

A Systematic Review of Police Recruit Training Programmes

Introduction

Policing in England and Wales is undergoing a shift towards becoming a more professionalised service. An important aspect of this move includes substantial changes to police recruit training and qualifications. Neyroud (2011) in his review of police leadership and training outlined the principles of policing in the 21st Century as ensuring the police are democratically accountable, legitimate, evidence-based, nationally (and internationally) coherent, and capable, competent and cost-effective. The recommendations of this report envisioned a more professional police force, governed by a professional body. The UK College of Policing (CoP) has upheld these recommendations, particularly by driving forward the development and design of the Police Education Qualifications Framework (PEQF). The PEQF is “intended to support the development of policing as a profession through the provision of a coherent national approach to recognising and raising educational standards in policing” (College of Policing, 2016: n.p.). The PEQF specifies that all police recruits must now hold or attain a degree-based qualification to become a police officer. This is because policing “increasingly requires police professional to be able to think critically, reflect and deliberate effectively, exercise judgement, challenge accepted norms, contribute to the evolving evidence-base, work with a high degree of autonomy, communicate effectively and be independent decision makers” (College of Policing, 2018a).

Three routes into the profession have been developed and standardised by the College of Policing: a higher apprenticeship route that earns the recruit a Bachelor’s degree on completion (police constable degree apprenticeship; PCDA), a degree holder entry programme (DHEP) or graduate conversion course, and a bespoke pre-join undergraduate degree in professional policing. These three routes are deemed to be ‘functionally equivalent’ on completion, i.e. produce recruits with the same level of theoretical and practical skills and operational abilities, and enable officers to obtain publicly recognised qualifications at the relevant education level.

The Policing Vision 2025 sets the overall strategic purpose of the PEQF as providing an improved service for the public. The “translation and application of the knowledge, skills, capabilities and approaches covered by the new educational approach into effective professional performance will play an important part in delivering what Policing Vision 2025 identifies as ‘a more sophisticated response to the challenges we face now and in the future’” (College of Policing, 2018b: 13). Necessary for this transition is to take stock of where recruit training currently stands in terms of the international evidence-base, and the associated knowledge gaps.

The aim of this systematic review is to develop the evidence-base of ‘what works’ in police recruit training by synthesising available evidence on police recruit training in the research literature. This is the second report from the review process, the first of which presented a systematic map that provided an overview of police recruit training literature and described the full methodology regarding our search strategy and quality appraisal exercises (McGinley et al., this issue). The map presented a summary of 109 studies on police recruit training, across

a broad range of contexts and themes. The resulting systematic map grouped police training related evidence into five themes: i) examining academic and/or field training; ii) examining part of a training programme; iii) how recruits learn; iv) new learning/teaching tools, and v) recruit attitudes. Review authors were guided by the aims of the study when generating these themes inductively, in particular focusing on identifying what might be most useful for informing future training programmes (McGinley et al., this issue). This systematic review has a more precise scope, expressly focussing on studies that were appraised as being of medium or strong quality and from the themes of (i) academic and field training components and (iii) how recruits learn.

Method

This systematic review aimed to answer the question: ‘*What can we learn from the evidence on police recruit training that can inform the development of a graduate level training programme in the UK?*’, with a specific focus on academic and field training components and how recruits learn.

Our search strategy involved keyword searches of 12 electronic databasesⁱ, including grey literature and dissertation databases, and searches of publications by relevant government, research, and professional agencies conducted by an information specialist. We applied the following inclusion criteria when screening records for eligibility in this review:

The study should:

1. relate to an entry level training programme for new police recruits;
2. report the findings of an empirical research project on police recruit training;
3. cover substantive content on police training, i.e. should report on at least one of the following: curriculum, structure, length/duration, pedagogy, mode/delivery method, provider, assessment of trainees, evaluation of training (including outcomes), process of modernising training course or trainee experience;
4. be available in English.

Our search and screening phase led to the retention of 109 studies on police recruit training, which were included in the systematic mapⁱⁱ. Studies were coded by three researchers and inter-rater reliability (IRR) tests were conducted to resolve discrepancies and ensure consistency and quality of codingⁱⁱⁱ. All included studies were double-blind quality appraised and rated based on three established quality appraisal tools^{iv}. Only 13 studies (12%) were of a 'strong' quality, 55 studies (50%) were 'weak', and the rest (41, i.e. 38%) were of 'moderate' quality.

