit with the changing environment’ (Dunphy and Stace, 1993, p905) which will vary for different organisations, given the range of situational variables that determine the structure and performance of an organisation. The emphasis for organisations should be on preparedness for, and the implementation of, change (Burnes, 1996; Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron, 2001; Kuipers et al, 2014), to identify the characteristics of the change process and its implementation. This assists and informs the choice of change management model, which should be considered as a process for managing change, rather than an ordered checklist (Burnes, 2009; Kotter, 1996; Pettigrew and Whipp, 1993). Erciyes (2018) suggested that no single model is right, or holds true for every organisation, or every single change programme, due to the differences in organisational dynamics, needs, and culture, including the type of change being considered.

2.2.2 The challenge of change

Whilst the difficulty of identifying consensus regarding a change management framework is acknowledged, two key elements of the process appear to be widely accepted. Firstly, the pace of change is increasing and, secondly, changes can be triggered by either internal or external factors and can vary in scale (Balogun and Hope Hailey, 2004; Burnes, 2009; By, 2005; Carnall, 2014; Kotter, 1996; Harris, 1997; Luecke, 2003). The historical perception that organisations could not improve or be effective if they were constantly changing, and that people needed settled routines to be effective is now rejected, given the increased rate of organisational change in the 21st century and organisations need to function in a state of continuous change, which is considered as routine, and a normal and natural response to changing environmental conditions (Rieley and Clarkson, 2001; Luecke, 2003).

Dunphy and Stace (1993) posit that the scale of change is determined by one of four broad characteristics: fine tuning; incremental adjustment; modular transformation; and corporate transformation. Fine tuning describes change as an ongoing process, usually at a departmental level, aligning strategy, processes, people, and structure. Incremental adjustment relates to modifications to management processes and organisational strategies, but does not involve radical change (Senior, Swailes, and

Carnall 2020). Modular transformation affects one or more departments in major change which can also be radical, whilst corporate transformation is organisation-wide and characterised by radical changes to business strategy, core values, or issues of power and status (Dunphy and Stace, 1993).

Organisational change has consistently been viewed as either a rational, strategic process whereby organisations can change to a new course; or as an evolutionary selection where organisations resist the changes in their environment (Flood and Fennell, 1995), reflecting the concepts of transformational and incremental change discussed earlier. A planned approach also presumes common agreement amongst all stakeholders involved in the change programme are willing and interested in implementing the change and ignores organisational politics and conflict (Bamford and Forrester, 2003; Burnes, 2009).

The introduction of graduate entry programmes into policing was seemingly envisaged as a planned change, but given its scale and scope, it was evidently a radical modular transformation. In the fast-changing environment of the 21st century, organisational change is also more open ended and continuous, than a pre-defined set of discrete and self-contained events (Burnes, 2009), and as change involves a move from the known to the unknown, employees tend not to support change 'unless compelling reasons convince them to do so' (D'Ortenzio, 2012, p18). Hameed et al,(2017) posit that readiness for change amongst employees who will be impacted by the change, is a key issue. This requires not just understanding, or believing in the change, but 'a collection of thoughts and intentions towards the change effort' (Benerth, 2004, p40).

Armenakis, Harris and Feild (2000) argue that successful change requires attention in five key areas. Firstly, the discrepancy component addresses the gap between the current organisational state and the desired state. Secondly, the appropriateness component indicates the proposed method of change is the most suitable means of bridging the gap. The third component relates to efficiency and represents employees confidence in undertaking the change, in terms of skills and resources. The fourth component is the principal support component and relates to the confidence that senior managers at all levels of the organisation fully support the proposed change. Personal valence is the fifth component and conveys the personal benefits for individuals. The essence of this is that open, honest communication by change agents, and involvement

of those affected by change are driving forces in the process of change management (Judson, 1991; Kotter, 1995). Therefore, any change programme requires vision, mission, strong leadership, participation, and culture (Zand, 1974; Prahalad and Hamel 1994; Senge et al. 1999;).

The challenge for policing in England and Wales, as a public sector organisation, is that effectively being a monopoly removes any requirements to be competitive or profitable, and delivery of service is difficult to measure, unlike the private sector, upon which most change programme models are based (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018). The same applies, to an extent, to the issue of continuous improvement as pressure to do so arises not from 'a highly competitive corporate environment… [but from] the cost of policing…[and] increased public demand for transparency and accountability' (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018, p 170).

There was also a perception that police forces are 'tradition-bound' (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018, p170), continue with historical management methods, and slow to respond to environmental change or to innovate (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018). This is changing, with police forces becoming more receptive to change, however, the implementation and management of change in policing can be 'a lengthy and difficult process' (Schafer and Varano, 2017, p394), evidenced by the time taken to introduce the new graduate entry programmes in England and Wales.

Change to policing in England and Wales faces wide ranging and complex challenges despite espoused benefits through professionalisation, including "a better-educated workforce with the ability and willingness to act autonomously and challenge the orthodoxy" (McCanney and Taylor, 2023, p12). That orthodoxy includes a perception that undervalues classroom-based learning, and theoretical underpinning, in favour of learning in the operational field and is reinforced through the attitudes of currently serving police officers, to the professionalisation agenda and classroom-based learning, which can range from "indifference… [to] hostility" (McCanney and Taylor, 2023, p12). This reflects the above points by D'Ortenzo, (2012) and Hameed et al (2017) to convince those affected by change to support it, and to ensure preparedness for change. Also, consideration of the five key areas identified by Armenakis, Harris and Feild (2000) could facilitate the change process.

The challenge of introducing graduate entry routes into policing included partnership

with Higher Education Institutes, recognised as ‘a major change… [which is] complex and detailed (College of Policing, 2018a, p10) as it involved two independent and distinctly different organisations, with different cultures, aims, and practices, having to undergo change management processes. There needed to be a ‘clear strategic view, and lines of communication’ (College of Policing, 2018a, p11) if such partnerships were to succeed in delivering the academic components of the entry routes, including learning, application and assessment. Lumsden (2017) argues that education and training are cornerstones of professionalisation and modernisation in policing, however there were historical perceptions of academia being anti-policing, and policing being anti-intellectual. Whilst this is challenged to an extent by the increasing number of police-academic partnerships in Australasia, Europe, and the United States of America involving training, education, collaborative research, and knowledge transfer, changes to police practice and custom arising from increased partnership working ‘can encourage resistance from street-level police occupational culture’ (Lumsden, 2017, p11) exposing differences between the strategic objectives and operational perspectives. This is especially pertinent if change is perceived to be a ‘performance management measure… [imposed by the state as] a means of keeping forces in line’ (Lumsden, 2017, p11), suggesting a dichotomy between a bottom-up, experience-based perception of professionalism, and a standardised perception that it is imposed as a top-down approach by the College of Policing or the state (Lumsden, 2017). Reiner (2010) posits that a relatively closed occupational culture within policing resulted in resistance to the concept of academics providing training to recruits, due to a presumption that “good police practitioners would automatically be good teachers” (Rogers and Gravelle, 2019, p.352). However, Martin et al. (2017) argued that Police officers required graduate level skills including critical thinking, to challenge and question organisational and societal procedures, explore “traditional and contemporary problems” (Martin et al, 2017, p212) and tackle 21st century policing (Rowe, Turner, and Pearson, 2016; Hough and Stanko, 2019; and Wood, 2019).

The successful combination of academia and policing requires understanding and mutual engagement, together with recognition of the frequently volatile operational policing environment, which is also politicised (McDowall and Brown, 2019). Also, establishing tertiary-level education as the minimum for initial entry for police officers infers that universities would have responsibility for determining what constitutes police

knowledge. Such a radical departure from the established position where police forces determined the curriculum would require time to gain full acceptance (Wood, 2019), however, there was also acknowledgement that collaboration between police forces and universities in the design of the PCDA and DHEP entry routes was important (Mulkeen et al., 2019) and essential for the effective ongoing provision of both programmes (Lester, 2020), to facilitate recruits' learning and professional competence (QAA, 2019). The initial position was that the College of Policing consulted police forces in England and Wales to construct and publish the National Policing Curriculum and following consultation with a consortium of universities, they established the minimum content required for each of the three entry routes, mandating that universities were accredited by the College of Policing, to deliver the programmes. This saw the College of Policing retain control, on behalf of police forces in England and Wales, of the curricula, the minimum content, and the delivery of the curricula (College of Policing, 2018b).

The recruit's opportunity to apply their new knowledge is also limited, and dependent on the attitude of their supervisors (Hallenberg and Cockcroft, 2017; Norman and Williams, 2017; McCanney and Taylor, 2023). At a time when policing is trying to move towards external validation through academic processes, and degree-level recognition for new entrants at constable rank, there is a cultural challenge with police forces maintaining that the experience and craft of currently serving officers is highly valued, together with the imparting of professional knowledge and experience though storytelling. This example of policing culture conflicts with an educational approach that advocates for a sound, evidential, approach to problem-solving and decision-making (Pepper, Brown, and Stubbs, 2021).

The opportunity for policing is to embrace the challenge of moving from an internally driven experience or craft perspective, towards one which is focussed on a standardised, graduate-level, recognised and validated programme of study. Facing, and accepting the challenge, would transform policing for the benefit of the community and the police service (Pepper, Brown, and Stubbs, 2021). However, the promotion of policing as an occupational profession also requires changes to central tenets in policing posing significant challenges and the potential for stakeholder resistance (Balogun and Hope Hailey, 2004; Lee and Punch, 2004; Jones, 2016).

Leadership, communication, training, planning and incentive systems are necessary tools in change management, acting as levers to move barriers to change Aladwani (2001) however, a failure by change leaders to anticipate and address environmental obstacles to change is a potential barrier (Kotter, 1995). Wiggins (2008) argues that the main challenges in the change management process are flawed change maps; complex problems; superficial solutions; misunderstood resistance to change; and the misuse of knowledge about change management processes. A lack of clear communication can also result in rumour and speculation making 'a disproportionate difference' (Gwaka et al, 2016 p4) and negatively impacting the change process.

Leaders of organisations believed to have strong cultural resistance to change, such as police forces, need to understand the organisational values and cultural dynamics (Schein, 1985; Chan, 1996). Also, according to Dubord and Griffiths (2018) successful change in policing requires a combination of: openness to, and acceptance of, the need to change; an open and receptive organisational environment; staff with the competencies to deliver the proposed change; the use of change agents to minimise resistance and promote the change rationale; and clear, consistent communication across all organisational levels. Police officers and staff from all ranks and grades have the potential as change agents, reflecting on practices, challenging them, and finding solutions to practical problems, resulting in change 'through new thinking and acting' (Wood, Fleming and Marks, 2008, p72).

The eight influencing factors in Kotter's (1995) model are firstly, the creation and communication of a vision for change, and ensuring the need for change is understandable (Kotter, 1995; Nadler and Nadler, 1998; Armenakis, Harris and Feild, 2000; Burke, 2002; Laurent, 2003). Secondly, change leaders need to provide a clear implementation for the change, and to arrive at the desired state envisioned by the vision (Kotter, 1995; Nadler and Nadler, 1998; Lambright, 2001; Young, 2001). The third factor involves building organisational support for the change and overcoming resistance, because change 'involves a political process' (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006, p170). Individuals resist change for a variety of reasons, their participation in the change process can help overcome that resistance (Nadler and Nadler, 1998; Abramson and Lawrence, 2001; Young, 2001). However, Kelman (2005) cautions

change leaders about overestimating change resistance, as some employees may be persuaded through good communication and a clear plan, as to the need for change.

The fourth factor relates to the need for strategic management support and commitment which is stable and continuous (Holzer and Callahan, 1998; Fernandez and Rainey, 2006). This is crucial for any successful change implementation (Kotter, 1995; Nadler and Nadler, 1998; Burke, 2002) but particularly so in the public sector (Abramson and Lawrence, 2001; Lambright, 2001; Young, 2001; Laurent, 2003). The fifth factor involves building external support from stakeholders, but also from 'political overseers' (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006) which can be challenging in relation to public sector organisations. Such political support also neds to be stable and continuous.

The sixth factor involves providing sufficient resources to support the process and deliver the change, which can be expensive, as it involves redeploying or redirecting organisational resources, and people (Nadler and Nadler, 1998; Burke, 2002; Boyne, 2003; Rossotti, 2005). The seventh factor requires the institutionalisation of the change, including implementing the change pan, and then embedding it into the organisation. This can take time, as employees need to learn new routines and processes, and discard the old ones. There is no optimal pace for this process (Kotter, 1995: Armenakis, Harris and Feild, 2000; Fernandez and Rainey, 2006), however an overly long time to institutionalise change can cause problems if there is a change of political leadership which diminishes the commitment to, and resolve for, change (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006).

The final factor relates to the pursuit of comprehensive change, that achieves 'subsystem congruence' (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006, p173). Any systems or sub-systems affected by any planned change also need to be considered for change, or at least adjustment, to ensure effective operation of the new processes (Nadler and Nadler, 1998; Hannan, Polos and Carroll, 2003; Fernandez and Rainey, 2006) if additional cost, and delays to the change programme are to be avoided. This aligns with understanding both the complexities and interactions within organisations, and in the organisational environment.

2.2.3 Organisational culture and change

Organisational culture has been defined as the shared understandings of the workings of an organisation and influences change initiatives (McAdams, 1996) which includes ‘a pattern of basic assumptions… considered valid and taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel’ (Schein, 1985, p9). In public services, including the police service, the informal organisation comprises the culture, values, and normal operating methods, which may be ‘dominated by longer-service employees with deeply entrenched behavioural culture’ (Cunningham and Kempling, 2009, p331) that may either facilitate or impede change programmes. Although often perceived as an impediment to change (Chan, 1997; Campeau, 2017) this may present a set of tools to be utilised’ (Charman, 2017, p152).

Newcomer socialisation can result in recruits subconsciously absorbing the policing cultural aspects and accepting them without challenge, (Fielding, 1989; Chan, 1997; Settoon and Adkins, 1997; Reiner, 2010; McDowall and Brown, 2019), or modification (Shearing and Ericson, 1991). It is suggested that police culture is not deterministic, but provides a framework for consideration, with the operational context of policing being more impactful than expressed opinion or behaviour (Fielding, 1989 and 1994; Waddington, 1999a; Reiner, 2010; Reicher, Spears and Haslam, 2010). Cultural knowledge and the context of policing are interconnected, neither is superior to the other, but interactions between them are not always reflected in literature (Chan, 1997; Sklansky, 2006; Shammas and Sandberg, 2015; Ganapathy and Cheong 2016).

Changes in policing cultures are reflected around the world, through research in the USA (Cochran and Bromley, 2003), Australia (Westera et al, 2013) and Mexico (Mercadillo et al, 2015) and policing no longer ‘consumes the lives of officers’ (Brough, Chataway and Biggs, 2016, p33) who are not as socially isolated as previously (Paoline and Terrill, 2014). There are also limits to the extent of loyalty shown to colleagues, marking a change in culture in Germany (Glaeser, 2000); in Ireland (Charman and Corcoran, 2014); and in Singapore (Ganapathy and Cheong, 2016). Increases in inter-agency collaboration has also shaped and altered police occupational cultures (Charman and Corcoran, 2014; O’Neill and McCarthy, 2014; Whelan, 2017). Whilst this reflects a need to change such a ‘dominant policing culture’ (McDowall and Brown, 2019, p5) to one more receptive to evidence-based policing practice, research

suggests there remain elements of policing culture which are more persistent and entrenched (Loftus, 2008, 2009, and 2010; Scerra, 2011; Steyn and Mkhize, 2016).

Research into change within both military and policing organisations stresses the importance of understanding the culture and the use of appropriate change management processes (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006; Cunningham and Kempling, 2009; Davidson, 2013;Gerras and Wong, 2013). The contention that police organisational culture is not monolithic but is malleable was discussed in the previous subchapter (Jacobs, Witteloostuijn and Christe-Zeyse, 2013; Heslop, 2009; Reiner, 2010; Bacon, 2014; Wood et al., 2018; Bowling, Reiner, and Sheptycki, 2019; McCanney and Taylor, 2023). This suggests it is open to influence from individual thinking and the wider policing environment, and applying 'a police subculture schema' (Sklansky, 2007, p21) to policing does not consider the differences between officers, undertaking different roles (Filstad and Gottschalk, 2011; Loftus, Goold, and Giollabhui, 2016), in different locations (Christensen and Crank, 2001; Dick, 2005; Dick and Jankowicz, 2005; and Nickels and Verma, 2007), or holding different ranks (Reuss-Ianni, 1983; Reiner, 2010; McManus, 1997; Savage, Charman and Cope, 2001), and does not consider the complexities of police identity and the dynamic processes involved (Charman, 2017, and 2018)

The need for a different perspective on organisational change is suggested by Wood, Fleming and Marks (2008), who posit that rather than thinking about cultural change necessitating major changes to traditional practices, and belief systems, a 'micro-level view'(Wood, Fleming and Marks, 2008, p73) enables thinking about individuals being engaged in practical problem solving as part of a participatory action research approach. This infers that human agency – the 'capacity for individuals to adopt beliefs and actions and thereby transform their social background (Bevir and Rhodes, 2006, p5) – should be central to change processes in policing.

The transition in police recruit training from 'a paramilitary model of traditional training… to an andragogical and learner-oriented model' (Belur et al, 2019, p82), and the existence of a 'subcultural preference towards traditional policing' (Chappell, 2007, p501) represents change which faced resistance in terms of policing culture. Traditional police socialisation is characterised by 'obedience to authority, stress and hierarchy' (Belur et al, 2019, p83) which is contrary to independent, critical thinking as

promoted within the graduate entry programmes. Graduate level teaching based on university campuses also represents a change from the 'traditional academy model… [which could] counteract the negative aspects of recruit socialisation and police culture' (Belur et al, 2019, p82).

The extremely complex nature of policing generates tensions between unsolved priorities and the need for change, given the demands for maximised performance and minimised cost (Fleming and Rhodes, 2005; Wood, Fleming and Marks, 2008). Each police force has demographic variance as regards the population it serves; leadership styles; and organisational characteristics. As police forces are still hierarchical organisations, the views of rank-and-file officers are often overlooked or ignored in terms of change management (Wood, Fleming and Marks, 2008; Erciyes, 2018); individual officers' capacity to be proactive as change agents is limited by work demands (Fleming, 2005); and despite most police officers being pragmatic and using known methods to resolve problems, trying different approaches can seem a waste of time and resources (Wood, Fleming and Marks, (2008).

Management styles which are not inclusive of the views of more junior officers, can hinder change, highlighting the need for change managers to understand the organisation's capacity for change in terms of its resources, processes, and values Erciyes (2018). Indeed, millennial officers who may now be applying to become police officers, are 'impatient for promotion, desire responsibility… [and have an] aversion to hierarchy and titled authority and want a voice in decisions made' (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018, p169) which may also signal a potential cultural shift. Similar arguments suggesting police officer recruits in the 21st century are more accepting of change (Batts, Smoot and Scrivner, 2012; Eldridge, 2012; Olson and Wasilewski, 2014) but also less accepting of top-down change driven by leaders that is perceived as 'disruptive and intrusive' (Strebel, 2006, p45) may also herald cultural change. The apparent lack of 'universal rules… to leading and managing change' (By, 2005, p375) in policing may also present a barrier and highlight the need for further research in this area (Duxbury, Kangas, and De Beukelaer 2016).

2.2.4 Resistance to change

Employee resistance to change has been defined as conduct employees adopt to preserve the status quo when facing pressure, or a perceived threat to their security or status or something they value, rather than the change itself (Dent and Goldberg, 1999). Although police officers are not 'employees' this also applies within policing. It can arise from individuals' misunderstanding the purpose, mechanics, or consequences of change; a failure to recognise the necessity for, implications of, or rationale for of change; fear of the unknown; or their inability to cope with the change process and its implications (Sköldberg, 1994; Kotter, 1996; Bovey and Hede, 2001; and Bessant, 2009; Gul, 2024).

Anderson and Ackerman-Anderson (2001) posit that resistance to change is associated with employees who have worked for an organisation for an extensive period and who might also negatively influence others in relation to proposed changes (Kotter, 2012). Resistance to change can be reduced if those individuals impacted by proposed organisational change understand why the change is needed; the implications for themselves and identify any personal benefits for example acquiring new skills or higher organisational status; and how they will adjust to the change (Nickols, 2012, Kotter, 2012). The perception that changes resistance is due to employees seeking to sabotage change is also challenged by Ford, Ford and D'Amelio (2008) who posit that resistance could be a warning about ensuing counterproductive change effects or threats to the organisational identity.

Whilst there may be several reasons for individuals' resistance to organisational change, Piderit (2000) identified three broad categories of resistance: 'cognitive, emotional, or intentional' (Piderit, 2000, p 786) whereas Maurer (2024) suggested different terms for three levels of resistance: the rational level, the emotional level, and the relational level. The description of the three categories or levels of resistance are similar, with resistance to change commonly arising from a lack of information about a change; disagreement with the interpretation of the information provided; ineffective or insufficient communication of essential change information; or confusion about the meaning of a change.

Initial responses to change often include disbelief, anger, feelings of loss, and depression all of which may involve ‘a strong need for accurate information’ (Gwaka et al, 2016 p. 2). Moving individuals from resistance, to acceptance, recognises different stages in both the change process and the degree of resistance, and requires ongoing support from change managers (Nickolas, 2006; Gwaka et al, 2016). Similarly, as individuals rationalise the change, and accept it, other support may be required. Also, a willingness to change suggests flexibility and whilst unforeseen events in the change process may present difficulties, many individual’ concerns can be mitigated with clear communication of the change vision and its objectives, together with their being involved in, and consulted about, the change process (Kotter, 1995; Dent and Goldberg, 1999).

Effective communication is key to resolving resistance to change and is particularly difficult with resistance at the emotional level that arises from fear and a desire to survive. This could include emphasising the benefits of change at both the organisational and individual levels and involving individuals in the change process. If the change is perceived as having negative implications for employees, clear and honest communication can create respect and trust, whilst avoiding misinformation and rumour (Maurer, 2024).

The importance of effective communication was illustrated by the use of the phrase ‘police professionalisation’ in messaging about the graduate entry routes, which was interpreted by some serving officers as implying they were not professional (Lumsden, 2017) and created resistance to the change.

Resistance at the relational level relates to employees’ personal trust towards, and confidence in, leaders or those introducing the change. Overcoming this level of resistance requires leaders to adopt a strategy of taking responsibility for actions or situations that contributed to any lack of trust or confidence; meeting personal commitments regarding the change strategy, timelines or actions; and seeking mutual knowledge and understanding between change managers and employees (Maurer, 2024). The issue of leadership is discussed in more detail in the next sub-chapter.

Opposition to any change exists at both individual and organisational levels (Gul, 2024) and resistance from external sources can be extensive and challenging Stojkovic, Kalinich and Klofas (2000), which would include resistance from stakeholders, who in

the case of Police and Crime Commissioners, can be very influential. Leadership, organisational values, and customary practices, also have considerable influence on the success of any proposed organisational change (Stojkovic, Kalinich and Klofas, 2000).

Resistance to change carries a negative connotation and is associated with undesirable attitudes and counter-productive behaviour (Waddell and Sohal, 1998), however, it can also have a positive influence if the resistance is based on valid perceptions that are consequently considered by change agents (Robbins, 1998). The issue of employee resistance is therefore intertwined with change and is a 'significant issue facing management' (D'Ortenzio, 2012, p13) and a key factor in the failure of change programmes, as employee's readiness for change is impacted by involved communication, their organisational identity, and their beliefs relating to the organisation, which in turn may mitigate their resistance to change (Hameed et al, 2017).

Organisational change can also be supported by adopting nine key principles suggested by Cunningham and Kempling (2009), the first four of which relate to facilitating the start of a change process. These include forming a guiding coalition of change agents to support the change; recognising and responding to resistance; clearly establishing the need for change; and articulating the envisioned outcomes for the change. Another three principles relate to the facilitation of the change process, specifically: establishing an implementation process for the change; focusing on continuous improvement; and developing a commitment plan to provide progress on the change. The final two principles are to have change managers engaged with the informal system within the organisation, to facilitate change, and changing Human Resource systems and structures to institutionalise change (Cunningham and Kempling, 2009). These principles directly relate to the use of change management models discussed above (Lewin, 1951; Bullock and Batten,1985; Kanter, Stein and Jick, 1992; Kotter, 1996; and Luecke, 2003).

Kotter (1996) also identified factors which undermine effective change management, including a lack of clear and powerful guidelines for the change; a restricted vision for the future; failing to counter complacency about the change; failure to resolve problems as they arise; focus on long-term gains at the expense of short-term benefits;

premature acknowledgement of the successful achievement of the change; and failing to establish the change into organisational culture (Kotter, 1996) which broadly align with a lack of effective communication.

Nadler and Tushman (1995) also identified informal organisational arrangements, formal organisational arrangements, people, and work as four interrelated organisational components requiring consideration when managing change. They also argued that for change management to succeed, the perception that organisations need only to focussed on the task of change, must be ignored. The complexity of organisations and the interconnectedness of their component parts underline the need for understanding of both the formal and informal components and the simultaneous actions and interconnectedness of those components (Waterman, 1987; Stacey, 1996; Wheatley, 2006;).

Situational factors also impact on an organisation's implementation of change, namely the age and size of the organisation, its technical systems, its environment, and the nature of control exerted on it from different sources (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991) including external stakeholders. The more established organisations have more formalised behaviours, and the larger the organisation, the more elaborate its structure. Technical systems relating to the operation of, and output from, an organisation and its degree of regulation also require consideration and understanding. The operational environment includes both political and economic climates in which the organisation functions, its relationship with stakeholders and their exercise of power all influence the organisation's response to change (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991). These factors apply to each of the forty-three police forces in England and Wales, to some degree, and corelates with arguments that organisational change is contingent upon the alteration of employees' behavioural patterns and that attitudes and abilities also need to change (Roberg and Kuykendall, 1997; Stojkovic, Kalinich and Klofas, 2000).

The different impacts of change in any organisation must be identified and acknowledged, and change managers, particularly in policing organisations, need to recognise that organisational change is often a gradual process, which does not produce immediate results (Moran and Brightman, 2001; Gul, 2024). Change leaders, therefore, need to develop contingency plans in anticipation of organisational change

producing unintended outcomes, or not fully producing the anticipated outcomes (Gul, 2024).

Melchor (2008) suggests reasons for resistance in the public sector include a lack of coherence of the change, fear and uncertainty about a new work environment, and negative implications perceived by individuals relating to the change. Other suggested factors include a lack of clarity about reform, poor communication, the imposition of change, and the diminished importance of people following the proposed change (Melchor, 2008) resulting in increasing uncertainty and distrust.

Risk avoidance perceptions by police leaders alongside resistive mindsets amongst supervisory officers can contribute to a failure to change policing (Skogan, 2008), as reform in policing tends to be top-down, and driven by external pressures from communities, or stakeholders (Bayley, 2008; Duxbury, Kangas, and De Beukelaer, 2016). This often results in any change being 'slow, incremental, reactive, and non-transformational' (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018, p170) which can be overcome through a combination of 'exhortations of senior leaders' (Mastrofski and Willis, 2011, p102) and involvement of 'front-line workers… [in] decision-making' (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018, p170). However, within policing organisations, the involvement of rank-and-file officers as change agents, is rare.

2.2.5 Leadership

Credible, effective, leadership can moderate the effects of organisational change processes (Romme and van Witteloostuijn, 1999) and is a key factor for implementing change in any organisation (Kotter, 1996; Gabris, Golembiewski, and Ihrke, 2001; Charlesworth, Cook and Crozier, 2003; Kavanagh and Ashkanasy, 2006). Change from a transactional leadership style towards a transformational style also assists in the anticipation of negative effects of organisational change (Conger and Kanungo, 1987) and builds legitimacy and commitment to any change process (Bass, 1985; Shamir, House and Arthur, 1994) because acceptance cannot be enforced by decree.

Whilst employee engagement cannot be guaranteed, and resistance is often identified as a primary cause of change failure (Argyris, 1990; Fiol, 2002), a significant alteration of senior managers in a Canadian police service enabled innovation and resulted in 'a

change culture… [and improved] effectiveness and efficiency of police service delivery' (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018,pp 168-169). Clear messages from change leaders and other senior managers that change is internally driven and consistent with the organisation's identity can also counter change resistance (Jacobs, van Witteloostuijn, and Christe-Zeyse, 2013).

Whilst leadership may be evident at all levels of an organisation, an essential element in the management of change is the engagement of both the senior managers and political stakeholders, who influence organisational strategy (Christensen, 2006; Ridder, Bruns and Spier, 2006), which is particularly applicable to policing, with its tendency toward hierarchical leadership and top-down approaches to change (Borins, 2002). This also recognises the continuing change in police forces in England and Wales away from 'a paramilitary and hierarchical paradigm to a more decentralised and participatory' (Gul, 2024, p22) structure, which needs to continue, enabling officers and staff to engage with change processes. This is dependent on the willingness from everyone in the organisation to make the change, rather than merely responding to decree or orders from senior officers and is necessary in a 'dynamic criminal justice system… [where] effective change is demonstrated through proficient management and dedicated leadership' (Gul, 2024, p31). Whilst police leaders, at senior levels, are accustomed to leading police organisations operationally, some may lack the knowledge and experience of managing organisational change, or to effectively communicate the need for change and lead its implementation (Santos and Santos, 2012) and rely on clearly worded directions and orders to explain the need for change and to overcome any potential resistance.

2.2.6 Application to policing

As stated elsewhere, many of the suggested change principles and processes are founded on their application in private sector organisations, and not directly applicable to the police, as a public sector organisation (Ferlie et al, 1996), and accountable to several stakeholders with different political ideologies (D'Ortenzo, 2012) that can challenge the efficacy of any change management processes. However, the underpinning principles of the processes and models can be interpreted for the policing

operational environment, its organisational structure, and the influencing factors including the Home Office and Police and Crime Commissioners as stakeholders.

The challenge for the leaders of the forty-three police forces in England and Wales is for any change programme to be clearly established and agreed by senior leaders who, on behalf of their respective forces, need to identify organisational leaders who can create the atmosphere to motivate others in relation to the proposed change. Whatever model is selected for implementing the change, it must include the identified features from change models, including the development of a clear vision to move from the status quo to the future desired state. That vision must be clearly and consistently communicated throughout the police force and to all stakeholders (Farrell et al, 2005), because any differences between what leaders say, and what they do, leads to distrust (Simonson, 2005). The change process must cater for resistance to change, and leaders need to develop strategies to assist officers and staff to work through their resistance (Kohles, Baker and Donaho, 1995).

Many factors can determine the successful implementation of change, including sufficiency of resources, and incentives to support, or resist, change (Thomas, 2006). The success of any change programme depends on the pre-defined desired future organisational state (Kuipers et al, 2014) which is also intricately linked with its defined goals (Weissert and Goggin, 2002).

The implementation of graduate entry programmes and partnership with HEIs in England and Wales presented a ‘major step-change’ (College of Policing, 2021a, p16) and Belur et al (2019) reviewed evidence relating to recruit training across various countries. They argued that moving initial training from ‘para militaristic models to encouraging independent thinking and problem-solving necessitates changed organisational culture… [which] valued operational expertise over theoretical knowledge’ (Belur et al., 2019, p86). Such a change is a longer-term process, with the results not being immediately evident (Charles, 2000; Chan, Devery and Doran, 2003) and requiring longer-term strategic and political commitment, rather than the satisficing of short-term political goals. This requires a changed perspective from the traditional evaluation of training success which only considered trainee satisfaction or their success in passing an assessment and rarely moving beyond the first levels of evaluation (Kirkpatrick, 1959).

The reconceptualisation introduced under the PEQF in England and Wales requires evaluation to enable the College of Policing and individual police forces to measure the impact of graduate entry programmes 'beyond Kirkpatrick's four levels' (Belur et al, 2019, p87) and include the contribution to communities and society (Kaufman and Keller, 1994), giving evidence relating to the return on investment in recruit training which has been demanded in numerous reports on policing (Flannagan, 2008; Casey, 2023).

The argument that 'underdeveloped theory guiding police training' (Belur et al, 2019, p87) resulted in the learning and teaching strategies to integrate theory and practice being unarticulated and rarely tested. They posit that this is compounded by the lack of 'a proper theory of change… to guide the design and implementation' (Belur et al, 2019, p88) of the graduate entry routes and impedes any evaluation of the relative success from implementing the change.

Hough and Stanko (2018) refer to the need for a change theory to identify the 'key elements of policing that should be instituted by effective police training and education' (Hough and Stanko, 2018, p12) and the key steps to enact such a change. They suggest this iterative approach to the balance of field and learning would produce recruits who use information and evidence to improve… ways of working' (Hough and Stanko, 2018, p19), the benefit being that police recruits would achieve independent patrol status as independent decision-makers, 'using best knowledge to foster high professional standards' (Hough and Stanko, 2018, p19).

Outputs resulting from a change are easier to measure, including consequential impacts from the process of change, and Anderson and Ackerman-Anderson (2001) suggest the outputs could include how well the change process expectations were met; how effective the steps to build readiness and capacity for the change were; and how well-established relationships and partnerships supported the change process. However, these are qualitative measures rather than quantitative measures that have traditionally been used for evaluation in policing.

Many of the intended outcomes from the introduction of graduate entry programmes can be ascertained from various publications, but appear not to be clearly listed in documentation, and so appearing aspirational. For example, newly recruited police officers are expected to 'acquire high levels of professional knowledge to a range of

challenging situations, across increasingly complex and diverse communities' (College of Policing, 2023, p.8). The police constable graduate entry routes were designed to maintain standards, ensure consistency in policing, provide the best possible opportunities to prospective candidates, and attract a diverse workforce into policing (College of Policing, 2023). The desire to increase the diversity of police officers is echoed in the Policing Vision 2025 document which states the aspiration of the police service to 'attract and retain a workforce of confident professionals able to operate with a high degree of autonomy and accountability and will better reflect its communities' (APCC and NPCC, 2016, p3). This also suggests another anticipated outcome, that introducing graduate entry qualifications 'may attract higher… [applications] from under-represented groups… [seeing] the status of policing raised though formal qualifications' (College of Policing, 2016, p24). The measurement or assessment of the degree of achievement of each intended outcome is not specified or detailed, but presumably would be in comparison to the pre-existing, undesirable state, presuming the existence of suitably comparable data being held by police forces.

2.3 Professionalisation

Historically, policing in England and Wales has been considered by many to require craft skills rather than professional status, often posed as a binary choice. The debate regarding the professionalisation of policing in England and Wales has continued for almost two hundred years, since the founding of the Metropolitan Police in 1829 (Neyroud, 2011; Heslop, 2011b; Holdaway, 2017; Lumsden, 2017; Hough and Stanko, 2019; Norman and Fleming, 2022), and police officers at the time, learned their role through practical application, rather than academic study, as did apprentices learning a craft.

Discourse has been around the role of policing being traditionally considered an artisan craft, and not a professional occupation (Rogers, 2010; Rowe, Turner and Pearson, 2016; Fleming and Rhodes, 2018; Rogers and Frevel, 2018), and there is resistance regarding transformational change presented by the involvement of higher education (Cox, 2011). Skolnick (1975) suggested policing was a craft because it relied on proficiency in technical skills, rather than a profession which relied on societal values and legal order. Martin (1995) discussing Canadian policing, argued that a blend of

policing craft skills, and professionalisation was necessary in modern policing, and similar commentary was made in relation to policing in Australia (Green and Gates, 2014) and the USA (Crank, 2004). Perceiving policing as a craft, rather than a profession reflects the suggestion that police training is about knowing what to do, when to do it, and how to do it, which is in tension with both evidence-based research, police education, and enabling innovation to be generated in operational policing (Hough and Stanko, 2019).

Since the beginning of the 21st century the benefits of enhancing educational levels for police recruits has been debated in different countries (Punch, 2007). In the USA, the President's Task Force on Policing highlighted the benefits of embedding training and education into policing (Office of Justice Programs, 2015) and the publication in England and Wales of an updated policing vision incorporated the importance of developing a learning culture within policing (APCC, College of Policing and NPCC, 2023). Issues regarding the accreditation of police training in Canada (Public Safety Canada, 2013) and in Australia, (Trofymowich, 2007) were raised, using education and training to enhance police professionalism. In England and Wales, the College of Policing (2019b) suggested that the introduction of the PEQF was directly associated with police professionalisation, the intention being to set 'a modern benchmark for the education of the police constable' (College of Policing, 2019b, p9).

Pepper, et al (2025) posit that these debates are not new, identifying that professionalisation of policing had been proposed by Vollmer (1933), linking higher education with training and professional development. There were also widely expressed expectations that formal qualifications and higher education would produce an enhanced police service, supporting accountability, further professionalisation, and legitimacy, whilst also developing individuals' critical and flexible thinking skills (Punch, 2007; Paterson, 2011; Cordner, 2019; Pepper et al, 2025). The College of Policing also described the PCDA curriculum as covering the knowledge, skills, and professional approaches necessary for 21st century policing and being 'professionally transformative' (College of Policing, 2021b, p7).

Whilst the evidence base relating to the value added by higher education is mixed, there is still evidence that it is 'important in everyday policing practice' (Pepper, et al, 2025, p3). Recognising policing as a profession continues to develop (Green and

Gates, 2014) but the integration of policing with higher education is still in progress (Cordner, 2019).

A range of definitions of professionalisation both inside and outside policing have been presented (McCanney and Taylor, 2023) and the topicality of police professionalisation increases following events which cause crises in public confidence relating to, or governmental policy on, policing. These invariably lead to calls for improvements in training and recruitment (Lumsden, 2017) and involve multiple stakeholder perspectives on the issues (Brown et al, 2018a) which are not necessarily similar.

By the end of the second decade of the 21st century, the quest for further professionalisation resulted in degree level qualifications (equivalent to level six on the National Qualifications Framework) for police officer recruits in England and Wales being introduced for the first time under the PEQF. The expectation was that this would meet the 'professional requirements of 21st century policing … [ensuring] national consistency of professional education… [and] a values-based, ethical approach to policing' (College of Policing, 2021b, p6)] and generate increased levels of applications form individuals with intellectual abilities including analytical, independent thinking, and theoretical understanding of problem solving (Hough and Stanko, 2019).

This also reflected an expressed desire for police officers to have competencies associated with higher education, including critical analysis, reflective practice and synthesis. Introducing a 'professionally transformative' (College of Policing, 2021b, p7) programme at graduate level and identifying police officers undertaking the new entry routes as 'ever more capable problem-solvers… [who are] increasingly socially and emotionally intelligent individuals" (College of Policing, 2021b, p7) without any clear evidence-based research, undervalues police officers who undertook the legacy IPLDP entry route, potentially creating a barrier for the change process. This highlights the dearth of research in this area (Huey, 2018) whilst 'methodological short comings in research… [make] definitive conclusions problematic [and infer that] policing or criminal justice degrees confer no particular advantage' (Brown, 2018, p9).

The experience of degree-level study itself may be important, rather than the topics studied (Brown, 2018), and the 'weight and direction of existing findings suggest more positive than negative associations with higher levels of education' (Brown, 2018, p9), however any desired benefits from recruits holding or obtaining degree level

qualifications and possessing associated graduate skills could be ‘undermined by staff resistance’ (Hough and Stanko, 2019, p36) following their exposure to organisational cultures often negatively associated with operational policing.

Professions are distinguished by having high status or high skill, or by members of a profession to have a politically supported monopoly (Durkheim, 1958; Rogers and Gravelle, 2019) which suggests individual police officers have a level of expertise gained through education, training, and experience.