Framework

This review was inspired by the realist evaluation approach (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006), which focuses on the interaction of three components, ‘Context – Mechanism – Outcome’. Realist evaluation does not simply identify whether an intervention or programme

is successful, but examines *how* it works, *under what conditions*, and *for whom*. Using realist evaluation terminology, data extraction codes were constructed to collect key information in relation to three components: context (understanding the setting within which a change occurs), mechanism (what it is about a policy, programme, or intervention that brings about its effect), and outcome (the intended aims and subsequent outcomes of a programme). Therefore, this review focuses on the training context, relevant mechanisms, intended outcomes, as well as key implementation factors that emerged from the evidence.

Following thematic analyses using the data extracted from the included studies, five main themes and several sub-themes emerged for the systematic map (McGinley et al., this issue). The first theme pertained to examining or evaluating either the academic component of the recruit training programme (e.g. the curriculum), the field training component (e.g. the tutor phase), or the entire training programme (both academic and field components). The second theme related to how recruits learned to become a police officer, based on learning theories or through cultural and/or organisational socialisation. The third theme focused on how recruits learn and the fourth on evaluating specific teaching and learning tools. The fifth theme focused on measuring recruit attitudes on a range of issues from something as broad as police culture, or satisfaction with training more generally, to views on very specific aspects of training or policing tactics. Two studies fell outside these themes^v. Since the focus of the 109 studies varied considerably, to draw meaningful insights we decided to hone in on specific themes for an in-depth synthesis. Following consultation with the research project's Working Group^{vi}, two of the five themes, namely, a) academic and/or field training, and b) how recruits learn, are focused on in this review.

This review synthesises 33 of the studies appraised to be 'strong' (seven studies) and 'moderate' (26 studies) on methodological grounds within these two specific themes. Of the 33 included studies, 19 (58%) employed a mixed-methods approach, 13 (39%) adopted qualitative methods and one study (3%) used a purely quantitative approach. Appendix A provides further details on the method used, quality rating and theme for each included study.

Context

This section gives an overview of the contexts within which police recruit training programmes operate. Within the realistic evaluation framework, it is important to examine context as "programs are always introduced into pre-existing social contexts and... these prevailing social conditions are of crucial importance when it comes to explaining the successes and failures of social programs" (Pawson and Tilley, 1997: 70).

There was significant variation in the context of recruit training programmes of the 33 studies reviewed here. Over half the studies (20 studies; 56%) examined recruit training programmes in the United States (US). Five studies (14%) examined training programmes from the United Kingdom (UK). Other countries examined were Australia (3 studies; 8%), Europe (3 studies; 8%), Canada (2 studies; 6%), and one each from Saint Lucia, South Asia and South-east Asia (country not specified).

The bulk of the evidence stems from the UK and the US, thus the focus of this review is on studies from these two countries. Training was most commonly provided by a training academy, and often in partnership with a university or a college. Two of these programmes in the US led to the attainment of a Bachelor's degree (Heslop, 2013; Vander Kooi, 2006).

Timing of Training

Whereas recruit training occurs in the UK post-employment, the US had both pre-join and post-join models (Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). Heslop (2013) found that in some parts of the US there is heavy reliance on the 'pre-join' model, whereby recruits pay for their own training before joining the police. This has economic advantages, particularly for smaller forces under financial pressure, and allows students to ascertain if they are suited to policing before employment. This research, however, did not specifically examine whether the funding model had an impact on either the motivation or achievement of recruits.

Recruit Prior Education

A range of pre-employment educational experience of recruits was reported in the studies. Recruits having some form of higher education degree ranged between 28% and 78% (Chan *et al.*, 2003; Novakowski 2003; Hundesmarck, 2004; Morrow, 2008; De Schrijver and Maesschalck, 2015; Deverge, 2016). Yet little else was inferred about the impact this might have had on either the quality of training, recruit success (or otherwise), or outcome/s of training. The only comparative study suggested recruits with higher education backgrounds performed better in cognitively oriented tasks than those without a degree (Deverge 2016).

Training Structure

Most training programmes (17 of the 23 studies that mentioned training structure; 74%) were delivered in standalone blocks of academic and field training components, for example, with 20 weeks of academic and skills training in a training academy, followed by 10 weeks field training at a police force (Hendricks, 2014). Alternatively, programmes were structured with the first block in the academy, second block in field training, and a final block returning to the academy (e.g. Novakowski, 2003). Five studies described training programmes with interspersed periods of academic and field training components. The field training component also appeared to be longer in the US, compared to the UK training studies (for example, 14-18 weeks for some US programmes compared with 10 weeks in some of the UK programmes). Training structure is critical for engendering the integration of theory and practice, which is discussed further in the following section. Interspersing academic content with field training, and then providing an opportunity for students to come back to the academy to reflect on their learning in the field facilitates the assimilation.

Overall, there are substantial gaps in the descriptive aspects of the training programmes in the reviewed studies. In fact, some only examined part of the programme, such as just the field training aspect and, as such, did not describe other aspects of the programme.

Mechanisms

A wide range of mechanisms were identified within the 33 studies, which fit broadly within two categories: learning and teaching strategies and integrating theory and practice. Mechanisms are the key factors that relate to “understanding what it is about a program which makes it work” (Pawson and Tilley, 1997: 66). Of the included studies, 13 studies (39.4%) merely mentioned some mechanism/s, 14 studies (42.4%) found some evidence of effective mechanisms and in six studies (18.2%) no mechanisms were identified^{vii}.

Learning and teaching mechanisms

At a broad level, two student-centred learning theories which contained specific mechanisms to encourage effective learning featured in the studies. These were andragogy and problem-based learning (hereafter referred to as PBL). Andragogy is a learning philosophy specifically relating to the teaching of adults, as opposed to children (known as pedagogy, Vodde, 2008). Andragogy emphasises active, as opposed to passive, involvement of the learner in the learning process, and builds on existing knowledge and experience. Andragogy also recognises that adults have different learning styles (Charles, 2000; Chappell, 2007; Shipton, 2009; McCay, 2011) which was identified as a mechanism in nine (27.3%) of the included studies.

PBL follows a similar approach to andragogy in that it is “learner-centred and emphasise[s] experiential learning with passive facilitation and active learning” (Letic, 2016: 25). PBL was identified as a mechanism in five (15.2%) of the included studies and emphasises working through problems in a collaborative way. The goal or outcome of PBL is to develop the learner’s active participation in interaction with others and developing problem-solving and critical thinking skills (King Stargel, 2010; Vander Kooi, 2006, Shipton 2009).

A number of specific mechanisms, such as practical scenario based learning and active involvement of learner, accorded with the principles of andragogy and PBL (McCay, 2011: 87; Vander Kooi, 2006; Vodde, 2008; Seggie, 2011). Studies found that learning techniques such as group discussions, simulation exercises, hypothetical case scenarios, PBL activities, the use of the case method, narration of stories about actual experiences, build on the experiences of the learner, thus enhancing the learning process (Vodde, 2008; Poradzisz, 2004). This echoes research on new entrants in other professions which found students prefer and respond well to practical learning, as opposed to traditional lecture-based teaching (Belur, Agnew Pauley and Tompson 2018).

The evidence suggests caution in the use of scenario based learning, specifically highlighting that it is not to be confused with ‘war stories’. ‘War stories’ are informal lessons told by trainers to students, and are generally considered to be a barrier to recruit learning (Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). It was commonly found that recruits are highly receptive to ‘war stories’. The content of these stories and the message conveyed is, however, often in direct contrast to the style of policing being taught in the curriculum, such as, community policing (Conti, 2011; Foley, 2014; Hendricks, 2014); thus providing a distorted image of actual working conditions and job content, which is unhelpful.

Some studies emphasised the importance of constructing knowledge based on prior experiences, which involved debate and discussion to challenge recruits' prior learning and encourage different perspectives (Shipton, 2009; Rantatalo and Karp, 2016), leading to better retention, integration and application of knowledge (Lettic, 2016).

Nine (27.3%) of the included studies stressed the importance of reflection, including group or collective reflection, which involves thinking about the way things were done, what the impact was and how it could be done differently for better results (Vodde, 2008; Rantatalo and Karp, 2016). Reflection and the use of 'reality checks' challenge students' views, pre-conceived knowledge, past experiences or attitudes and reframe them within the correct context (Heslop, 2011a; Charles, 2000).

The key to these mechanisms firing was considered to be effective facilitation and leadership by academic and field trainers and tutors. The evidence suggests that seamless integration of andragogy, combined with learner-oriented teaching methods that encourage group discussion and reflection on practice at both the individual and collective levels is effective in delivering curricula and encouraging critical thinking skills.

Integrating theory and practice

Integrating theory and practice was mentioned as a mechanism in seven studies (21.2%), however these were seldom articulated clearly. Mechanisms included: consistency between the academic learning component and field training component through the application of learning principles; the role of the tutor; and reflection and debriefing between the recruit and the tutor.