Distinguishing between craft and profession creates uncertainty in terms of the definition of a profession (Rowe, Turner and Pearson, 2016) and although both approaches develop individuals through a combination of education and practical experience, the level of education associated with a profession is likely to be higher, with the more technical instruction being associated with a craft. Achieving such levels requires a move away from traditional training methods associated with a “guild like craft… [and towards] a true professional status” (Rogers and Gravelle, 2019 p.353). Indeed, Neyroud (2011) outlined principles for a more professional police service in the 21st century, including the need for the police, and policing, to be democratically accountable, legitimate, evidence-based, nationally and internationally coherent, capable, competent, and cost-effective.

The perception that police officers are not professionals because they acquire their knowledge and skill from operational working, rather than in separate academies, and do not produce new knowledge about their craft is countered by the establishment of the College of Policing as the de facto professional body for policing in England and Wales, and their introduction of evidence-based policing practice. This is reinforced through work involving universities conducting research in partnership with police forces, and the APCC and NPCC (2016) stated that their vision was to support “key aspects of policing training and development through academic accreditation which recognises the skills and knowledge of our workforce” (APCC and NPCC, 2016, p9).

Professions also have characteristics that distinguish them from occupations, including a professional body; a code of ethics; evidence-based practice; and accredited employment (Holdaway, 2017, Hough and Stanko,2019). The College of Policing (2015) indicated that the first three of these characteristics had been established, and suggested that “skills accreditation, qualifications, and licensing for specialist practice”

(College of Policing, 2015, p18) would constitute the fourth element. However, in the years following its inception, the College of Policing has not pursued the issue of licensing police officers to practice, as this was specifically excluded at the inception of the College of Policing (Home Office, 2012) and would conflict with the fundamental role of a police officer as a Crown Servant, invested with authority to use discretion when undertaking their duties. Instead, there have been moves to achieve accreditation through academic qualification, rather than licensing.

A contested definition of 'professional' is that it represents 'a subgroup of occupations… [distinguished] by a commitment to altruism and the public good over personal gain' (Müller and Cook, 2024, p6). Over time, however, the meaning of the term has evolved from a person who belonged to a profession, to the description of a person earning money from an occupation as opposed to a trainee or amateur, and in the middle of the 20th century taxonomies of the traits inherent in professional people indicated they undertook intellectual operations with a high degree of individual responsibility (Müller and Cook, 2024). Most recently, additional factors distinguishing professions from other occupations include 'high levels of training, self-regulating professional bodies, and a privileged status in society' (Müller and Cook, 2024, p6). Mezza (2022) posits that a profession is enquiry-oriented and knowledge building, with professionals being both knowledge producers, and consumers. Sachs (2016) also argues professions are becoming more research-active, with professional practice validated through action research and evidence-based practice.

The Local Government Association (2008) does not define professionalism in policing but refers to standards of professional behaviour underpinning public confidence and acting as a framework for police officer behaviour. These do not restrict the use of officer discretion but 'define the parameters of conduct' (Local Government Association, 2008, paragraph 3) for its use. Also, the College of Policing (2015) links the concept of professional standards with the principles of procedural justice and policing by consent, which is dependent upon the trust and confidence of the public, through police officers being 'appropriately educated and qualified' (College of Policing, 2021a, p8). They also suggest that public trust and confidence require the police to be 'ethical and professional' (College of Policing, 2024, paragraph 1) in their dealings with the public, which also intricately connects with both the non-statutory guidance for

ethical and professional behaviour in policing (College of Policing, 2024) and the statutory Code of Practice for Ethical Policing (2023).

Although the attainment of professional status for policing in England and Wales has been closely associated with graduate entry programmes, they are not intricately linked, and the suggestion that higher education and qualifications link to social status, privilege, and employment, enabling individuals to consider the process of professionalisation as important and a means to achieve professional recognition is contentious (Lumsden 2017). Rather, arguments for professionalisation focus on increased interagency partnerships and professionalisation seen within nursing, teaching, social work, and probation (Dominey and Hill, 2010; College of Policing, 2016; Simmell-Binning and Towers, 2017; Brown, 2018). This included the consideration of police officers being responsible for their own learning (Cordner and Shain, 2011; Winsor, 2012; College of Policing, 2016; Simmell-Binning and Towers, 2017) which re-emerged during the economic downturn during the second decade of the 21st century (Brown, 2018) as a pre-join option for recruits and was addressed under the PEQF through the Professional Policing Degree.

The challenge of collaboration between police forces and universities includes connecting two distinct and dissimilar organisations, that face differing and sometimes competing timescales. Organisational and cultural challenges exist for both organisations, including police officers and staff holding sceptical and stereotypical perceptions about academics, who in turn fail to understand or engage with 'the complex demands of policing' (Goode and Lumsden, 2018, p7) when undertaking research. Police officers frequently tackle operational realities, focusing on results, securing quick-wins and satisficing in terms of service delivery, but commonly have a pragmatic approach to policing, considering academics as outsiders and with suspicion. Academics, however, tend to focus on theory development, conceptual analysis, rigorous methodology, and producing empirical findings, and view police officers as accepting of established procedure and routines, and resistant to evidence-based research (Goode and Lumsden,2018).

Such 'mutual misunderstanding negatively impacts on the police-academic relationship" (Goode and Lumsden, 2018, p7) and, historically, there has been an 'uncomfortable relationship between academia and the police…marked by cynicism

and suspicions on both sides' (McDowall and Brown, 2019, p6) and, although there have also been successes, the outcomes can produce 'lingering mistrust… [which can] hinder research partnerships' (Goode and Lumsden, 2018, p7). Similarly, different timescales and perceptions 'hinder effective collaboration and the potential of research to inform practice' (Fenn *et al*, 2019, p140).

Making changes through greater understanding of the issues involved, including the need for both national and local policing requirements to be satisfied, should avoid the new entry routes being perceived as discarding traditional policing principles, but rather enhancing them to produce officers who are "versatile, reflective practitioners" (McDowall and Brown, 2019, p7). This could assist in overcoming potential obstacles associated with different organisational cultures and operating principles, whilst reducing the influences from complex combinations of social and political pressure and external scrutiny driven by both the public and the media (Fenn *et al*, 2019). This would align with the assertion that the development of policing in England and Wales entails having 'the right people in the right places at the right times, doing the right things, in partnership, for the public' (Flanagan, 2008, p6), however, this does not necessarily provide consensus over the issue of professionalisation.

A comparison between the professionalisation of policing and that of nursing, identified that a core issue was the emphasis on vocationally based competencies rather than a reliance on theoretical foundations. Whilst this could inhibit police recruits' ability to effectively engage with the development of their knowledge, education in policing and nursing is influenced by a combination of the content, the delivery method, and the person delivering it (White and Heslop, 2012; Martin and Woof, 2018), a point also identified in the semi-structured interviews during this research. Both policing and nursing vary with time, context, and culture, and professionalism includes a systematic body of knowledge, organisational commitment; and a collection of professional behaviours, which underpin nursing clinical practice (Cao et al, 2023) and, arguably, police operational practice. Vivanco, and Delgardo Bolton, (2015) also posit that professionalism (in nursing) has three core elements: common ethical principles; education, based on fostering good practice; and the requirement for professional practice to comply with moral codes of good practice. The inference is that there are similarities with policing.

Organisational development within policing requires new skills and thought processes to be aligned with current policing custom and practice to avoid them being disregarded for more traditional approaches. If this is not achieved, the resulting imbalance between the education and training given, and the day-to-day operational practicality of policing, will become a demotivating factor for the police officers involved (Martin et al, 2017).

The College of Policing was given a clear mandate from the UK Government to radically transform police learning and development in England and Wales (Home Office, 2012) and to professionalise the police service, to continually meet both the challenges and the changing nature of criminal activity, which continues into the beginning of the third decade of the 21st century. The further professionalisation of policing was intended to address a range of reforms, including unprofessional conduct, improving quality, and achieving a higher status for policing (Hough and Stanko, 2019). This also aligned with the College of Policing being established as a catalyst for 'a fundamental shift in the police service away from one that acts professionally to… [becoming] a professional service" (Holdaway, 2017, p3). There was also a desire to 'transform policing into a knowledge-based profession to some considerable extent… [and] distance the police service from the Home Office' (Hough and Stanko, 2018, p34).

The introduction of the PEQF by the College of Policing from 2018, described as a "paradigm shift from… traditional craft-based training to higher education" (McDowall and Brown, 2019, p1) saw a change of emphasis from nationally recognised and vocationally based benchmarks with associated policing curricula, to undergraduate degree level, working to criminology benchmark statements, in the absence of policing-specific statements, but later aligned with the first benchmark statement for policing (QAA, 2022).

The change in perspective from 'narrow, technocratic views… [to] reflexive practitioners with agency and autonomy' (Müller and Cook, 2024 p.11) is evident in the third decade of the 21st century and aligns with Mezza (2022), who argues that rather than defining professionalism, the concept should be considered in relation to three domains: cognitive; ethical; and legal and social. Considering this in the context of policing indicates that an evidence base of policing would feature in the cognitive domain; commitment to communities' common good and a code of ethics aligns with

the ethical domain; discretion and autonomy over the exercise of powers and continuous personal development, align with the legal and social domain.

Given the diverse views on the meaning of ‘professional’ the term appears flexible and malleable (Lumsden, 2017, p15) to some extent. Considering the teaching profession, Müller and Cook (2024) argue that professionalism and collective identity are important for self-efficacy, job satisfaction. Attracting and retaining teachers, recognising and valuing their expertise, providing greater agency, and a voice in policy decisions are also identified as important factors, and the inference is that this should also apply to policing.

2.3.1 Education or training.

May and Hunter (2018) suggested there was little connection between operational policing and the softer skills that graduates experienced though study. The balance of theory and practice in police recruit curricula is challenging, but key to professionalisation of policing (Hough and Stanko, 2019), presenting pedagogic and logistical issues for both universities and police forces. Whilst practical challenges may be perceived as urgent by police forces, pedagogic challenges to integrate evidence-based knowledge with practical skills are more important, due to changes in the delivery structure for recruit training. If police forces and universities fail to appreciate the scale of the transformation necessary under the PEQF, specifically the new entry routes, and allow the practical challenges and process issues to take precedence over educational transformation, then recruit training may fail to deliver because of a continued disconnect between policing theory and practice (Hough and Stanko, 2019).

Previous examples of police-academic relationships have typically been “short-term client partnerships or collaborations” (Martin and Wooff, 2018, p5) with coordinated efforts focused on achievement of specific goals, which limits officers’ ability ‘to be reflective… [and use discretion] to apply a range of skills and knowledge’ (Martin and Wooff, 2018, p8). Future collaboration needs to be long-term, with the goal of embedding the ethos of police education rather than police training, thereby overcoming organisational and cultural obstacles when officers attempt to apply academic knowledge to the operational environment.

In the second decade of the 21st century, there was an indication of a 'growing reconciliation and rapprochement' (Fenn *et al*, 2019, p135) between policing and academia, against a background of police forces being pressed to identify evidence-based working, find innovative solutions to problems, and boost efficiency. This presented possibilities for further collaboration and knowledge exchange, involving the police as 'active co-producers of knowledge rather than passive subjects' (Fenn *et al*, 2019, p141).

Such an approach requires underpinning with a shared motivation to create a positive social change, participation, and reflection, but also presents the opportunities to "drive innovation and improve policing" (Fenn *et al*, 2019 p143). Through a combination of open dialogue over time and a greater appreciation of the different organisational cultures, an academia-policing partnership could "build understanding of the contextual pressures facing both parties and identify collaborative solutions" (Fenn *et al*, 2019, p140). This would also provide academics with opportunities to gain appreciation of the often fast-paced operational policing environment, leading to a greater understanding of the challenges facing police forces.

Huisjes, Engbers, and Meure (2018) drawing on experience of police education in Holland, argue that the reflective practitioner and the hybrid professional are key concepts to consider if universities and police forces are to collaborate in delivering police education. They posit that close co-operation is required, together with "a clear focus on how learning by doing relates to the need of a solid knowledge base" (Huisjes, Engbers and Meure, 2018, p362). This would suggest the need for research to compare graduate and non-graduate police in terms of relative progress or retention within policing. Surprisingly, given the prominence afforded to evidence-based policing in the curricula for entry route qualifications, there seems to be a paucity of published research on this topic.

The suggestion that 'higher educated police professionals carry a responsibility to enable coordination and cooperation within policing, and within society' (Huisjes, Engbers, and Meure, 2018, p372) requires additional support, given the lack of evidence that higher education for police professionals necessarily leads to a higher level of vocational competence. Officers educated at Level 4 or 5 are not deemed less competent in performing their role, but the supplementary value of Higher Education

lies in knowledge and competence, of the judicial context, organisation and governance, and specialist knowledge on a range of themes and technologies. Following increased dissemination of research-informed decisions to operational police officers through the What Works Centre for Crime Reduction, growing levels of awareness amongst police officers of evidence-based practice principles are apparent, but not necessarily equating to its application, or the number of police officers involved in research (Hunter, May, and Hough, 2017).

How police officers respond in any given situation is a combination of influencing factors. Officers use not only their knowledge, learning, personality, and character, but also their general experience, job experience, and their ability to critically reflect on performance (Rowe, Turner and Pearson, 2016). Degree-level study includes the development of officers' critical thinking skills, their ability to evaluate information, and to synthesise that information, applying it to different scenarios and situations. These skills are required for 21st Century policing to augment, rather than replace practical application because 'knowing what is to be done, the law, the procedures, is as nothing to the experience of doing' (Rowe, Turner and Pearson, 2016, p281).

Operational police officers are not experimental criminologists and the study of evidence-based practice, whilst a core element of the PEQF, may result in its use in "a diluted form" (Brown *et al*, 2018a, p131), with policing at the operational level being informed by research rather than led by it, and if the teaching focusses on the transmission of knowledge to tackle specific tasks, rather than on assimilating and developing it to enable synthesis, evidence-based practice will be a tool rather than a research process (Brown *et al*, 2018a) reflecting the difference between teaching and education.

Evidence-based practice includes not just the application of interventions to resolve a problem, but also monitoring results of those interventions and their relative effectiveness which requires application of higher-level transferable skills associated with graduate level education, rather than any specific 'taught' element of evidence-based practice (Brown et al, 2018a). It also requires reflective practice and the critique of previous knowledge and understanding in the context of new knowledge arising from interventions by 'correction through evaluation' (Brown et al, 2018a, p130). Education relating to evidence-based practice needs to encourage 'an inquisitive and evidence-

informed problem-solving mindset' (Brown *et al*, 2018a, p131) because meaningful research by operational officers is unlikely to occur due to the time-constrained environment of operational policing. Such an approach would also continue to encourage the use of discretion and experience in operational decision making by an "evidence informed practitioner" (Brown *et al*, 2018a, p132) who knows both where to find relevant research and how to apply it.

Theory or learning is not somehow better or more superior than practical application, or indeed vice-versa but should be complimentary, and is central to the PEQF, and the new entry routes into policing at constable rank. Indeed, rather than determining whether policing is a craft or a profession, the focus of discussion should be on the blend of the training and development, the combination of educational skills and knowledge with practical application. The assumption that "a better educated officer is, quite simply, a better officer" (Rowe, Turner and Pearson, 2016, p286) needs to be rejected, because linking certificates with professional practice is problematic and "the bread and butter of the routine… [of policework] is dealing with the public" (Rowe Turner and Pearson, 2016, p286). However, identifying practical 'craft' elements of policing does not prevent it being a profession because there is recognition that "much as doctors must practice in order to qualify, so must police officers" (Rowe, Turner, and Pearson, 2016, p286).

Further research into the challenges and demands faced by police forces is required in the context of a changing society, to determine the purposes of policing in the 21st century (Bradford, Jackson and Hough, 2014). Clarity is also required regarding what constitutes good policing (Bowling, 2007) given those challenges and, by extension, identifying the skills and attributes required by police officers, and the training and education processes whereby they can be developed (Sanders,2003; White, 2008). Such research would inform curriculum design, indicate the knowledge needed by police officers, using the evidence base to incorporate theory and practice, ultimately directing longitudinal evaluation of the agreed performance outcomes (Brown, 2018).

The question of lifting the academic level of police training has arisen at different times, as part of the wider reform and modernisation agendas (Chan, 1996; Loftus, 2008; Brown, 2018), which are also closely linked with the trend to graduate-level police training (Stanislas, 2013) whilst Rogers and Frevel (2018) also contend that there is a

need for greater scientific education amongst police officers around the world, to meet contemporary developments. The introduction of the PEQF (College of Policing, 2016) in England and Wales required police constable recruits to meet a qualifying standard equivalent to degree level representing a universal application rather than being targeted towards an elite section of the community (Tong and Hallenberg, 2018), which, according to Cordner and Shain (2016) is part of a global trend. Brown (2018) reviewed research from Australia, the UK, and the USA, which highlighted pedagogical criticisms of degree programmes (Roberg and Bonn, 2004; Southerland et al, 2007; Wimshurst and Ransley, 2007; Green and Linsdell, 2010; Belur et al, 2019) and criticism of the timing of programmes (both pre- and post-entry). Commentary relating to recruit training programmes being either university-led or police-controlled, (Wimshurst and Ransley, 2007; Cox, 2011) suggested the former was considered liberal, and the latter being controlled and competency-based. Issues of comparability identified in respect of learning hours between apprenticeship degrees and undergraduate degrees (Lambert, 2016) raised concerns regarding 'purported outcome equivalence' (Brown, 2018, p12).

Whilst the driving forces for the transformation of policing vary between countries (Brown, 2018) due to historical or contemporary perspectives, Paterson (2011) argues that value added by graduate officers is determined by the concepts of professionalism, accountability and legitimacy. Brown (2018) posited that there was anticipation that graduate education would contribute to modernisation and professionalisation debates, resulting in changes in the dominant occupational culture, improve integrity and performance, and bring… cost savings' (Brown, 2018, p14), however, both those assumptions and the attributes graduate are believed to bring to policing are tenuous and not clearly supported by research (Worden, 1990; Wimshurst and Ransley, 2007; Brown, 2018; Cox and Kirby, 2018). The reasons for this could be that recruit training programmes have traditionally been delivered in police training and education centres with 'pre-existing social contexts… [and] prevailing social conditions' (Pawson and Tilley, 1997, p70) which are under police control, rather than on more liberal university campuses. This immersion of new recruits into policing culture, makes them particularly receptive to the views of their operational colleagues (Belur et al, 2019), with a potentially inhibited ability to 'challenge the status quo' (McDowall and Brown, 2019, p5).

The increased complexity of policing diverse societies in the 21st century impacts on the concept of police legitimacy (HMIC, 1999; Neyroud, 2011), and whilst police-controlled degrees may improve operational standards, it remains unclear how they contribute to policing being 'significantly more diverse, representative and accountable' (Wimshurst and Ransley, 2007, p120). Many operational policing tasks rely on subjective and incomplete information, are managed under time constraints, require decisions about uncertain outcomes and involve intuitive solutions (Akinci and Sadler-Smith, 2013). This necessitates independence of mind and critical analysis (Bruns and Bruns, 2015) often associated with graduate level skills and both applied and practical aspects of policing that are learned through experience (Finlay 2008; Rowe, Turner and Pearson, 2016). The use of reflective practice provides insight on operational practice, enhances learning experiences, promotes higher order thinking and helps to deepen professional development (Belur, Agnew-Pauley and Tompson, 2018). Reflecting on policing practice requires time if it is to be effective, which is not always possible in operational environments. Brown (2018), therefore, suggests that the lack of a stronger empirical evidence base indicates the need for a blended approach for training and education, balancing operational and academic elements of the curriculum, rather than a binary choice.

It is suggested that the implicit argument that the PEQF would confer 'considerable benefits on policing' (Hough and Stanko, 2019, p35) resulting in police officers doing a better job is based on professional judgement rather than evidence-based research (Bryant et al, 2014) and research evidence for either view is 'unlikely to be clinching' (Hough and Stanko, 2019, p35). Acknowledging the potential benefits from degree-level entry programmes, Hough and Stanko (2019) suggest the outcomes from decisions about police professionalisation, and graduate entry are 'likely to be highly context-specific… [however] the desired effects can be undermined by staff resistance' (Hough and Stanko, 2019, p36).

2.3.2 Graduate or non-graduate programmes

Pepper, et al (2025) considered policing in California (USA), Ontario (Canada), Tasmania (Australia), and England and Wales, in relation to the duration of initial police training programmes, the level of any accreditation, and any element of work-based

learning. Training programmes varied between thirteen weeks in Ontario, and sixteen weeks in California, to seventy-four weeks in Tasmania (two stages) and two or three years in England and Wales (depending on the entry programme).

Programmes in California and Ontario were not accredited with any academic award, and work-based learning was additional to the entry programme. The first stage of training in Tasmania was accredited with a Higher Education Diploma and had no work-based learning. The second stage was accredited with an associate degree including work-based learning. Four initial entry programmes in England and Wales include a two-year, non-accredited programme, with integrated work-based learning. There is also a two-year graduate entry programme (accredited at Graduate Diploma level) which has integrated work experience. The other two programmes are three years long, both accredited with bachelor's degrees with honours, however one has integrated work-based learning and is post-recruitment, the other does not and is intended for those individuals who have not been recruited by a police force.

When comparing police recruit training and education in different countries, it is important to acknowledge the differences between them, which are likely to impact attempts to seek any commonalities in the methods or processes involved. Policing in the USA is 'fragmented, decentralised and primarily local' (Pepper et al, 2025, p5) with 94 federal law enforcement agencies investigating federal crimes. Most of these agencies require the equivalent of a bachelor's degree, however, the other state and special jurisdiction policing and law enforcement agencies set their own entry qualification levels with most requiring a high school diploma (Gardiner and Hickman, 2024; United State Department of Justice, 2023).

In Australia, the federal police force is a national organisation, with states and territories also providing localised police forces and requiring different levels of academic accreditation, reflecting the varied range of engagement with higher education. Pepper et al (2025) posit that the standardisation of recruit training has lessened over time, but consistent standards of service can result from having a 'single, standardised, and understandable approach' (Pepper et al, 2025, p17) nationally, for police recruit education and training.

In Ontario, there is limited interaction between the police forces and higher education, with initial training being delivered in the police college and work-based learning

delivered by the individual police forces. This limited interaction was not altered when the requirement for police recruits to hold a college diploma or university degree was removed in 2023 by the Ontario government. However, engagement between police forces and higher education in other states in Canada still varies and progress towards collaborative working will be 'difficult if… [organisations] continue to work in silos' (Pepper et al, 2025, p17).

Policing in England and Wales is undertaken by forty-three operationally independent police forces, with the College of Policing as the de facto professional body providing the curricula for the entry route programmes, and working in collaboration with higher education, to provide teaching and accreditation on three of the four entry routes. Chief officers determine the entry route for recruits, with the accredited programmes being introduced from 2018 until 2024, intending to effectively mandate the requirement for degree-level qualification of recruits.

The continuing discussions relating to the integration of policing and higher education are held in an environment of limited finances and political inconsistency. There are variations in both the appeal of the role of a police officer, and the challenges surrounding recruitment and retention of officers across the globe. Some politicians and policing professionals may recognise the potential for, and benefits of, linking higher education with policing, however, others do not (Pepper, et al, 2025). Additionally, the challenge of recruiting sufficient officers to replace those leaving the service, particularly those in specialist roles, is affecting police forces in Australia, Canada, the USA, and England and Wales, although for various reasons.

Whilst the time required to recruit and train a police officer varies in different countries, police forces engaged with higher education see those times relatively increased, when the initial training is accredited at degree level, despite the perceived, intrinsic, differences between graduate and non-graduate officers as suggested by Punch (2007) and others. Indeed, those differences are tempered by the need for police officers to be operationally competent, and deployable, in shorter timescales (Pepper et al, 2025).

In England and Wales, 'political interventions… further complicated the standardised routes' (Pepper, et al, 2025, p16) presenting further challenges for chief officers to determine the entry routes for recruits, given the potential impact that decision may

have on the career paths of recruits (Pepper et al, 2025). Problems recruiting enough police officers were cited in England and Wales, as reason for seeking the retention of a non-graduate entry route, and whilst similar pressures were experienced in Ontario, the linkage between policing and higher education are less strong than in England and Wales (Pepper et al, 2025).

In England and Wales, there are concerns that the introduction of the police constable entry programme (PCEP) from April 2024 as a non-graduate entry route would produce ‘a two-tier police service’ (Police Federation, 2023) potentially increasing the rate that officers leave the service, following a perceived opportunity for recruits to ‘swiftly meet the lowest common learning denominator’ (Pepper et al, 2025) to enable them to be operationally deployed. However, the stated intention was that the PCEP would ‘complement the existing three graduate routes and help ensure the police service was in the best position possible to represent and engage with the communities it serves’ (Noakes, 2023, line 19) although it is unclear how this could be achieved. This policy change also undermines the concept of the PEQF and graduate entry routes as a means of further professionalisation of policing, when the CEO of the College of Policing states that ‘you do not need a degree to join the police’ (Cunningham, 2020, p5).

Graduate education is perceived to expose students to a liberal environment and contact with a diverse group of people and a variety of ideas (Brown, 2018), enabling them to develop tolerance of difference, effective relationships with others, and a greater understanding of multi-cultural society (Heath, 2011; Stanislas, 2013; Jones, 2016). A central issue of the introduction of graduate entry routes into policing relates to the attributes of graduates in comparison with non-graduates, as police officers. Indeed, the introduction of the PCDA as one of the graduate entry routes was seen as a ‘significant opportunity [for police forces] to work towards full integration of evidence-based policing in routine policing practice’ (Pepper, Brown, and Stubbs 2022, p38) and aligning policing as a profession.

Research in thin the 1970s, regarding the combination of graduate level skills in police officers suggested that graduate officers were less cynical, less authoritarian, and exhibited more professional and ethical behaviour than their non-graduate colleagues (Paterson 2011). More recently, a meta-analysis of empirical studies over fifty years,

undertaken by Brown (2018) suggests that there is ‘a tendency for graduate police officers to be less authoritarian, more open and flexible, although not necessarily less cynical’ (Brown, 2018, p18). Whilst this may be considered a positive change in terms of policing culture, it may merely be the result of the ‘liberalising environment [of a university campus] and contact with a diversity of ideas and people’ (Brown 2018 p18) and appears not to consider other variable factors such as societal and attitudinal changes over time.

Such an effect may be relatively short-term, and there is ‘relatively little conceptual reasoning’ (Brown, 2018, p18) to suggest how higher education impacts on operational policing delivery. Indeed, any desired benefits from police recruits holding or obtaining degree-level qualifications and possessing the associated skills, could also be “undermined by staff resistance” (Hough and Stanko, 2019, p36) following their exposure to organisational cultures often negatively associated with operational policing. A lack of empirical research to support the argument that graduate level education impacts policing activity (Rydberg and Terrill, 2010; Brown, 2018), suggests these assumptions, whilst plausible, remain untested.

The evidence on conversion courses in a range of professions, including law, teaching, nursing, and social work undertaken by Belur, Agnew-Pauley and Tompson (2018), indicated that the courses were predominantly vocational, but included practical elements. The nursing profession was considered comparable with both teaching and policing, given the requirement for skills connected with interaction with members of the public. Four broad themes identified by the research were: learning styles; teaching methods; integrating theory and practice; and assessment of delegates (Belur, Agnew-Pauley and Tompson (2018). These would inform programme design, and whilst the focus was on the DHEP, as a version of a conversion course, it is suggested that they are equally applicable to the other two graduate entry programmes in policing.

Acknowledging that police recruits are adults, each with a preferred learning style (Honey and Mumford, 1992), and different learning experiences, it is essential to employ a blend of teaching methods providing connection between theoretical elements and practical application to challenge preconceptions held by students and facilitating professional competence (Wong, et al, 2012; Tang, Wong and Chen, 2016). The perception that police recruits are resistant to graduate-level learning ‘because of

its perceived irrelevance to professional development and the lack of value… [in] broader educational development' (White and Heslop, 2012, p 354) may be contested, but again underlines the need for initial recruit programmes to utilise a blend of teaching methods to 'promote cooperative, active, inquiry-based learning' (De Jong and Chadbourne, 2007, p15) alongside collaborative learning and critical thinking. This is particularly relevant when recruit training and education programmes are delivered in police training centres, and aligns with androgenic pedagogy, with problem-based learning to contribute to 'active learning building on existing knowledge and experience' (Belur et al, 2019, p80) thereby promoting improved retention, integration and application of knowledge (Rantatalo and Karp, 2016; Lettic, 2016). A blend of assessment methods on the graduate-level programmes also need to promote both practically relevant learning and academic elements form the curriculum, assessing not just knowledge, but also understanding. Summative assessments evaluate student learning, and formative assessment promotes learning (Belur, Agnew-Pauley and Tompson, 2018) both of which, with supportive feedback, aid students' development and improvement (Winterbottom et al, 2008).

Conversely, the result of a meta-analysis by Brown (2018) raises an apparent lack of any clear rationale within policing, for changing from a 'didactic style of learning by rote towards androgenic pedagogy' (Brown 2018, p18) or that exposure to a diversity of ideas, allowing integration of practical application with theoretical understanding is suited to 21st century policing. Indeed, Brown et al, (2018a) posit there is a general lack of discussion in police education and training, relating to pedagogy and andragogy, the need for facilitation of reflective learning, and achievement of lasting change in attitudes, skills, and motivation to gain knowledge about evidence of what works, and how to apply it.

The inclusion of evidence-based policing in the curricula for recruit training and education reflects its status as a key driver of professionalism and a fundamental element of the collaborative delivery of the new entry routes, as it features throughout the curriculum. The objective is to meld theoretical aspects of training with operational policing practicalities and as a concept and principle, it has varying levels of support within police forces, ranging from the positive rhetoric of the NPCC to the more junior

ranks where individuals seem less convinced about its relevance or the level of organisational support for it (Hunter and May, 2019).

Described as an approach to “create, review, and use, the best available evidence to inform and challenge policies, practices and decisions” (College of Policing, 2017), the concept of evidence-based policing requires synthesis of heuristic knowledge from practical experience and testing against professional judgement and existing research into effectiveness and efficiency. It also requires assessment in the light of research offering a theoretical understanding of, or perspective on, policing roles and responsibilities (Hough and Stanko, 2019).

The common premise of both evidence-based policing (Sherman, 1998) and problem-oriented policing (Goldstein, 2003) is that scientific evidence should inform police practice in relation to “what works best together with evaluative and knowledge building components” (Brown *et al*, 2018a, p120) when dealing with issues problems or challenges facing policing, providing understanding of them, and identifying the most effective solutions based on the best available evidence (Brown et al, 2018b). Evidence-based policing is usually associated with a medical science model involving randomised control trials and academic research; however, an alternative approach uses an engineering model based on iterative work to resolve problems (Tilley, 2016) which resonates with traditional operational policing approaches to problem solving. The two approaches are not exclusionary, and both face practical challenges operating in the resource-constrained policing environment, however, both are firmly linked with higher education (Brown et al, 2018b).

Most of the evidence-based research was academically derived and owned by academics rather than being jointly owned with police officers, as practitioners, which needs to change (Brown *et al*, 2018b), and the graduate-level entry routes are designed to provide a greater degree of police ownership of the research, thereby supporting its practical application and raising the quality of evidence-based policing, which historically has been protracted (Brown et al, 2018b).

The challenge, for policing and higher education, is to integrate the higher-level cognitive skills associated with evidence-based policing into policing practice. Previous attempts to do so included intelligence-led policing (Ratcliffe, 2002) and problem-oriented policing (Goldstein, 2003) with a focus on the delivery of operational policing,

rather than relying on what was learned. Brown *et al* (2018b) argue that these initiatives were unsuccessful, due to established methods of police training being unable to secure a fundamental change in police officers' skills and thinking. They also posit that the level of research sophistication expected of operational front-line officers is questionable, given competing demand on their time, the lack of research resources available to them (Brown *et al*, 2018b) and that, whilst Goldstein (2003) and Sherman (2015) assert that policing research requires conducting in accordance with academic standards, the operational nature of policing makes this counterproductive (Brown et al, 2018a).

This suggests that the use of the engineering model discussed earlier might be preferred by operational officers undertaking research-in-action whereby they learn about evidence-based research and then apply it in practice and reflecting the rationale behind the curricula for the entry routes into policing (Lum and Koper, 2017). Tilley and Laycock (2014) suggest a hierarchical model with 'local problems' being managed by operational officers and issues requiring "greater levels of research sophistication" (Brown *et al*, 2018a, p121) being managed at a more strategic level, which would also support operational and organisational structures within policing.

2.3.3 Training school or campus

As discussed earlier, recruit initial training and education programmes in England and Wales were traditionally delivered at regional training centres, and more recently, at force training schools. The decision as to the location remains with individual chief officers for their respective police force, and some have adopted a shared approach with parts of the programme being delivered on university campus locations, whilst others restrict all delivery to in-force training schools.

Apart from the context in which the training is delivered, Belur et al (2019) also considered the timing of delivery, with pre-join training being particularly undertaken in areas of the USA, and post-join being utilised in England and Wales. Considering pre-join education, the USA indicated that between 28 and 78% of recruits had some form of higher education degree before joining the police (Chan, Devery and Doran, 2003;

Hundersmarck, 2004; Morrow, 2008; De Schrijver and Maesschalck, 2015) there is little reported relating to this impacting on their training experience.

A modular training structure is common in policing, involving standalone blocks of academic and field training of varying lengths and differing combinations (Belur et al, 2019), and the integration of these elements is considered essential for students' understanding of the taught subjects.

The introduction of any training programme necessitates that the programme aims and outcomes need to be stated. Periodic review can determine progress towards achieving them, also acting as a measure of relative success of the introduction of the programme (Belur et al, 2019). However, in their review of police training programmes, Belur et al (2019) noted that most studies did not specify any training aims… [or] presumed that the general aim… [was] for recruits to pass' (Belur et al, 2019 p84) the programme and become police officers. The lack of 'specific, measurable, programme outcomes resulted in under-reporting of training outcomes' (Belur et al, 2019, p85) preventing subsequent assessment as to the effectiveness of both the programme and the change process to introduce it.

3 Methods

This chapter explains the research methods and the underpinning rationale for the selection of a mixed methods approach to data collection and analysis. The aim of the research was to examine the process of introducing new entry routes into policing at constable rank, specifically the PCDA, the DHEP, and the PPD. Methodological decisions aimed at ensuring the research are transparent and hence produce credible conclusions.

The research objectives included identifying the intended features of the new entry routes into the police service and the educational process for recruits into the police service, during a literature review. This involved the examination of strategic documents published by the College of Policing, as the professional body for policing in England and Wales, and exploration of published and peer-reviewed articles and research related to the stated objectives. This would contribute to a survey of students undertaking any of the three new entry routes intended to solicit their perceptions of their programmes by using a questionnaire format. The data from the survey would also inform some of the questions in the semi-structured interviews, conducted by the researcher with key individuals who had experience as senior police officers or as managers, to solicit their views regarding the introduction of the new educational process for recruits into policing.

3.1 Philosophical underpinning and approach

The need to briefly discuss the philosophical underpinning of this research stems from the requirement to offer justification for research decisions and educational perspectives. Carr (2004) argues that, just as educational philosophy has lost its practical relevance, education itself has become disconnected from philosophical inquiry. This argument is supported by others (Barrow and Woods, 2006; Wegerif, 2013; and Noddings, 2016) and served as a “memento mori” (Carr, 2004, p56) throughout this research. The reasoning in institutional contexts where significant educational decisions are made, seldom adheres to the rationality typically employed in philosophical debate (Carr, 2004), but rather new educational policies and decisions are often shaped by reasoning which avoids systematically following the implications

of rational argument. Indeed, expediency, political interest, and entrenched power dynamics frequently overshadow values such as truth, impartiality, and respect for evidence (Carr, 2004).

A reason, not a justification, for such an approach to decision making derives, in my view, from the complexity of education (and policing) and even more so from the complexity of managing change in education, and policing. Mason (2008, p.17) considers questions of continuity and change in education from the perspective of complexity theory, introducing the field to the learning community. Given a significant degree of complexity in a particular environment (including policing as a large-scale organisational entity), new properties and behaviours, which are not necessarily contained in the essence of the constituent elements, might emerge. This research is also philosophically underpinned by Davis (2008) whose concept of simultaneities suggests that multiple events exist and operate at the same time, requiring a complexity in thinking, and contrasts with the notion of discontinuities concerning matters such as theory and practice, or student and curriculum.

Interpreting participants' answers from the perspective of complexity theory challenges models of interpretation where social phenomena are seen as disconnected. In interpreting the data, attention to the perspective whereby simultaneous consideration is required of factors that are normally associated with apparently different phenomenal levels of explanation. In interpreting the findings, the notion of representation and presentation (Davis, 2008) was considered, with the representation of the research outcomes being partial, rather than comprehensive; active, rather than inert; and implicated rather than benign.

The approach to research based on the complexity theory inexorably implies a mixed quantitative and qualitative approach as part of the simultaneity perspective. Examining the process of the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank requires the use of qualitative data which is essentially based on interpretation of the existing documents guiding the introduction of the new educational process, and critically interpreting experts' opinions on the process. This echoes the assertion that in qualitative research, there is not a single version of reality or knowledge, but multiple versions, closely connected with the context in which they occur (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Concurrently measuring students' perspectives on the educational process

formed part of a quantitative approach and was intended to be useful and provide insight to respondents perceptions of the process, whilst also informing the development of the questions for the interviews with the experts.

The research objectives also required an examination of the management of change process and the extent to which organisational culture was an influencing factor in that process. This reflects a positivist research philosophy as described by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2019), but also one of pragmatism in terms of incorporating practical solutions to inform future practice. It is also oriented on a problem-centred real-world change, where there are consequences to action, as posited by Creswell and Creswell (2017). A focus on the solution to the problem of changing initial entry routes into policing to attempt to identify what works, also reflects the principles behind evidence-based policing. This contrasts with a constructivist perspective, seeking an understanding of how policing works during change, or generating theories of change; or a deterministic perspective, where causes determine outcomes (Creswell and Creswell, 2017).

The semi-structured interviews provided the opportunity to gather qualitative data for analysis, whilst the survey facilitated quantitative data collection. The use of both qualitative and quantitative data can provide 'the best understanding of a research problem' (Creswell and Creswell 2017, p12) and supports the research objectives through inductive and abductive reasoning. It was also considered appropriate for this research, enabling the integration of data from the survey and semi-structured interviews, to add to the existing knowledge base relating to change processes within policing, and inform the debate on the introduction of the new entry routes into policing at constable rank, as a change process.

3.2 Research design

The adoption of a mixed methods approach to this research acknowledges the inherent biases and weaknesses in both qualitative and quantitative research methods, whilst increasing the likelihood of the collected data being richer, in terms of answering the research questions (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, (2007). The choice was also intuitive, given both the 'real life' situation (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2017) of the

introduction of new entry routes into policing, and the associated complexity in fundamental changes (Creswell and Creswell, 2017) to police recruitment practices and associated functions within training departments and Human Resources functions.

This change, having been the subject of discourse for a decade, and subject of detailed planning since 2016 began with national adoption across England and Wales, and was due to be completed by the end of 2022, but was proven to be challenging. This made the issue topical and underlined both the appropriateness of the timing of this research, and the intention to capture both qualitative and quantitative data sequentially.

Adopting an inductive approach was intended to support the objectives of the research. This included a three-stage approach: to identify the intended features of the new educational process as a change process (literature review); to identify respondents' opinions regarding the features of the educational programmes (survey); and to solicit opinions (semi-structured interviews) held by individuals with experience and involvement in delivering police training and education, had expertise in policing, or who were renowned commentators on police education and training.