The evidence revealed that in designing recruit training programmes to maximise learning, consideration must be given to course structure. As mentioned previously, when combining academic and practical components of the course, an interspersed structure will provide more opportunities for recruits to apply what they have learnt in practice, and to reflect on what they have experienced operationally, to facilitate the integration of theory and practice. This can include introducing time spent back in the classroom while recruits are in the field training phase (Stanislas, 2013), or interspersing classroom learning with community placements (Heslop, 2011a). However, the timing of these interspersed periods is critical. To optimise the field training or placement, recruits should have enough understanding of the theory and context to be able to learn from observation and basic minimum exposure to operational practice, but at the same time not so early as to place them or others in any harm or danger.

During the field training phase, recruits get their first opportunity to apply what they have learnt in the classroom in practice, as well as begin to experience police socialisation (Green, 2001; Hundesmark, 2004; Chappell, 2007). It also allows tutors and trainers to observe recruits' performance and witness their development (Novakowski, 2003). Field training ought to complement academic content, to successfully integrate theory with practice so that knowledge can be applied to practice environments and to avoid cognitive dissonance that may arise otherwise (Chan *et al.*, 2003; Hundesmark, 2004; Rantatalo and Karp, 2016; Charles, 2000; Chappell, 2007). Integrating key themes throughout substantive modules encourages recruits to construct links between concepts and see the bigger picture of what is being taught (Chappell

and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). Thorneywork (2004) provides a specific example in Kolb's Model of Experiential Learning Cycle (ELC) which is a technique that can be used to facilitate reflection during field training and link theory and practice in a cyclical process.

Debriefing is considered to be another useful field training technique to encourage the integration of theory and practice. This involves the tutor discussing a practical experience with the recruit, encouraging the recruit to first reflect on their practical experience (for example, after an incident) and then a competent tutor giving constructive feedback (Green, 2001; Chan *et al.*, 2003; Thorneywork, 2004; Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). Encouraging recruits to reflect and improve on their experience with their tutor who is encouraging, supportive and friendly rather than overly critical, is important in accustoming recruits with the cyclical feedback process that is an inherent part of problem-solving (Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Thorneywork, 2004; Green, 2001; Chan *et al.*, 2003).

The evidence consistently suggested that the importance of the tutor's role during this phase cannot be understated, as the field training officer (FTO)/tutor has a "long term impact on the recruit" (Novakowski, 2003: 147). Furthermore, "tutors are seen to be the bridge linking the training environments where the students have to contend with group dynamics and the realities of policing" (Thorneywork, 2004: 48). Tutor's approaches to their role can either be authoritative or facilitative, with the latter producing more effective outcomes for the development of a professional police officer.

Implementation

Implementation is a vital element in any intervention, including police training: "For both successful and unsuccessful initiatives, it is important for the practitioner to know what was done, what was crucial to the intervention and what difficulties might be experienced if it were to be replicated elsewhere" (Johnson *et al.*, 2015: 468). The factors identified in this section were considered important for the training to achieve its intended outcomes. Poor implementation can result in mechanisms 'backfiring', or unintended consequences. The two key areas of implementation were organisational buy-in and the role of the trainer/tutor.

Organisational support and buy in

Most of the studies which discussed implementation were examining the introduction of andragogy or PBL into police training (or a combination of the two overlapping principles). Charles (2000: viii) refers to implementing a new learning model into police training as requiring "an organisational transition of epic proportions". This study revealed that an appropriate change in traditional police culture (founded in the 'paramilitary model' of traditional training) is essential if the transition to an andragogical and learner-oriented model is to succeed. The 'paramilitary model', characterised by hierarchy, obedience to authority, isolation, stress and discipline, was identified as a particular barrier to recruit learning (Conti, 2000; Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Stanislas, 2013). The influence of police culture was similarly identified as an impediment to newer, more innovative models of policing in that

there exists a “subcultural preference towards traditional policing” over new models such as community policing and problem-based policing (Chappell, 2007: 501). This suggests that an appropriate change in police culture is an essential pre-requisite if training reform is to become embedded.