Data collection from the survey and semi-structured interviews were intended to be conducted sequentially, enabling data from the survey to inform the areas for further exploration during the semi-structured interviews. Given the time implications of conducting longitudinal surveys, this was a cross-sectional survey over a fixed time. Also, conducting the interviews over a longer period, could facilitate the capture of rich data from participants' experiences of the change of programme, rather than attempting to capture a snapshot at a specific moment.

The research aim and objectives were supported by such a methodological approach which recognises the potential for quantitative methods alone failing to capture cultural or philosophical issues, as discussed by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), and addressed using semi-structured interviews, as suggested by Kirk and Miller (1986).

The data collection from the survey was conducted over a ten-month period, whilst change was being implemented, to ensure timeliness and currency of the data. This also reflected the continuous and continuing development of the operational delivery of the programmes being studied.

Subsequent integration of the data sets (survey and interviews) enabled inferences

relating to any convergence, divergence, or a combination thereof to be drawn, given the researcher's breadth and depth of understanding of the change to new entry routes into policing. However, it is recognised that the researcher's previous experience and understanding of both police and university cultures could have influenced the data analysis. Awareness and acknowledgement of this potential influence minimised that eventuality, whilst providing insight regarding the wider organisational contexts, as discussed by McCall and Bobko (1990).

3.3 Quantitative Method - survey

The use of a survey was intended to solicit data from respondents studying any of the three entry programmes into policing at constable rank, by distributing a survey. The resulting data would then be analysed and aggregated, to enable broad conclusions to be drawn. Specifically, these were the responses to questions nine to twenty-one inclusive, with questions one to eight included to solicit demographic data to facilitate the subsequent analysis.

Enabling online responses to be made by participants removed the requirement for face-to-face meetings between the researcher and any participant, whilst also pre-empting any re-imposition of the restrictions on meeting individuals during a recurrence of the Coronavirus pandemic, ensuring safety for all parties.

The survey was made available through 'Google Docs' with a restriction of a single submission for individual respondents, who could freely participate in the survey, by responding to the questions (Walliman, 2018). This was chosen to prevent multiple submissions impacting the reliability of the data. Consequently, respondents needed to register with Google, which was acknowledged as potentially limiting the number of responses received. However, as stated above, the intention included soliciting data from participants to inform the interview questions, rather than to seek any generalisation, which reduced the potential impact arising from a low return rate.

The survey was available for ten months, from January 2022 until the end of October that year, and is included at Appendix 4.

Participants were made aware of the research using a snowball technique (Dawson, 2012; Walliman, 2018) with academics in other universities who were delivering the

new entry routes into policing in England and Wales being asked to make their students aware of the research and, where possible, to provide their students with time to complete the survey.

Responses were gathered using ‘Google Docs’ and analysed by the researcher, with initial coding being undertaken for responses to questions twelve to seventeen inclusive, by listing topics or phrases used more than once. These were then used as the main groups, allowing other similar or associated topics and phrases to be included in each group. This included recording when a respondent had not answered a particular question, which was combined with similar responses of ‘none’ ‘nil’ and ‘not applicable’.

Similarly, responses which listed multiple topics were grouped together – including responses ‘all’ and ‘most’. This initial coding identified twenty-one groups, which were then combined, to produce twelve separate groups for analysis. The initial coding and the final coding are included in Appendix 6 together with mapping for the amalgamation. The rationale for each group is briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

Some groups arose from the commonality of phrases used that related to subject areas such as ‘digital policing’ which included ‘cybercrime’ and ‘internet-facilitated crime’. Another group was the area of ‘vulnerability and risk’ which included ‘mental health’, ‘safeguarding’, and ‘managing risk’. Other groups, such as ‘academic skills’ included a broader number of topics that were related to academic – as opposed to operational – elements of the study programmes. Topics included in this group were ‘emotional intelligence’ ‘analytical thinking’ ‘assignments’ and ‘reflective practice’.

Other groups were restricted in terms of the topics, for example ‘counter terrorism’ and ‘domestic abuse’ but considered to be relevant in terms of the implied importance of the topics in the National Policing Curriculum.

The decision to create separate groups for ‘domestic abuse’ and ‘public protection’ was to enable separate analysis of the groups, although it is acknowledged that domestic abuse can be interpreted as a sub-set of the wider public protection group.

The researcher acknowledges the potential for personal values and unconscious biases to influence the above grouping decisions. However, considering the topic areas in the National Policing Curriculum, which reflects organisational thinking in

terms of their relative importance, and the relatively low number of responses (n=63), these groups enabled meaningful analysis to be undertaken.

3.3.1 Participants to the survey and sampling

Participants invited to complete on-line survey were police officer recruits who were recruited after the launch of the new entry route programmes, and who were studying the PCDA or DHEP as graduate entry routes, or were students enrolled on the PPD entry route. No other participants were invited, given the aim of the research to consider the new graduate entry routes into policing. The population was potentially more than three thousand individuals across England and Wales; therefore, a sampling frame included the PPD students and only those police recruits who were undergoing the PCDA and DHEP entry routes. It had been intended to use characteristics of the population, including geographic location as determined by their police forces' regional grouping (for example, Thames Valley Police are in the same policing region as students from Hampshire, Surrey, Sussex, and Kent constabularies), or stratification on the year of study, or by entry route, to identify a sample, however, with only sixty-three responses this was not possible. The main aim of the survey was to solicit the views of respondents undertaking any of the new entry routes, and with sixty-three responses and a confidence level of 95%, the confidence interval was 12%, however, no representative sample could be identified, prohibiting any generalisations about the population.

3.3.2 Ethical considerations for the survey.

When undertaking research, treating participants with respect before, during, and after the research is a fundamental ethical issue (Creswell and Creswell, 2017, Dawson, 2012, Walliman, 2018) as is compliance with educational, professional, and organisational ethical guidelines. Respondents were provided with information about the purpose of the research, the intended benefits from the research, and the procedures involved. The provision of contact details for the researcher and research supervisors enabled any respondent to ask questions about the research. Given the

anonymity of respondents as no personal data was requested that could lead to a respondent's identity being revealed, all responses were anonymous and confidential, as discussed by Walliman (2018). The design of the survey was such that a respondent was able to withdraw their consent at any time until they submitted their responses, at which point they were deemed to have given informed consent.

The research was designed to produce value and add to the corpus of knowledge surrounding the introduction of the new entry routes into policing, rather than merely being an academic activity, thereby making the research output a 'key part of ethical scrutiny' (Oates, 2006, p.207). The risk assessment considered the potential benefits from the research, and the potential for it to cause harm. This also accounted for the likelihood of the benefit or harm occurring from the perspective of a researcher and the participants, demonstrating the degree of ethical scrutiny whilst also identifying appropriate mitigating measures to remove or reduce the likelihood or the impact of any harm.

The collection, analysis, and interpretation of data during the research allowed for participants' anonymity in terms of their identity or role, or in relation to specific incidents during the research, as well as an ethical approach by the researcher, demonstrating honesty, frankness, and personal integrity. This included disassociating responses during the coding and recording process, from any identifiable or attributable details of the participants (Creswell and Creswell, 2017).

The data collected was retained and processed for the stated purposes of the research, in a secure manner to comply with data protection legislation, and retained for a reasonable time, to enable analysis to be undertaken. No personal identifying data relating to individual respondents was solicited or processed. After the analysis was completed, the collected data was securely deleted in accordance with Buckinghamshire New University policy. The validity and reliability of the data reflected the collection method, with the survey distributed to existing students on any of the entry route programmes.

This detail was included in a written document – the participant information sheet – presented for ethical review and distributed electronically, to the survey respondents. The participant information sheet related to the conduct of the research and sought to address areas including, but not limited to, how participants were recruited; how they

could give genuinely informed consent; the type of data and how it was to be collected; its security and the anonymity of the participants; and the details of the risk analysis (Oates, 2006, Dawson, 2012).

Ethical research has an underlying principle of producing benefit for, rather than causing harm to, participants and the wider field (Creswell and Creswell, 2017, Walliman, 2018). The use of a survey in this research was not expected to harm the reputation, dignity, or privacy of the participants. Similarly, the data solicited was not intended to include sensitive information, interpretation, or perspectives which conflict with managerial or organisational perspectives, and any such data relevant to the research, was presented in a sensitive, confidential, and anonymised manner.

The University Ethics Panel provided approval for the research in April 2021, and a copy of the approval confirmation is included in Appendix 1.

3.3.3 Validity and reliability of the survey

To increase the validity of the survey, the following steps were taken. The questions used were relevant to the research aim, and the wording for each question was intended to provide specific information, but also to enable respondents to expand or explain any specific answer they provided. The survey questions were designed and piloted with one cohort of students on the degree apprenticeship, and another cohort on the graduate entry programme. Also, by targeting students on one of the new entry routes, relevant cohorts of individuals were invited to respond.

The main aim of the survey was, as stated above, to solicit data from students studying the new entry routes. The confidence interval of 12% also reflects the limitations for generalising the survey data.

The reliability of the survey was achieved through the online distribution of the questions, with the links distributed to academics engaged in the Higher Education Forum for policing. These academics were asked to make their policing students aware of the research, and to encourage their participation in it. The relevant people would therefore be responding, and the restriction to respondents only being able to make one response to the survey, prevented multiple responses from individuals.

3.3.4 Survey analysis

The data collected using the survey were analysed and descriptive statistics used to describe the responses. Visual presentation of the results was achieved using charts and tables, illustrating the frequency distribution of the data for each question, in most cases using a five-point scale.

The data collected was treated as categorical as opposed to equal interval and as such no inferential statistical tests have been performed to analyse it (Graham, Milanowski, and Miller, 2012). However, the need was felt to assess the significance of the results compared to a random distribution of responses. Therefore, chi-square analysis was used by plotting the obtained answers against 'expected' answers should these be 'random', meaning each of the options has an equal chance to be selected by respondents. The probability level is set to $p<0.05$ which is common in educational settings. Where chi-square probability is less than 0.05 the difference was interpreted as significant. Where the chi-square probability is more than 0.05 the difference between the obtained and the expected-random answers was interpreted as not-significant.

Skewness was utilised to describe the shape of the distribution. It is generally accepted (Cabanas and Larnas, 2022; Graham, Milanowski, and Miller, 2012) that in educational settings, a negatively skewed distribution reflects a high level of attainment, meaning that most students have achieved good grades or have a positive opinion on the learning process. The tail on the left side is longer, indicating that a lower number of students have a negative opinion on the study programme. In educational settings a negatively skewed distribution is often an indicator of successful learning outcomes if the goal is to have most students achieving the learning objectives. The more negatively skewed the distribution the more likely that respondents have a positive opinion of the programme or module.

3.4 Qualitative method - Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were planned with senior police managers and university staff to obtain data for comparison but also for contrasting with data from other data

sources, as described by Dawson (2012). They were conducted with interviewees who had experience and involvement in delivering police training and education; expertise in policing; or were renowned commentators on police training and development. This was the main instrument whereby the research aim could be achieved, soliciting opinions from expert commentators and those involved in the process of introducing graduate entry routes into policing at constable rank.

The interview format enabled the same questions to be asked of each interviewee, to solicit specific information, whilst providing scope to explore other related topics or information arising during any interview. It also allowed the development of a professional rapport between the interviewer and interviewee, with the potential for exploration of attitudes, as discussed by Walliman (2018).

The questions were provided to each participant in advance of the interview to enable participants to consider the questions and associated issues in advance. The interview guide is included at Appendix 5.

3.4.1. Participants to the interviews and criteria for selection.

Individuals invited to participate in the research by being interviewed as experts with significant insight in relation to police training and education, included programme leaders for the new entry routes being delivered by universities in England and Wales, senior police officers, and commentators on police training and development.

The main instrument of this research was the semi-structured interviews with these experts who were identified through the Higher Education Forum for Policing, utilising the researchers professional contacts. This was followed by a personalised e-mail to each participant, explaining the research aim and objectives, together with information as to the extent of their involvement and detailing the proposed processing and dissemination of the data collected, and the anonymisation of that data to prevent the identification of individual participants.

One interviewee was a senior academic and former chief officer who consults nationally and internationally on police education; another was a serving chief constable of a non-metropolitan police force. Other interviewees included a senior academic and former police officer, who advised the College of Policing in relation to

the development of the entry routes into policing at constable rank; a senior academic who researches and publishes books and articles relating to police education and training; and three others were senior academic staff, and former police officers, involved in leading and delivering the entry routes into policing.

3.4.2 Ethical considerations

Participants in the semi-structured interviews were employed either by universities, or by police forces. Universities are commercial organisations, and as such any data could be commercially sensitive. Had this been disclosed during the interview process, or subsequently, it would have either been anonymised to remove that sensitivity or not included in any data analysis. No such data was used in the presentation of the research. Similarly, any data pertaining to personal views of the participants which might lead to their being identified or deemed to be prejudicial to the commercial interests of universities or police forces, was excluded from any published data.

As a member of the Higher Education Forum for policing, the researcher had established professional relationships with several intended interviewees and this, together with the participant information sheet (Appendix 3) that was made available to them prior to their agreeing to participate, reinforced the level of professional trust between the researcher and interviewees.

As described above, in relation to participants in the survey, participants in the semi-structured interviews were provided with detailed information about the purpose of the research, its intended benefits, and the procedures involved. It also addressed their right to ask questions about, and obtain a copy of, the results and for them to be able to give informed consent to their participation (Creswell and Creswell, 2017, Walliman, 2018). It also concerned the participant's right to withdraw from the research at any point, and the issues of 'confidentiality, anonymity and courtesy' (Walliman, 2018, p44) regarding the treatment of participants as discussed by Dawson (2012).

Informed consent was sought from each participant, and the questions to be asked were provided to each participant prior to the interviews. They were also advised of the date before which they could withdraw their consent to participate, and that this

would result in their data being destroyed and not processed further. Each interviewee was assured anonymity and any quotes used in the reporting and publication of the research were anonymised.

The risk that conducting the semi-structured interviews could cause harm to either the participants or the researcher, was minimised by conducting the interviews using (Microsoft TEAMS) an online video and audio link. This followed from the restrictions on meetings and social distancing resulting from the Coronavirus-19 pandemic in 2021, and whilst it was originally planned to conduct the semi-structured interviews face-to-face, the option of using on-line interviews was proposed to, and accepted by, each participant. Participants also had the option to leave the interview at any time, should they wish to do so, by disconnecting from the online call, however no interviewees did so.

Each semi-structured interview was recorded with specific agreement, using audio and video, on a stand-alone computer owned by the researcher. The recordings were solely used for the research and not accessed by anyone other than the researcher. The data set was anonymised to prevent the identification of individual participants, and the data was retained for the duration of the research, by the researcher, securely stored on a stand-alone laptop, with a back-up copy on an external hard drive, each of which was, separately, password protected. Only anonymised transcripts of the interviews were shared with the research supervisors.

The research methodology has been described in sufficient detail to enable the survey and interviews to be repeated with different respondents and interviewees, and was legally conducted in a decent, honest, and truthful manner (Le Voi, 2006).

4 Findings

Whilst a mixed methods approach was taken in this research, the international conventions of reporting quantitative research stipulate these findings are presented separately from their discussion, and qualitative research findings are combined with their discussion. Following these conventions, the survey findings are presented in the first sub-chapter (4.1), with analysis and discussion in the second sub-chapter (4.2). The qualitative research findings from the semi-structured interviews are presented in the third sub-chapter (4.3) together with a thematic discussion.

4.1 Findings from the Survey Data

A total of twenty-one questions were included in the survey, and sixty-three responses were received. The questions were intended to solicit current students' views regarding the taught topics across the three programmes and were informed by the research questions. The raw data from the survey are included in Appendix 6, in tabular form, and the subsequent coding is included in Appendix 7.

Questions one to eight solicited demographic data from respondents to aid analysis. Questions one to three related to age, gender, and ethnicity and the results are shown below. Most respondents (49%) were aged between twenty and twenty-four, and 24% were aged between twenty-five and twenty-nine years. A further 21% were aged between thirty and forty-nine years, with 6% under twenty years of age (Table 1 below). Sixty-one respondents (97%) identified their ethnicity as being White with two (3%) identifying as Asian, Asian British, Pakistani, or other Asian background (Chart 1 below), and thirty-five respondents (56%) were female, and twenty-eight (44%) were male (Chart 2 below).

Age	Code	Number	Percent
16-19	1	4	6.34%
20-24	2	31	49.20%
25-29	3	15	23.80%
30-34	4	6	9.52%
35-39	5	5	7.93%
40-44	6	1	1.59%
45-49	7	1	1.59%
50+	8	-	
Blank	9	-	

Table 1 – Respondents' age (Q1)

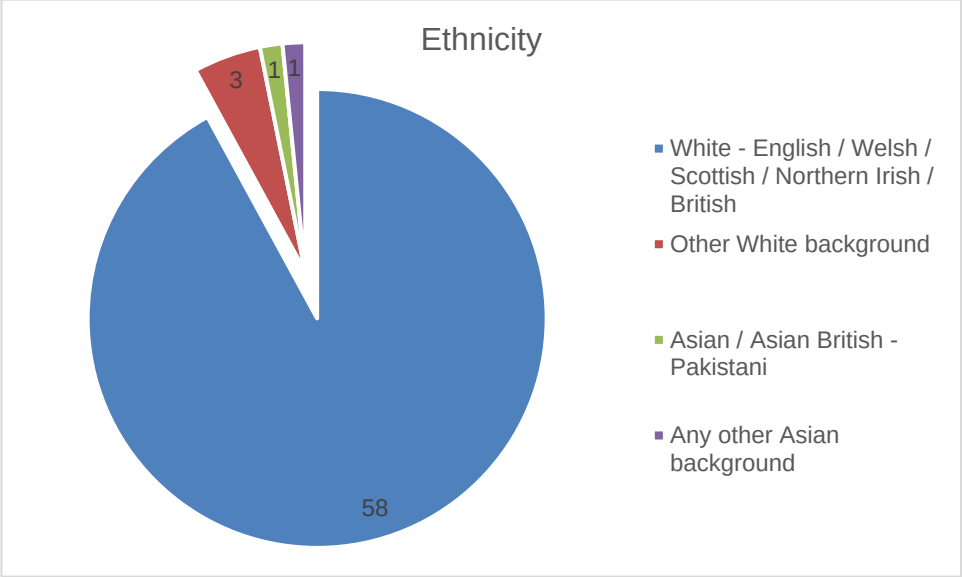


Chart 1 – Respondents' ethnicity (Q2)

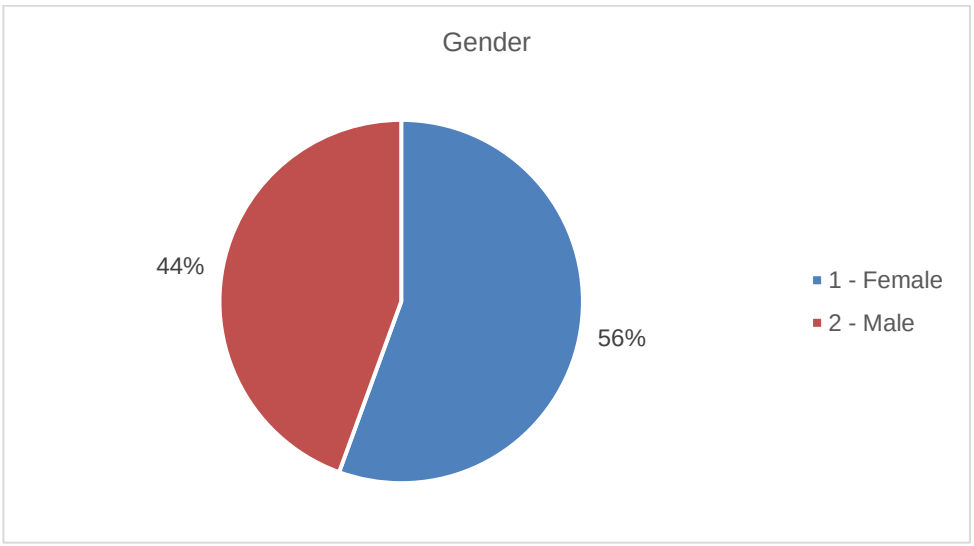


Chart 2 – Respondents' gender (Q3)

Question four revealed that forty-two respondents (67%) were police officers studying the PCDA or DHEP entry routes, and twenty-one respondents (33%) were students (33%) were PPD students (Chart 3 below).

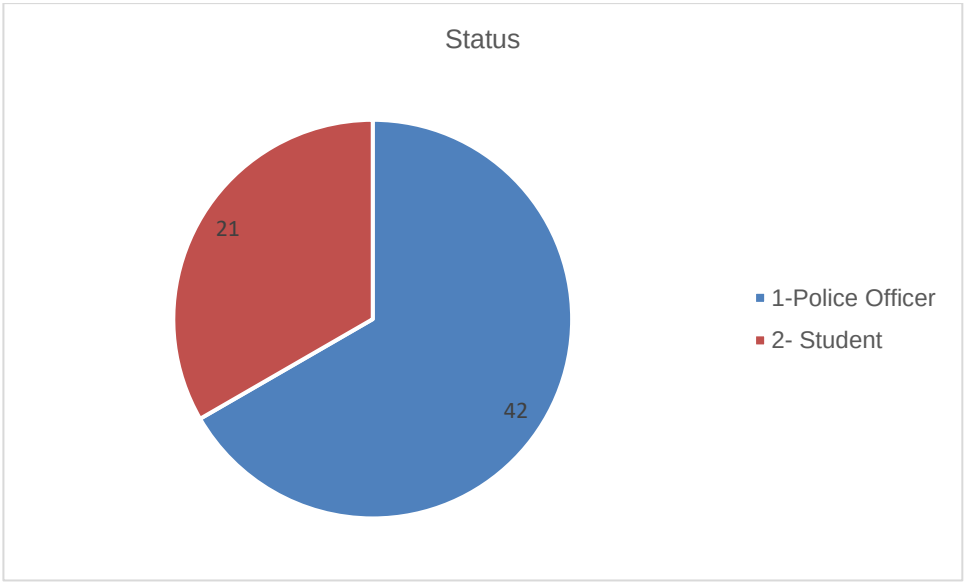


Chart 3 – Respondents' status (Q4)

Question five revealed the highest level of academic qualification held by police officer respondents when joining the police, and two respondents (5%) had either no formal qualifications or did not answer the question; nine respondents (21%) had qualifications

equivalent to academic level two; thirteen respondents (31%) had a qualification equivalent to level three; fifteen respondents (36%) had a qualification equivalent to level six; and three respondents (7%) had a post-graduate qualification equivalent to level six or above. There were forty-two responses (Chart 4 below).

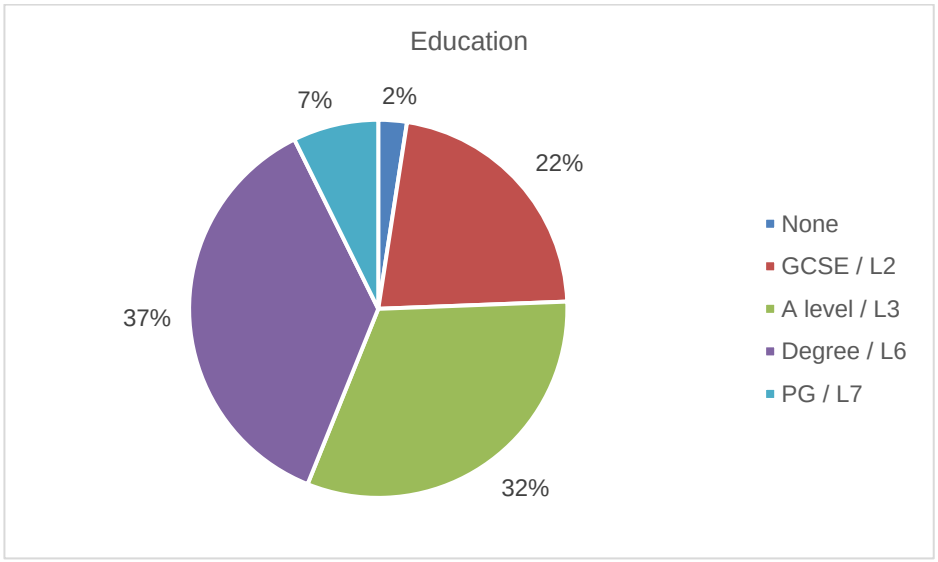


Chart 4 – Respondents' education level (Q5)

Question six established that twenty-two respondents (35%) were following the PPD route, twenty-seven respondents (43%) were on the PCDA, and fourteen respondents (22%) were on the DHEP (Chart 5 below). Question seven showed that thirty-three respondents (52%) were in their first year on programme, twenty respondents (32%) were in their second year, and ten respondents (16%) were in their third year (Chart 6 below).

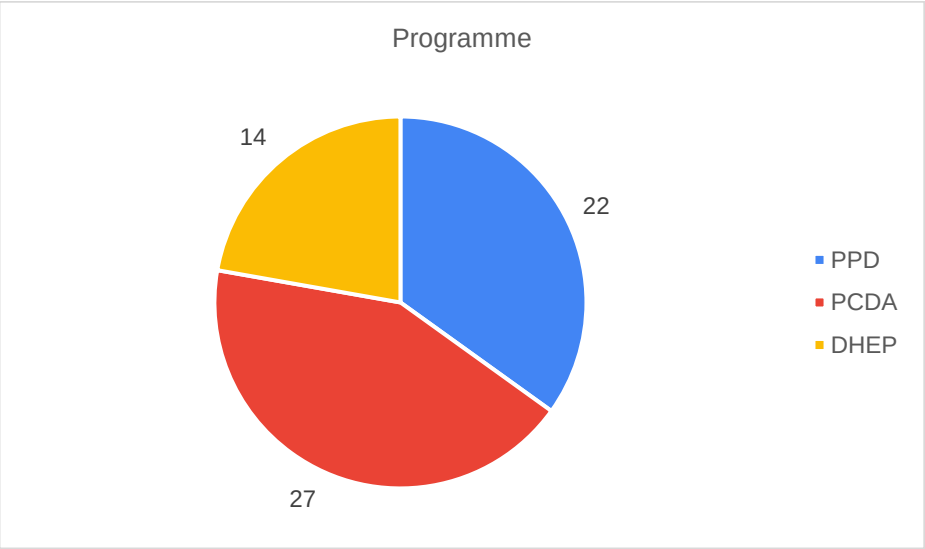


Chart 5 – Respondents' programme (Q6)

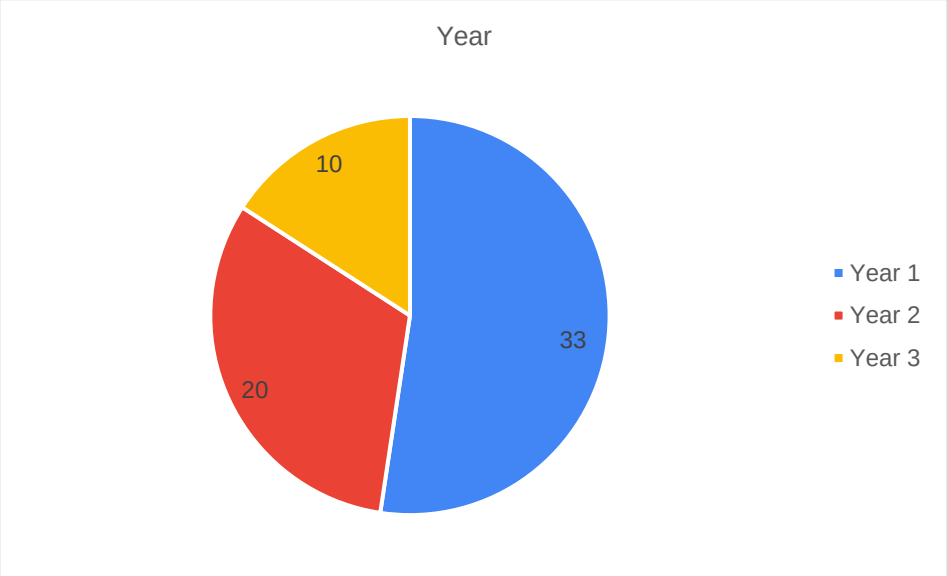


Chart 6 – Respondents' year of study (Q7)

Question eight related to the police officer respondents' police force, and the university attended by the PPD students. Forty police officer respondents were associated with four different police forces: five (13%) from Thames Valley Police; seven (18%) were from Cheshire Constabulary; ten (25%) were from Merseyside Police; and eighteen (45%) were from Greater Manchester Police (Chart 7 below). Also, twenty-three respondents who identified as PPD students were associated with eight different universities, with one respondent (4%) at each of the University of Wales Trinity St David, and Canterbury Christ Church University; two respondents (9%) at each of the

University of Winchester, University of Gloucester, and Salford University; three respondents (13%) were from Liverpool John Moores University; four respondents (17%) were at Bangor University, and eight respondents (35%) were at Sheffield Hallam University (Chart 8 below).

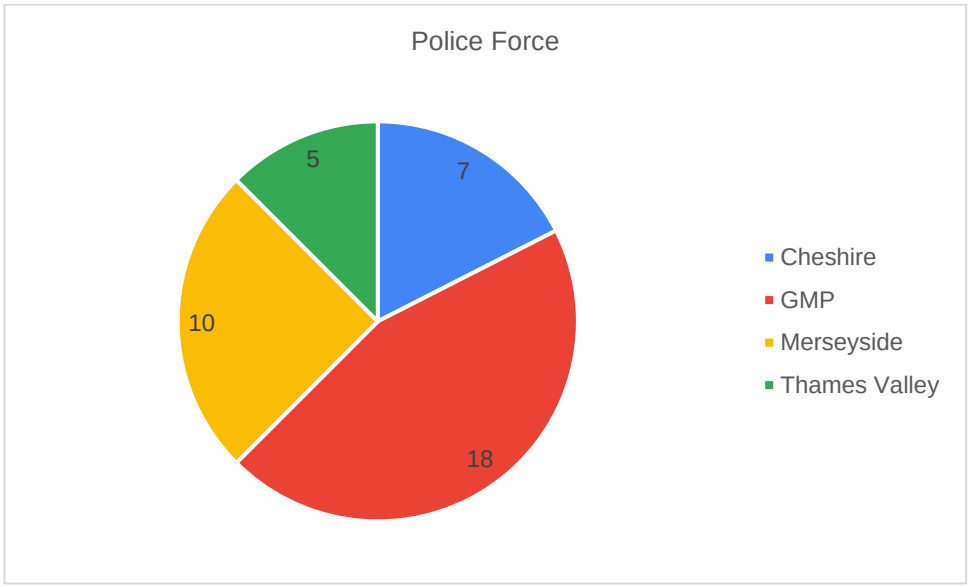


Chart 7 – Respondents' Police Force (Q8a)

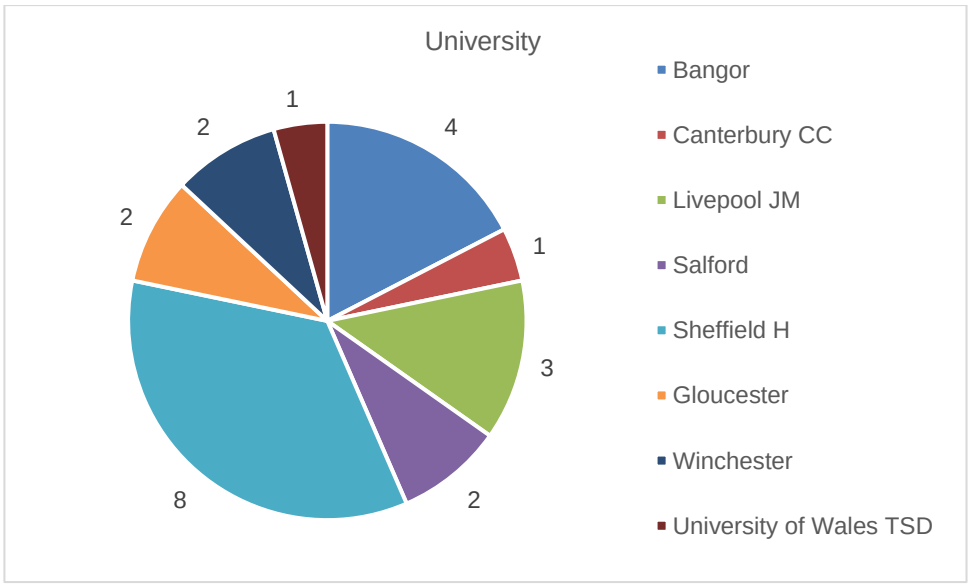


Chart 8 - Respondents' University (Q8b)

Questions nine to eleven solicited data relating to the usefulness, interest, and difficulty of respondents' programmes, as regards the overall programme content. Question nine solicited responses as to how useful respondents found their programme. A five-

point rating scale was used with values from one (not very useful) to five (very useful). There were sixty-three responses, and nine respondents (14%) indicated a scalar of one; nine respondents (14%) indicated a scalar of two; sixteen respondents (25%) indicated a scalar of three; fifteen respondents (24%) indicated a scalar of four; and fourteen respondents (22%) indicated a scalar of five. The average rating was 3.3 with responses shown in Chart 9 below.

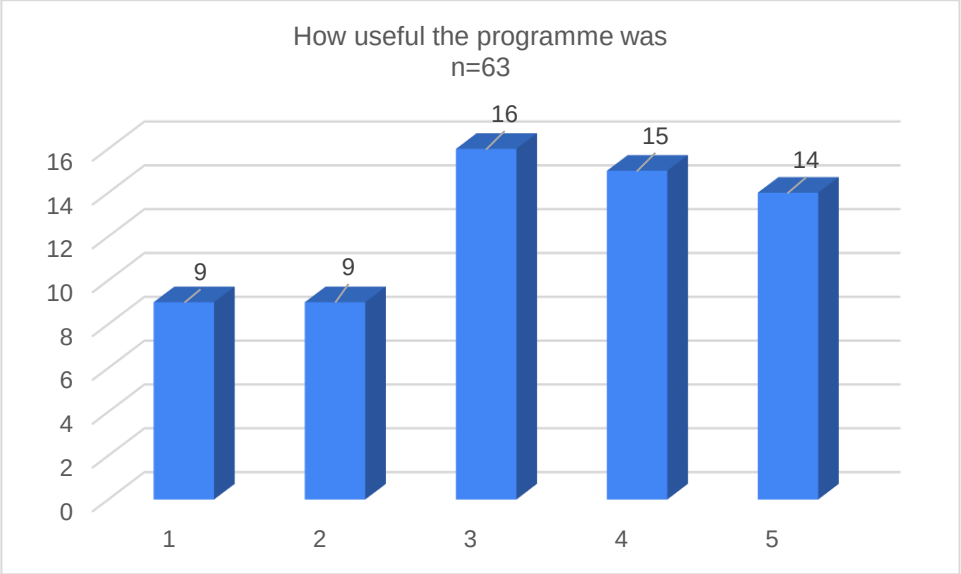
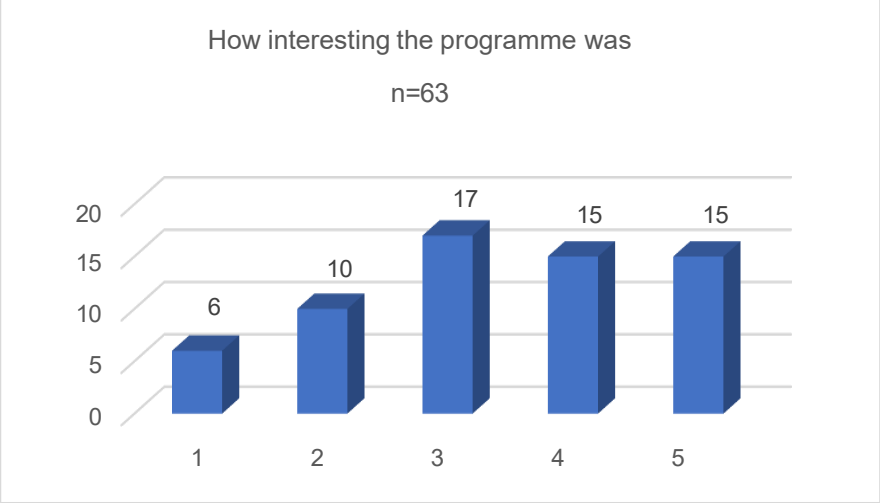


Chart 9 – Programme usefulness (Q9)

Question ten solicited responses as to how interesting respondents found their programme. A five-point rating scale was used with values from one (not very interesting) to five (very interesting). There were sixty-three responses, of which six



respondents (10%) indicated a scalar of one; ten respondents (16%) indicated a scalar of two; seventeen respondents (27%) indicated a scalar of three; fifteen respondents (24%) indicated a scalar of four; and fifteen respondents (24%) indicated a scalar of five. The average rating was 3.4 with responses shown in Chart 10 below.

Chart 10 – Programme interest (Q10)

Question eleven solicited responses as to how difficult respondents found their programme. A five-point rating scale was used with values from one (not very difficult) to five (very difficult). There were sixty-three responses, of which two respondents (3%) indicated a scalar of one; fifteen respondents (24%) indicated a scalar of two; twenty-six respondents (41%) indicated a scalar of three; sixteen respondents (25%) indicated a scalar of four; and four respondents (6%) indicated a scalar of five. The average rating was 3.1 with responses shown in Chart 11 below.

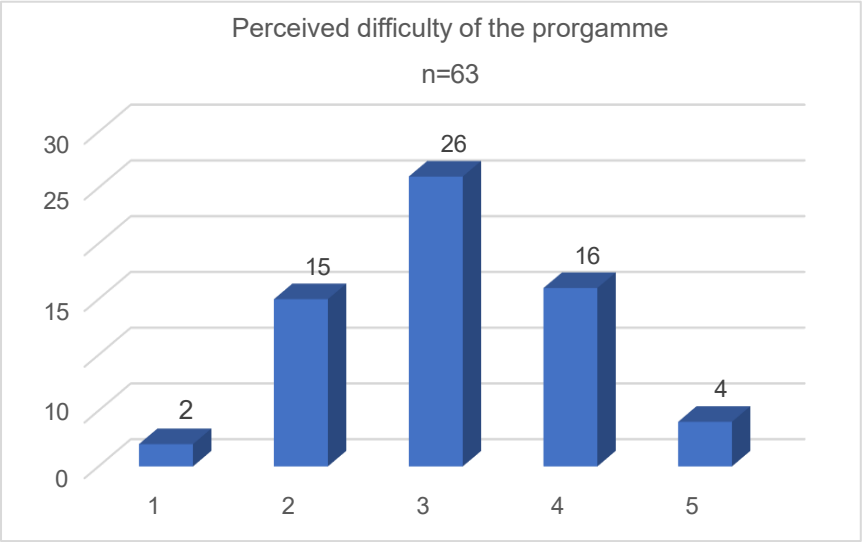


Chart 11 – Programme difficulty (Q11)

Questions twelve to seventeen sought to identify which group of subjects the respondents found most and least interesting, useful, and difficult. Whilst there were sixty-three responses to the survey, not all respondents necessarily answered these questions. This is reflected in the result reporting for each question. Question twelve solicited responses as to which group of subjects on their programme respondents found most interesting. These were coded into one of twelve groups as shown in

Table 2 below. Eleven respondents indicated that either no groups were the most interesting or did not answer the question. Ten respondents indicated the most interesting subject group was core policing, and another ten indicated it was operational powers. Organised crime and terrorism (one respondent), the criminal justice system (one respondent), academic skills (two respondents), and public protection (two respondents) were identified by the fewest respondents.

Topic	Frequency
Public protection	2
Organised crime and terrorism	1
Core policing	10
Operational powers	10
Academic skills	2
Police culture	6
Neighbourhood policing	7
Criminal justice system	1
Digital policing	2
Evidence based policing	4
No topics / no response	11
All / most topics	7

Table 2 – Most interesting subject group (Q12)

Question thirteen solicited responses as to which group of subjects that were studied on their programme respondents found least interesting. These were coded into one of twelve groups as shown in Table 3 below. Seventeen respondents indicated that evidence-based policing was the least interesting subject group, and a further fifteen respondents indicated that no groups were the least interesting or did not answer the question. Ten respondents indicated that neighbourhood policing was the least interesting subject. Operational powers (one respondent), organised crime and

terrorism (two respondents), the criminal justice system (two respondents) and digital policing (three respondents) were identified by the fewest respondents.

Topic	Frequency
Public protection	0
Organised crime and terrorism	2
Core policing	4
Operational powers	1
Academic skills	0
Police culture	4
Neighbourhood policing	10
Criminal justice system	2
Digital policing	3
Evidence based policing	17
No topics / no response	15
All topics	5

Table 3 – Least interesting subject group (Q13)

Question fourteen solicited responses as to which group of subjects studied on their programme, respondents found most useful. These were coded into one of twelve groups as shown in Table 4 below. Nineteen respondents indicated that no subjects were the most useful or did not answer the question. Fourteen respondents indicated that core policing was the most useful subject, and thirteen respondents indicated this was operational powers. Organised crime and terrorism (one respondent), the criminal justice system (one respondent) and police culture (one respondent) were identified as the most useful subject group by the fewest respondents. Academic skills, neighbourhood policing, and digital policing were not identified as the most useful by any respondents.

Topic	Frequency
Public protection	4
Organised crime and terrorism	1
Core policing	14
Operational powers	13
Academic skills	0
Police culture	1
Neighbourhood policing	0
Criminal justice system	1
Digital policing	0
Evidence based policing	5
No topics / no response	19
All topics	5

Table 4 – Most useful subject group (Q14)

Question fifteen solicited responses as to which group of subjects studied on their programme, respondents found least useful. These were coded into one of twelve groups as shown in Table five below. Twenty-three respondents indicated that no subject was the least useful or did not answer the question. Eight respondents indicated that evidence-based policing was the least useful subject, and another eight respondents indicated this was neighbourhood policing, whilst another seven respondents indicated that all the groups were the least useful. Digital policing (three respondents) and organised crime and terrorism (three respondents) were identified as the least useful subjects by the fewest respondents. Public protection, operational powers, academic skills, and the criminal justice system were not identified by any respondents as being the least useful subject group.

Topic	Frequency
Public protection	0
Organised crime and terrorism	3
Core policing	5
Operational powers	0
Academic skills	0
Police culture	6
Neighbourhood policing	8
Criminal justice system	0
Digital policing	3
Evidence based policing	8
No topics / no response	23
All topics	7

Table 5 – Least useful subject group (Q15)

Question sixteen solicited responses as to which subject groups that were studied on their programme, respondents found most difficult. These were coded into one of twelve groups as shown in Table six below. Twenty-four respondents indicated that none of the groups were the most difficult or did not answer the question. Nine respondents indicated that operational powers was the most difficult subject group, with a further eight respondents indicating core policing as being most difficult. Evidence-based policing was also identified as the most difficult group by another eight respondents. Digital policing (one respondent), police culture (one respondent), organised crime and terrorism (two respondents), and public protection (two respondents) were identified as the most difficult groups by the fewest respondents. Academic skills were not identified by any respondents as being the most difficult subject group.

Topic	Frequency
Public protection	2
Organised crime and terrorism	2
Core policing	8
Operational powers	9
Academic skills	0
Police culture	1
Neighbourhood policing	3
Criminal justice system	3
Digital policing	1
Evidence based policing	8
No topics / no response	24
All topics	2

Table Six – Most difficult subject group (Q16)

Question seventeen solicited responses as to which subject groups that were studied on their programme, respondents found least difficult. These were coded into one of twelve groups as shown in Table seven below. Thirty-nine respondents indicated that none of the groups were the least difficult or did not answer the question. Six respondents indicated that operational powers were the least difficult subject group, with a further six respondents indicating all the groups as being least difficult. Organised crime and terrorism (one respondent) and the criminal justice system (one respondent) and police culture (one respondent) were identified as the least difficult groups by the fewest respondents. Public protection, academic skills, and digital policing were not identified by any respondents as being the most difficult subject group.

Topic	Frequency
Public protection	0
Organised crime and terrorism	1
Core policing	3
Operational powers	6
Academic skills	0
Police culture	1
Neighbourhood policing	3
Criminal justice system	1
Digital policing	0
Evidence based policing	3
No topic / no response	39
All topics	6

Table 7 – Least difficult subject groups (Q17)

Questions eighteen to twenty sought data relating to how efficient, stimulating, and enjoyable, respondents considered their programme of study to be, in relation to the programme delivery. Question eighteen solicited responses as to how efficient respondents found their study programmes to be. A five-point rating scale was used with values from one (not very difficult) to five (very difficult). There were sixty-three responses, of which eleven respondents (17%) indicated a scalar of one; fifteen respondents (24%) indicated a scalar of two; twelve respondents (19%) indicated a scalar of three; eighteen respondents (29%) indicated a scalar of four; and seven respondents (11%) indicated a scalar of five. The average rating was 2.9 with the results shown in Chart twelve below.

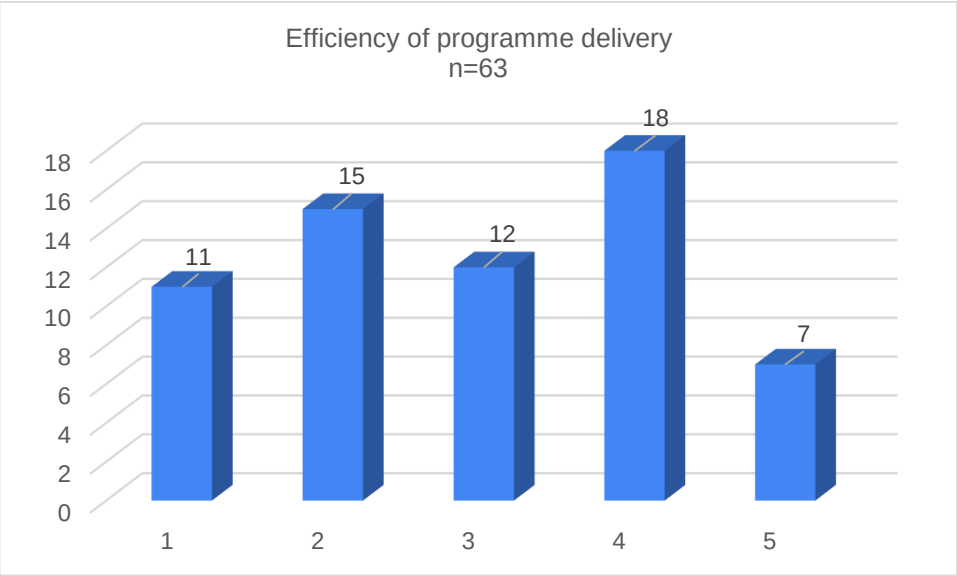


Chart 12 – Efficiency of programme delivery

Question nineteen solicited responses as to how stimulating respondents found their study programmes to be. A five-point rating scale was used with values from one (not very stimulating) to five (very stimulating). There were sixty-three responses, of which ten respondents (16%) indicated a scalar of one; fourteen respondents (22%) indicated a scalar of two; twenty-two respondents (35%) indicated a scalar of three; fifteen respondents (24%) indicated a scalar of four; and two respondents (3%) indicated a scalar of five. The average rating was 2.8 with the results shown in Chart fourteen below.

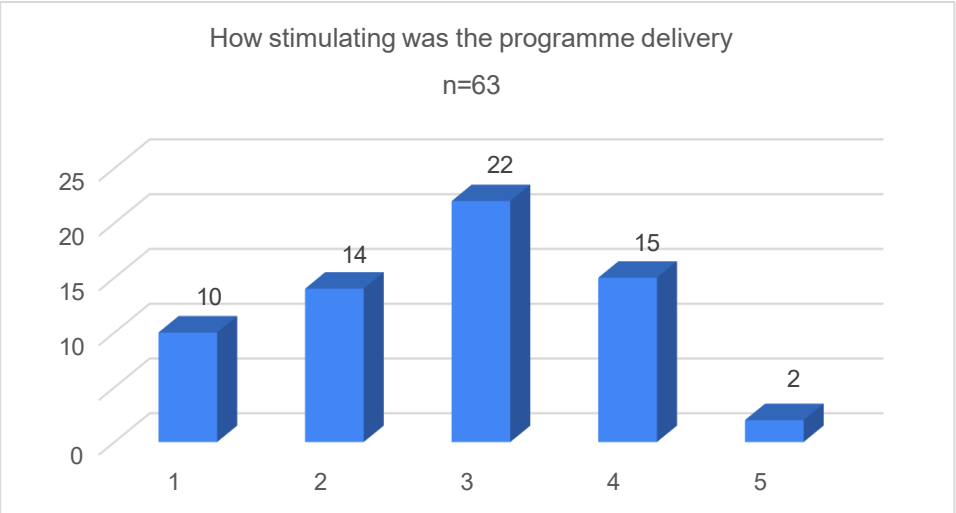


Chart 14 – How stimulating was the programme delivery

Question twenty solicited responses as to how enjoyable respondents found their study programmes to be. A five-point rating scale was used with values from one (not very enjoyable) to five (very enjoyable). There were sixty-three responses, of which eleven respondents (17%) indicated a scalar of one; eleven respondents (17%) indicated a scalar of two; sixteen respondents (25%) indicated a scalar of three; seventeen respondents (27%) indicated a scalar of four; and eight respondents (13%) indicated a scalar of five. The average rating was 3.0 with the results shown in Chart fifteen below.

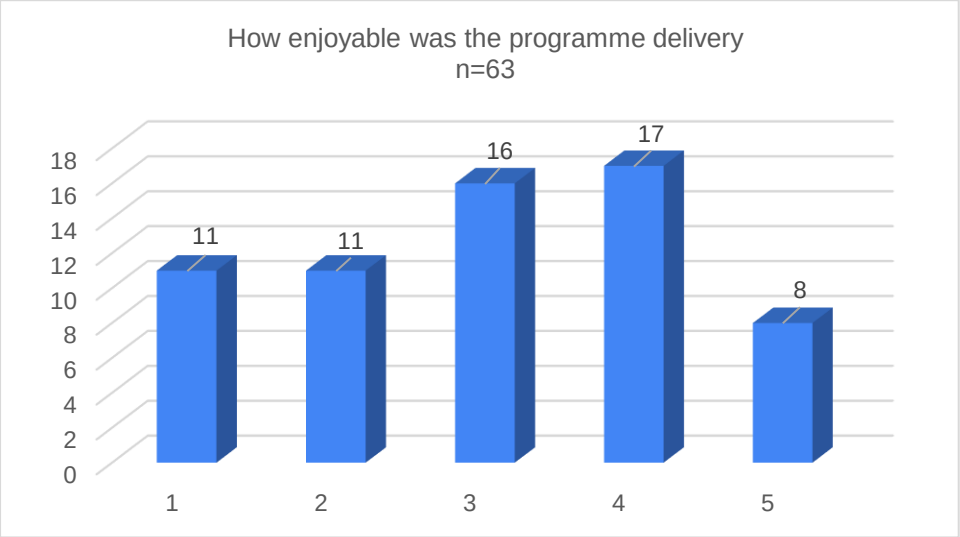


Chart 15 – Enjoyability of programme delivery

Question twenty-one solicited responses as to how prepared respondents felt their programme of study had made them, for the role of constable. A five-point rating scale was used with values from one (not very well) to five (very well). There were sixty-three responses, of which twelve respondents (19%) indicated a scalar of one; nine respondents (14%) indicated a scalar of two; sixteen respondents (25%) indicated a scalar of three; seventeen respondents (27%) indicated a scalar of four; and nine respondents (14%) indicated a scalar of five. The average rating was 3.0 with the results shown in Chart sixteen below.

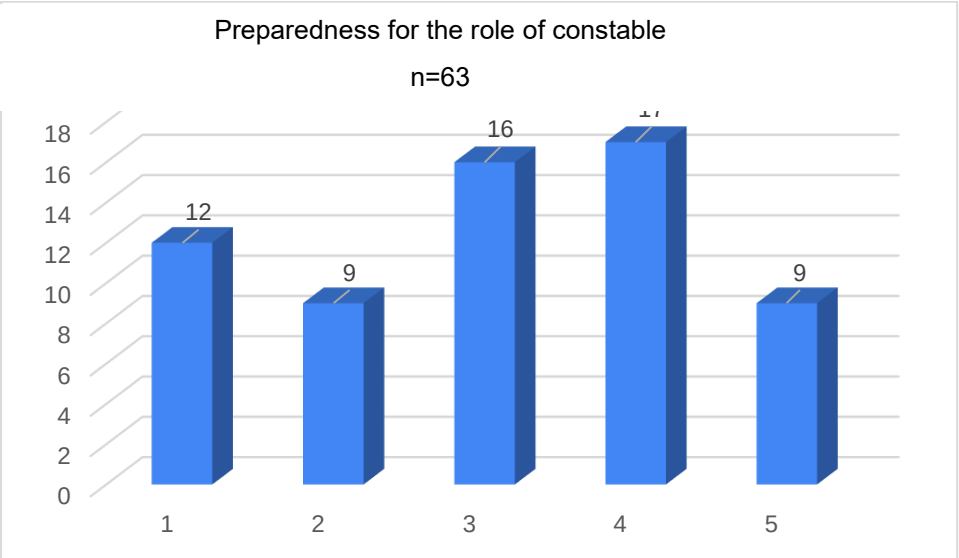


Chart 16 – Preparedness for the role of constable

4.2 Analysis of survey data.

The new entry routes were introduced across England and Wales from 2019, and the survey was completed between December 2022 and August 2023. Both the PCDA and PPD are three-year programmes, however, the DHEP is a two-year programme. Given the staged introduction of the different programmes, it is acknowledged that there would be fewer students in the third year of both PCDA and PPD programmes than in years one and two. It is also acknowledged that from April 2024, the additional non-graduate entry route was introduced, but all the data collection had been completed prior to that date. All respondents were on one of the three new entry routes into policing.

The responses to the survey indicated that 52% of respondents were in their first year on the programmes, 32% were from those in their second year, and 16% of respondents were in their third year. Whilst this, in isolation, is not necessarily an influencing factor, it is acknowledged that respondents in the earlier years of a programme may be less informed than those in the later years, about policing issues and operational considerations, which could influence their opinions. This includes their perceptions regarding the programmes, the taught topics, and their views as to how well they were prepared for the role of constable.

There are also distinct differences between the individuals on each of the three

programmes. Those studying the PPD are university students who, unless they are volunteering as special constables, are not exposed to the organisational culture or commentary relating to the need for graduate entry routes, or the further professionalisation of policing.

Those studying the PCDA are police officers, the majority of whom joined the police without attaining a first degree. They are operationally deployed, working full time, albeit with a mandated 20% protected learning time. Those studying the DHEP are also police officers and operationally deployed, but do not have the mandated working time allocation for study. They have academic qualifications at least equivalent to a first degree, and the associated academic skills.

Both PCDA and DHEP cohorts of officers are exposed to operational policing culture and any commentary relating to the new entry routes or the further professionalisation of policing. This includes the organisational culture within police forces; the mantra from senior officers, managers, and PCCs; and any positive or negative commentary from individuals in influential positions (formal or informal) as to the perceived value of graduate entry routes in policing. External influences include Home Office ministers, the College of Policing, HMICFRS, and the Police Federation of England and Wales, through their published views on police training and education, or the professionalisation debate.

4.2.1 Demographic data (Q1 – 8).

Anecdotally, police leaders were hoping that graduate entry routes would not produce cohorts of school-leavers in terms of age but would increase the diversity of recruits in relation to ethnicity (Chief Constable A, 2018). The survey data indicated that 49% of respondents were aged between twenty and twenty-four years, and a further 24% of respondents were aged between twenty-five and thirty years. Only 6% of respondents were ages under twenty years, and 22% were aged between thirty and forty-nine years. This suggests that the ages of police recruits are noticeably beyond that of school-leavers and could indicate that policing is of interest to career-changers with a range of experience and skills, but these hypotheses require further detailed research.

National data indicates that 8% of police officers in England and Wales identify as

belonging to an ethnic minority group (UK Government, 2024) which was not reflected in the survey data which indicated that 97% of respondents identified their ethnicity as White.

National data relating to the gender of police officers in England and Wales indicates that 35% identify as female, whilst 51% of the population of England and Wales identify as female (UK Government 2023). The survey data indicated that 56% of respondents identified as female, which is broadly in line with the population of England and Wales, but a higher percentage than the data for police officers. Further research is needed to explore the underlying issues, but this is beyond the scope of this research.

The analysis of survey data from other questions is discussed later in this chapter, but includes analysis in terms of age and gender, however, given the very low numbers of respondents identifying as from ethnic minority groups, ethnicity was not analysed further.

The minimum academic qualification level for police recruits in England and Wales is the equivalence to level two in the National Qualifications Framework (QAA, 2024) as stated in The Police Regulations 2003. There is also discretion provided by the Regulations for chief constables to recruit individuals without formal qualifications equivalent to level two if the individual recruit has experience or learning demonstrating an equivalence to that level of education or achievement.

The survey data indicated that 74% of respondents had qualifications above level two, with 43% being at or above, graduate level (level six). Only 5% of respondents had no formal qualifications or did not answer the question. This indicates the majority of respondents had achieved or exceeded the required minimum academic level, with less than half being qualified at or above level six. With mandatory graduate entry programmes being introduced, this implies that the majority of recruits would undertake the PCDA route with chief officers relying on their discretion to recruit non-graduates with the equivalent experience or learning mentioned above. This aligns with the survey data relating to the number of respondents on the different entry programmes, as 43% were police officers on the PCDA, 22% were police officers on the DHEP, and 35% were students on the PPD.

Analysis of other survey data includes consideration of the programmes, and the length of time respondents were on those programmes. Given the low number of responses,

no meaningful analysis was possible using the data relating to respondents' home police force, or their university.

4.2.2 Usefulness, interest and difficulty of programmes (Q9 to 11)

Question nine related to how useful respondents found their programme of study. Statistical analysis revealed that the skew was -0.41, indicating a weak negative skew and that the data is approximately symmetric with a slight skew to the left, and most responses suggesting that topics are considered useful. The data were analysed and cross-tabulated in terms of the respondents' gender, their programme, and their length of time on programme, to identify whether there were significant differences in the data.

Of the sixty-three respondents, thirty-five were female and twenty-eight were male. The null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between female and male respondents as to how useful they found the topics studied. Sixteen of the female respondents considered the topics to be useful, ten thought they were not useful, and nine were undecided. Thirteen of the male respondents considered the topics to be useful, whilst eight thought they were not, and seven were undecided. An independent t-test was conducted, $t(61)=0.83$, $p=.409$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis and indicating no significant difference based on gender.

Considering each programme individually revealed that fifteen (68%) of the twenty-two respondents on the PPD found the topics taught on their programme to be useful with two (9%) indicating they were not, and five (23%) being undecided. Of the fourteen respondents on the DHEP six respondents (43%) indicated that the topics taught were useful with five (36%) indicating they were not, and three (21%) being undecided. Of the twenty-seven respondents on the PCDA, eleven (41%) felt the topics taught were not useful, whilst eight (30%) felt they were, and a further eight respondents (30%) were undecided. As respondents on the PCDA and DHEP are police officers, but the former are non-graduates whilst the latter are graduates, a null hypothesis that there would be no difference between these respondents as to how useful they found the topics studied was tested by conducting an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.65$, $p=.521$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis by indicating no significant difference between the respondent groups based on graduate status. A second null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents on the PCDA and PPD programmes, as

both are non-graduates, but the former are police officers, and the latter are students was tested using an independent t-test, t(39)=0.004, p=.996 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between police officer respondents and student respondents.

Comparison between first year PCDA respondents with first year DHEP respondents, both groups being police officers, was undertaken to test the null hypothesis that there would be no difference between them in the first year of their programmes. This was tested using an independent t-test, t(24)=0.59, p=.564 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. No comparison between the PCDA and DHEP in years two and three was made due to there being only three respondents in year two of the DHEP.

Comparing the PCDA and PPD programmes as both are three-year undergraduate programmes indicates that on the PCDA, the same number of first year respondents (five) considered their programme to be useful (33%), not useful (33%), and were undecided (33%), compared with respondents in the first year of the PPD where five respondents (71%) indicated the programme was useful, one respondent (14%) was undecided, and one respondent (14%) indicated the programme was not useful. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between PCDA and PPD respondents in the first year. An independent t-test was conducted, t(20)=0.25, p=.805 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

In the second and third years combined, PCDA respondents indicated that six (50%) thought the programme was not useful, three respondents (25%) indicated it was useful, and three respondents (25%) were undecided. In comparison, ten respondents (66%) in years two and three of the PPD indicate the programme was useful, four respondents (27%) were undecided, and one respondent (7%) indicated the programme was not useful. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between PCDA and PPD respondents in years two and three combined. An independent t-test was conducted, t(25)=0.01, p=.992 and failed to reject to null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Analysis of the data relating to the perceived usefulness of all programmes in year one and years two and three combined was undertaken with a null hypothesis that there

would be no difference between the year groups. An independent t-test was conducted, t(61)=0.63, p=.534 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

A null hypothesis that the respondents' study programme PCDA, DHEP, and PPD) was not dependent on their assessment of how useful they found those programmes was tested with the performance of a chi-square test of independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (8, N=63)=9.28, p=.319 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results			
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP	
1	1	5	3	9	1	3.14	3.86	2.00	
2	1	6	2	9	2	3.14	3.86	2.00	
3	5	8	3	16	3	5.59	6.86	3.56	
4	8	4	3	15	4	5.24	6.43	3.33	
5	7	4	3	14	5	4.89	6.00	3.11	
	22	27	14	63					
O-E				**(O-E) squared**			**(O-E) squared / E**		
-2.14	1.14	1.00		4.59	1.31	1.00	1.46	0.34	0.50
-2.14	2.14	0.00		4.59	4.59	0.00	1.46	1.19	0.00
-0.59	1.14	-0.56		0.34	1.31	0.31	0.06	0.19	0.09
2.76	-2.43	-0.33		7.63	5.90	0.11	1.46	0.92	0.03
2.11	-2.00	-0.11		4.46	4.00	0.01	0.91	0.67	0.00
Chi-Square value									
9.28									

Chi-square calculation – Q9 – Topic usefulness

Question ten related to how interesting respondents found their programmes of study. Statistical analysis revealed that the skew was -0.875, indicating a moderate negative skew indicating the data is moderately skewed to the left, with most responses suggesting that topics are considered interesting. The data were analysed and cross-tabulated in terms of the respondents' gender, their programme, and their length of time on programme, to identify whether there were significant differences in the data.

Of the sixty-three respondents, thirty-five were female and twenty-eight were male. The null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between female and male respondents as to how interesting they found the topics studied. Nineteen of the female

respondents (54%) considered the topics to be interesting compared to eleven of the male respondents (39%); eleven of the female respondents (31%) thought the topics were not interesting compared to five male respondents (18%); and five female respondents (14%) were undecided, compared to twelve male respondents (43%). An independent t-test was conducted, $t(61)=0.91$, $p=.366$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Considering the programmes individually, revealed that fifteen of the twenty-two respondents (68%) on the PPD found the topics to be interesting, with two indicating they were not (9%), and five being undecided (23%). For the fourteen respondents on the DHEP, eight indicated the topics were interesting (57%), four indicated they were not interesting (29%), and two were undecided (14%). Of the twenty-seven respondents on the PCDA, seven felt the topics taught were interesting (26%), ten felt they were not (37%), and ten were undecided (37%). As discussed in the previous section, respondents on the PCDA and DHEP are police officers, but the former are non-graduates whilst the latter are graduates. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between these respondents as to how interesting they found the topics studied. An independent t-test was conducted, $t(39)=0.16$, $p=.873$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating there was no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents on the PCDA and PPD programmes, as both are non-graduates, but the former are police officers, and the latter are students. This was tested with an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.01$, $p=.995$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

The different lengths of the three entry route programmes prevent detailed comparison of the data in terms of the different years of study, given the relatively few respondents in the third year of either the PCDA or the PPD and the DHEP being a two-year programme. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between responses from the respondents in year one, and those in years two and three combined. An independent t-test was conducted, $t(61)=0.56$, $p=.575$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing the PCDA and PPD programmes as both are three-year undergraduate programmes indicates that on the PCDA, four first year respondents considered their

programme to be interesting (33%), three considered it was not interesting (20%), and eight were undecided (53%), compared with respondents in the first year of the PPD where five respondents (71%) indicated the programme was interesting, one respondent (14%) was undecided, and one respondent (14%) indicated the programme was not interesting. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in year one and PPD respondents in year one and was tested by conducting an independent t-test, $t(20)=0.27$, $p=.789$ which failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents and PPD respondents in years two and three was also tested using an independent t-test, $t(25)=0.11$, $p=.992$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing PCDA with DHEP programmes with all respondents being police officers, a null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in year one and DHEP respondents in year one. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(25)=0.338$, $p=.738$ which failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between these two groups. No comparison between the PCDA and DHEP in years two and three was made due to there being only three respondents in year two of the DHEP.

A null hypothesis that the respondents' study programme was independent from their assessment of how interesting they considered the topics to be, was tested with the performance of a chi-square test of independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant, X^2 $(8, N=63)=12.69$, $p=.122$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results		
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	2	3	1	6	1	2.10	2.57	1.33
2	0	7	3	10	2	3.49	4.29	2.22
3	5	10	2	17	3	5.94	7.29	3.78
4	7	4	4	15	4	5.24	6.43	3.33
5	8	3	4	15	5	5.24	6.43	3.33
	22	27	14	63				

O-E			(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
-0.10	0.43	-0.33	0.01	0.18	0.11	0.00	0.07	0.08
-3.49	2.71	0.78	12.19	7.37	0.60	3.49	1.72	0.27
-0.94	2.71	-1.78	0.88	7.37	3.16	0.15	1.01	0.84
1.76	-2.43	0.67	3.10	5.90	0.44	0.59	0.92	0.13
2.76	-3.43	0.67	7.63	11.76	0.44	1.46	1.83	0.13
						5.69	5.55	1.46

Chi-Square value
12.6996

Chi-square calculation – Q10 – Topic interest

Question eleven related to how difficult respondents found their programmes of study. Statistical analysis revealed that the skew was 0.281 indicating a weak positive skew and suggesting the data is approximately symmetric with a slight skew to the right, with little difference from a normal distribution. The data were analysed and cross-tabulated in terms of the respondents' gender, their programme, and their length of time on programme, to identify whether there were significant differences in the data.

Of the sixty-three respondents, thirty-five were female and twenty-eight were male. The null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between female and male respondents as to how difficult they found the topics studied. Twelve of the female respondents (34%) considered the topics to be difficult compared to eight of the male respondents (29%); six of the female respondents (17%) thought the topics were not difficult compared to eleven male respondents (39%); and seventeen female respondents (49%) were undecided, compared to nine male respondents (32%). An independent t-test was conducted, $t(61)=0.09$, $p=.921$) and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference based on the respondents' gender.

Considering the programmes individually, revealed that seven of the twenty-two respondents (32%) on the PPD found the topics to be difficult, with six indicating they were not (27%), and nine being undecided (41%). For the fourteen respondents on

the DHEP, three indicated the topics were difficult (21%), three indicated they were not difficult (21%), and eight were undecided (57%). Of the twenty-seven respondents on the PCDA, ten felt the topics taught were difficult (37%), eight felt they were not (30%), and nine were undecided (33%). As stated above, respondents on the PCDA and DHEP are police officers, but the former are non-graduates whilst the latter are graduates. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between all the PCDA and DHEP respondents as to how difficult they found the topics studied was tested using an independent t-test, $t(39)=0.45$, $p=.655$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between all the respondents on the PCDA and PPD programmes, as both are non-graduates, but the former are police officers, and the latter are students. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.84$, $p=.405$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

The different lengths of the three entry route programmes prevent detailed comparison of the data in terms of the different years of study, given the relatively few respondents in the third year of either the PCDA or the PPD and the DHEP being a two-year programme. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between responses from all those in year one, and all those in years two and three combined was tested with the conduct of an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.34$, $p=.735$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing the PCDA and PPD programmes as both are three-year undergraduate programmes indicates that on the PCDA, six first year respondents considered their programme to be difficult (40%), five considered it was not difficult (33%), and four were undecided (27%), compared with respondents in the first year of the PPD where two respondents (29%) indicated the programme was difficult, three respondents (42%) was undecided, and two respondents (29%) indicated the programme was not difficult. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in year one and PPD respondents in year one was tested with the conduct of an independent t-test, $t(20)=0.86$, $p=.398$, and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

In the second and third years combined, three PCDA respondents (25%) indicated that the programme was not difficult, four respondents (33%) indicated it was difficult, and five respondents (42%) were undecided. In comparison, five respondents (33%) in years two and three of the PPD indicate the programme was difficult, six respondents (40%) were undecided, and four respondents (27%) indicated the programme was not difficult. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in years two and three, and PPD respondents in years two and three was tested using an independent t-test, t(25)=0.78, p=.441 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing the PCDA and DHEP programmes, of the eleven respondents in year one of the DHEP, two indicated the topics were difficult (27%), three indicated the topics were not difficult, and six were undecided. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between first year respondents on the PCDA and DHEP as regards the perceived difficulty of the topics. This was tested using an independent t-test, t(24)=0.48, p=.633) and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

A null hypothesis that the respondents' study programme was not dependent on their assessment of how difficult they found the programme was tested with the performance of a chi-square test of independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (8, N=63)=5.414, p=.712 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results			
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP	
1	1	0	1	2	1	0.698	0.857	0.444	
2	5	8	2	15	2	5.238	6.429	3.333	
3	9	9	8	26	3	9.079	11.143	5.778	
4	5	8	3	16	4	5.587	6.857	3.556	
5	2	2	0	4	5	1.397	1.714	0.889	
	22	27	14	63					
O-E				**(O-E) squared**			**(O-E) squared / E**		
0.30	-0.86	0.56		0.09	0.73	0.31		0.130	0.857	0.694
-0.24	1.57	-1.33		0.06	2.47	1.78		0.011	0.384	0.533
-0.08	-2.14	2.22		0.01	4.59	4.94		0.001	0.412	0.855
-0.59	1.14	-0.56		0.34	1.31	0.31		0.062	0.190	0.087
0.60	0.29	-0.89		0.36	0.08	0.79		0.260	0.048	0.889
Chi-Square value										
5.414										

Chi-square test – Q11 – Topic difficulty

The above analysis relates to the respondents' perceptions of how useful, interesting, and difficult, the topics taught on their respective programmes were. The researcher's experience of teaching degree-level policing programmes suggests that students' perceptions regarding the topics they study are influenced by a multitude of factors, including their perceived relevance of the topic to their programme of study, and their career goals. Equally, negative commentary from peers, and supervisors within policing regarding the relevance of their programme, and the topics taught, can also negatively influence students' perceptions. These points are also reflected in the literature review (White and Heslop, 2012; Martin and Woof, 2018; Belur et al, 2019) and comments by interviewees, including Interviewee 'A' (2023) and Interviewee 'C' (2023).

Respondents on the PCDA are non-graduate police officers; those on the PPD are non-graduate students; and those on the DHEP are graduate police officers. The PPD respondents are not exposed to police organisational cultures and peer influence, and do not need to balance a dual role, combining operational policing work and academic study, unlike the respondents on the PCDA and DHEP. Both PPD and PCDA respondents are undergraduates and may not possess skills associated with graduate-level study. These differences highlight the need for detailed longitudinal research to test the above hypotheses and to identify any causal or influencing factors. No inferences can be drawn from the data in relation to the length of time on programme for respondents, given the lack of respondents in the later years of the programmes, which will have been impacted by the new graduate entry routes being introduced over a three-year period and only available for a short time prior to the research being undertaken.

The null hypotheses failing to be rejected reflects the low number of responses to the survey but also underlines the need for further research in these areas and identify influencing factors. These potentially include the quality of the teaching and its influence on students' perceptions about the curriculum content, together with the teachers' ability to link theoretical learning to operational reality, thereby demonstrating the relevance and applicability of curriculum topics to professional policing. Future research should also include examination of the extent to which constructive, supportive, and developmental feedback to students, both summative and formative, informs their perception of both their programme and the topics studied. These issues

were also discussed in the literature review (Belur et al, 2019) and identified by interviewees during this research.

Practical opportunities for respondents to apply their learning and develop understanding of the taught material may enhance the learning experience was suggested (Interviewee 'A', 2023), however, the suggestion that students recognising they are gaining knowledge and skills relating to the challenges facing 21st century policing, enables them to apply their learning to address those challenges, requires further research. This may result in study topics being perceived as more useful and interesting, although not necessarily less difficult, but also requires further research. However, in this research, the ratings from PPD students for taught topics being useful and interesting were higher than those for DHEP students, with the ratings from PCDA students being the lowest. In terms of difficulty, the ratings by PCDA students were slightly higher than those from PPD students, with the ratings from DHEP students being the lowest.

No inferences can be drawn from the data in relation to the length of time on programme for respondents, given the lack of respondents in the later years of the programmes. This will have been impacted by the new graduate entry routes being available for only a short time prior to the research being undertaken.

Comparisons between respondents' perceptions of usefulness, interest, and difficulty as regards the learning on their programme were made. The first null hypothesis was that there was no connection between how useful and how interesting respondents considered their programmes. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.63$, $p=.528$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two variables. The analysis of the data is shown in the table below.

First score	Second score	Number of respondents
1 or 2	1 or 2	12
1 or 2	3	10
3	3	7
3	4 or 5	9
4 or 5	4 or 5	25
4 or 5	1 or 2	0
		63

Table 8 - Analysis of topic usefulness and interest.

This shows that twelve (19%) respondents indicated that topics were not useful and not interesting. A further ten (16%) respondents indicated that either the topics were not useful, and they were undecided as to how interesting they were, or they were undecided as to how useful the topics were, and indicated the topics were not interesting. Another seven (11%) respondents indicated that they were undecided as to both the usefulness of the topics and whether they were interesting, whilst nine (14%) were either undecided as to how useful the topics were and indicated that they were interesting or they were undecided how interesting the topics were, and considered the topics were useful. The final twenty-five (40%) respondents indicated that the topics were both useful and interesting, with no respondents indicating that the topics were interesting but not useful or useful but not interesting.

A second null hypothesis was that there was no connection between how useful and how difficult respondents' considered their programmes and was tested using an independent t-test, $t(62)=0.39$, $p=.691$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two variables. The analysis of the data is shown in the table below.

First score	Second score	Number of respondents
1 or 2	1 or 2	4
1 or 2	3	13
3	3	7
3	4 or 5	15
4 or 5	4 or 5	10
4 or 5	1 or 2	14
		63

Table 9 - Analysis of topic usefulness and difficulty.

This shows that four (6%) respondents indicated that topics were not useful and not difficult. A further thirteen (21%) respondents indicated that either the topics were not useful, and they were undecided as to how difficult they were, or they were undecided as to how useful the topics were, and indicated the topics were not difficult. Another seven (11%) respondents indicated that they were undecided as to both the usefulness of the topics and whether they were difficult, whilst fifteen (24%) were either undecided as to how useful the topics were and indicated that they were difficult or they were undecided how difficult the topics were, and considered the topics were useful. Another

ten (16%) of respondents indicated that the topics were both useful and difficult, with the final fourteen (22%) respondents indicating that the topics were either difficult but not useful or useful but not difficult.

A third null hypothesis that there was no connection between how interesting and how difficult respondents' considered their programmes was tested using an independent t-test, t(62)=0.15, p=.878 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two variables. The analysis of the data is shown in the table below.

First score	Second score	Number of respondents
1 or 2	1 or 2	3
1 or 2	3	13
3	3	7
3	4 or 5	16
4 or 5	4 or 5	10
4 or 5	1 or 2	14
		63

Table 10 - Analysis of topic interest and difficulty

This shows that three (5%) respondents indicated that topics were not interesting and not difficult. A further thirteen (21%) respondents indicated that either the topics were not interesting, and they were undecided as to how difficult they were, or they were undecided as to how interesting the topics were, and indicated the topics were not difficult. Another seven (11%) respondents indicated that they were undecided as to both how interesting, and how difficult the topics were, whilst sixteen (25%) were either undecided as to how interesting the topics were and indicated that they were difficult or they were undecided how difficult the topics were, and considered the topics were interesting. Ten (16%) respondents indicated that the topics were both interesting and difficult, with the remaining fourteen (22%) respondents indicating that the topics were either difficult but not interesting or interesting but not difficult.

Given the low number of responses from the survey, and the failure to reject the three null hypotheses above, further research is needed to test the hypotheses and identify any influencing factors.

4.2.3 Most and least interesting, useful, and difficult topic groups (Q12 – 17)

Questions twelve and thirteen solicited student perceptions as to the most, and least, interesting topics on their programmes. The analysis of the data relating to how interesting topics were in terms of gender was undertaken to test two null hypotheses, firstly that there was no difference between female and male respondents as regards the topics identified as most interesting, and secondly that there was no difference between female and male respondents as regards the topics that were least interesting.

The first null hypothesis was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.48$, $p=.631$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. The second null hypothesis was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.27$, $p=.790$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. The failure to reject the null hypotheses reflects the low number of respondents but also indicates the need for further research to explore any relationship based on respondents' gender.

The charts below compare the data from respondents on each of the three entry programmes in relation to the most interesting, and least interesting topics.