Police culture has a natural impact on how recruits are socialised into the organisation. Recruits are receptive to the environments within which they experience operational police work (Conti, 2011), and the effect of ‘traditional’ police socialisation, characterised by obedience to authority, stress and hierarchy, is contrary to the academic development of the independent, critical thinking and problem-solving recruit (Conti, 2000; Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Conti, 2011). Integrating theory and practice was often forfeited within the training programmes, whereby operational policing, often referred to as “real police-work” (Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010: 195), was privileged over academy work that was “scenarios” and “made up reality” (Chan *et al.*, 2003: 155), indicating a lack of understanding of these teaching and learning techniques. Moving away from the ‘traditional academy model’, is one way to counteract the negative aspects of recruit socialisation and police culture, which have been shown to hinder recruit learning. Other benefits include exposing recruits to varied environments, such as schools, hospitals, and charities helps recruits to understand diverse communities and the workings of allied organisations similar to those they will eventually work in (Conti, 2000; Vodde, 2008, Heslop 2011a).

Another barrier that can arise from a lack of support from the organisation, or poor implementation, is a lack of adequate resources for recruits (King Stargel, 2010; Stanislas, 2013; Foley, 2014). This can include equipment that aids recruits in their learning, such as access to computers or a library, as well as physical attributes of the learning environment. Facilitation of specific learning activities, such as group discussion and debate, is aided or obstructed by conducive physical environments. Importantly, organisations must avoid the “quantity over quality” policy, whereby students are over-recruited, thereby limiting staff-student ratios and putting pressure on existing resources (Foley, 2014: 207).

The importance of field training in facilitating the integration of theory and practice, as well as exposing recruits to operational police work and socialisation into the culture, cannot be stressed enough. Organisational buy-in ensures that field training is organised and delivered to be effective. The most significant factor in field training is a supportive and effective tutor constable or FTO. Failure of field tutors/trainers to acknowledge academy learning, or actively privilege operational training over academic learning, was argued by a number of studies as being counterproductive and detrimental to the training process.

Key to effective field training is that recruits remain with the same tutor for their field training period. This involves having adequate number of tutors available to meet the demand of recruits, and appropriate scheduling. Continual change of tutor and environment is suboptimal for recruit development (Green, 2001). Field tutors need to be carefully selected, choosing officers who are motivated individuals with adequate expertise, training, and motivation to teach (Novakowski, 2003). Ideally, tutors/trainers should volunteer for the role or show an interest in teaching (Green, 2001; Vodde, 2008), or alternatively be selected by their superiors, who recognise their ability and potential (Thorneywork, 2004; Hendricks, 2014).

Another essential component of the field training phase is management by shift supervisors. Managers must recognise the needs of recruits, and as such be allocated shifts or jobs that are beneficial to their development. The pressure to resist mismanagement or organisational demands lies with the tutor (Green, 2001: 13), which can often produce professional dilemmas for them, especially if resources are limited. It is important that adequate time is allocated for recruits and tutors to engage in reflection or de-briefing, during this crucial phase. Implementation of the field training therefore requires support and coordination between all agencies, including the academic institution, the field training provider and all training staff (Novakowski, 2003: 152).

Trainer/Tutor Role

The instructor's role within both andragogy, and PBL, is notably different to the traditional lecture-based, teacher-focused model of police training. Andragogical (adult education) models require in-depth knowledge of student-centred learning methods which would often be contrary to the model under which trainers or tutors were themselves trained (Charles, 2000; Lettic, 2016). Similarly, the teacher's role within PBL is to "live in the background... which is a difficult role to assume when the instructor is used to be the focus of the students" (King Stargel, 2010: 140). The evidence suggests that trainers during the academy phase, and tutors, during the field training phase, both need to be sufficiently trained in order to deliver a student-centred learning model and to understand their role. This is essential to avoid recruits' frustration with their instructors who attempt to teach without the proper training and a visible lack of "buy in" from instructors (Lettic, 2016).

Trainers also must develop specific facilitation skills (Shipton, 2011), for example, withholding immediate answers to encourage students to find information themselves (Lettic, 2016), and also be conscious of when to 'check in' with students to ensure they are finding and understanding the right answers (Charles, 2000). Key to note is the importance of both academics and practitioners working to deliver training in partnership.

The evidence indicated that the training for educators is inconsistent, with some receiving no new training (Chappell, 2007), and others receiving training that was as variable as eight hours, two days, one week or up to 140 hours. These studies, however, did not indicate the quality of the training received, or if they trainers/tutors felt this was adequate to perform their role.

Training Aims and Training Outcomes

To synthesise the outcomes of the training programmes reviewed, it was first essential to establish what the training aims were and whether the studies were measuring related outcomes. The wide ranging focus of the 33 included studies meant that outcomes were seldom comparable, chiefly because the aims themselves were hugely variable. Fourteen (42%) studies did not provide any detail regarding training aims or intended outcomes of training.