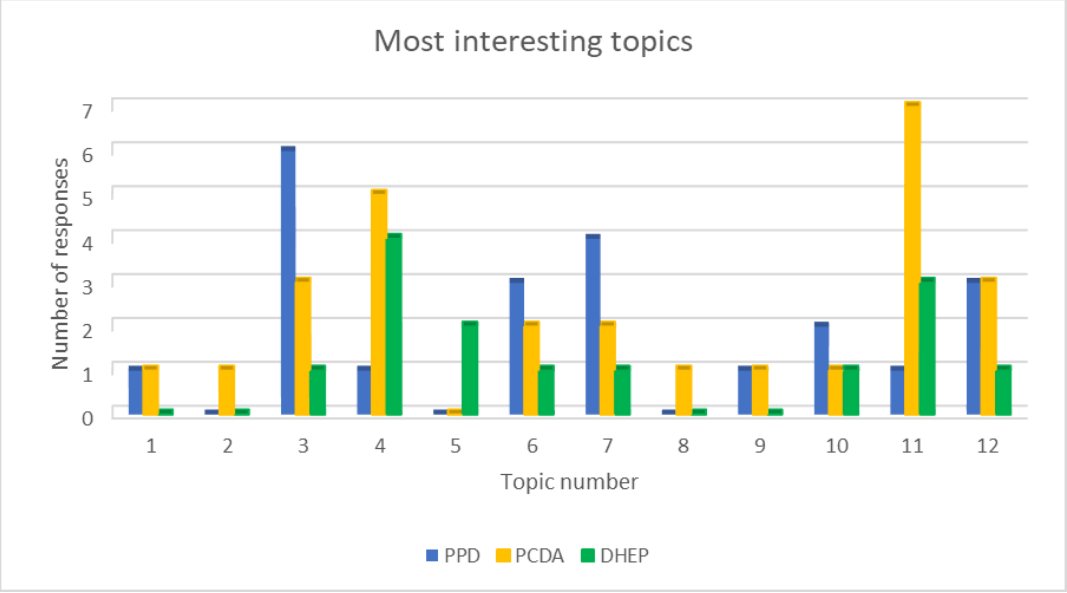


Chart 17 – Q12 Most interesting topics by programme

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	Totals
1	1	1	0	**2**
2	0	1	0	**1**
3	6	3	1	**10**
4	1	5	4	**10**
5	0	0	2	**2**
6	3	2	1	**6**
7	4	2	1	**7**
8	0	1	0	**1**
9	1	1	0	**2**
10	2	1	1	**4**
11	1	7	3	**11**
12	3	3	1	**7**
Totals	**22**	**27**	**14**	**63**

Table 11 - Most interesting topics by programme

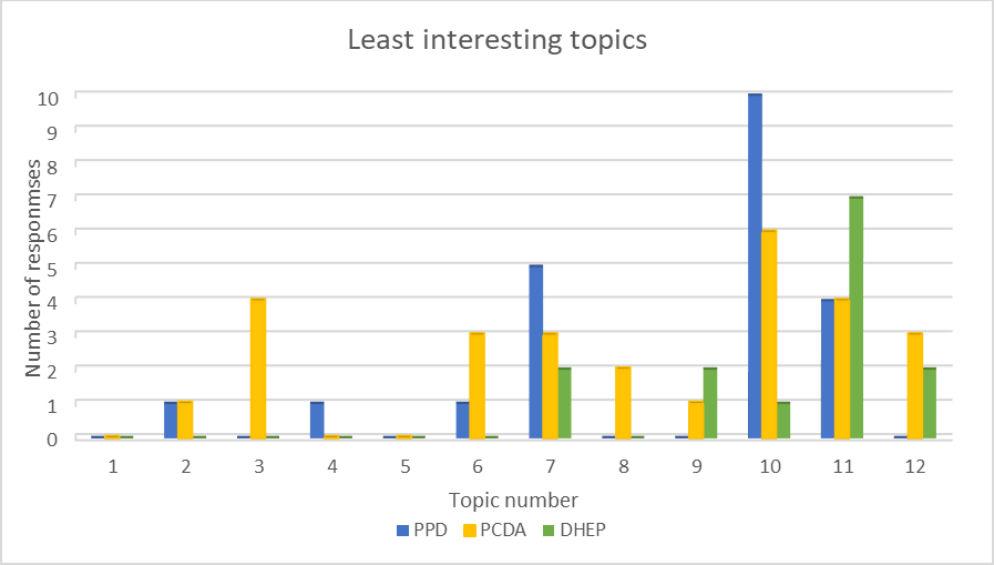


Chart 18 – Q13 Least interesting topics by programme

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	Total
1	0	0	0	**0**
2	1	1	0	**2**
3	0	4	0	**4**
4	1	0	0	**1**
5	0	0	0	**0**
6	1	3	0	**4**
7	5	3	2	**10**
8	0	2	0	**2**
9	0	1	2	**3**
10	10	6	1	**17**
11	4	4	7	**15**
12	0	3	2	**5**
Totals	**22**	**27**	**14**	**63**

Table 12 – Least interesting topics by programme

The data from the topics with more than six responses were analysed in terms of the respondents' programme, to identify any significant differences in the data, and indications of any influencing factors.

A null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA and PPD respondents in relation to the most interesting topic was tested using an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.57$, $p=.571$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA respondents and DHEP respondents in relation to the most interesting topic was also tested with an independent t-test $t(39)=0.02$, $p=.984$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Considering the topics identified as being the least interesting, a null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA and PPD respondents was tested using an independent t-test $t(47)=0.52$, $p=.603$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA and DHEP respondents was also tested using an independent t-test $t(39)=0.12$, $p=.909$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Eleven respondents indicated that no topic was considered the most interesting, which included six respondents who did not answer the question. In comparison, fifteen respondents indicated that no topic was considered the least interesting, including six respondents who did not answer the question. Five of the six respondents who did not answer the question relating to the most interesting topic, also did not answer the question as to the least interesting topic. This could suggest that no topic was considered more, or less, interesting than another, or that they did not wish to respond to either question for some other, unknown reason. Given the low number of responses, no inferences can be made in relation to the respondents' programme of study, however further research would be needed to test these hypotheses.

Fifteen respondents indicated that none of the topics were the least interesting. Four of the respondents were on the PPD, and seven were on the DHEP, with four on the PCDA programme. These respondents may have been reluctant to select a single topic area as the least interesting, or to indicate that all or most topics were the least interesting. An alternative interpretation is that four respondents did not identify any

of the topic areas to be the most or least interesting, the most or least useful, or the most or least difficult. Given the overall low number of responses, further research is required to test the hypotheses, and to identify any influencing factors.

Ten of the sixty-three respondents identified core policing as the most interesting topic, and another ten respondents identified operational powers as the most interesting topic. Whilst there is nothing in the data to suggest any influencing factors in terms of gender, just under one-third of respondents identified core policing and operational powers as the most interesting topics. Intuitively, this might be expected on courses designed to develop potential and new recruits into policing, as the topics could be considered central to the operational role of a police constable.

Further examination of the data indicated that of the ten respondents who identified core policing as the most interesting topic, six were students on the PPD, with three being police officers on the PCDA and one police officer being on the DHEP. In contrast, of the ten respondents who identified operational powers as the most interesting topic, only one was a student on the PPD, whilst five were officers on the PCDA and four were officers on the DHEP. This could suggest that police officers are more interested in practical elements of their programme, as the application of learning in the workplace is available to them, whereas this opportunity is not available to students on the PPD programme.

It is acknowledged that other factors could influence respondents in relation to how interesting taught topics could appear, including the method of teaching, their prior experience of policing, and the teacher's ability to link theoretical leaning with operational policing. Considering the above suggestion and the low numbers of respondents, further research is needed to test these hypotheses.

Seven respondents identified most, or all topics were the most interesting, two of whom also indicated that none of the topics were the least interesting. Conversely, five other respondents indicated that most or all the topics were the least interesting, two of whom also indicated that none of the topics were the most interesting. Whilst these data may suggest a certain consistency of response, the overall numbers are too low to suggest any influencing factor in terms of the respondents' gender or their programme of study and illustrate the need for further research to identify any influencing factors.

Over all three programmes, seventeen respondents identified evidence-based policing

as the least interesting topic, eight of whom were female and nine were male. There is nothing in the data to suggest influencing factors as regards gender. Ten of the seventeen respondents were students on the PPD, six were police officers on the PCDA and one was a police officer on the DHEP. In contrast, only four (6%) students indicated that EBP was the most interesting topic, two of whom were students on the PPD, one was a police officer on the DHEP, and the other one was an officer on the PCDA programme.

This suggests that over just one-quarter (27%) of all respondents, and just under one-half (45%) of PPD students considered EBP as the least interesting topic, and only 6% indicating it was the most interesting topic. This is perhaps unexpected, given the relative importance of evidence-based policing indicated by its inclusion by the College of Policing (2021b) as a specific topic in the National Policing Curriculum. One explanation may be that the respondents on the PPD are in an academic rather than an operational environment, and not working as police constables, suggesting a lack of understanding about the relationship between evidence-based policing and operational policing or, potentially, a lack of opportunity to apply the learning in practice. Respondents on the PCDA and DHEP could also lack the opportunities to reflect on their learning and apply EBP theory to practical situations. Other influencing factors might also explain these results, including the teaching method, and how the topic was presented to the respondents in both the academic, and operational environments. Further research is needed to test these hypotheses and identify influencing factors.

Seven respondents (11%) indicated that neighbourhood policing was the most interesting topic, whilst ten respondents (16%) indicated it was the least interesting topic. Four of the seven respondents, and five of the ten respondents, were female and suggests no difference due to the respondents' gender.

Four of the seven respondents indicating neighbourhood policing as the most interesting, and five of the ten respondents indicating it was not, were students on the PPD. Two of the respondents indicating neighbourhood policing as the most interesting topic were on the PCDA and one was on the DHEP. Three of the respondents indicating that neighbourhood policing was the least interesting topic were on the PCDA, and two were on the DHEP. There is nothing in the data to suggest any influencing factors as regards the respondent's programme of study, however, it demonstrates the need for further

research to identify any influencing factors, and to test the hypothesis that neighbourhood policing is seemingly undervalued by police recruits on the PCDA and DHEP, as well as students on the PPD programme.

The analysis of the data relating to the usefulness of topics in terms of gender was undertaken to test two null hypotheses, firstly that there was no difference between female and male respondents as regards the topics identified as most useful, and secondly that there was no difference between female and male respondents as regards the topics identified as the least useful.

The first null hypothesis was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.40$, $p=.690$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. The second null hypothesis was tested using an independent t-test $t(61)=0.38$, $p=.708$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

The failure to reject the null hypotheses reflects the low number of respondents but also indicates the need for further research to explore any relationship based on respondents' gender. The charts below compare the data from respondents on each of the three entry programmes in relation to the most useful, and least useful topics.

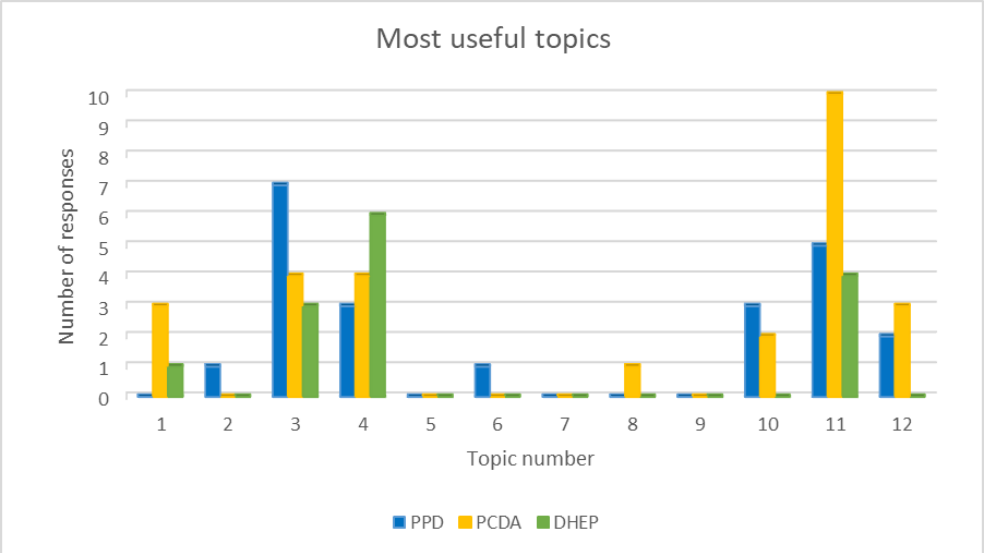


Chart 19 – Q14 Most useful topics by programme

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	Total
1	0	3	1	**4**
2	1	0	0	**1**
3	7	4	3	**14**
4	3	4	6	**13**
5	0	0	0	**0**
6	1	0	0	**1**
7	0	0	0	**0**
8	0	1	0	**1**
9	0	0	0	**0**
10	3	2	0	**5**
11	5	10	4	**19**
12	2	3	0	**5**
Totals	**22**	**27**	**14**	**63**

Table 13 – Q14 - Most useful topics by programme

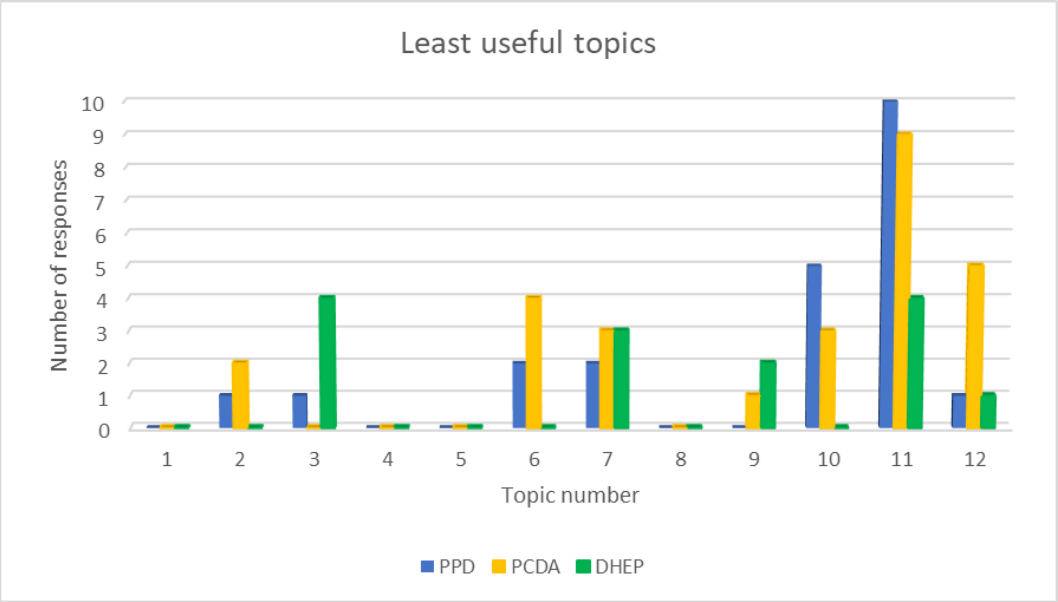


Chart 20 – Q15 Least useful topics by programme

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	Total
1	0	0	0	**0**
2	1	2	0	**3**
3	1	0	4	**5**
4	0	0	0	**0**
5	0	0	0	**0**
6	2	4	0	**6**
7	2	3	3	**8**
8	0	0	0	**0**
9	0	1	2	**3**
10	5	3	0	**8**
11	10	9	4	**23**
12	1	5	1	**7**
Totals	**22**	**27**	**14**	**63**

Table 14 – Q15 Least useful topics by programme

The data from the topics with more than six responses were analysed in terms of the respondents' programme to identify any significant differences in the data and indications of any influencing factors.

A null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA and PPD respondents in relation to the most useful topic was tested using an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.49$, $p=.620$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA respondents and DHEP respondents in relation to the most useful topic was also tested with an independent t-test, $t(39)=0.09$, $p=.929$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

From the sixty-three responses received, fourteen respondents (22%) identified core policing as the most useful topic, with five others indicating this was the least useful topic. Of the fourteen respondents, seven were students studying the PPD, four were police officers on the PCDA, and three were officers on the DHEP. There is no indication that the respondents' programme is an influencing factor, despite respondents on the PCDA and DHEP being police officers and operationally deployed, whilst respondents on the PPD are students with no operational exposure. Further research is needed to test this hypothesis.

Thirteen respondents (21%) identified operational powers as being the most useful topic, and no respondents indicated this was the least useful topic. Of the thirteen respondents, three were students on the PPD, four were police officers on the PCDA, and six were officers on the DHEP. This could reflect the same issue identified above, relating to core policing, that PCDA and DHEP respondents are operational police officers, applying their learning, whilst PPD students are not. Further research is needed to test this hypothesis and identify any influencing factors.

The selection of core policing and operational powers by twenty-seven of the sixty-three respondents (43%) indicates that just over two-fifths identified one or other of these topics as most useful. Intuitively, it might be expected on courses designed to develop potential and new recruits into policing, that these topics would feature prominently in terms of usefulness, given the close connection between the topics and the operational role of a police constable. As suggested earlier, other factors could

influence respondents in relation to how useful different topics appear, including the method or teaching, the students' prior experience or knowledge of policing, and the teacher's ability to link theoretical leaning with operational policing. Again, this hypothesis would require further research.

Indications that no topics were considered as the most useful, were made by nineteen respondents (30%) five of whom were students on the PPD, ten were on the PCDA, and four were on the graduate entry programme. Nine of the nineteen respondents also indicated that none of the topics were the least useful, whilst five indicated that most, or all, of the topics were the least useful. The other five respondents indicated that the least useful topics were EBP (3 respondents), police culture, and neighbourhood policing (one respondent each). There is nothing in the data to suggest any influencing factors, and additional research is needed to identify those factors.

From the sixty-three responses received, twenty-three respondents (37%) identified no topics as the least useful. Ten of these were studying the PPD, nine respondents were on the PCDA, and four respondents were on the DHEP. These responses imply a degree of reluctance by respondents to select a single topic area as the least useful and is consistent with nine of these respondents also indicating that none of the topics were useful, whilst one indicated that most or all the topics were useful. This suggests consistency, in relation to the usefulness of the topics being taught, however an alternative interpretation is that the respondents did not consider any of the topic areas to be the least useful. This hypothesis requires further research.

Seven of the sixty-three respondents (11%) indicated that most or all the topics were the least useful, of which four were studying the PPD, five were on the PCDA, and one was on the DHEP. Evidence-based policing was identified as the least useful topic by eight respondents (13%), five of whom were studying the PPD, and three respondents on the PCDA, and no respondents on the DHEP. Neighbourhood policing was also identified as the least useful topic by eight of the sixty-three respondents (13%), with two studying the PPD, three on the PCDA, and three on the DHEP. In all three cases, given the low number of responses, it is not possible to suggest that the programme choice could be an influencing factor, but further research could test these hypotheses.

As discussed above, respondents on both PCDA and DHEP are also working as operational constables which could indicate that making the connections between the

taught material and the operational policing role is an influencing factor. This hypothesis requires further research; however, the researcher's experience of teaching degree-level policing programmes suggests that students' perceptions of some topics, and particularly neighbourhood policing, are influenced by a multitude of factors, but also informed by the perception that neighbourhood policing roles are not as fulfilling as police response roles. This can be promulgated through practical experience of response roles on core shift, and negative commentary regarding neighbourhood policing in general.

The analysis of the data relating to the difficulty of topics in terms of gender was undertaken to test two null hypotheses, firstly that there was no difference between female and male respondents as regards the topics identified as most difficult, and secondly that there was no difference between female and male respondents as regards the topics identified as the least difficult.

The first null hypothesis was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.36$, $p=.721$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. The second null hypothesis was tested using an independent t-test $t(61)=0.42$, $p=.679$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. The failure to reject the null hypotheses reflects the low number of respondents but also indicates the need for further research to explore any relationship based on respondents' gender.

The charts below compare the data from respondents on each of the three entry programmes in relation to the most difficult, and least difficult topics.

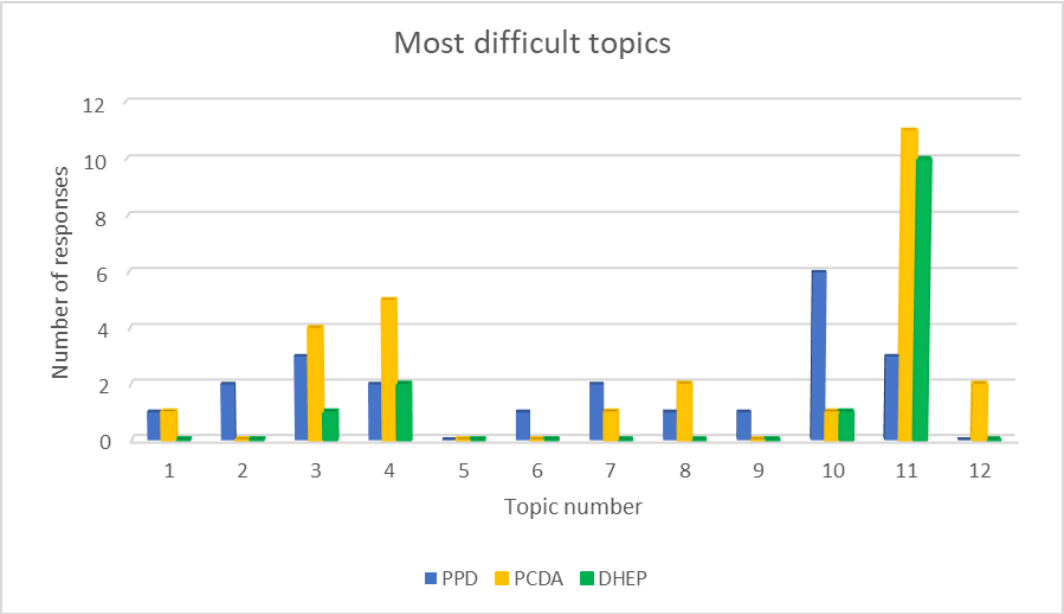


Chart 21 – Q16 Most difficult topics by programme

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	Total
1	1	1	0	**2**
2	2	0	0	**2**
3	3	4	1	**8**
4	2	5	2	**9**
5	0	0	0	**0**
6	1	0	0	**1**
7	2	1	0	**3**
8	1	2	0	**3**
9	1	0	0	**1**
10	6	1	1	**8**
11	3	11	10	**24**
12	0	2	0	**2**
Totals	**22**	**27**	**14**	**63**

Table 15 – Q16 – Most difficult topics by programme

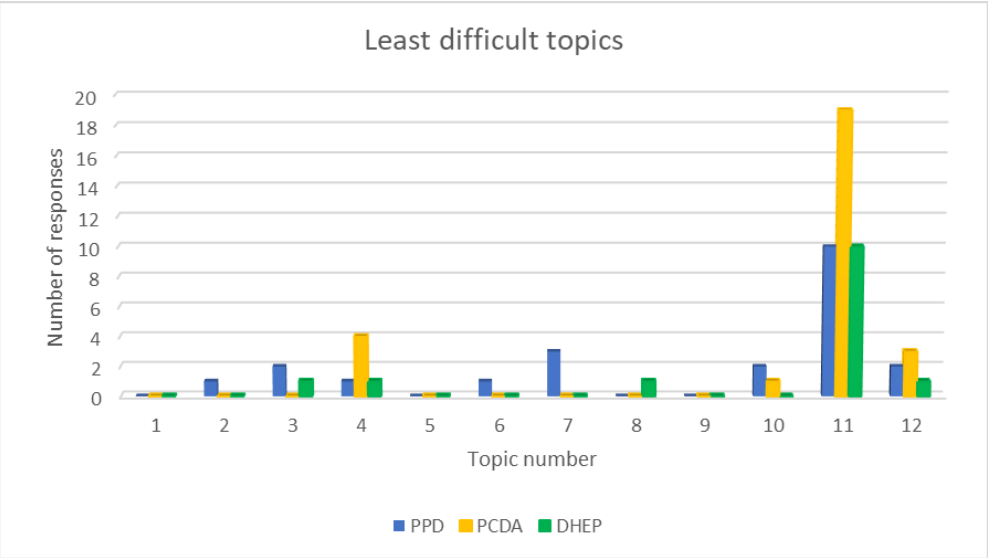


Chart 22 – Q17 Least difficult topics by programme

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	Total
1	0	0	0	**0**
2	1	0	0	**1**
3	2	0	1	**3**
4	1	4	1	**6**
5	0	0	0	**0**
6	1	0	0	**1**
7	3	0	0	**3**
8	0	0	1	**1**
9	0	0	0	**0**
10	2	1	0	**3**
11	10	19	10	**39**
12	2	3	1	**6**
Totals	**22**	**27**	**14**	**63**

Table 16 – Q17 – Least difficult topics by programme

The data from the topics with more than six responses were analysed in terms of the respondents' programme to identify any significant differences in the data and indications of any influencing factors. A null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA and PPD respondents in relation to the most difficult topic was tested using an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.66$, $p=.515$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA respondents and DHEP respondents in relation to the most difficult topic was also tested with an independent t-test, $t(39)=0.01$, $p=.994$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

From the sixty-three responses received, twenty-four respondents (38%) indicated that no topics were the most difficult, nineteen of whom also indicated no topic was the least difficult. This suggests that either these respondents did not consider any individual topics to be more, or less, difficult than any other topic or were unable or unwilling to do so, for unknown reasons. However, three of the twenty-four respondents indicated that all or most of the topics were the least difficult, one respondent indicated this was core policing and one respondent indicated it was the criminal justice system. Eleven of the respondents who indicated that none of the topics were the most difficult were police officers on the PCDA programme, and ten were officers on the DHEP, with the remaining three being students on the PPD. This could suggest that police officers are less likely than students to identify any particular topic as being most difficult, but further research would be required to test this hypothesis.

Considering the responses relating to the least difficult topics, the null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA and PPD respondents in relation to the least difficult topic was tested using an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.65$, $p=.519$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis that there was no difference between PCDA respondents and DHEP respondents in relation to the least difficult topic was also tested with an independent t-test, $t(39)=0.19$, $p=.843$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Of the forty respondents who indicated that none of the topics was the least difficult, eleven were students on the PPD, nineteen were police officers on the PCDA, and ten were officers on the DHEP. Five of the five respondents who none of the topics were the least difficult, indicated that EBP was the most difficult topic. Four respondents indicated the most difficult topic was core policing, three indicated this was the criminal justice system, two indicated it was public protection, and two indicated it was operational powers. Digital policing and organised crime were each identified as being most difficult by one respondent. This could indicate that students on the PPD are less likely than police officers on the DHEP to suggest that none of the topics are the most difficult, and much less likely to do so than police officers on the PCDA. Further research is needed to test this hypothesis.

The reasons for respondents indicating that no topics were considered the most difficult are not known, however, this might suggest that respondents were undecided, or unable to select a single topic as the most, or least, difficult. Further research is required to test the hypotheses mentioned above and enable influencing factors to be identified. These include the mix of students and police officers working full-time, and the combination of respondents with previous experience of graduate level study and those without that experience.

Nine respondents (14%) indicated that operational powers were the most difficult topic, two of whom were students on the PPD, five of whom were police officers on the PCDA and two who were officers on the DHEP. Eight respondents (13%) identified core policing as the most difficult topic, three of whom were students on the PPD, four of whom were police officers on the PCDA, and one who was an officer on the DHEP. Evidence-based policing was identified as being the most difficult topic by eight respondents (13%) of whom six were students on the PPD with one respondent being a police officer on the PCDA and one being an officer on the DHEP.

Influencing factors in these results could include respondents on both PCDA and DHEP working as operational constables and making connections between the taught material and the operational policing role. Although this hypothesis requires further research, the researcher's experience of teaching degree-level policing programmes suggests that students' perceptions of some topics, and particularly EBP, are influenced by a multitude of factors, including their ability to conceptualise the topic and apply it in operational situations.

Further analysis was undertaken to ascertain any differences between the courses as to the topics identified as being the most and least interesting, useful, and difficult. Six null hypotheses that there would be no differences were tested by applying chi-square tests of independence, as described below.

The first null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents on the three programmes and the topics considered the most interesting and was tested by conducting a chi-square test of independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (22, N=63)=23.398, p=.379 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results		
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	1	1	0	2	1	0.70	0.86	0.44
2	0	1	0	1	2	0.35	0.43	0.22
3	6	3	1	10	3	3.49	4.29	2.22
4	1	5	4	10	4	3.49	4.29	2.22
5	0	0	2	2	5	0.70	0.86	0.44
6	3	2	1	6	6	2.10	2.57	1.33
7	4	2	1	7	7	2.44	3.00	1.56
8	0	1	0	1	8	0.35	0.43	0.22
9	1	1	0	2	9	0.70	0.86	0.44
10	2	1	1	4	10	1.40	1.71	0.89
11	1	7	3	11	11	3.84	4.71	2.44
12	3	3	1	7	12	2.44	3.00	1.56
	22	27	14	63				

O-E			(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
0.30	0.14	-0.44	0.09	0.02	0.20	0.13	0.02	0.44
-0.35	0.57	-0.22	0.12	0.33	0.05	0.35	0.76	0.22
2.51	-1.29	-1.22	6.29	1.65	1.49	1.80	0.39	0.67
-2.49	0.71	1.78	6.21	0.51	3.16	1.78	0.12	1.42
-0.70	-0.86	1.56	0.49	0.73	2.42	0.70	0.86	5.44
0.90	-0.57	-0.33	0.82	0.33	0.11	0.39	0.13	0.08
1.56	-1.00	-0.56	2.42	1.00	0.31	0.99	0.33	0.20
-0.35	0.57	-0.22	0.12	0.33	0.05	0.35	0.76	0.22
0.30	0.14	-0.44	0.09	0.02	0.20	0.13	0.02	0.44
0.60	-0.71	0.11	0.36	0.51	0.01	0.26	0.30	0.01
-2.84	2.29	0.56	8.07	5.22	0.31	2.10	1.11	0.13
0.56	0.00	-0.56	0.31	0.00	0.31	0.13	0.00	0.20

Chi-Square value
23.398

Chi-square test – Q12 – Most interesting topic

The second null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents on the three programmes and the topics considered the least interesting and was tested by conducting a chi-square test for independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (22, N=63)=30.359, p=.109 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

Observed results

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	
1	0	0	0	0
2	1	1	0	2
3	0	4	0	4
4	1	0	0	1
5	0	0	0	0
6	1	3	0	4
7	5	3	2	10
8	0	2	0	2
9	0	1	2	3
10	10	6	1	17
11	4	4	7	15
12	0	3	2	5
	22	27	14	63

Expected results

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	0.00	0.00	0.00
2	0.70	0.86	0.44
3	1.40	1.71	0.89
4	0.35	0.43	0.22
5	0.00	0.00	0.00
6	1.40	1.71	0.89
7	3.49	4.29	2.22
8	0.70	0.86	0.44
9	1.05	1.29	0.67
10	5.94	7.29	3.78
11	5.24	6.43	3.33
12	1.75	2.14	1.11

O-E

0.00	0.00	0.00
0.30	0.14	-0.44
-1.40	2.29	-0.89
0.65	-0.43	-0.22
0.00	0.00	0.00
-0.40	1.29	-0.89
1.51	-1.29	-0.22
-0.70	1.14	-0.44
-1.05	-0.29	1.33
4.06	-1.29	-2.78
-1.24	-2.43	3.67
-1.75	0.86	0.89

(O-E) squared

0.00	0.00	0.00
0.09	0.02	0.20
1.95	5.22	0.79
0.42	0.18	0.05
0.00	0.00	0.00
0.16	1.65	0.79
2.27	1.65	0.05
0.49	1.31	0.20
1.10	0.08	1.78
16.51	1.65	7.72
1.53	5.90	13.44
3.05	0.73	0.79

(O-E) squared / E

0.00	0.00	0.00
0.13	0.02	0.44
1.40	3.05	0.89
1.21	0.43	0.22
0.00	0.00	0.00
0.11	0.96	0.89
0.65	0.39	0.02
0.70	1.52	0.44
1.05	0.06	2.67
2.78	0.23	2.04
0.29	0.92	4.03
1.75	0.34	0.71

Chi-Square value

30.359

Chi-square test – Q13 Least interesting topic

The third null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents on the three programmes and the topics considered the most useful and was tested by conducting a chi-square test for independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (22, N=63)=17.684, p=.724 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results		
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	0	3	1	4	1	1.40	1.71	0.89
2	1	0	0	1	2	0.35	0.43	0.22
3	7	4	3	14	3	4.89	6.00	3.11
4	3	4	6	13	4	4.54	5.57	2.89
5	0	0	0	0	5	0.00	0.00	0.00
6	1	0	0	1	6	0.35	0.43	0.22
7	0	0	0	0	7	0.00	0.00	0.00
8	0	1	0	1	8	0.35	0.43	0.22
9	0	0	0	0	9	0.00	0.00	0.00
10	3	2	0	5	10	1.75	2.14	1.11
11	5	10	4	19	11	6.63	8.14	4.22
12	2	3	0	5	12	1.75	2.14	1.11
	22	27	14	63				

O-E			(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
-1.40	1.29	0.11	1.95	1.65	0.01	1.40	0.96	0.01
0.65	-0.43	-0.22	0.42	0.18	0.05	1.21	0.43	0.22
2.11	-2.00	-0.11	4.46	4.00	0.01	0.91	0.67	0.00
-1.54	-1.57	3.11	2.37	2.47	9.68	0.52	0.44	3.35
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.65	-0.43	-0.22	0.42	0.18	0.05	1.21	0.43	0.22
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
-0.35	0.57	-0.22	0.12	0.33	0.05	0.35	0.76	0.22
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1.25	-0.14	-1.11	1.57	0.02	1.23	0.90	0.01	1.11
-1.63	1.86	-0.22	2.67	3.45	0.05	0.40	0.42	0.01
0.25	0.86	-1.11	0.06	0.73	1.23	0.04	0.34	1.11

Chi-Square value
17.684

Chi-square test – Q14 Most useful topic

The fourth null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents on the three programmes and the topics considered the least useful and was tested by conducting a chi-square test for independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (22, N=63)=24.824, p=.305 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results		
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	0	0	0	0	1	0.00	0.00	0.00
2	1	2	0	3	2	1.05	1.29	0.67
3	1	0	4	5	3	1.75	2.14	1.11
4	0	0	0	0	4	0.00	0.00	0.00
5	0	0	0	0	5	0.00	0.00	0.00
6	2	4	0	6	6	2.10	2.57	1.33
7	2	3	3	8	7	2.79	3.43	1.78
8	0	0	0	0	8	0.00	0.00	0.00
9	0	1	2	3	9	1.05	1.29	0.67
10	5	3	0	8	10	2.79	3.43	1.78
11	10	9	4	23	11	8.03	9.86	5.11
12	1	5	1	7	12	2.44	3.00	1.56
	22	27	14	63				

O-E			(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
-0.05	0.71	-0.67	0.00	0.51	0.44	0.00	0.40	0.67
-0.75	-2.14	2.89	0.56	4.59	8.35	0.32	2.14	7.51
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
-0.10	1.43	-1.33	0.01	2.04	1.78	0.00	0.79	1.33
-0.79	-0.43	1.22	0.63	0.18	1.49	0.23	0.05	0.84
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
-1.05	-0.29	1.33	1.10	0.08	1.78	1.05	0.06	2.67
2.21	-0.43	-1.78	4.87	0.18	3.16	1.74	0.05	1.78
1.97	-0.86	-1.11	3.87	0.73	1.23	0.48	0.07	0.24
-1.44	2.00	-0.56	2.09	4.00	0.31	0.85	1.33	0.20

Chi-Square value
24.824

Chi-square test – Q15 Least Useful topic

The fifth null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents on the three programmes and the topics considered the most difficult and was tested by conducting a chi-square test for independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (22, N=63)=27.915, p=.178 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

Observed results

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	
1	1	1	0	2
2	2	0	0	2
3	3	4	1	8
4	2	5	2	9
5	0	0	0	0
6	1	0	0	1
7	2	1	0	3
8	1	2	0	3
9	1	0	0	1
10	6	1	1	8
11	3	11	10	24
12	0	2	0	2
	22	27	14	63

Expected results

	PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	0.70	0.86	0.44
2	0.70	0.86	0.44
3	2.79	3.43	1.78
4	3.14	3.86	2.00
5	0.00	0.00	0.00
6	0.35	0.43	0.22
7	1.05	1.29	0.67
8	1.05	1.29	0.67
9	0.35	0.43	0.22
10	2.79	3.43	1.78
11	8.38	10.29	5.33
12	0.70	0.86	0.44

O-E

0.30	0.14	-0.44
1.30	-0.86	-0.44
0.21	0.57	-0.78
-1.14	1.14	0.00
0.00	0.00	0.00
0.65	-0.43	-0.22
0.95	-0.29	-0.67
-0.05	0.71	-0.67
0.65	-0.43	-0.22
3.21	-2.43	-0.78
-5.38	0.71	4.67
-0.70	1.14	-0.44

(O-E) squared

0.09	0.02	0.20
1.69	0.73	0.20
0.04	0.33	0.60
1.31	1.31	0.00
0.00	0.00	0.00
0.42	0.18	0.05
0.91	0.08	0.44
0.00	0.51	0.44
0.42	0.18	0.05
10.28	5.90	0.60
28.95	0.51	21.78
0.49	1.31	0.20

(O-E) squared / E

0.13	0.02	0.44
2.43	0.86	0.44
0.02	0.10	0.34
0.42	0.34	0.00
0.00	0.00	0.00
1.21	0.43	0.22
0.87	0.06	0.67
0.00	0.40	0.67
1.21	0.43	0.22
3.68	1.72	0.34
3.45	0.05	4.08
0.70	1.52	0.44

Chi-Square value

27.915

Chi-square test – Q16 Most Difficult topic

The sixth null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents on the three programmes and the topics considered the least difficult and was tested by conducting a chi-square test for independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (22, N=63)=19.820, p=.594 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results			
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP	
1	0	0	0	0
2	1	0	0	1
3	2	0	1	3
4	1	4	1	6
5	0	0	0	0
6	1	0	0	1
7	3	0	0	3
8	0	0	1	1
9	0	0	0	0
10	2	1	0	3
11	10	19	10	39
12	2	3	1	6
	22	27	14	63

	Expected results		
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	0.00	0.00	0.00
2	0.35	0.43	0.22
3	1.05	1.29	0.67
4	2.10	2.57	1.33
5	0.00	0.00	0.00
6	0.35	0.43	0.22
7	1.05	1.29	0.67
8	0.35	0.43	0.22
9	0.00	0.00	0.00
10	1.05	1.29	0.67
11	13.62	16.71	8.67
12	2.10	2.57	1.33

O-E			(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.65	-0.43	-0.22	0.42	0.18	0.05	1.21	0.43	0.22
0.95	-1.29	0.33	0.91	1.65	0.11	0.87	1.29	0.17
-1.10	1.43	-0.33	1.20	2.04	0.11	0.57	0.79	0.08
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.65	-0.43	-0.22	0.42	0.18	0.05	1.21	0.43	0.22
1.95	-1.29	-0.67	3.81	1.65	0.44	3.64	1.29	0.67
-0.35	-0.43	0.78	0.12	0.18	0.60	0.35	0.43	2.72
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.95	-0.29	-0.67	0.91	0.08	0.44	0.87	0.06	0.67
-3.62	2.29	1.33	13.10	5.22	1.78	0.96	0.31	0.21
-0.10	0.43	-0.33	0.01	0.18	0.11	0.00	0.07	0.08

Chi-Square value
19.820

Chi-square test – Q17 Least Difficult topic

The failure to reject these null hypotheses not only reflects the small number of responses but also highlights the need for further research to identify any influencing factors or relationships between the subjects that respondents find interesting, useful, and difficult.

4.2.4 Were programmes efficient, stimulating, and enjoyable (Q18 - 20)

Questions eighteen to twenty solicited student perceptions as to how efficient, stimulating, and enjoyable, their programmes were. Statistical analysis of the data relating to programme efficiency (Q18) revealed that the skew was -0.05, a weak negative skew indicating the data is approximately symmetric with a slight skew to the left with little difference from a normal distribution. The data were analysed in terms of the respondents' gender, and their programme, to identify any inferences in the data.

There were sixty-three responses, of which twenty-five indicated their programme was efficiently organised (40%), twelve were undecided (19%), and twenty-six indicated their programme was not efficiently organised (41%). Of the sixty-three respondents, thirty-five were female and twenty-eight were male. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between female and male respondents as to how efficient they found the organisation of their programme was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.97$, $p=.357$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

The data were also analysed in terms of the different programmes and a null hypothesis that there would be no differences between PCDA and PPD respondents was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.01$, $p=.992$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis that there would be no difference between PCDA and DHEP respondents was also tested using an independent t-test, $t(39)=0.44$, $p=.663$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Detailed analysis of the data in relation to the different years of each programme was prevented due to the relatively few respondents in the third year of either the PCDA or the PPD and the DHEP being a two-year programme. However, a null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between responses from all those on programmes in year one, and all those on programmes in years two and three combined. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.20$, $p=.841$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing the PCDA and PPD programmes as both are three-year undergraduate programmes indicates that on the PCDA, five first year respondents considered their

programme to be efficiently delivered (33%), six considered it was not efficiently delivered (40%), and four were undecided (27%), compared with respondents in the first year of the PPD where four respondents (57%) indicated the programme was efficiently delivered, two respondents (29%) were undecided, and one respondent (14%) indicated the programme was not efficiently delivered. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in year one and PPD respondents in year one and was tested using an independent t-test, $t(20)=0.08$, $p=.933$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing the PCDA and DHEP programmes, of the eleven respondents in year one of the DHEP, five indicated the programme was efficiently delivered, five indicated the programme was not efficiently delivered, and one was undecided. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between first year respondents on the PCDA and DHEP as regards the efficiency of programme delivery was tested using an independent t-test, $t(24)=0.54$, $p=.591$) and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

In the second and third years combined, nine PCDA respondents indicated that the programme was not efficiently delivered, three respondents indicated it was, and no respondents were undecided. In comparison, three respondents in years two and three of the PPD indicated the programme was not efficiently delivered, five respondents were undecided, and seven respondents indicated the programme was effectively delivered. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in years two and three combined, and PPD respondents in years two and three combined, was tested using an independent t-test, $t(25)=0.03$, $p=.973$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

A null hypothesis that the respondents' study programme was not related to their assessment of how efficiently they found the programme to be delivered was tested with the performance of a chi-square test of independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 $(8, N=63)=11.726$, $p=.163$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results			
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP	
1	1	8	2	11	1	3.84	4.71	2.44	
2	3	7	5	15	2	5.24	6.43	3.33	
3	7	4	1	12	3	4.19	5.14	2.67	
4	7	6	5	18	4	6.29	7.71	4.00	
5	4	2	1	7	5	2.44	3.00	1.56	
	22	27	14	63					

O-E			(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
-2.84	3.29	-0.44	8.07	10.80	0.20	2.10	2.29	0.08
-2.24	0.57	1.67	5.01	0.33	2.78	0.96	0.05	0.83
2.81	-1.14	-1.67	7.89	1.31	2.78	1.88	0.25	1.04
0.71	-1.71	1.00	0.51	2.94	1.00	0.08	0.38	0.25
1.56	-1.00	-0.56	2.42	1.00	0.31	0.99	0.33	0.20

Chi-Square value
11.726

Chi-square test – Q18 Programme efficiency

Statistical analysis of the data relating to how stimulating the programmes were (Q19) revealed that the skew was -0.38, a weak negative skewness indicating that the data is approximately symmetric, with a slight skew to the left with little difference from a normal distribution. The data were analysed in terms of the respondents' gender, and their programme, to identify any inferences in the data.

There were sixty-three responses, of which seventeen indicated their programme was stimulating (27%), twenty-two were undecided (35%), and twenty-four indicated their programme was not stimulating (38%). Of the sixty-three respondents, thirty-five were female and twenty-eight were male. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between female and male respondents as to how stimulating they found their programme was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.39$, $p=.694$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

In this research, the ratings by PPD students as to how stimulating they found their programme were higher than those by PCDA students, with the ratings from DHEP students being the lowest. However, a null hypothesis that there would be no differences between PCDA and PPD respondents was tested using an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.03$, $p=.972$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference

between PCDA and DHEP respondents was tested using an independent t-test, $t(39)=0.69$, $p=.488$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

The different lengths of the three entry route programmes prevent detailed comparison of the data in terms of the different years of study, given the relatively few respondents in the third year of either the PCDA or the PPD and the DHEP being a two-year programme. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between all respondents in year one and all of those in year two and three combined, was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.97$, $p=.334$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing the PCDA and PPD programmes as both are three-year undergraduate programmes indicates that on the PCDA, three first year respondents considered their programme to be stimulating (20%), six considered it was not stimulating (40%), and six were undecided (40%), compared with respondents in the first year of the PPD where three respondents (43%) indicated the programme was stimulating, three respondents (43%) were undecided, and one respondent (14%) indicated the programme was not stimulating. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in year one and PPD respondents in year one was tested using an independent t-test, $t(20)=0.32$, $p=.751$, and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Eleven respondents were in year one of the DHEP and no respondents indicated the programme was stimulating, four indicated the programme was not stimulating, and seven were undecided. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference as regards how stimulating the programme was perceived to be, between first year respondents on the PCDA and DHEP. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(24)=0.42$, $p=.681$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

In the second and third years combined, seven PCDA respondents indicated that the programme was not stimulating, two respondents indicated it was, and three respondents were undecided. In comparison, four respondents in years two and three of the PPD indicated the programme was not stimulating, three respondents were undecided, and eight respondents indicated the programme was stimulating. A null

hypothesis that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in years two and three, and PPD respondents in years two and three was tested using an independent t-test, t(25)=0.07, p=.943 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

A null hypothesis that the respondents' study programme was not related to their assessment of how stimulating they found the programme was tested with the performance of a chi-square test of independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at p<.05, X^2 (8, N=63)=11.207, p=.190 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results		
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	2	5	3	10	1	3.49	4.29	2.22
2	3	8	3	14	2	4.89	6.00	3.11
3	6	9	7	22	3	7.68	9.43	4.89
4	10	4	1	15	4	5.24	6.43	3.33
5	1	1	0	2	5	0.70	0.86	0.44
	22	27	14	63				

O-E			(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
-1.49	0.71	0.78	2.23	0.51	0.60	0.64	0.12	0.27
-1.89	2.00	-0.11	3.57	4.00	0.01	0.73	0.67	0.00
-1.68	-0.43	2.11	2.83	0.18	4.46	0.37	0.02	0.91
4.76	-2.43	-2.33	22.68	5.90	5.44	4.33	0.92	1.63
0.30	0.14	-0.44	0.09	0.02	0.20	0.13	0.02	0.44

Chi-Square value
11.207

Chi-square calculation – Q19 Programme stimulating.

Statistical analysis of the data relating to how enjoyable the programmes were (Q20) revealed that the skew was 0.29, a weak positive skewness indicating that the data is approximately symmetric, with a slight skew to the right indicating a moderate negative distribution. The data were analysed in terms of the respondents' gender, and their programme, to identify any inferences in the data.

There were sixty-three responses, of which twenty-five indicated their programme was enjoyable (40%), sixteen were undecided (25%), and twenty-two indicated their programme was not enjoyable (35%). Of the sixty-three respondents, thirty-five were female and twenty-eight were male, and a null hypothesis that there would be no difference between female and male respondents as to how enjoyable they found their

programme was tested using an independent t-test, t(61)=0.56, p=.577 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

In terms of how enjoyable the programmes were, ratings from PPD students were higher than those from DHEP students, and PCDA students' ratings were the lowest. A null hypothesis that there would be no differences between PCDA and PPD respondents was tested using an independent t-test, t(47)=0.01, p=.997 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between PCDA and DHEP respondents was also tested using an independent t-test, t(39)=0.75, p=.458 and failed to reject the null hypothesis indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

As discussed above, the different lengths of the three entry route programmes prevent detailed comparison of the data in terms of the different years of study, given the relatively few respondents in the third year of either the PCDA or the PPD and the DHEP being a two-year programme. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between all respondents in year one and all those in years two and three combined, was tested using an independent t-test, t(61)=0.339, p=.735 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing the PCDA and PPD programmes as both are three-year undergraduate programmes indicates that on the PCDA, six first year respondents considered their programme to be enjoyable (40%), five considered it was not enjoyable (33%), and four were undecided (27%), compared with respondents in the first year of the PPD where six respondents (86%) indicated the programme was enjoyable, no respondents were undecided, and one respondent (14%) indicated the programme was not enjoyable. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between respondents in year one of the PCDA and in year one of the PPD was tested using an independent t-test, t(20)=0.20, p=.840 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparing the first years of the PCDA and DHEP, as both sets of respondents were police officers, indicates that 36% of DHEP respondents considered the programme not to be enjoyable compared with 33% of those on the PCDA. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between respondents in year one on the PCDA and in year one of the DHEP programmes as regards how enjoyable their programmes

were. This was tested using an independent t-test, t(24)=0.55, p=.587 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

In the second and third years combined, eight PCDA respondents indicated that the programme was not enjoyable, one respondent indicated it was, and three respondents were undecided. In comparison, two respondents in years two and three of the PPD indicate the programme was not enjoyable, five respondents were undecided, and eight respondents indicated the programme was enjoyable. A null hypothesis that there would be no differences between respondents in years two and three combined, on the PCDA and PPD programmes, was tested using an independent t-test, t(25)=0.01, p=.998 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. As there were only three respondents in year two of the DHEP, and this also being a two-year programme, no hypothesis was suggested in relation to these respondents.

A null hypothesis that the respondents' study programme was not related to their assessment of how enjoyable they found the programme was tested with the performance of a chi-square test of independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (8, N=63)=11.25, p=.187 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results			
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP	
1	2	7	2	11	1	3.84	4.71	2.44	
2	1	6	4	11	2	3.84	4.71	2.44	
3	5	7	4	16	3	5.59	6.86	3.56	
4	8	5	3	16	4	5.59	6.86	3.56	
5	6	2	1	9	5	3.14	3.86	2.00	
	22	27	14	63					
O-E				(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
-1.84	2.29	-0.44		3.39	5.22	0.20	0.88	1.11	0.08
-2.84	1.29	1.56		8.07	1.65	2.42	2.10	0.35	0.99
-0.59	0.14	0.44		0.34	0.02	0.20	0.06	0.00	0.06
2.41	-1.86	-0.56		5.82	3.45	0.31	1.04	0.50	0.09
2.86	-1.86	-1.00		8.16	3.45	1.00	2.60	0.89	0.50
Chi-Square value									
11.257									

Chi-square calculation – Q20 Programme enjoyability

The intensity of the curricula across both the PCDA and DHEP in terms of learning is weighted towards year one (College of Policing, 2016, 2018a) then decreases in subsequent years, with a corresponding increase in operational deployment in year two for the DHEP, and years two and three for the PCDA. The PPD, as a non-operational programme, reflects the structure of an undergraduate programme over the three years. As previously commented, respondents on the PCDA and DHEP programmes may focus on the more academic aspects of their programmes, when considering issues such as the efficiency of their programme, how stimulating they found it, and how enjoyable they judged it to be. This could result in a difference in responses over different years between PCDA and PPD. This aligns with the findings from the New Recruits Survey 2023 which reported the inconsistency between police forces as regards student officers' experience of the PCDA and DHEP, and that 'national data does not reflect variation in… [programme] design and delivery' (College of Policing, 2024, p9) at the local level. However, the College of Policing (2024) also reported that overall satisfaction with the role of police officers on both the PCDA and DHEP was high in the first year of the programmes but reduced over the length of the programmes.

Six null hypotheses were considered relating to differences between year one and years two and three combined, for the PCDA and PPD programmes, as to the programme efficiency, how stimulating respondents found the programmes, and how enjoyable the programmes were. The first was that there would be no difference between the efficiency of the PCDA between year one and years two and three combined. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(25)=0.24$, $p=.815$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. The second null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between the efficiency of the PPD between year one and years two and three combined. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(20)=0.29$, $p=.744$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

The third null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between how stimulating the PCDA was in year one, and how stimulating it was in years two and three combined. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(25)=0.37$ $p=.712$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two

groups. The fourth null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between how stimulating the PPD was in year one, and how stimulating it was in years two and three combined. This was tested using an independent t-test, t(25)=0.88 p=.391 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

The fifth null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between how enjoyable the PCDA was in year one, and how enjoyable it was in years two and three combined. This was tested using an independent t-test, t(25)=0.03 p=.975 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. The sixth null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between how enjoyable the PPD was in year one, and how enjoyable it was in years two and three combined. This was tested using an independent t-test, t(20)=0.67 p=.508 and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

A null hypothesis that there was no connection between the respondents' assessment of the effective delivery of, the stimulation from, and enjoyability of, the programmes was tested with the performance of a chi-square test of independence. This indicated that the relation between the two variables was not significant at $p<.05$, X^2 (8, N=63)=8.372, p=.398 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results			
	Efficient	Stimulating	Enjoyable			PPD	PCDA	DHEP	
1	11	10	11	32	1	10.67	10.67	10.67	
2	15	14	11	40	2	13.33	13.33	13.33	
3	12	22	16	50	3	16.67	16.67	16.67	
4	18	15	16	49	4	16.33	16.33	16.33	
5	7	2	9	18	5	6.00	6.00	6.00	
	63	63	63	189					
O-E				**(O-E) squared**			**(O-E) squared / E**		
0.33	-0.67	0.33		0.11	0.44	0.11	0.01	0.04	0.01
1.67	0.67	-2.33		2.78	0.44	5.44	0.21	0.03	0.41
-4.67	5.33	-0.67		21.78	28.44	0.44	1.31	1.71	0.03
1.67	-1.33	-0.33		2.78	1.78	0.11	0.17	0.11	0.01
1.00	-4.00	3.00		1.00	16.00	9.00	0.17	2.67	1.50
Chi-Square value									
8.372									

Chi-square calculation - Comparison of Qs 18 – 20

4.2.5 How programmes prepared respondents for the role of constable (Q21)

Statistical analysis of the data relating to how the programmes prepared students for the role of police constable (Q21) revealed that the skew was 0.238, a weak positive skew indicating the data is approximately symmetric with a slight skew to the right, suggesting little difference from a normal distribution. The data were analysed in terms of the respondents' gender and their programme, to identify whether there were any significant differences in the data.

There were sixty-three responses of which thirty-five respondents were female and twenty-eight were male. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between female and male respondents as to whether their programme had prepared them for the role as a constable was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.72$, $p=.476$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. The failure to reject the null hypotheses reflects the low number of respondents but also indicates the need for further research to explore any relationship based on respondents' gender. This also aligns with the findings by the College of Policing survey, that the influence of the respondents' gender was negligible (College of Policing, 2024).

Considering the programmes individually revealed that 55% of PPD respondents indicated their programme had prepared them for the role of constable compare with PCDA respondents (33%) and DHEP respondents (36%). A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between respondents on the PCDA and those on the PPD was tested using an independent t-test, $t(47)=0.01$, $p=.995$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups. A second null hypothesis that there would be no difference between respondents on the PCDA and those on the DHEP was also tested using an independent t-test, $t(39)=0.91$, $p=.458$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

As previously stated, respondents on the PCDA and DHEP are police officers, operationally deployed, so these results may be unexpected. These respondents may also be considering only the more academic elements of their programmes, rather than including the operational aspects when considering this question. The PPD respondents, not being police officers, may perceive their programme as preparing them

for making an application to become a police officer, rather than to perform the role as an operational officer. The failure to reject the null hypotheses reflects the low number of responses but also underlines the need for further research to identify influencing factors such as police organisational cultures which are not necessarily supportive of graduate entry programmes.

The different lengths of the three entry route programmes prevent detailed comparison of the data in terms of the different years of study, given the relatively few respondents in the third year of either the PCDA or the PPD and the DHEP being a two-year programme. A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between all respondents in year one and all of those in years two and three combined, was tested using an independent t-test, $t(61)=0.72$, $p=.477$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

Comparison of PCDA respondents with those on the PPD as both are three-year undergraduate programmes was undertaken, with a null hypothesis that there would be no difference between these groups of respondents in year one of their programmes. This was tested using an independent t-test, $t(20)=0.18$, $p=.860$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

A similar comparison was undertaken between PCDA and DHEP respondents in the first year of their programme, as both groups are police officers. A null hypothesis was that there would be no difference between first-year PCDA respondents and first-year DHEP respondents was tested using an independent t-test, $t(24)=0.96$, $p=.346$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

In the second and third years combined, 58% of PCDA respondents indicated they did not consider that their programme prepared them for the role of constable, compared with PPD respondents (13%). A null hypothesis that there would be no difference between PCDA respondents in years two and three, and PPD respondents in years two and three was tested using an independent t-test, $t(25)=0.01$, $p=.989$ and failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating no significant difference between the two groups.

A null hypothesis that the respondents' assessment of whether their programme prepared them for the role of constable was not dependent on their study programme was tested with the performance of a chi-square test of independence which indicated that the relationship between the two variables was not significant, $X^2(8,$

N=63)=13.616, p=.092 and failed to reject the null hypothesis. The chi-square test calculation is shown below.

	Observed results					Expected results		
	PPD	PCDA	DHEP			PPD	PCDA	DHEP
1	0	8	4	12	1	4.19	5.14	2.67
2	3	5	1	9	2	3.14	3.86	2.00
3	7	5	4	16	3	5.59	6.86	3.56
4	6	6	5	17	4	5.94	7.29	3.78
5	6	3	0	9	5	3.14	3.86	2.00
	22	27	14	63				

O-E			(O-E) squared			(O-E) squared / E		
-4.19	2.86	1.33	17.56	8.16	1.78	4.19	1.59	0.67
-0.14	1.14	-1.00	0.02	1.31	1.00	0.01	0.34	0.50
1.41	-1.86	0.44	2.00	3.45	0.20	0.36	0.50	0.06
0.06	-1.29	1.22	0.00	1.65	1.49	0.00	0.23	0.40
2.86	-0.86	-2.00	8.16	0.73	4.00	2.60	0.19	2.00

Chi-Square value
13.616

Chi-square calculation – Q21 Preparedness for constable role

Whilst the analysis suggests differences across all three programmes, it does not provide insight into any influencing factors. These could include respondents on both PCDA and DHEP working full-time as police constables and subject to the operational demands and pressures which PPD respondents are not.

The policing organisational culture relating to graduate entry routes and negative commentary are also likely to influence respondents opinions, where they are exposed to them. Other influences include ethe respondents' opinions about policing, and their previous knowledge or experience of operational experience.

The failure to reject the various null hypotheses reflects both the low number of responses and underlines the need for further research to identify the influencing factors. The need for further research into the longer-term outcomes from the new graduate entry programmes was also made by the College of Policing (2024) which identified gaps in the knowledge relating to student officer experiences of initial constable education.

4.3 Qualitative findings

Qualitative data was collected by conducting semi-structured interviews with individuals who were experts with significant insight in relation to police training and education; were renowned commentators on police training and education; or had experience and involvement in the delivery of police training and education, as outlined in Chapter three. The interview format allowed the potential for exploration of attitudes (Walliman, 2018) and the same questions were asked of each interviewee

Thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2013; Braun, et al, 2019) of the interview transcripts resulted in the identification of five themes: the management of change in policing (sub-chapter 4.3.1); communication of change in policing (sub-chapter 4.3.2); the need for further professionalisation of policing (sub-chapter 4.3.3); the impact of policing cultures on organisational change (sub-chapter 4.3.4); and student officers' perceptions of the graduate entry programmes (sub-chapter 4.3.5). Whilst these are discussed in the following sections, it is acknowledged that some of the issues identified are relevant to more than one theme.

4.3.1 The management of change in policing.

For this research, the management of change in policing has a specific focus on the introduction of graduate entry programmes for recruits at constable rank. It includes sub themes relating to the use of change models, change management processes, the impact of change including responses to it, and the challenges of introducing change in policing. However, it is acknowledged that the discussions equally apply to any change management programme within policing.

The challenge of persuading forty-three operationally independent police forces with forty-three ways of operating, to adopt a standardised approach to recruit education and training was recognised by all interviewees, but with differing opinions as to how the change process was managed. This point was also alluded to in the literature review, when Lumsden (2017) discussed three perspectives in tension as regards the further professionalisation of policing: the drive from the Home Office and the College of Policing towards professionalisation; the top-down approach by senior police officers

and managers; and the bottom-up conceptualisation of professionalisation from police officers at more junior ranks.

Five of the seven interviewees suggested an apparent misunderstanding of the potential impact of the introduction of the new entry routes on the culture and cultural artifacts for two distinctly different organisations - police forces (as public service bodies) and HEIs (as commercial organisations) with distinct organisational cultures and artefacts. This included a failure to recognise the potential impact; a misunderstanding as to the extent of that impact; and the extent of the changes necessary to facilitate the introduction of new entry routes. All of these issues need consideration by organisations preparing for, and implementing change (Burnes, 1996; Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron, 2001; Kuipers et al, 2014) as discussed in the literature review.

A standardised approach to change was viewed as 'extremely hard to do because there is always someone like a PCC who knows better, apparently, than everyone else' (Interviewee 'E', 2023, line 6). Acknowledging the change process was led by the College of Policing, Interviewee 'A' (2023) suggested that whilst the process had been managed, improvements could have been made. The involvement of the right people including individuals from Learning and Development within police forces, and a range of diverse, experienced universities 'gave a good balance' (Interviewee D, 2023, line 5), although it was acknowledged the process had not followed a particular change model. Whilst Erciyes (2018) suggested that no single model is right, or holds true for every organisation, or every single change programme, the success of any change programme depends on the intended outcome being clear to all stakeholders (Farrell et al, 2005; Kuipers et al, 2014) and the use of the right model would assist police officers to manage resistance to change (Kohles, Baker and Donaho, 1995).

Also, the proposed change was acknowledged as 'a five to ten-year project' (Interviewee 'E', 2023, line 112) before the change was fully embedded and the benefits were realised. This point was also alluded to by interviewee 'G' (2023) who posited that the police forces' historic dislike of change together with the lengthy time required to implement relatively minor change in policing was a drawback. This meant that it took 'more than two or three years' (Interviewee 'G', 2023, line 23) for decisions on matters to be implemented through the NPCC. Although the change to graduate entry

routes was unanimously agreed by NPCC in 2015, by the time those programmes were delivered, those chief officers were no longer there, and the new members of the NPCC did not agree with what had been produced as the result of the change, some seven or eight years later. Historically, introducing previous changes in policing had taken a long time and was suggested as leading to the perception that if the graduate entry routes took long enough to be implemented, they would 'not be fully introduced' (Interviewee 'B', 2023, line 22). The College of Policing was also seen as needing to 'help drive the change needed to meet community demands' (Herbert, 2022, p4) in its role as the professional body for policing in England and Wales.

Interviewee 'F' posited that the change was not considered seriously enough, and its impact was underestimated, and its scope was not fully appreciated, despite the years of discussion. This is often associated with failure of change programmes (Kotter, 1995, 1996; Burke, 2002; By, 2005) and resulted in a change process that was 'not managed well' (Interviewee 'G', 2023, line 1). The change was described as being 'managed awfully' (Interviewee 'C', 2023, line 3) and 'absolutely horrific' (Interviewee 'B', 2023, line 1) because so many factors were not considered, including the different operating timescales of policing (short-term) and HEIs (long-term) as discussed in the literature review (Bayley, 2011). The lack of a recognised change process was also commented on by Interviewee 'C' (2023) who suggested there was no plan, but 'an assumption that this would just… fall into place… [and] big cultural issues were ignored' (Interviewee 'C', 2023, line 6). This point was echoed by Interviewee 'D' (2023) who argued the change was imposed, rather than introduced through explanation and persuasion, a point alluded to in the literature review concerning the hierarchical nature of police forces (Fleming, 2010).

Another concern identified by the interviewees was that recommendations from earlier reports including Neyroud (2011), and previous changes to entry qualifications, such as the Certificate of Knowledge in Policing (CKP), seem to have been forgotten and a report on the readiness of police forces in England and Wales for the PEQF (Hough and Stanko, 2018) was seemingly ignored (Interviewee 'C', 2023; Interviewee 'F', 2023).

The introduction of graduate entry programmes constituted a major change to police training and was 'a complete shift' (Interviewee 'B', 2023, line 9). Poor change

management allowed nay-sayers time to promote arguments and views that the change to graduate entry routes would not work (Interviewee ‘B’, 2023). This point was also made in the literature review by McDowall and Brown (2019) describing a paradigm shift from traditional craft-based training to higher education. Wood (2019) also suggested a divergence between government perceptions of austerity and evidence-based policing as ‘mutually supporting initiatives’ (Wood, 2019, p375), and perceptions within policing that the change was ‘a governmental attack on the police’ (Wood, 2019, p375). McDowall and Brown (2019) also commented that the paradigm shift from training to education, from a craft perspective of policing to a professional perspective, with the associated organisational resistance, constituted “a gigantic intellectual, strategic, operational, and educational exercise” (McDowall and Brown, 2019, p1).

The belief that this would be a simple change indicated a lack of awareness of the potential problems involved with a set date for implementation across all forty-three police forces, which ultimately was extended several times. The alternative could have involved an incremental approach, enabling a ‘ground swell’ (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023, line138) to ease the implementation, which would require ‘key influencers on the front line’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 105) to be engaged in the change process’.

Other factors identified by individual interviewees included a lack of any formal change management plan, a lack of scoping relating to the change management experience or skills held by key personnel, and the identification of any previous learning from other change processes within policing, all of which could have assisted the introduction of the new entry routes. The point about learning from change processes is echoed by the College of Policing suggesting there exists a ‘lack of culture of learning from mistakes in policing… [and] a tendency to defensiveness… [alongside] a sense that all pilots and new initiatives are doomed to success’ (College of Policing, 2022b, p18).

A suggestion was that whilst the introduction of the PEQF, and the graduate entry programmes into policing, should have been ‘considered as a change process… it was probably considered an account of blue sky thinking’ (Interviewee ‘C’ lines 185) and reflects the contention that change in any organisation is difficult, and needs a coordinated approach. This echoes the issue in the literature review with the change being described as a paradigm shift (McDowall and Brown, 2019). Interviewee ‘C’

(2023) also posited that by focussing the PEQF process at constable rank, the bottom-up approach was not effective, as there also needed to be a top-down approach (with the pursuit of qualifications for senior ranks) which was lacking once the change process began, but would have engaged both the upper and lower levels of the organisation together, with some benefit in the change for everyone involved. Despite the apparent preference for top-down change processes in public sector organisations (Karp and Helgø, 2009; Kuipers et al, 2014; Van der Voet, Kuipers and Groeneveld, 2015) this is difficult to coordinate, and the question as to how accepting police officers in the 21st century are, to top-down change processes was asked by Strebel (2006), as this can result in changes being 'slow, incremental, reactive, and non-transformational' (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018, p170) as discussed in the literature review.

The apparent lack of any change management plan meant that issues arising were not anticipated, including the impact of the proposed change for police training staff delivering the legacy IPLDP, who were not necessarily accredited to deliver graduate level teaching at levels four to six. Also, existing teaching material designed for delivery at level three, needed uplifting to reflect those higher academic levels (Interviewee 'C', 2023) and involving additional work to re-design the material. Not all staff were thought to necessarily understand or accept the reasoning behind the change, or the need for attendance at a university (Interviewee 'B' 2023) and that rationale had not always been effectively communicated.

The timing of the introduction of the PEQF and the extent to which it was managed put all the focus on the entry routes, and little on creating a more educated workforce who valued education and ongoing learning throughout their careers (Interviewee 'G', 2023). The graduate entry programmes were introduced for police officer recruits with the launch of the PCDA in 2018, and the DHEP two years later. Both programmes were affected by two unexpected key events, the first being a governmental announcement in 2019 that an additional 20,000 police officers were to be recruited across England and Wales between 2019 and 2023 (Operation Uplift). This was a net increase, meaning 50,000 officers needed to be recruited to account for retirements and resignations (National Audit Office, 2022) and the final date for PCDA recruits under this initiative was projected to be February 2026 (National Audit Office, 2022)

underlining the time required for officers to complete their training programmes and be fully occupationally competent. This 'left little time for consultation or consideration of how these policing priorities [the graduate entry routes and the uplift in numbers] could be integrated' (National Audit Office, 2022, p18) and between November 2019 and December 2021 the extension of the legacy IPLDP saw 40% (10,200 of 25,700) police officer recruits follow the legacy IPLDP route (National Audit Office, 2022, p39). It also occurred at a time when demand for policing services was increasing meaning the introduction of 'a new model of recruiting and training students… [when] we were recruiting more student officers than ever before' (Interviewee 'G', 2023, line 9).

One interviewee suggested there had been a lack of understanding of external factors that could impact the change process (Balogun and Hope Hailey, 2004; Burnes, 2009; By, 2005; Carnall, 2014; Harris, 1997; Kotter, 1996; Luecke, 2003), suggesting that insufficient analysis had been conducted to identify political factors such as interventions by the Home Secretary, or social factors such as the Covid 19 pandemic, resulting in ineffective steps being taken to mitigate any subsequent impact. This demonstrates the potential impact on any change programme of political decisions, policy changes, or medical disruptions. The use of a change management model could have raised awareness of the possibility of such events, and their impact in terms of the delivery of training at a time when staff numbers could be severely limited, impacting on operational policing delivery (Kotter, 1995; Luecke, 2003; Cunningham and Kempling, 2009).

The possibility of suspending the launch of the graduate entry routes was suggested by Interviewee 'C' (2023) until after the end of the pandemic and the conclusion of the programme to uplift officer numbers. This could then have facilitated the use of the existing graduate programmes as pilot schemes, to test and develop those programmes. However, such a decision would not guarantee the prevention of further disruption from unforeseen events and would only serve to further extend the uncertainty surrounding the implementation of the change, as testing and programme development should be included in the programme evaluation process. This again underlined the requirement for a change management process, and force-level change management leads (Interviewee 'B', 2023), who could effectively communicate details relating to the change process.

The complexity and interconnectedness of this change programme was underestimated. It was a Human Resources process involving recruitment and training, as well as contractual relationships with HEIs and those on the apprenticeship programmes. The decision by some chief constables to move away from the PCDA following the announcement of the reintroduction of a non-graduate route was described as 'disastrous' (Interviewee 'E', 2023, line 113) and is an example of the lack of understanding that this was not simply an administrative function but 'an HR process which is contracted' (Interviewee 'E', 2023 line 135). Externally, this involved not only the Home Office, but also the Department for Education, Ofsted, and the Office for Students (Interviewee 'E' 2023).

The common perception that the pandemic and the increased recruitment of police officers were obstacles to change and illustrative of the claim that the new graduate entry programmes were not working was firmly rejected by Interviewee 'C' (2023), whilst Interviewee 'D' (2023) asserted that the real barrier was the repeated extension of the legacy IPLDP by the College of Policing and its continued used by police forces. Other barriers to change identified by the interviewees included the focus by the College of Policing on graduate entry routes with little progress on creating a 'more educated workforce who value education and ongoing learning during their careers, with a greater evidence base about what works in policing' (Interviewee 'G', 2023, lines 105-107).

As with all organisational change programmes, an essential element is the strategic support and oversight necessary to effectively introduce any change, which was evidently absent as regards the introduction of graduate entry routes into policing. This point was addressed in the literature review, with the argument that there was not necessarily a lack of engagement between police forces and HEIs, but 'short-sighted popularist-oriented governments… [wanting] the police to be a servile agency… [and] institutionally deaf' (Punch, 2010, pp158-9)' were often problematic. This was illustrated with a lack of strategic support from the Home Office when sixteen PCCs lobbied the then Home Secretary to permit the continued use of a non-graduate entry route for police officer recruits in 2022.

Interviewees shared a common view of this approach, which was presented as 'a fait accompli' (Interviewee 'D', 2023, line 107) and described as 'a significant and damning

statement… [that was] ill-informed… was not evidence-based… [and] a knee-jerk reaction' (Interviewee 'D', 2023, lines 103-105). This also undermined the national approach to police education and training and the professionalisation of policing (Hough and Stanko, 2019). If the statement was intended to address the perceived need to recognise the prior achievements by applicants joining the police, that message was misrepresented as simply the need for a non-graduate route (Interviewee 'B', 2023). Arguments in favour of a non-graduate route seemed to coalesce around difficulties in recruitment, retention, and recruits being unsuccessful in their studies, but with little clear, supporting evidence for these assertions (Interviewee 'D', 2023). This could, as indicated in the literature review, suggest a narrative resistant to change and the aspirations for professionalisation (Fleming and Wingrove, 2017; Norman and Williams, 2017) or represent the difference between strategic objectives (introducing change) and operational perspectives (training new recruits) (Lumsden, 2017).

Interviewee 'A' (2023) posited that although the change to graduate entry programmes had been agreed by the NPCC, and the National Police Curriculum had been produced, the outcome was that some curriculum content would need to be omitted to produce a non-graduate entry route, and result in 'some learners being disadvantaged… [by not obtaining a degree, and] seems fundamentally wrong' (Interviewee 'A', 2023, line 19).

An argument was made for developing and improving the existing graduate entry routes, by responding to, and resolving, the criticisms being raised rather than devising a 'sub-standard fourth entry route' (Interviewee 'D', 2023, line 119) which lacked accreditation and offered 'no level of qualification' (Interviewee 'D', 2023, line 125). Interviewee 'F' (2023) also argued that the development of a fourth entry route risked creating two-tier policing, with some specialist policing roles including counter terrorism and child sexual exploitation becoming inaccessible to non-graduate recruits without 'the graduate level skills to… effectively function in those specialist roles' (Interviewee 'F' line 73).

This point arose in the literature review, where the fourth entry route was identified as undermining the PEQF, given the assertion that the framework related to 'educating the recruited and recruiting the educated' (Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018, p10) and a two-tier police service was deemed incompatible with graduate-level education (Rowe,

Turner and Pearson, 2016; Hough and Stanko, 2019; Wood, 2019). Indeed, the need for stable and continuous strategic management support for change (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006) was also undermined, despite it being crucial for successful implementation of change in the public sector (Kotter, 1995; Abramson and Lawrence, 2001; Lambright, 2001; Young, 2001; Laurent, 2003)

The development of a non-graduate route which did not align with the PEQF and the concept of accredited learning, was termed 'utterly disastrous… [just when] forces [were] heading in the same direction coming together against a single objective' (Interviewee 'E', 2023, line 68). The concern was that the fourth route would be similar to the legacy IPLDP which was accepted as 'completely inadequate' (Interviewee 'E', 2023, line 177). There was also concern that policing was 'sleepwalking into a potential problem… [and] the PEQF would wither on the vine' (Interviewee 'G', 2023, lines 66-68).

Interviewees were also concerned that unless the PCDA and DHEP routes were modernised to be less comparable to a criminology degree, the fourth entry route would be viewed as the easier option for chief constables. Interviewee 'G' (2023) opined that 'chiefs will take what they perceive as the easy option [the non-graduate route]… and HEIs would step away… [interpreting this as] police forces not being committed' (Interviewee 'G', 2023, lines 78-80) to the partnerships and affecting their income from providing the programmes. These points were also identified as having negative consequences for police partnerships with HEIs (Interviewee 'F', 2023) as it would threaten the continuity such partnerships, because HEIs rely on throughput of students to ensure programmes are economically viable, and those numbers would significantly reduce. The consequence of this could result in programmes being cancelled, and HEIs withdrawing from the partnership working on economic grounds.

The final stages of any change programme, as indicated in change management models (Kotter, 1995; Fernandez and Rainey, 2006) is the implementation of the change – establishing the intended changes to systems or processes. Despite the unforeseen developments leading to the non-graduate route, the College of Policing seemed to take the view that the new programmes had been agreed (in 2015) and were 'on the shelf and that's it' (Interviewee 'D', 2023, line 49) believing the agreed change had been delivered (Interviewee 'G', 2023) that no further action was needed,

when the change had not been fully implemented. Indeed, the pressure to further develop the entry programmes arose and required continued collaboration between the HEIs and the College of Policing, on behalf of the NPCC, to undertake that work. Unfortunately, that initial collaboration had ended and the organisational challenge was not met (Interviewee 'D', 2023).

Indeed, whilst every stage of any change programme requires continued commitment from senior managers, this is particularly necessary in the implementation stages. Comment from the College of Policing included that there should be 'greater willingness [from chief constables] to coordinate and cooperate nationally, to accept the settled will of the majority or a strong evidence base and get behind reform' (College of Policing, 2022a, p18). This echoes comment that policing is traditional and slow to innovate (Dubord and Griffiths, 2018) and change processes can be slow (Schafer and Varano, 2017) and underlines the need for the final stages of any change process to be fully completed (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006; Hannan, Palos and Carroll, 2003).

4.3.2 The communication of change within policing.

The need for clear, consistent communication within an organisation underpins all stages of change processes (Kotter, 1995; Luecke, 2003; Hannan, Polos and Carroll, 2003) and is necessary for effective and successful implementation of organisational change. Two interviewees highlighted a lack of communication regarding the need for a changed mindset if there was to be acceptance of the move from police training to police education, as espoused in various documents produced by the College of Policing. However, Interviewee 'A' (2023) posited that the role of the College of Policing, as the professional body for policing in England and Wales, was to be persuasive rather than directing, which rendered it susceptible to suggestions that it was reticent and not sufficiently decisive or robust in its communications relating to the introduction of graduate entry routes.

Particular criticism of this lack of veracity included the need to clarify the rationale for introducing graduate entry routes and the requirement for a changed mindset regarding police education, as well as assisting individuals to understand the complexity of the

proposed change. The lack of communication from the College of Policing in response to negative commentary on social media, the repeated extension of the legacy IPLDP, and negative commentary form some chief constables, was highlighted, by the interviewees, perhaps indicating their expectations that this was a role for the College of Policing, rather than the NPCC. Interviewee 'B' (2023) argued that by not being seen to respond, the College of Policing's reputation was undermined, and it was demonstrated that it had no power to mandate change or policy and was essentially an advisory body rather than a professional body, leaving the NPCC to effectively direct operational policing delivery.

There was, seemingly, also a presumption by the College of Policing and the NPCC (in 2015) that the change would simply happen, but the scope of the change was 'not considered seriously enough' (Interviewee 'F', 2023, line 28), despite various publications being produced by the College of Policing relating to aspects of the PEQF, including the national policing curriculum, programme specifications and guidance for programme delivery and partnership working. However, no interviewees referred to these documents, which might relate to their prominence in relation to the change process. A document released by the College of Policing (2022a) announced a fundamental review of its role, recognising that as it had not yet achieved its potential as a professional body. They also argued that there needed to be a 'greater willingness [by chief officers] to coordinate nationally, to accept the settled will of the majority or a strong evidence base, and get behind reform' (College of Policing, 2022b, p18). This reflects critical comments by the interviewees, and the view that the College of Policing needed to be stronger and 'help drive the change needed' (Herbert, 2022, p4), as it had not been 'sufficiently responsive' (Herbert, 2022, p8) in the past.

Communication with senior officers within policing was considered problematic, with a 'perceived disconnect between understanding the potential improvement… including the benefits and the positive change in officers' understanding… and how that translates more widely into the forces' (Interviewee 'D' 2023 lines 20-24). This echoes commentary on ineffective communication (Ahmad, Ismail and Saleh, 2019) being a factor in change management, and a barrier to change (Kotter, 1995; Aladwani, 2001; Wiggins 2008; and Gwaka et al, 2016).

Interviewee ‘B’ (2023) suggested that the involvement of HEIs in the delivery of police recruit training was perceived as a threat, in terms of job security, by some existing police trainers, reflecting the lack of effective communication of the change programme. These individuals were delivering the legacy IPLDP at level three, but many were not qualified to be able to deliver or assess training and education at higher levels, as required on degree-level programmes, and did not necessarily perceive the opportunity for self-development in upskilling (Interviewee ‘B’, 2023,). However, many academic staff teaching policing programmes, including the graduate entry programmes, were former police officers, who understood police cultures which helped reduce any clashes of culture and encouraged a blend of police trainers and HEI teaching staff, ‘using their expertise and skills in partnership’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 13).

The relevance of course content on each of the graduate entry programmes to operational policing was not always communicated effectively and ‘some students do not understand the reasoning behind the training, or the need for attendance at a university’ (Interviewee ‘B’, 2023, line 152), which also affects the perceived value of some taught topics (Interviewee ‘B’, 2023) to learners. This could reflect a ’street warrior syndrome’ (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023, line 152) where operational elements were valued more than academic elements within the curriculum, despite skills such as self-reflection and critical analysis being recognised as important investigative tools (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023). This point was commented on by Wood (2019) considering the need for police officers to engage in meaningful reflective practice in pressured situations, rather than being ‘contemplative observers’ (Wood, 2019, p377), and by May and Hunter (2018) discussing the lack of connection between operational policing and the more academic skills associated with graduate-level study.