Most studies did not specify the training aims, tacitly assuming it was not necessary to define specific aims because police academies are legally required to teach a curriculum with well-

defined subjects. Some authors provided a list of topics that were seen as important, such as “police integrity, the code of ethics, police misconduct, police organizational values and their discretionary power” (De Schrijver and Maesschalck, 2015: 105) or “policing activities, police technology, tactical intervention, crowd control, and commitment to training” (Deverge, 2016). Others presumed that the general aim of academies was for recruits to ultimately pass formal examinations and progress to become police officers, equipped with the skill sets and competencies needed to function as a police officer (Green, 2001; ,McCay, 2011; Vodde, 2008). This assumption was made without specifying what knowledge was required (Heslop, 2011b) or whether the success in exams translated into behaviour in practice.

Chan *et al.* (2003: 44) explains the general aim of the Police Recruit Education Programme (PREP) was to produce “reflective practitioners” who were accountable, effective decision-makers, and operationally independent. Similarly, Conti (2011: 411) notes recruits must meet performance requirements for “physical fitness, self-defence, fire-arms, and the like and “demonstrate that they are worthy of an eventual elevation to the status of police officers”. Aims for specific parts of the training, such as field training were as ambiguous as producing constables fit for independent patrol status (Green, 2001) or “to reach a level of competence in the workplace to the satisfaction of their tutor constable” (Thorneywork, 2004: 2). Aims of academies which incorporated a community-oriented approach were said to produce officers capable of developing rapport and building trust with local communities, having strong officer presence, and being decisive and assertive (Chappell, 2007).

On the other hand, some programmes focused on specific aspects of training reportedly increased specific skills or qualities, for example, increase in knowledge of code of ethics (De Schrijver and Maesschalck, 2015) and problem solving and critical thinking skills (Vander Kooi, 2006). However, not all outcomes measured were positive or achieved the intended outcomes. For example, Heslop (2011a: 340) found placements which took training out of the classroom and into the community “had only a limited effect”. Foley (2014: 194) found training produced physically fit recruits, but recruits felt they had “little or no acquisition of skills but knew how to take a direction from authority”.

Given that many studies did not even identify clear training aims there was under-reporting of training outcomes within the 33 studies. Of those that did provide this information the outcomes provided by authors were mixed, ranging from successfully completing the training (for example Chan *et al.* 2003), to achieving some skills or qualities as a result of training (McCay, 2011; Vodde, 2008).

One of the biggest gaps in this evidence review, therefore, was the lack of evaluation of overall training outcomes. Without the articulation of specific training aims, the evaluation of outcomes was scattered and disparate. We were therefore unable to synthesise the training outcomes in any meaningful way to be able to conclude whether any training programme, or part of it, ‘worked’ or not.

Discussion

Here we discuss the findings in terms of the context of the training, understanding how the training works and whether there are any specific conditions under which the chances of success are maximised. We also highlight limitations of the evidence and draw out the implications of the findings to guide future implementation and evaluation of the degree-holder entry programme (DHEP) under the Police Education Qualifications Framework (PEQF) in England and Wales. Prior to highlighting the limitations of the evidence base as a whole in this area, we first acknowledge the limitations to this review. Our criteria for inclusion in this review had the common exclusion policy of studies in languages other than English. This decision was made due to resource constraints in translating non-English studies. This has however biased our findings in obvious ways. That said, we believe these biases are not detrimental to answering the UK-focused question guiding this review: ‘What can we learn from the evidence on police recruit training that can inform the development of a graduate level training programme in the UK?’

Context

In describing the training programme context, the overarching aim was to investigate the relationship of the context to the outcomes of the recruit training, and how decisions about the design or delivery of a recruit training programme can affect its effectiveness. Context matters to “the extent to which these pre-existing structures ‘enable’ or ‘disable’ the intended mechanisms of change” (Pawson and Tilley, 1997: 70). Our findings, however, showed that much of the available information on the contextual factors of training was purely descriptive, and studies did not specifically look for, or find a relationship between, the contextual factors and outcomes related to recruit training. The sole contextual factor that emerged as relevant to the DHEP was the importance of an integrated programme structure, whereby academic and field training components are interspersed, as opposed to being delivered in standalone blocks.

Mechanisms

Few studies explicitly referred to the mechanisms that ensured training effectiveness, and only a handful of studies attempted to evidence these. Nevertheless, we inferred a number of implicit mechanisms from the included studies. Overall, mechanisms were broadly grouped into two types: learning and teaching mechanisms; and integration of theory and practice – both of which aimed to enhance a number of outcomes for students.

Learning and teaching models such as andragogy and PBL were found to contain a number of specific techniques that aimed to optimise learning and teaching for recruit training. These included scenario-based teaching methods that encouraged active participation, reflection and peer learning. In particular these methods were found to increase recruits’ problem-solving and critical thinking skills which are needed to overcome the challenges operational police officers are faced with on a daily basis (Vander Kooi, 2006; Lettic, 2016).

Successful integration of theory and practice is key to ensuring the success of any police training programme. This could be partly engendered by judicious design and structure of the course, whereby there are built-in opportunities for incorporating theoretical inputs into operational practice. Especially important is the field training aspect which, arguably, is the most important period of initial training in the process of becoming a police officer (Hendricks, 2014). Both academy instructors and mentors need to have the right attitude, be knowledgeable, highly skilled, and experienced, and be perceived as such by the recruits.

Implementation

A number of implementation factors were mentioned as being important to delivering effective training. At a high level, philosophical and pedagogical changes made to a training programme require thorough commitment from the organisation, key decision makers and implementers, to the reform. This includes, at the organisational level, the introduction of policies and changes to training structure that are necessary for the change to be successful. It also requires organisations to carefully select appropriate trainers and tutors, as well as investing in training to equip them with the necessary knowledge. This ensures that training is delivered by highly skilled and motivated trainers that have ‘bought in’ to the changes in the curriculum and teaching and learning methods being introduced. Furthermore, students also feel this investment, so that they understand their role within their training environment, and they too can ‘buy in’ to the training. Changing recruit training from paramilitaristic models to encouraging independent thinking and problem solving necessitates a change in the organisational culture, which has traditionally valued operational expertise over theoretical knowledge. Any change in police culture is a long-term process. Nevertheless, evaluations expect to measure immediate results of changes in training. It is, therefore, worth noting that thorough implementation of any new learning model can take time, and the results might not be immediately apparent (Charles, 2000; Chan *et al.*, 2003).

Implications for policy and practice

The review of the available evidence in other vocational professions such as teaching, social work and law on ‘what works’ suggests several important policy recommendations for guiding the design and delivery of a graduate level conversion training programme (see XXXX 2018). However, since many of the studies on police training in this review did not mention training aims *or* focus on evaluating overall training outcomes, the evidence on whether training ‘works’ is insufficient. Training success (or otherwise) has traditionally been measured in terms of trainee satisfaction with the training or trainer, and/or their performance in exam related tasks. Thus, conclusions about whether or not the training “works” have been based on ‘artificial’ assessments and scarcely focused on the intended outcome of improving service to the public, if that could be assumed to be the ultimate goal of producing a professional police officer in a liberal democracy (Marenin 2007).

Clearly almost all the studies looked at traditional recruit training which seems to be on par with level three^{viii} training in the UK. However, the increased level at which the College of

Policing are aspiring new recruits will be able to operate at, envisages a sea-change in not only the content but also the teaching and assessment methods. Close collaboration between forces and Higher Education Institutions will bring about a shift in conceptual and cultural attitudes towards training that should assist the implementation of the new curriculum and training under the PEQF. However, in order to evaluate whether this ‘uplift’ in training has the desired impact, it is first important to articulate what the desired outcomes are and work out the steps through which the proposed new training will achieve these intended outcomes. We, therefore, recommend that the College of Policing, police forces and Higher Education Institutions involved in the delivery of the PEQF look to the available evidence in other professions, similar to the degree conversion courses referred to earlier, to guide the apprenticeship and pre-join degree courses for recruits.

Further, in order to test whether recruit training is working in the way it was conceptualised to achieve intended outcomes, the development of a theory of change is essential to underpin any new training programmes. We suggest a theory of change or well-articulated logic model, currently missing from existing training evaluation literature, would provide a good basis for evaluating the interim and final outcomes of the training programme and identifying what is working and how.