Another unforeseen challenge, following a lack of clear communication relating to the impact of the change was the operationalisation of protected learning time for recruits, particularly those on the PCDA which as an apprenticeship, required a mandated 20% of working time to be allocated to non-workplace learning. For cultural reasons, similar arrangements were considered necessary for recruits on the DHEP, even though this was not mandated. Interviewee ‘G’ (2023) posited that this impact had not been ‘properly understood and taken into account’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, line 11) by the College of Policing during the design process, with the result that there was an

‘unintended consequence of directly impacting (on) frontline operational capability… [and was considered] an abstraction… [which] was not fully appreciated’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, lines 13-16). Interviewee ‘G’ (2023) also indicated that student officers on the PCDA and DHEP routes were not able to complete the academic aspects of their programme within the protected learning time allocated by forces, although further research would be required to determine the extent of this issue.

It was suggested that there needed to be some communication from both the College of Policing as the professional body, and chief officers, to explain the rationale for the change, and deal with the many ‘nay-sayer mice’ (Johnson, 1998) in policing (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023) but those messages were not effectively communicated and the perception was that the College of Policing’s push-back was insufficient and weakened the overall arguments for change (Interviewee ‘F’, 2023), a point also made in the literature review, given its mandate to effect change and transform learning and development (Home Office, 2012). This issue was also reflected in the College of Policing’s fundamental reviews of its role, which argued that the NPCC needed to ‘collaborate and coordinate [with the College of Policing] and give it licence to deliver [change] on behalf of policing’ (College of Policing, 2022b, p18).

There was also a perceived lack of direction within some police forces, despite the historically disciplined nature of policing, that resulted in some police trainers and supervisors actively encouraging students to complain about the graduate entry routes, with others seeking clarification and advice from supervisors, but not receiving it (Interviewee ‘B’ 2023, lines 14-18). The concept of ‘patch mentality… [with a] command and control mentality’ (Fleming, 2010, p140) was associated in the literature review with silo working (Pepper, et al, 2025) and resistance to change, and a further indication of the need for clear communication at every stage of a change process.

Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) opined that chief officers did not necessarily see the benefits of change, because they did not always get the communications about it, and the accompanying narrative. The subsequent lack of understanding, in policing, that ‘the aim [of the change], which is improvement… is lost’ (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023, line 30). Chief officers are unlikely to be supportive of any change which is not clearly communicated as to the intention behind it. Some chief officers expressed strong opposition to the introduction of graduate entry routes into policing and there was ‘no

real buy-in by some… [of] the current senior officers' (Interviewee 'B', 2023, line 47), which they considered an abstraction from operational policing. There was also a suggestion of 'a lack of understanding, clarity, and foresight on the part of by chief officers' (Interviewee 'D', 2023, line 59) that adversely affected the implementation of graduate entry routes, and a 'systemic lack of consistency' (College of Policing, 2022a, p8) of approach across the forty-three police forces in England and Wales, which again underlines the need for clear, effective communication relating to change programmes.

4.3.3 The need for further professionalisation of policing.

There was agreement between interviewees that professionalisation of policing would enable officers to acquire the necessary skills to meet the challenges of policing society in the 21st century. However, the phrase professionalisation of policing was deemed a 'terrible phrase' (Interviewee 'B', 2023, line 110), contested within policing, and often misinterpreted as implying a lack of professionalism by police officers in general.

Interviewees identified that recognition of professional policing was becoming more important, including police legitimacy, however a distinction was made that training and education was not just about achieving that goal, but about 'making things happen, to change things, to develop individuals' skills alongside their cognitive ability… [to] understand what they have learned and apply that in a different context… [which is] very much about higher education' (Interviewee 'A', 2023, lines 61-64). Interviewee 'A' (2023) also opined that whilst knowledge can be learned and skills developed through training, education provides understanding, 'linking it all together to be able to apply elsewhere' (Interviewee 'A', 2023, line 66). Similar views were discussed in the literature review, linking higher education with training and professional development (Punch, 2007; Paterson, 2011; Cordner, 2019; Pepper et al, 2025)

A distinction was drawn between professionalisation and academic ability by Interviewee 'B' (2023), who felt there had not been clear messages about the new entry routes into policing. Interviewee 'C' (2023) suggested that professionalisation had already started within the police, using the analogy of a ball rolling downhill - "the hill may not be steep, the ball may not be rolling as quickly, but I don't think it will stop" (Interviewee 'C', 2023).

Interviewee ‘G’ (2023) posited that (further) professionalisation was the right decision to take, given ‘the challenges we have about public confidence’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, line 41), a point also identified by Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) highlighting the link between professional policing and legitimacy, news, and recent events. There was, however, an apparent lack of interest in professionalisation of policing though educational elements (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023) despite police officers in the 21st century requiring a greater understanding of how they used their powers, their place in society, and how to build relationships and encourage community cohesion. This point was also discussed in the literature review (Holdaway, 2017; Hough and Stanko, 2019) and the PEQF was described as a paradigm shift towards ‘educating the recruited and recruiting the educated’ (Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018, p10) and the assertion that police recruit training required ‘firm foundations’ (HMIC, 2002, p11).

However, Interviewee ‘G’ (2023) also highlighted the strain on their police force of managing and back-filling protected learning time for new police officer recruits whilst also trying to deliver operational capabilities. Professionalisation of policing was considered ‘still the right thing to do… [so] we need to manage it differently… [because it is] one of the great challenges (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, lines 54-56).

Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) argued that the awarding of a degree-level qualification was, in itself, an indication of policing being a profession and the debate needed to focus on how recruit training and education programmes were delivered. There appeared to have been conflation of the degree qualification, and the need for policing to adopt an ‘ethos of lifelong learning and development…in the workplace’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 56) rather than the education being for its own sake.

The time taken to implement change within policing was identified by Interviewee ‘E’ (2023) who stated that following the establishment of the College of Policing they were ‘confident that… degree qualifications would happen… [but] not that it would take eight years’ Interviewee ‘E’ (2023, lines 1-4). A similar point was made by Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) related to the time taken to implement change in policing, opining that police managers ‘cannot see beyond two or three years… [forces] plan officer numbers for twelve months in advance… [whilst] in a business you would have a five-year plan’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, lines 45-47) for staffing levels. On a slightly more positive note, Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) suggested that police education would change over time but

hoped it would ‘link back to the education and professionalisation agenda’ (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023, line 228) with supporting academic accreditation.

Given that the further professionalisation of policing was premised on the need for accredited academic qualification, the proposed partnership working between police forces and HEIs was seemingly taken as accepted, despite the many differences between those organisations. Police forces are public bodies, whilst HEIs are commercial organisations, each with established cultures, operating principles, and goals which were ‘not easily reconciled’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 7), a point reflected in the literature review (Wood and Tong, 2009; Goode and Lumsden, 2018; Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018) in terms of the cultural differences between policing and HEIs, and the incompatible, inaccurate, and historical perceptions of both police officers and academics. Brown (2018) also commented on internal tensions in policing involving the paradigm shift from a craft perspective of training to a professional perspective, and resistance to the imposition of graduate level qualifications at entry level.

The point that the forty-three operationally independent police forces in England and Wales needed to work not only together, but also in partnership with Higher Education Institutions was also acknowledged as challenging, not least given the distinct differences outlined here, identified as potential obstacles to be overcome (Interviewee ‘A’ 2023). This point was alluded to by Lumsden (2017), and Brown (2018) commenting on the tensions between the further professionalisation of policing; the drive from the College of Policing and Home Office towards professionalisation; and the top-down approach of imposing changes. Although professionalisation and partnership working between police forces and HEIs will continue for those organisations prepared to put in the effort (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023), a ‘lack of HE experience amongst police forces’ (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023, line 17) was highlighted as being particularly difficult for those police forces without experience of working relationships with local universities which ‘wanted to deliver the programme or… was interested in it’ (Interviewee ‘E’, 2023, line 10).

Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) posited that the challenge facing police forces was their capability to achieve (further) professionalisation. This notion is challenged, culturally, by those chief constables who maintain the mantra that change is not required, because ‘boots on the street’ (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023, line 78) are all that is required.

Whilst accepting police officer numbers as a key issue, Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) maintained that if those officers are not prepared, equipped, and able to deal with the challenges of policing in the 21st century, the same news headlines and the challenges outlined in the Casey Review (2023) and elsewhere will be repeated, and policing will not be affected ‘in a positive and influential way to the benefit of society’ (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023, line 85). The memes and soundbites offered in opposition to the further professionalisation of policing were discussed in the literature review and presented as illustrative of the cultural resistance to change (Fleming and Wingrove, 2017; Norman and Williams, 2017). Müller and Cook (2024) posit that professionalism and collective identity are important for individuals’ self-efficacy, and job satisfaction, and when policing culture values ‘operational expertise over theoretical knowledge’ (Belur et al, 2019, p86) that assertion needs challenging and requires consistent commitment from key decision makers and influencers. This would include the College of Policing with its mandate to set the standards for the professional development of policing and transforming learning and development (Home Office, 2012).

A similar point was made by Interviewee ‘C’ (2023) pointing out that police forces were ‘ill-prepared and not capable of delivering’ (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023, line 20) the necessary material, referring to Hough and Stanko’s (2018) report to MOPAC. Interviewee ‘B’ (2023) also commented on a lack of true partnership working between some police forces and their HEI partners, with different delivery models being used, relating to how the curriculum content should be delivered, in which locations, and by whom. Arguing that policing had developed, and officers now required different skills to understand the complexities and demands facing investigators in the 21st century, it was posited that some of the skills were ‘so niche [that] only university education… [can] develop those skills’ (Interviewee ‘F’, 2023, line 118). Lumsden (2017) posited there was no acceptance within policing, of the need to change, or achieve professionalisation.

A different perspective was suggested by Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) in relation to the preparatory stages of planning by the College of Policing and a partnership with a consortium of universities which resulted in ‘a real sense of collegiate working… [with] personal and organisational barriers broken down… [demonstrating] high levels of trust between universities, forces, and the College of Policing’ (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023, lines

41-43) illustrating the professional collaborations that could be achieved. However, once that development work was completed, 'the partnership dissolved… the core momentum stopped… [and was replaced by] the world of competitive tendering' (Interviewee 'D', 2023, lines 44-46).

The announcement by the Home Secretary was deemed 'really unhelpful' (Interviewee 'E', 2023, line 92) as a fourth route would provide 'very poor training' (Interviewee 'E', 2003, line 189) and reduced the opportunities for continued professional development, discussed in the literature review (Fleming and Wingrove, 2017; Norman and Williams, 2017). The public also had 'incredibly short memories… [regarding] scandals of racist, abusive, and misogynistic behaviours' (Interviewee 'E', 2023, line 192) which would be repeated without the necessary change to recruit education and training. Interviewee 'D' (2023) posited that a non-graduate route would significantly undermine the PEQF, did not support the graduate entry routes, and would produce lesser-qualified officers than were expected, by taking 'a step away from police education, and back to police training' (Interviewee 'D', 2023, line 197) and does not support professionalisation. This view was echoed by Interviewee 'F' (2023) who opined that policing was 'storing up problems for the future… [by only dealing with] the here and now' (Interviewee 'F', 2023, line 75-78) and not planning for future possibilities.

The potential for a two-tier police service was also discussed in the literature review, (Police Federation, 2023) where the call was for an organisational commitment to combine theory and practice in recruit programmes, rather than a cultural perspective which values 'operational expertise over theoretical knowledge' (Belur et al 2019, p86) but requires consistent sponsorship from senior management, together with commitment from key decision makers and those in positions of influence, to ensure successful philosophical and pedagogical changes to initial training programmes (Belur et al, 2019). The fourth entry route was also argued as incompatible with graduate-level education (Rowe, Turner and Pearson, 2016; Hough and Stanko, 2019; Wood, 2019)

Interviewee 'G' (2023) argued that the existence of a non-graduate route into policing would limit police forces' ability to argue for pay parity with other professions, when there was no professional degree requirement across all police officer recruits, effectively providing different levels of training to recruited officers. Interviewee 'G'

(2023) was also not supportive of ‘a non-degree entry route…[and agreed with] the Police Federation… [that] it potentially creates a two-tier service and does not professionalise the service, which was what we wanted to do’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, lines 57-60).

4.3.4 The impact of policing cultures on organisational change.

The theme of organisational culture was identified by all interviewees as something that was misunderstood as regards the potential impact on the change to graduate entry routes at constable rank, and was discussed in the literature review above, as an obstacle to change (Chan, 1996). This included a failure to recognise the potential impact; a misunderstanding as to the extent of that impact; or the extent of the changes necessary to facilitate the introduction of new entry routes, by two distinctly different organisations. Police organisational culture was also identified in the literature review as a potential obstacle (Chan, 1996, Reiner, 2010) but that it was not immutable (Heslop, 2011a). The differences between police forces and HEIs in terms of organisational culture and cultural artefacts were also posited as potential barriers to collaboration (Wood and Tong, 2009; Goode and Lumsden, 2018; and Ramshaw and Soppitt, 2018) given the incompatible, inaccurate, and historical perceptions of both police officers and academics. The hierarchical nature of both organisations was also suggested as a cultural barrier for change (Fleming, 2010).

The interviewees acknowledged that police culture could change over a number of years, but this was not easily achieved. This included the assertion that newly recruited officers on the PCDA and DHEP were influenced by their peers, and their ‘motivation is to do the job of policing, rather than studying’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 83) whereas those on the PPD were not exposed to peer influence, had time to reflect on their learning, and their motivation was to join a police force. Interviewee ‘B’ (2023) also contended that the organisational cultures in some police forces were not supportive of graduate entry routes, even four years after their introduction, and such cultures needed to be challenged from each force’s change management lead or steering group (Interviewee ‘B’, 2023). These points were commented on in the literature review, when Fleming (2010) posited that cooperation with HEIs required police forces to be less

resistant to change and move from silo working in a culture of “patch mentality… [combined with] command and control mentality” (Fleming, 2010, p140). Similarly, HEIs needed to modify their research approach, collaborating with policing, rather than conducting research on policing (Goode and Lumsden, 2018), given that the challenge of connecting two dissimilar organisations was based on mutual misunderstanding which “negatively impacts on the police-academic relationship” (Goode and Lumsden, 2018, p7) and the relationship between HEIs and policing had been “marked by cynicism and suspicion on both sides” (McDowall and Brown, 2019, p6).

Another example of the impact of police cultures on implementing change was the assertion by some chief constables that all teaching was delivered at force training centres by a combination of police trainers and HEI staff, creating a potential divide and adding to a negative culture (Interviewee ‘F’, 2023), and that recruits would not attend university campuses. When some police forces altered this approach, there was a changed ‘approach and attitude’ (Interviewee ‘F’, 2023, line 165) enabling recruits to make ‘links between classroom input and operational policing’ (Interviewee ‘F’, 2023, line 166). Similar issues, including newcomer socialisation were discussed in the literature review (Reiner, 2010; Chan, 1997; McDowall and Brown, 2019) with police training centres portrayed as the locus for cultural socialisation for recruits (Heslop, 2011a) and campus locations identified as opportunities to disrupt that socialisation process (Wimshurst and Ransley, 2007; Blakemore and Simpson, 2010).

Interviewee ‘C’ (2023) posited that police officers tend to value operational elements of their programmes more highly than academic elements, a view which is shared by ‘tutor constables, mentors and first-line supervisors’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 97). This is reinforced by a police organisational culture that considers academic study as an abstraction (Interviewee ‘B’, 2023; Interviewee ‘F’ 2023) to be minimised rather than a developmental opportunity or essential elements of entry route programmes. It was suggested that only in the later stages of a study programme, might recruits start to value their learning, as they put it into practice in an operational environment (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023) which aligns with the balance of operational and academic elements not being a binary choice (Brown, 2018) but a means to improve the retention, integration, and application of knowledge (Rantatalo and Karp, 2016; Lettic, 2016).

Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) suggested the two significant barriers or challenges relating to change within policing were, policing cultures and the politicisation of policing after the introduction of Police and Crime Commissioners, who often have ambitions of ‘political advancement… [and] are very outspoken… [seeing their role as] a stepping stone in their political career’ (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023, lines 99-100). Interviewee ‘C’ (2023) suggested that PCCs often had both cultural and political views on change but often lacked detailed understanding of policing culture and could be perceived as making ‘short-term and quite damaging decisions’ (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023, line 102) about graduate entry programmes. This is an interesting perspective, given that the Association of Police and Crime Commissioners were signatories to Policing Vision 2025 (APCC and NPCC, 2016) which included the professionalisation of policing and officers acquiring improved skills and abilities. This perspective was echoed by a comment that ‘the current PCCs… in my region are not supportive of PEQF and level six qualifications anywhere… [and] the current Home Secretary does not seem supportive… [so] there is no pressure on policing to professionalise the service’’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, lines 113-117). A similar issue was expressed in the literature review relating to ‘short-sighted, populist-oriented governments’ (Punch, 2010, p158), and reflects this perception of both PCCs and some chief constables. This also reflects the discussion in the literature review that successful change involving organisational culture requires consistent and continuing support at the strategic level – notably from the chief constable and their management team.

Other cultural barriers identified included ‘retired male inspectors… [expressing] a very powerful view’ (Interviewee ‘E’, 2023, line 17) on social media, decrying graduate education in policing, although there were also counterarguments (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023) that police officers were already operating at graduate level, which needed to be recognised. Indeed, the graduate entry routes were designed to enable officers to be equipped to police society in the 21st century, (Interviewee ‘F’, 2023), and it was suggested that policing required a more diverse intake in terms of gender, ethnicity, and age than was apparent with legacy IPLDP intakes, and required ‘the skills and education to do the job effectively’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, line 157).

Another cultural influence was suggested by Interviewee ‘E’ (2023) who posited that social class was also a barrier because, traditionally, most police officer recruits were

‘from a working class or lower-middle class background… [joining] an organisation which is about maintaining order, so they are socially conservative’ (Interviewee ‘E’, 2023, line 21-23) and most were not graduates. The idea that police officers still needed to be recruited from a working-class background and not have a degree-level qualification because they would be better able to communicate with the general population was described as ‘nonsense’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, line 267). Also, rather than going with the data, future recruitment was considered more likely to ‘follow the kind of ideology and generalisations that are made… not what the facts say’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, lines 270-273) again suggesting the influence of organisational culture. In a similar manner, it was argued that the introduction of graduate entry programmes led to the ‘volte face’ (Interviewee ‘E’, 2023, line 33) as regards initial training and education and the announcement of a fourth, non-graduate, route because ‘Tory PCCs… like their cops thick and obedient… [are] not interested in thoughtful, intelligent cops who argue back, they just want them to do what they are told’ (Interviewee ‘E’, 2023, lines 34-37). This governmental attitude expecting policing to be a ‘servile agency… [and] institutionally deaf’ (Punch, 2010, p158) was also raised in the literature review and again suggests organisational culture as a potential barrier to change. A culture that values ‘operational expertise over theoretical knowledge’ (Belur et al, 2019, p86) needs consideration, and that any successful philosophical and pedagogical change to training programmes requires consistent sponsorship from senior management along with commitment from key decision-makers and those in positions of influence (Belur, et. al., 2019) as the results are not immediately evident (Charles, 2000; Chan, Devery and Doran, 2003).

Although the stated expectation was that with new training and education (APCC and NPCC, 2016) officers would be equipped to meet the challenges facing policing in the 21st century this aspiration may not be met (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023). Historically, training was always the ‘poor relation’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 38), and education and training as it should be now, is viewed in the same way, despite the assertion discussed in the literature review, that as a multi-million-pound operation, police recruit training required ‘firm foundations (HMIC, 2002, p11). Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) used an analogy from a pilot training programme in the Royal Air Force to illustrate this point, stating that when budgetary reductions were necessary, training was reduced, despite increases in demand. Over time, as demands for front-line officers increased, the training

programme was reduced to ‘the bare minimum’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 42). Such thinking threatens the continuation of graduate-level programmes for recruits, through satisficing.

Some chief officers are strongly in favour of a non-graduate entry route, whilst others are equally supportive of partnerships with higher education, and whilst ‘significant numbers of countries internationally that have graduate entry of some kind [but] not always a degree’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 54) there is still a clear divide amongst chief constables throughout England and Wales. Despite the expressed hope that ‘we were sensible enough… [across universities and police forces] to see the value of graduate-type officers’ (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023, line 53) there are still strongly held, cultural positions to be addressed. This echoes discussions in the literature review, that whilst the evidence regarding ‘the relationship between academic qualification and policing effectiveness remains inconclusive’ (Yu and Kwong, 2025, p1), police forces need to accept the need to reform to achieve professional status (Lumsden, 2017) and encourage partnership working with HEIs by avoiding short-sighted decisions (Punch, 2010).

The presumption that there would be universal acceptance of graduate-level qualifications for new police officer recruits and these were necessary for police professionalisation, was also discussed in the literature review, with Yu and Kwong (2025) positing that ‘efforts to professionalise policing [in England and Wales] through mandatory degree requirements have encountered significant resistance’ (Yu and Kwong, 2025, p1) an issue also identified by Hallenberg and Cockcroft (2017), and Andrews (2025).

Following an initial acceptance, by the NPCC is 2015, of graduate entry routes, once implementation began some chief constables expressed strong opposition to the change both on social media and within police forces, along with several PCCs. The main issues appeared to relate to the amount of protected learning that new recruits required, and the need to backfill the ‘abstraction’ with other officers (Interviewee ‘B’ 2023). The reality was that each chief constable has operational autonomy for their particular police force, so can determine the training provision for new recruits to their force, effectively changing that training ‘at the stroke of a pen’ (Interviewee ‘F’, 2023, line 22). This can be done without regard for previous attempts to build a unified

approach to recruit training and education, or to create a common approach, nationally, to improve policing (Interviewee 'F', 2023) or the lessons learned from other change programmes.

Interviewee 'B' (2023) suggested that some senior officers were supportive of the change but seemed reluctant to openly support it. This could reflect the contention in the literature review, that chief constables take a transactional approach, seeking short-term solutions rather than a transformational style, and effectively set the culture for their police force (Chan, Devery and Doran, 2003; Bayley, 2011). Interviewee 'G' (2023) stated that due to changes of chief officers between 2015 and 2022 there were 'a growing number of chief constables who… are ideologically opposed to the PEQF and professionalisation of policing… [and] are quite hostile' (Interviewee 'G' lines 25-28), and that decision making by the NPCC needed to be quicker. There was also a need to 'move quicker and try harder to get the Home Office embedded and bought into [professionalisation and the PEQF] in terms of continuity… [but] different Home Secretaries… [have] different views on this' (Interviewee 'G', 2023, lines 30-33). A similar impacting factor was suggested, in the scenario where a chief constable implemented a change but was then replaced in post resulting in another change by the incoming chief officer. In the interim, the partner HEI has withdrawn, and the different people in post do not have access to the lessons learned, or mistakes made in the last change cycle, and the police force 'reinventing the wheel' (Interviewee 'F', 2023, line 56) with implications for both police forces and HEIs in terms of future partnership working or collaboration.

This also reflects the influence of PCCs who are often aligned to political parties and 'are political animals… [with] often no experience of the functioning of police forces… [and may have] particular cultural views on change' (Interviewee 'C', 2023, lines 71-73) and other matters. This resulted in 'a small number of PCCs [having] influence on a national scale' (Interviewee 'C', 2023, line 75). This resulted in the then Home Secretary's announcement of a non-graduate entry programme for police recruits, being described as 'a small number of people… [PCCs, who] made a big change without any idea of what they are changing or what the issues were' (Interviewee 'C', 2023, lines 80-81). It was also suggested that whilst the link between politics and policing 'cannot be undone… a positive and supportive relationship rather than a

negatively critical one might make change easier to achieve' (Interviewee 'C', 2023, line 216-217).

Interviewee 'C' (2023) suggested that organisational change needed to be driven from both the bottom and the top of police forces, using the experiences and lessons from earlier change programmes which involved change agents from different police departments, as these changes had faced similar cultural issues. The introduction of the PEQF saw a focus on the entry routes, and a mistake was made in 'not pursuing the qualification for senior managers' (Interviewee 'C', 2023, line 139), which would have provided impetus at the top and bottom of police forces and was a missed opportunity to consider the cultural issues involved with organisational changes (Interviewee 'C', 2023).

Several commentators have espoused theories relating to policing cultures as barriers to change, identifying strategies to weaken those cultures and enhancing those which are supportive of change (Kotter, 1996; By, 2005; Wiggins, 2008; Gwaka et al, 2016; Duxbury, Kangas, and De Beukelaer, 2017; Gül, 2024). It is posited that policing culture – as with any organisational culture – is a powerful mechanism acting as a barrier to change, however the combination of education, increased diversity, and transformational leadership has the potential to transform the culture and enabling change.

4.3.5 Determining student officers' perceptions of graduate entry programmes.

Interviewees were invited to comment on some of the responses from the survey of student officers relating to how useful and interesting they considered their programme of study to be, and which curriculum topics they found the most useful, and most interesting. Interviewees were given the outcomes for each of the three graduate entry programmes, as to the percentage of students on each, who found their programme useful (interview question eight) and interesting (interview question nine), and were invited to comment as to any influencing factors that might be apparent.

Interviewee 'E' (2023) observed there was a difference between PCDA respondents and those on the DHEP, whereby both groups were police officers, but the former were

not graduates, which enabled contrasts to be made, rather than comparisons between these two groups. This distinction was also made by Interviewee ‘C’ (2023) and Interviewee ‘G’ (2023) both stating that graduate respondents on the DHEP would be used to academic study and assessment and possess organisational skills that may not be held by PCDA respondents who may be ‘less organised - not less intelligent - but may be less engaged’ (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023, line 175) with their learning. Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) distinguished between students on the PPD and police officers on the PCDA and DHEP, suggesting that although the curricula for all three programmes was the same, in terms of the academic elements, and the outcomes were the same in terms of academic assessment, PPD respondents were not exposed to the pressures of operational policing and not exposed to policing cultures, being campus-based. Similar cultural influences were discussed in the literature review (Brown, 2018; Belur et al, 2019; McDowall and Brown, 2019).

Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) and Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) observed that respondents on the PCDA and DHEP would be studying at a police force location, an environment where the organisational culture was often negative as regards degree-level entry routes. They posited that these negative opinions were often openly expressed by trainers, and other police officers with more service than the recruits and tended to be more influential. This argument was also raised by McCanney and Taylor (2023) where academic learning is undervalued and operational experience was more valued than theoretical concepts, producing a more negative perception of their programmes by PCDA and DHEP respondents and a more positive perception by PPD respondents who were not subject to these influences (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023).

Interviewee ‘C’ (2023) also posited that recruits often developed a ‘street warrior attitude’ (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023, line 152) being influenced by the policing culture and negative commentary about degree-level qualifications. This was experienced at the same time as recruits were managing the demands of full-time shift working, learning a new job, full-time study, learning to be an officer, and balancing home life, leading to less value being attached to the study programme (Interviewee ‘C’, 2023). These influencing factors were not experienced to the same degree by students on the PPD, not being police officers, and whose motivation was to be recruited as police officers at some future date (Interviewee ‘A’, 2023) and who were studying in a campus

environment and in a more relaxed atmosphere, suggesting they perceive their programme as more useful than respondents on the PCDA or DHEP entry routes. Additionally, the perceived relevance of topics on the curriculum to their need to prepare for their role as a police officer would also influence their views (Interviewee 'G', 2023).

The location of the initial recruit programme delivery was also discussed in the literature review, when Heslop (2011a) opined that police training academies were the locus for cultural socialisation. However, a change of location to a university campus would not, of itself, prevent that cultural socialisation (Wimshurst and Ransley, 2007; Blakemore and Simpson, 2010) as there were still operational elements to both the PCDA and DHEP entry routes, alongside operational officers and supervisors.

Interviewee 'D' (2023) considered that there were, effectively, forty-three different ways that the police forces would deliver in-force training, reflecting the operational independence of chief officers and the resistance to change (Holdaway, 2017; Brown et al, 2018b). Interviewee 'E' (2023) also suggested that the method or means of delivery, or the teaching style of police trainers, or university lecturers, might also be factors, as with other undergraduate programmes.

It was suggested by two interviewees that, at the very start of the degree apprenticeship and graduate entry programmes, some students were put onto these programmes, but had applied for the legacy IPLDP, so were initially unaware of the programme change, and its additional workload of study, which could be reflected in the lower scoring for these programmes.

The curriculum content was considered extensive (Interviewee 'B', 2023) and Interviewee 'D' (2023) suggested that students on the PCDA and DHEP were hard pressed to manage the demands of study, with not enough protected learning time provided by forces. This was echoed by Interviewee 'F' (2023) who commented on apprentices not always being given the required 20% work time allocation, and Interviewee 'G' (2023) who contended that students frequently undertook academic work on rest days, when operationally deployed in force, to keep up to date with their studies. This lack of study time also included a lack of reflection time – an essential element in academic study.

Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) and Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) both suggested student motivation as a factor for the differences between the perceived usefulness of, and interest in, their programmes of study. They postulated that both degree apprentices and graduate entry students are employed as police officers, whose motivation is to learn their jobs, whereas professional policing students’ motivation may be more aspirational, aiming to join a police force as a constable. They suggested that these latter respondents were paying for their programme, so might be more engaged with it, as they were seeking to be recruited by a police force, rather than already having been recruited.

Interviewees were also asked to comment on the data showing that the most and least interesting topics (interview question ten) and those considered the most and least useful (interview question eleven) in terms of any influencing factors that might be apparent. The most interesting topics were operational policing powers and core policing, whilst the least interesting topics were evidence-based policing, academic skills, and police culture and history. The most useful topics identified were operational policing powers and core policing, with evidence-based policing and academic skills being identified as the least useful topics.

Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) suggested that PCDA and DHEP respondents who identified evidence-based policing as the least interesting topic were influenced by an organisational culture that did not value it (an argument also posited by Pepper et al, 2025) and also because those respondents might not realise, they were applying evidence-based approaches in their policing activities. Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) also suggested that PPD respondents might have under-valued evidence-based policing due to the lack of opportunity to apply it in practice, rather than studying it as a purely theoretical issue.

Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) suggested that core policing and operational powers were culturally interesting and useful topics, and chief officers were reinforcing that mantra with comments that “boots on the ground” (Interviewee ‘D’, 2023) were needed. Consequently, students might not consider the value of academic skills in relation to effective criminal investigation though the use of critical analysis or using an evidence-based approach when problem solving or decision-making in operational settings (Cordner, 2019; Hough and Stanko, 2019; Pepper, Brown and Stubbs, 2022).

Interviewee ‘C’ (2023) argued that respondents needed to be able to understand the relevance of a topic to operational policing to perceive it as interesting, or useful. Specifically mentioning academic skills, identified by respondents as a topic considered to be one of the least useful and least interesting on the curriculum, Interviewee ‘C’ (2023) argued that those views were influenced by factors including how the topic was taught, and whether the operational links were made – either in a classroom setting, or through operational application. This point was underlined by the College of Policing (2021b) describing the national policing curriculum as covering the necessary knowledge, skills and professional approaches.

This argument was also raised by both Interviewee ‘D’ (2023) and Interviewee ‘G’ (2023), who contended that if officers and students could not see the links between academic elements of the curriculum and the performance of operational police constables, then those links needed to be more explicit, in terms of the relevance to police legitimacy and public confidence. Interviewee ‘B’ (2023) also contended that if respondents were not invested in a topic, or the topic was taught at the beginning of a module, and they were responding to the survey at that time, it may only be towards the end of that module, or even later, that they recognised its value to them as operational police officers.

Interviewee ‘G’ (2023) opined that student officers tended to engage with topics they perceive, or are told, are directly relevant to their role as police officers, whilst other topics appear to lack that same relevance. They also stated that officers needed to understand (some) of the history of policing events including ‘miscarriages of justice and some of the behaviours of officers that… have driven a wedge between police and certain communities’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, line 233-235) to see the context of their operating environment and the issues of legitimacy and public confidence.

Interviewee ‘A’ (2023) and Interviewee ‘C’ (2023) posited that the results might reflect the stage that students had reached, on their programmes. They argued that students in their first year, tended to under-value their studies, but towards the end of year three that was noticeably improved, which could indicate that a short length of time on a programme negatively impacts on student motivation and, indirectly, on how they value their studies.

Interviewee ‘G’ (2023) also suggested an apparent disconnect between police-delivered elements of, and the university inputs to, the PCDA and DHEP. ‘We want an educated workforce… [to be] more effective police officers… [but] I’m not sure we’ve made that direct link’ (Interviewee ‘G’, 2023, line 211-213).

Whilst the above arguments were not specifically discussed in the literature review, they relate to the measure of success of a training programme, which in policing tended to focus on trainee reaction to the training, or the assessment of learning outcomes. However, this took no account of the impact of the training, or its contribution to the wider society (Kirkpatrick, 1959; Kaufman and Keller, 1994; Flannagan, 2008; Belur et al, 2019; Casey, 2023). Indeed, Stanko (2018) reported that graduates felt disappointed by their initial training programmes, which lacked intellectual challenge, and appeared to be “hermetically sealed to outside eyes and ears” (Stanko, 2018, p45).

Comments from interviewees also addressed areas not directly mentioned in, but were supported by, the literature review, with the memes and soundbites within policing being illustrative of a resistance to both change and further professionalisation (Fleming and Wingrove, 2017, Norman and Williams, 2017) when policing culture traditionally values ‘operational expertise over theoretical knowledge’ (Belur et al 2019, p86). Such views need challenging, but to be successful it requires senior management sponsorship together with continued, consistent commitment from key decision makers and influencers (Belur *et al*, 2019). Also, an andragogical approach, actively involving learners and drawing on their experience can promote topics with students (Belur et al, 2019) but can be limited in the operational policing environment.

The concluding remarks from one interviewee arguably captured the situation within policing, some seven years after the initial launch of the graduate entry routes, in 2018; three years after the announced intention (in 2022) to introduce a non-graduate entry route; and eighteen months since the first intakes on that entry route started.

> ‘*I am positive about recruits going forward… how we are equipping them, [but] slightly pessimistic in relation to whether the police service will go on the journey it should do, to professionalise, so we get a better quality of officer for the long term. I fear that where we are from both a government, and a PCC perspective, we will miss this opportunity around*

professionalising the service, and those who come after us will regret that' (Interviewee 'G', 2023, lines 274-279).

5 Discussion.

The integration of findings from the survey and interviews discussed in chapter five provides an understanding of the process whereby graduate level entry routes for police officer recruits across England and Wales were introduced from a change management perspective. It also provides context for the change from the legacy IPLDP, the debate surrounding the need for further professionalisation of policing, and the challenges of managing organisational change within policing. The research revealed that alongside the transactional changes to established systems and the interconnected processes surrounding recruitment, there was a requirement for a cultural change to accept not only the introduction of graduate entry routes into policing at constable rank, but also the associated issue of policing becoming a profession, rather than remaining as a craft.

The change process was also initially depicted as a simple, transactional change rather than a complex, systemic one requiring substantial planning and resources. Interviewees also argued there was a clear underestimation of the complexity of the change, with cultural resistance from both police forces and higher education institutions complicating the transition. These views were echoed in some of the College of Policing documents considered in the literature review, and whilst these were primarily intended as information for police forces, they were written in a promotional style, rather than providing substantive, evidence-based discussion of the new educational approach. There was also evidence that some police forces were unused to true partnership working with HEIs as equal partners and sought to maintain a master-servant contractual relationship, rather than a collaborative one. This view of the change process, a lack of true partnership, and the underestimation of its scale and extent, invariably led to insufficient preparation of, and support for, those stakeholders directly affected by the change.

There was also a need for a change to stakeholder perceptions, communication methods and dynamics, and acceptance that the legacy IPLDP was no longer fit for

purpose. However, the proposed change also challenged the established position of chief constables as operationally independent, and the sole decision-makers as regards officer recruit training programmes. It also became apparent that the introduction of graduate entry programmes would be a lengthy process, requiring a change from short-term to longer-term thinking.

The transition from the legacy IPLDP to the new educational process also involved a perspective change from policing being a craft to being a profession, and from a training approach for recruits, to an educational approach. These cultural shifts also highlighted the apparent lack of a change management model being used to enable detailed planning for such a substantial change and provide oversight in managing it over an extended time. The lack of any clear key performance indicators, performance statements, or metrics to measure the progress and successful implementation of the change, also resulted in potential ambiguity in achieving the desired outcomes from the change to graduate entry routes. Together, these omissions indicate a significant oversight in managing such a substantial change process.

Having found no documented examples of such use by police forces in England and Wales, the research established that Kotter's (1995) eight-stage model had been widely used by public sector organisations, including police forces, in different countries (Jacobs, Witteloostuijn and Christe-Zeyse, 2013; Degnegaard, 2010; Erciyes, 2018) and the consensus was that this model would positively influence the outcomes from change programmes (Burke, 2002; By, 2005). The failure of any change programmes is often associated with one or more of the stages of a change model being ignored, overlooked, or underestimated by change leaders, or not fully completed, leading to the dissipation of the urgency of a change and the intended outcomes not being realised (Pettigrew and Whipp, 1993; Kotter, 1995, 1996; Burnes, 2001). There is also the danger of a lack of consistency in implementing change (Marsh, 2022) which, again, is symptomatic of the operational independence of police forces in England and Wales with changes being imposed 'top-down' and not effectively managed.

The challenge for policing in England and Wales, as discussed in chapter five, is acceptance that significant organisational change is not achieved in the short term (Charles, 2000; Chan, Devery and Doran, 2003) and often inhibited by the relatively short tenure of chief constables, aligned with that of PCCs. In the absence of

commitment beyond five years, meaningful change will be at risk of failing and as suggested by Interviewee 'G' (2023) both policing and the public will regret that. The NPCC also need to coordinate and cooperate nationally regarding changes on a national scale, accept the settled will of the majority or a strong evidence base (College of Policing, 2024), and seek support with change management (Abramson and Lawrence, 2001; Lambright, 2001; Young, 2001; Laurent, 2003). There also appears to be a reluctance within police forces to acknowledge their apparent lack of expertise in change management, particularly, learning the lessons from previous change programmes.

Interviewees commented on the survey results and suggested there were differences between the three groups of respondents on each programme, including that PCDA and DHEP respondents were police officers, exposed to pressures from being operational officers, and exposed to often negative memes and soundbites from peers, supervisors, and teachers which PPD respondents were not. This was also an issue raised by Fleming and Wingrove (2017), Norman and Williams (2017), Brown (2018), Belur, et al (2019) and McDowall and Brown (2019).

The survey results for each of the three programmes indicated operational topics were valued more highly than academic topics in terms of usefulness and interest, which some interviewees interpreted as reflecting the operational elements of the police officer role, and also discussed by Cordner (2019), Hough and Stanko (2019), and Pepper, Brown and Stubbs (2022), reflecting an organisational culture as posited by Pepper, et al (2025). Some interviewees also suggested the completion of academic assessments was an influencing factor for students who were police officers and associated with their full-time operational role and a relative lack of protected learning time.

It is acknowledged that several factors influence respondents' perceptions, including the teaching methods and the teacher's ability to relate the topics to practical, operational policing, demonstrating the relevance and applicability of the subjects presented. Other factors suggested by interviewees included the potentially different teaching styles and support provided by forty-three operationally independent police forces, which was also commented on by Holdaway (2017) and Brown, et al (2018b). Any or all of these factors in combination with organisational cultures, commentary from

peers and supervisors, and external communication from bodies such as the College of Policing and the Home Office, shape students' perceptions as to the value and relevance of their education.

The research revealed that interviewees viewed the concept of further professionalisation of policing as not being widely accepted within police forces (an argument also posited by Lumsden, 2017) and that the link between academic qualification and policing effectiveness, described by Yu and Kwong (2025) as inconclusive, was distinct from the need to develop relevant skills and cognitive abilities such as reflective practice and critical thinking, often associated with degree-level study.

The professional development for policing was linked with higher education, as suggested by Punch (2007), Paterson (2011), Cordner (2019) and Pepper et al (2025), a point also made by Interviewee 'A' (2023). Interviewee 'G' (2023) posited that such development needed to connect with an understanding of the use of policing powers, building relationships with communities, and encouraging community cohesion which was supported by Holdaway (2017) and Hough and Stanko (2019).