Finally, the evidence suggests that existing recruit training evaluation is restricted to the first two levels of Kirkpatrick’s training evaluation model (Kirkpatrick, 1959), focusing on eliciting trainee reaction (to the trainer, in the first instance, and then the content of the training) and assessing learning outcomes. However, none of the evaluations included in this review assessed the effect of training on behaviour modification, and ultimately on whether they improved policing outcomes in the medium or long term. Given the introduction of PEQF in England and Wales, which is a radical reconceptualization of police training, it would be in the interests of the College of Policing and various police forces to ensure that the ‘uplifted’ training programmes are indeed achieving intended outcomes. We suggest that future evaluations need to incorporate and extend beyond Kirkpatrick’s four levels, to a fifth level of training evaluation, which measures contribution to society (Kaufman and Keller 1994). This would provide the requisite rationale to justify the investment into uplifting recruit training to a graduate level.

Conclusion

This systematic review synthesises the available evidence contained in 33 studies on police recruit training across various countries. Inspired by a realist approach, the review views the evidence within the Context-Mechanism-Outcome configuration to elicit conclusions about whether recruit training works, and if so, for whom and under what conditions. In doing so we revealed that the wide range of evidence is scattered and diffuse. Although studies described the context, rarely did they associate it with the implementation or mechanisms linked to the success of the training. Underdeveloped theory guiding police training has meant that mechanisms are often left unarticulated, and even if they mentioned, are rarely tested. Finally, findings on the studies’ programme aims and outcomes were disappointingly thin. Aims were often poorly articulated and we have been unable to say anything of significance about

outcomes. The lack of any specific conceptualisation of training aims and outcomes in the medium and short term has meant that success has been measured in terms of student satisfaction or ability or successful completion of the training. As the available studies on the impact of police training are weak and inconclusive, further research might explore the wider literature on occupational training and education in other professions and more generally.

There is an urgent need for a proper theory of change and the design of logic models to guide the design and implementation of the three training routes under the PEQF. Eclipsing this, it is critical that a theory-based evaluation of the proposed training is conducted to compare and contrast outcomes of training associated with each entry route and further, to establish whether and why any particular route has been more 'successful' (or not) than others.

The landscape of recruit training is changing rapidly, however, exigencies of delivering an ambitious overhauled training programme within a short time period and with limited resources, should not allow the lessons learnt from the evidence to fall by the wayside.

Endnotes

ⁱ The following databases were searched using a list of pre-determined search terms: Criminal Justice Abstracts, PsycINFO, Scopus, ProQuest Criminal Justice Database, Global Policing Database, Sociological Abstracts, Education Database, ERIC (Education Resources Information Centre), ProQuest Theses and Dissertations, Social Policy and Practice, CINCH, Australian Federal Police Digest

ⁱⁱ Of the 109 studies, 56 studies (50%) collected quantitative data, 36 studies (33%) employed a mixed-method design, resulting in quantitative and qualitative data, and 19 studies (17%) produced qualitative data.

ⁱⁱⁱ Details of the methodology can be found in (McGinley et al., this issue).

^{iv} Studies were given quality ratings based on three quality appraisal (QA) tools and were rated as weak moderate or strong according to the scoring system laid down by each tool. The Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT; 2011) was used to appraise mixed methods studies, Critical Appraisal Skills Programme Qualitative Checklist (CASP, 2017) was chosen as the tool to appraise qualitative studies, and the Effective Public Health Practice Project Qualitative Assessment Tool for quantitative studies (EPHPP, 2017). We decided to implement scoring in order to group studies according to their strength. A different scoring system to that recommended by authors was implemented for use with both the CASP and MMAT tools. ‘Yes’ answers received two points and ‘no’ and ‘can’t tell’ answers received zero points for both tools. For the CASP tool, it was decided that from question five onwards, scoring would be changed slightly to allow the very robust studies to rate higher than studies which technically met the minimum criteria to answer each question. The ‘yes’ answer was changed in favour of ‘yes, substantive’ (giving two points) and ‘yes, mentions’ (giving one point). To facilitate the appraisal process using the three tools above, a bespoke instrument was created, using functionality in Microsoft Excel, to standardise the data input and logic rules to automate the ultimate quality scores. This instrument is available from the authors on request. *Please see supplementary material for exact scoring for each of the studies included in the review.*

^v One study looked at barriers to women in policing and the other was on predicting successful completion of training.

^{vi} Composed of members from academia, College of Policing, and practitioners involved in the PEQF and recruit training more generally.

^{vii} Details can be obtained from the lead author on request.

^{viii} Referring to the difficulty of the qualification (<https://www.gov.uk/what-different-qualification-levels-mean>)

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All studies included in the Systematic Review are marked with an asterisk (*)

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