The interviewees considered the sudden and unexpected intervention by the then Home Secretary (Braverman, 2022) which signalled an abrupt change of policy by the Home Office, had reduced the opportunities for further professionalisation in policing, an argument posed by Fleming and Wingrove (2017), and Norman and Williams, (2017). This also, potentially, created a two-tier police service across England and Wales. They also suggested that whilst further professionalism was not supported by many of the memes and soundbites, further professionalism was needed, with links to police legitimacy as argued in the Casey Review (2023) and a sense of collective identity, posited by Müller and Cook (2024)

Interviewees also argued that communication was an essential element underpinning any change management process (Kotter, 1995; Luecke, 2003; Hannan, Polos and Carroll, 2003) and often reflected organisational cultures manifesting in resistance to change. Interviewees indicated that effective communication was needed to challenge the naysayers and the uninformed comments based on opinion rather than evidence, and that the College of Policing needed to be more assertive, despite it being open to Home Office influence.

Indeed, interviewees suggested the need for continued communication between the College of Policing, police forces, and HEIs, to support partnership working, which was not necessarily supported by some of the College of Policing documents. These reflected a policing perspective, had phrasing which echoed a hierarchical and directive style, which implied a master-servant relationship would exist between police forces and HEIs, positioning the latter as in a subordinate role rather than encouraging the consultative partnership of equals necessary for meaningful collaboration.

Some interviewees also suggested poor communication between some police forces and HEIs contributed to a culture of resistance, with examples being negative commentary overtly expressed by some senior officers and relating to graduate entry programmes.

6. Conclusions and recommendations

The aim of the research was to examine the process of introducing new entry routes into policing at constable rank and to answer two questions. Firstly, to what extent the process was managed in terms of change management, and secondly how the introduction of new entry routes supported further professionalisation of policing in England and Wales. The research indicates that the answer to the first research question is that the introduction of graduate-level entry routes into policing was not managed as a change process. The answer to the second research question was that the graduate routes into policing was supportive of further professionalisation of policing in England and Wales. However, the abrupt change in approach by the Home Office announcing the reintroduction of a non-graduate entry route and the policy change by the NPCC relating to graduate entry programmes, undermined that support.

The first objective of the research was to identify change management models that could be appropriate for facilitating change in policing. This research has met the first objective by establishing that, whilst acknowledging that no single change management model or process will suit every change process in every organisation, the use of such a model or process is the key to delivering successful organisational change.

The second and third objectives of the research were to identify the opinions of students regarding the new educational process, and to solicit the views of senior officers and managers regarding the new educational process for police officer recruits. These were achieved through analysis of the data sets, from the survey, and semi-structured interviews. Students' opinions about the new educational process were identified, as were the opinions of senior officers and managers and themes were identified which aligned with elements in the literature review.

The fourth objective of the research was to identify and analyse the arguments relating to the further professionalisation of policing in England and Wales and highlighting issues requiring further research. This was achieved through a review of the literature and a thematic analysis of the qualitative data from the interviews.

The low response rates in the survey present a limitation for this research, preventing any inferences being made in relation to the wider population. It also prevents more detailed analysis of the quantitative data and testing of null hypotheses. However, this also underlines the need for further research relating to stakeholder perceptions of the three entry programmes, to identify influencing factors relating to the interest, usefulness, and difficulty of both those programmes and the topics in the curriculum.

Whilst some of these factors were identified in the literature review and featured in the semi-structured interviews, further research would enable those factors to be re-examined in terms of their impact on students on the PCDA, DHEP and PPD as well as contrasting with responses from students on the new non-graduate entry programme which was launched after this research was conducted, providing a richer picture overall. Further longitudinal research is also required relating to how the graduate programmes prepare individuals for the role of police constable. This research should also enable comparison with the newly introduced non-graduate Police Constable Entry Programme.

This research will inform the debate relating to police education and training within England and Wales. It will also add to the paucity of research into the management of change in policing organisations, and the use of change management models and theories, for example Kotter (2012), as they relate to policing and other public sector organisations. By doing so, it will extend the evidence base on the management of change processes within policing nationally and internationally, providing insight into

the steps necessary to guide future organisational change, the need for clear and consistent communication relating to the rationale for change, and for lasting, strategic commitment to implementing change. This will enable police forces to become learning organisations.

The challenges facing policing in England and Wales include understanding and using change management models and processes to ensure future change programmes are successfully implemented; that policing is not unique in terms of change management; to understand the need for longer-term thinking and effective communication in relation to delivering meaningful organisational change; and to embrace further professionalisation to enable continued meeting of changing requirements of society and associated challenges in the second quarter of the 21st century. There also needs to be cultural change whereby academic skills are considered of equal value with operational competence, and chief officers need to accept that police officer education is not an abstraction, but an opportunity to improve performance, build relationships with communities, encourage community cohesion, and avoid the repetition of past mistakes.

A further challenge for police forces, is the acceptance and application of the evidence base that success of police organisational change programmes should be assessed in terms of the impact on communities of the change programme, as argued by Kaufman and Keller (1994), Flannagan (2008), Belur, et al (2019), and Casey (2023), rather than an introspective assessment relating only to the delivery of training and education, or staff perceptions of the change programme.

Debates relating to the need for change within policing need to be informed by evidence-based arguments, rather than dependence on cultural memes and soundbites. Also, strategic organisational changes are not made in the short term but require sustained long-term support and requires chief officers to change from short-term thinking to longer-term planning, if the intended benefits from change are to be realised.

Chief officers must also be accepting of, and align with, the majority decision that is evidence based. In terms of initial training and education of police officer recruits, this argument does not challenge the established status of chief constables as operationally independent but supports the ambition for achieving further

professionalisation of policing in England and Wales. Without such acceptance and alignment, strategic change will not be achieved, the intended benefits arising from the further professionalisation of policing will not be realised, and police officer training and education programmes will not succeed in developing the necessary skills and abilities to meet the challenges of policing communities in the 21st century.

This thesis has outlined research relating to change management within policing; the further professionalisation of policing; and the need for police officers to acquire transferable graduate-level skills such as reflective practice and critical thinking, to aid effective investigation and decision-making. However, despite its existence, and numerous reports, the main challenge facing police forces in England and Wales is to acknowledge that research, accept the evidence base, and implement the findings and recommendations. Failure to take this opportunity will mean 'those who come after us will regret that" (Interviewee, 'G' 2023 line 279).

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Appendix 1 Ethics Panel Approval.

From: Emma Tomsett
To: John Nesbitt
Subject: UEP2021 Mar01 Nesbitt Ethical Approval
Date: 30 April 2021 13:22:00
Attachments:

Dear John

Thank you for submitting your amended documents for your submission for ethical approval. These have been checked and we can now award ethical approval for your project "From police training to police education: Research into and exploration of, the introduction of the Police Education Qualifications Framework, with particular focus on change management processes and
organisational culture".

This approval is for data collection between 22 March 2021 and 21 March 2023.

Please ensure that you quote the above reference number as evidence of ethical approval and in all materials used to recruit participants.

The Research and Enterprise Development Unit must be notified of any amendments to the proposed research or any extension to the period of data collection.

Please let me know if you need a letter confirming this

approval. I hope that your research project goes well.

Kind
regards
Emma

Dr Emma Tomsett
Research and Enterprise Development Unit Manager
(Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Fridays)

Senior Registry Officer, Student and Course Administration
Academic Registry (Mondays and Thursdays)

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE
NEW UNIVERSITY
EST. 1891

Appendix 2 Consent forms

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE
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EST. 1891

Consent statement for a survey or questionnaire.

You are being invited to participate in a research study entitled “From Police Training to Police Education”. This study is led by John Nesbitt from Buckinghamshire New University and has received ethical approval.

The purpose of the research study is to examine the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank (the degree apprenticeship, the degree- holder entry programme, and the pre-join degree in professional policing), and will take you approximately 20 minutes to complete. You may choose not to take the survey, to stop responding at any time, or to skip any questions that you do not want to answer.

The information requested in this questionnaire will be used for research purposes and does not require you to provide any personal information that could be used to identify you. Please do not include your name or any other identifying information in responses in the questionnaire. The anonymised research data will be archived and made available to other researchers on request in line with current data sharing practices.

By completing and submitting this questionnaire, you indicate that you understand its purpose and consent to the use of the data as indicated above.

Researcher-

Mr. John Nesbitt, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141
e-mail john.nesbitt@bucks.ac.uk

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Informed consent for research examining the process of the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank.

Please tick the appropriate boxes

1. Taking part in the study

I have read and understood the study information dated **[**DD/MM/YYYY**]**, or it has been read to me. I have been able to ask questions about the study and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. ☐

I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study and understand that I can refuse to answer questions and I can withdraw from the study at any time, without having to give a reason. I can withdraw my data up until [DD/MM/YYYY] which is the final date before data is analysed. ☐

I understand that taking part in the study involves me taking part in a semi-structured interview which will be electronically recorded (audio and video) which the researcher will then transcribe as text before the recording is deleted. ☐

2. Use of the information in the study

I understand that information I provide will be used for the submission of a thesis by the researcher, as part of an application for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) and that anonymised data from the research may be published. ☐

I understand that personal information collected about me that can identify me, such as my name or my contact details, will not be shared beyond the study team, and will not be published in any format. ☐

I consent to the processing of my personal information for the purposes of this research study. I understand that such information will be treated as strictly confidential and handled in accordance with current UK Data Protection legislation. ☐

I agree that my information can be quoted in research outputs. ☐

I agree that if I provide a comment in any interview, my real name can be used in connection with it, if it is used in a published report. ☐

3. Future use and reuse of the information by others.

I give permission for the data provided during the semi-structured interview that I provide, to be used for future research and learning and for that data to be stored as anonymised transcripts / audio or video recording / numerical data on the research database. ☐

I agree that any anonymised data that I provide may be used in published academic or commercial work in the future. ☐

4. Signatures

Name of participant [IN CAPITALS]	Signature	Date

If the participant, for whatever reason, requires a witness to their signing this document, that witness will sign the below endorsement.

I have witnessed the accurate reading of the consent form with the potential participant and the individual has had the opportunity to ask questions. I confirm that the individual has given consent freely.

Name of witness [IN CAPITALS]	Signature	Date

I have accurately read out / provided the information sheet to the potential participant and, to the best of my ability, ensured that the participant understands to what they are freely consenting.

Name of researcher [IN CAPITALS]	Signature	Date

5. Study contacts details for further information

If you require further information about the research, please contact the research supervisor, Dr Dorin Festeu, or the researcher, Mr. John Nesbitt.

Dr. Dorin Festeu, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141 e-mail dorin.festeu@bucks.ac.uk or

Mr. John Nesbitt, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141 e-mail john.nesbitt@bucks.ac.uk

Appendix 3 Participant Information Sheets

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

The aim of the research is to examine the process of the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank.

You are being invited to take part in a research project which aims to examine the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank (the degree apprenticeship, the degree-holder entry programme, and the degree in professional policing). Before you decide whether you want to take part it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully.

Who is conducting the research?
This project is being conducted by John Nesbitt for study towards a Doctorate (PhD) at Buckinghamshire New University.

What is the purpose of the study?
The aim of the research is to examine the process of the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank, specifically the degree apprenticeship, the graduate diploma in professional policing practice, and the degree in professional policing. It is hoped that the research will explore the management of the change process and the extent to which organisational culture may be an influencing factor. The research will also provide insight regarding the impact of the change on the numbers of police officers being trained, and on key performance indicators.

What is involved in participating?
You will be invited to take part in a semi-structured interview. By volunteering to be interviewed by the researcher, you will need to e-mail the researcher, providing your name and contact details. This will enable the researcher to contact you and arrange a mutually convenient time for the interview. It is intended that any interview with you would last for no longer than one hour. As a precaution against the re-introduction of restrictions on face-to- face meetings, the interviews will most likely be conducted on-line, using Microsoft TEAMS. All such arrangements will be made by the researcher, and you will be invited to the interview through a link in an e-mail. The interview will be recorded (audio and video), to enable later processing of the data. You will be asked to confirm that you agree to the recording being done, prior to the start of the interview.

The information you provide will relate to your experiences of, and views about, various aspects of the introduction of the new entry routes into policing at constable rank. Your information will be analysed together with that from other interviewees, to enable conclusions to be drawn.

Any data you provide relating to demographics (your age group, ethnicity, job role or title etc.) will only be used for analysis purposes and you will not be identified in any way. Your

name and other identifying data will not be used in the final thesis, or in any publication, unless you specifically consent to any quotes you make being used in such documents.

Why have I been invited to participate?

You have been invited to take part in an interview for one of the following reasons.

1) You are, or were, a police trainer, tutor, or assessor, delivering any aspect of the graduate- level entry route programmes, or the IPLDP to police officers or students.
2) You are a university lecturer delivering any of the entry route programmes to students or police officers.
3) You are involved in the organisation or delivery of any of the graduate-level entry route programmes.

Do I have to take part?

No. It is up to you to decide whether to take part in a semi-structured interview, as participation is entirely voluntary.

If you do decide to participate in a semi-structured interview, you will be asked to read and sign a Participant Information Sheet. If you sign the sheet, you are still free to withdraw at any time before the data are analysed (beginning on 1st September 2023) and without giving a reason. If you do withdraw, all data you provided will be deleted. Your interview record, including any notes / any audio or video recording made, and any notes from analysis of your data will be destroyed, and no further analysis of it will be undertaken.

What are the possible benefits and risks of taking part?

Benefits of taking part in this study include aiding research to understand the process of introducing graduate-level entry routes into policing at constable rank. The main beneficiary of the study is the researcher, who will use the data as part of their work for their Doctoral thesis (PhD).

Whilst no risks are anticipated for the researcher, any risk of a respondent's opinions being revealed even where anonymity was promised will be minimised. Any such information will be redacted by the researcher prior to any data processing or recording, and the data itself will not be recorded, processed, or retained.

Any and all personal identifying information will only be used by the researcher to facilitate the arrangements for the interviews. It will not be processed for any other purpose and will be destroyed, and all records will be deleted, immediately prior to the processing and analysis of any interview data.

The data retained for analysis will not include any data which could be reasonably expected to be able to identify any participant through its manipulation in any subsequent analysis. The only individuals with access to any person's identity or identifying information will be the researcher, and the two supervisors. Any, and all, such personal data will be deleted from any electronic or other storage files or media immediately following the conclusion of the data collection stage of the research process.

Will what I say or do in this study be kept confidential?

Any personal details provided by you to the researcher will be confidential and will not be used in the analysis or any dissertation, thesis, or other published work, without your explicit consent. Only the researcher and their two supervisors will have access to the data, which

will be stored by the researcher in accordance with the Buckinghamshire New University policy on data security. The anonymised data will be used for the researcher's thesis and may form part of a published article or a conference / seminar paper.

The data generated during the research, any audio or video recording, and your signed consent form, will be destroyed once the thesis has been marked, unless the data is likely to be used for a publication or use in a conference or seminar paper. In this case, it will be transferred to the supervisor and kept for a period of a maximum of ten years after the completion of the research project.

Who has reviewed the study?

This study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee at Buckinghamshire New University.
If you have any additional questions regarding this study, please contact the researcher, and / or their supervisors using the details below.

Researcher-

Mr. John Nesbitt, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141
e-mail john.nesbitt@bucks.ac.uk

Supervisors –

Dr. Dorin Festeu, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141
e-mail dorin.festeu@bucks.ac.uk

Dr. Chris Sambrook, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141
e-mail christopher.sambrook@bucks.ac.uk

Thank you for taking time to read this information.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE
NEW UNIVERSITY
EST. 1891

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

The aim of the research is to examine the process of the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank.

You are being invited to take part in a research project which aims to examine the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank (the degree apprenticeship, the degree-holder entry programme, and the pre-join degree in professional policing). Before you decide whether you want to take part it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully.

Who is conducting the research?
This project is being conducted by John Nesbitt for study towards a Masters' degree in Philosophy / PhD at Buckinghamshire New University.

What is the purpose of the study?
The aim of the research is to examine the process of the introduction of new entry routes into policing at constable rank, specifically the degree apprenticeship, the graduate diploma in professional policing practice, and the pre-join degree in professional policing. It is hoped that the research will explore the management of the change process and the extent to which organisational culture may be an influencing factor. The research will also provide insight regarding the impact of the change on the numbers of police officers being trained, and on key performance indicators.

What is involved in participating?
You will be invited to either complete an on-line questionnaire, which will be anonymous.

By completing and submitting the online questionnaire, you will be providing your views as to various aspects of the introduction of the new entry routes in to policing. Your responses will be used along with the responses from other participants, to enable analysis to be undertaken and conclusions drawn.

All the data you provide relating to demographics (your age group, ethnicity, programme of study etc.) will only be used for analysis purposes, and you will not be able to be identified in any way. You are not required to provide personal details such as your name or any contact details on the questionnaire, however, should you wish to know more about the research, or to be informed about the result of the research then you are welcome to contact the researcher, or the supervisor, by e-mail.

Any data you provide relating to demographics (your age group, ethnicity, job role or title etc.) will only be used for analysis purposes and you will not be identified in any way. Your name and other identifying data will not be used in the final dissertation / thesis, or in any publication.

Why have I been invited to participate?

You have been invited to complete the questionnaire for one of the following reasons.

1) Because you are a police officer currently following one of the new entry route programmes (the degree apprenticeship, or the degree-holder entry programme).
2) You are a student at university studying the degree in Professional Policing.
3) You are a police officer who is currently studying, or has recently completed, the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme.

Do I have to take part?
No. It is up to you to decide whether to complete and submit a questionnaire, or take part in a semi-structured interview, as participation is entirely voluntary.

If you decide to complete and submit an on-line questionnaire, by submitting it, you will have consented to it being analysed. (This is because it will not be possible to identify you from your submitted questionnaire, so you will not be able to withdraw your consent at a later date.)

What are the possible benefits and risks of taking part?
Benefits of taking part in this study include aiding research to understand the process of introducing graduate-level entry routes into policing at constable rank. The main beneficiary of the study is the researcher, who will use the data as part of their work for their Doctoral thesis (PhD).

Whilst no risks are anticipated for the researcher, any risk of a respondent's opinions being revealed even where anonymity was promised will be minimised. This risk will be managed by reminding participants who respond to the questionnaires, not to provide any identifying personal information. Any such information will be redacted by the researcher prior to any data processing and the data itself will not be processed, retained, or recorded.

The data retained for analysis will not include any data which could be reasonably expected to be able to identify any participant through its manipulation in any subsequent analysis. The only individuals with access to any person's identity or identifying information will be the researcher, and the two supervisors. Any, and all, such personal data will be deleted from any electronic or other storage files or media immediately following the conclusion of the data collection stage of the research process.

Will what I say or do in this study be kept confidential?
You will not be asked to give your name or any identification in your completion of the on- line questionnaire. It will not be possible for the researcher, or anyone else, to identify you from any data or responses you provide.

Only the researcher and their two supervisors will have access to the data, which will be stored by the researcher in accordance with the Buckinghamshire New University policy on data security. The anonymised data will be used for dissertation / thesis and may form part of a published article or a conference/seminar paper.

The data generated during the research will be destroyed once the dissertation / thesis has been marked, unless the data is likely to be used for a publication and/or a conference/seminar paper. In this case, it will be transferred to the supervisor and kept for a period of ten years after the completion of the research project.

Who has reviewed the study?
This study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee at Buckinghamshire New University.

If you have any additional questions regarding this study, please contact the researcher, an / or their supervisors using the details below.

Researcher-

Mr. John Nesbitt, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141
e-mail john.nesbitt@bucks.ac.uk

Supervisors –

Dr. Dorin Festeu, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141
e-mail dorin.festeu@bucks.ac.uk

Dr. Chris Sambrook, Buckinghamshire New University, Queen Alexandra Road, High Wycombe, Bucks, HP11 2JZ
01494 522141
e-mail christopher.sambrook@bucks.ac.uk

Thank you for taking time to read this information.

Appendix 4 Survey questions

Questions and options
1. What is your age? 16-19 ☐ 20-24 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-39 ☐ 40-44 ☐ 45-49 ☐ 50+ ☐
2. Using the attached list of Ethnicity Codes, please select the one which best describes your ethnicity?
3. Are you – Female ☐ Male ☐ Other ☐
4. What best describes your current situation? Currently employed as a police officer. ☐ If you selected this answer, go to question 5. Currently not employed as a police officer ☐. If you selected this answer, go to question 6.
5. What was your highest academic qualification on joining the police? None ☐ GCSE, NVQ Level 3 or equivalent ☐ 'A' level, NVQ Level 4 or equivalent ☐ Degree or equivalent ☐ Postgraduate or equivalent ☐
6. Which of the following best describes your current programme of study? Not a police officer but studying the Degree in Professional Policing at a university. ☐ Police officer following the IPLDP. ☐ Police officer studying the degree apprenticeship programme. ☐ Police officer studying the Degree-holder programme. ☐ Police officer studying the Detective degree-holder programme. ☐
7. What year of your police training, or university degree study are you currently in? Year 1 ☐ Year 2 ☐ Year 3☐
8a. If you are a police officer, which police force did you join? (If you are not a police officer, please go to question 8b.)
8b. If you are not a police officer, which University are you studying with?
9. What I have learned from studying on the programme is: Not useful in my future role 1 2 3 4 5 very useful in my future role
10. What I have learned from studying on the programme is: Not interesting 1 2 3 4 5 very interesting
11. What I have learned from studying on the programme is: Not difficult 1 2 3 4 5 very difficult
12. The most interesting topics that I have studied are: (please list as many as you wish)
13. The least interesting topics that I have studied are: (please list as many as you wish)
14. The most useful topics that I have studied are (please list as many as you wish)
15. The least useful topics that I have studied are (please list as many as you wish)
16. The most difficult topics that I have studied are (please list as many as you wish)
17. The least difficult topics that I have studied are (please list as many as you wish)
18. Thinking of my learning experience, overall, the organisation of the learning was: Very inefficient 1 2 3 4 5 very efficient
19. Thinking of my learning experience, overall, the organisation of the learning was: Not stimulating 1 2 3 4 5 very stimulating
20. Thinking of my learning experience, overall, the organisation of the learning made it: Not enjoyable 1 2 3 4 5 very enjoyable
21. Thinking of my learning experience, overall, what I have learned helped me become a better police officer. Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 to a very high extent

Appendix 5 Semi-structured interview questions

Change management issues.
(Introduction and explanation of the aim of the interview.)
1. Thinking in terms of change management processes, (Lewin's (1951) model of unfreeze, change, refreeze) how do you think the initial change towards graduate-level entry programmes within policing was managed?
2. What were / are the barriers and enablers for this process of change? How were these (effectively) managed?
3. Given the announcement in November 2022 by the Home Secretary, what implications do you think running non-degree-level training for new recruits into police forces will have? (Consider recruits, police forces, and partner universities.)
4. What expectation is there that police forces will continue to utilise the PCDA and DHEP routes in a) the Home Office, b) the College of Policing, c) amongst Chief Police Officers and Police and Crime Commissioners?
5. How do you think this will affect the working relationships between police forces and universities?
6. How do you think this changed approach will impact on the PEQF, and the principle of police education, as opposed to police training?
7. Will police (further) professionalisation remain a key objective for the main stakeholders? (What will police recruitment / training / education look like in five years' time?)
8. Sixty-eight percent of PPD students appear to find their study programme useful compared with thirty percent of PCDA, and forty-three percent of DHEP students. What factors may be producing these differences? (Overall, it was 46%)
9. Sixty-eight percent of PPD students appear to find their study programme interesting, compared with twenty-six percent of PCDA, and fifty-seven percent of DHEP students. What factors may be producing these differences? (Overall, it was 48%)
10. Across all entry routes, the most interesting topics were core policing (16%); operational powers (16%). The least useful topics were evidence-based policing (17%); academic skills (16%) and police culture and history (16%). What factors might be producing these results?
11. Across all entry routes, the most useful topics were core policing (22%); operational powers (21%) however, 24% identified no topics as being the most useful. The least useful topics were academic skills (13%) and evidence-based policing (13%). However, 30% identified no topics as being the least useful. What factors might be producing these results?

Appendix 6 Survey data coded

Respndent No.	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Status	Education	Programme	Year	Force	University	Usefulness	Interest	Difficulty
1	5	1	1	1	5	4	2	4	9	1	3	3
2	2	1	2	1	3	3	1	4	9	2	2	3
3	3	1	1	1	2	3	1	4	9	3	3	4
4	3	1	1	1	4	4	2	4	9	1	2	3
5	2	13	1	1	4	4	1	4	9	3	2	4
6	2	1	1	1	3	3	1	3	9	1	2	2
7	5	1	2	1	3	3	1	3	9	3	3	2
8	2	1	1	1	3	3	2	3	9	1	1	3
9	2	1	1	2	6	1	3	5	3	3	4	5
10	2	1	1	1	6	1	1	5	3	5	4	4
11	3	1	2	1	3	3	1	3	9	3	3	2
12	2	1	2	2	6	1	1	5	3	4	5	2
13	3	1	2	1	3	3	3	3	9	3	2	4
14	2	1	1	2	6	1	3	5	9	4	4	4
15	4	1	1	1	2	3	2	3	9	1	1	5
16	3	1	2	1	2	3	2	3	9	4	4	2
17	2	1	2	1	3	3	1	5	9	2	3	4
18	4	1	2	1	3	3	1	3	9	2	3	3
19	5	1	2	1	2	3	2	3	9	1	3	3
20	4	1	2	1	3	3	2	3	9	4	4	2
21	2	1	2	1	2	3	3	1	9	5	5	3
22	2	1	1	2	6	1	1	5	1	5	5	3
23	2	1	2	2	6	1	3	5	1	3	3	3
24	2	1	1	2	6	1	3	5	1	4	5	5
25	4	1	2	1	5	4	1	2	9	3	4	1
26	2	1	1	1	2	3	1	2	9	3	4	3
27	2	1	1	1	3	3	1	2	9	5	4	3
28	4	10	2	1	4	4	1	2	9	2	3	2
29	3	1	1	1	3	3	1	2	9	3	3	2
30	3	1	1	1	4	4	1	2	9	5	5	4
31	5	4	2	1	4	4	2	2	4	4	4	4
32	3	1	2	1	2	3	1	2	9	5	5	4
33	2	1	2	1	4	4	1	2	9	4	4	3
34	2	1	1	1	4	4	1	2	9	1	1	3
35	7	4	1	1	4	4	1	2	9	5	5	3
36	2	1	1	2	6	1	2	5	5	2	1	4
37	1	1	1	2	6	1	2	5	5	3	5	3
38	1	1	1	2	6	1	1	5	5	4	4	2
39	2	1	1	2	6	1	2	5	5	3	3	3
40	2	1	2	2	6	1	2	5	5	4	4	2
41	3	1	2	2	6	1	3	5	5	4	3	1
42	2	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	9	4	3	2
43	2	1	1	2	6	1	1	5	5	3	3	3
44	2	1	2	1	4	4	1	2	9	3	4	3
45	3	1	1	1	2	3	1	2	9	5	5	4
46	2	1	1	2	6	1	3	5	5	5	5	2
47	2	1	1	1	4	4	1	2	9	4	5	3
48	1	1	1	2	6	1	1	5	2	1	1	3
49	3	1	2	1	2	3	1	2	9	1	1	4
50	2	1	1	2	6	1	1	5	1	5	5	4
51	2	1	1	2	6	1	2	5	7	5	4	4
52	2	1	1	1	4	4	1	2	4	5	5	3
53	3	1	1	1	5	3	2	1	9	2	2	2
54	3	1	1	1	4	3	2	1	9	3	2	3
55	5	1	2	1	4	3	2	1	9	2	3	4
56	3	1	2	1	4	4	1	1	9	2	2	2
57	4	1	1	1	4	3	2	1	9	2	2	3
58	2	1	2	2	6	1	2	5	7	5	5	3
59	6	1	2	1	1	3	2	1	9	3	2	5
60	3	4	2	1	3	3	1	2	9	4	3	4
61	1	1	1	2	6	1	2	5	6	4	4	3
62	2	1	2	2	6	1	3	5	6	4	3	3
63	2	1	1	2		1	3	5	8	5	5	2

Respndent No.	Most interesting (code)	Least interesting (code)	Most useful (code)	Least useful (code)	Most difficult (code)	Least difficult (code)
1	10	9	3	3	11	11
2	2	10	11	10	10	7
3	8	3	8	11	3	11
4	11	11	11	11	11	11
5	6	10	3	9	3	7
6	11	6	11	6	11	12
7	4	8	1	2	8	7
8	6	2	11	12	11	11
9	10	11	11	11	11	11
10	10	7	11	12	10	6
11	11	12	1	6	11	12
12	12	7	12	11	7	12
13	3	12	3	12	11	11
14	11	4	3	3	11	3
15	11	12	11	11	12	11
16	11	8	4	6	8	7
17	11	11	11	11	11	11
18	4	6	11	12	7	12
19	10	6	10	2	3	10
20	1	10	1	6	12	11
21	12	11	12	10	11	11
22	11	7	4	11	3	7
23	4	10	4	10	10	4
24	10	6	12	6	2	7
25	4	11	4	11	11	12
26	4	3	4	11	4	4
27	11	10	4	7	11	7
28	11	7	11	7	11	11
29	4	3	4	11	4	7
30	4	11	3	3	4	3
31	5	12	4	7	11	11
32	3	11	3	11	4	4
33	11	7	4	7	11	11
34	5	12	11	11	11	11
35	3	11	1	3	4	4
36	3	2	3	2	3	2
37	3	10	3	10	2	7
38	11	10	3	7	10	7
39	3	10	3	7	6	7
40	9	10	3	11	8	7
41	10	10	4	10	10	10
42	4	7	12	7	4	4
43	12	10	11	10	9	7
44	11	11	11	11	11	11
45	6	7	3	11	4	7
46	12	7	2	11	4	3
47	4	11	4	3	11	11
48	11	11	11	11	11	11
49	11	11	11	12	11	11
50	3	11	6	10	10	7
51	3	7	3	11	1	11
52	12	11	4	12	11	8
53	11	3	11	12	3	11
54	3	10	10	11	11	11
55	12	10	12	9	1	7
56	4	9	4	9	10	11
57	11	9	11	10	11	11
58	1	10	11	11	3	12
59	9	7	11	11	11	11
60	12	10	3	7	3	4
61	3	10	10	11	7	7
62	11	10	10	11	10	11
63	10	11	10	6	4	10

Respndent No.	Efficiency	Stimulating	Enjoyable	Better PC
1	1	1	1	1
2	2	3	2	2
3	3	3	4	3
4	1	2	2	1
5	2	3	3	3
6	2	2	2	1
7	5	3	3	4
8	1	1	1	1
9	4	4	4	4
10	5	3	4	3
11	2	2	2	1
12	3	4	5	4
13	2	2	1	2
14	2	3	3	3
15	1	1	1	1
16	4	3	2	4
17	1	2	3	2
18	1	2	2	2
19	1	3	3	1
20	2	1	1	3
21	5	5	5	5
22	5	4	4	5
23	3	4	3	3
24	4	4	5	5
25	4	3	4	3
26	3	2	3	3
27	4	3	3	4
28	2	1	1	1
29	3	3	4	3
30	2	3	3	4
31	4	4	4	4
32	4	4	4	4
33	4	2	2	3
34	2	1	2	1
35	4	3	4	4
36	1	1	1	2
37	3	2	3	2
38	4	3	4	3
39	2	2	2	3
40	3	4	4	4
41	3	2	3	3
42	3	3	4	4
43	3	3	4	4
44	2	2	2	3
45	4	4	5	5
46	4	4	5	4
47	3	3	3	4
48	2	1	1	2
49	1	1	1	1
50	5	5	5	5
51	4	4	5	5
52	5	3	4	4
53	1	1	1	1
54	2	2	3	4
55	4	4	3	3
56	4	3	3	2
57	2	2	2	1
58	4	4	5	5
59	1	3	1	2
60	4	4	4	5
61	3	3	3	4
62	4	3	4	
63	5	4	4	5

Appendix 7 – Survey data coding

Age band	Code
16-19	1
20-24	2
25-29	3
30-34	4
35-39	5
40-44	6
45-49	7
50+	8
Blank	9

Gender	Code
Female	1
Male	2
Other	3

Status	Code
Police constable	1
Student	2
Blank	3

Self-defined ethnicity	Code
White - English / Welsh / Scottish / Northern Irish / British	1
White Irish	2
White Gypsy / Irish Traveler	3
Other White background	4
White & Black Caribbean	5
White and Black African	6
White and Asian	7
Any other Mixed / Multiple ethnic background	8
Asian / Asian British - Indian	9
Asian / Asian British - Pakistani	10
Asian / Asian British - Bangladeshi	11
Chinese	12
Any other Asian background	13
Black / African / Caribbean / Black British - African	14
Black / African / Caribbean / Black British - Caribbean	15
Any other Black / African / Caribbean / Black British background	16
Other ethnic background - Arab	17
Any other ethnic background	18

Qualification level	Code
None	1
GCSE / L2	2
A Level / L3	3
Degree / L6	4
Postgraduate / L7+	5

Course	Code
Professional Policing Degree (PPD)	1
IPLDP	2
Degree Apprenticeship (PCDA)	3
Degree holder entry programme (DHEP)	4
Detective DHEP	5
Blank	6

Study year	Code
Year 1	1
Year 2	2
Year 3	3

University	Code
Bangor	1
Canterbury Christ Church	2
Liverpool John Mores	3
Salford	4
Sheffield Hallam	5
Gloucester	6
Winchester	7
University of Wales Trinity Saint David	8
Blank	9

Police force	Code
Cheshire	1
Greater Manchester	2
Merseyside	3
Thames Valey	4
Blank	5

Appendix 8 – Topic coding for questions 12 to 17

Initial topic codes

Topics	Code
Public protection; protecting vulnerable people; adverse childhood experiences (ACE); child sexual abuse; sexual offences	1
Organised crime; serious organised crime	2
Core policing; decision making; response strategies, practice and procedure; crime recording; leadership; communication; teamwork; operational policing	3
Operational powers; powers to search; powers of arrest; stop and search; powers of entry	4
Legislation; law; going equipped; public order; theft; burglary; fraud; assaults; drugs; definitions of crime; definitions of offences.	5
Vulnerability and risk; managing risk; risk and accountability; mental health; equality, diversity, bias, and discrimination; safeguarding; wellbeing.	6
Academic skills; assignments; personal development; reflective practice; learning cycles; presentations; critical / analytical thinking / reading / writing; emotional intelligence;	7
Criminology; victimology; criminological theory; crime prevention; problem-oriented policing	8
Domestic abuse; Honour based abuse (HBA); hate crime; domestic violence	9
Police culture; ethics; professional standards; Independent Office for Police Conduct (IOPC); professionalisation; group dynamics; contextualising policing; policing in 21st century	10
Neighbourhood policing; multi-agency working; roads policing; traffic; community policing; partnership working; pluralisation.	11
History of policing; learning lessons from history; PCC; Governance; accountability; the role of the PC; HMICFRS	12
Criminal Justice System; Restorative justice; policing outcomes; youth justice; disclosure; disposal options; court structure	13
Investigation; criminal investigation; crime scene investigation; complex crime; case files; interview technique; statement writing	14
Information and intelligence; National Decision Model (NDM); NIM	15
Terrorism; counter terrorism	16
Digital policing; cybercrime; internet facilitated crime	17
Evidence-based policing (EBP); Evidence-based research; research; SPSS	18
No response; blank or 'nothing'	19
Attending Force Training Centre to learn	20
Most / all topics	21

Final topic codes

Topics	Code
Public protection; protecting vulnerable people; adverse childhood experiences (ACE); child sexual abuse; sexual offences; Domestic abuse; Honour based abuse (HBA); hate crime; domestic violence	1
Organised crime; serious organised crime; Terrorism; counter terrorism	2
Core policing; decision making; response strategies, practice and procedure; crime recording; leadership; communication; teamwork; operational policing; investigation; criminal investigation; crime scene investigation; complex crime; case files; interview technique; statement writing; Information and intelligence; National Decision Model (NDM); National Intelligence Model (NIM)	3
Operational powers; powers to search; powers of arrest; stop and search; powers of entry; legislation; law; going equipped; public order; theft; burglary; fraud; assaults; drugs; definitions of crime; definitions of offences	4
Academic skills; assignments; personal development; reflective practice; learning cycles; presentations; critical / analytical thinking / reading / writing; emotional intelligence; attending Force Training Centre to learn.	5
Police culture; ethics; professional standards; Independent Office for Police Conduct (IOPC); professionalisation; group dynamics; contextualising policing; policing in 21st century; history of policing; learning lessons from history; PCC; Governance; accountability; the role of the PC; HMICFRS	6
Vulnerability and risk; managing risk; risk and accountability; mental health; equality, diversity, bias, and discrimination; safeguarding; wellbeing; Neighbourhood policing; multi-agency working; roads policing; traffic; community policing; partnership working; pluralisation.	7
Criminal Justice System; Restorative justice; policing outcomes; youth justice; disclosure; disposal options; court structure	8
Digital policing; cybercrime; internet facilitated crime	9
Criminology; victimology; criminological theory; crime prevention; problem-oriented policing; Evidence-based policing (EBP); Evidence-based research; research; SPSS	10
No response; blank or 'nothing'	11
Most / all topics	12

Old code	New code
1	1
2	2
3	3
4	4
5	4
6	7
7	5
8	10
9	1
10	6

Old code	New code
11	7
12	6
13	8
14	3
15	3
16	2
17	9
18	10
19	11
20	5
21	12

Interviewee ‘A’.

Question 1 – In terms of change management processes, how do you think the change to graduate level entry programmes within policing was managed?

Response 1 – “I think the fact there are 43 police forces across England and Wales and 43 ways of doing something, and the cultural change of integrating two distinctly different organisations - higher education and policing - there have been a few challenges. However, I feel it is making a difference. Therefore, the process was managed, but we all need to think of how improvements could be made.”

Question 2 – What barriers and enabling factors were there, in relation to that change?

Response 2 – “Universities are businesses, whereas the police are a public service, and the associated cultures in those organisations are not easily reconciled. Another barrier was the different expectations individuals had, within both organisations, in relation to who was responsible for different aspects of delivering the teaching and managing the contracts.

However, enablers included the numerous academic staff whose background included the police service, so they understood policing culture. That helped reduce the effect of any clash of cultures, and consequently, the delivery of the programmes was a blend of police and academics using their respective expertise and skills, in partnership.”

Question 3 – In November 2022, the Home Secretary made the announcement about the College of Policing developing a non-graduate entry route to run alongside those in the PEQF. What implications do you think running non-degree level training for new recruits into police forces will have?

Response 3 – “This is potentially a big impact but remember that the National Policing Curriculum upon which the apprenticeship and graduate entry programme are based and was built in consultation with the service. So, if the service is saying this is what it needs of its new recruits, then the question is what to take out of that National Policing Curriculum to have a non-degree entry route. That then raises the

Glossary

ACPO – Association of Chief Police Officers (now NPCC)

AI – Artificial Intelligence

DHEP – Degree Holder Entry Programme

HEI – Higher Education Institute

HMIC – Her / His Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary

HMICFRS - Her / His Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire and Rescue Service

IOPC – Independent Office for Police Conduct

IPCC – Independent Police Complaints Commission (now IOPC)

IPLDP – Initial Police Learning and Development Programme

NPCC – National Police Chiefs' Council

NVQ – National Vocational Qualification PCC – Police and Crime Commissioner

PCDA – Police Constable Degree Apprenticeship

PCEP – Police Constable Entry Programme

PEQF – Policing Education Qualifications Framework

PLT – Protected Learning Time

PPD – Professional Policing Degree