# Safer Schools Partnerships

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Youth Justice Board for England and Wales

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# Executive summary

## *Context and objectives*

Bullying, truancy and exclusion from school are known to be linked with higher risks of offending and anti-social behaviour: excluded young people, for example, are more than twice as likely to commit offences as children in mainstream education. The Safer School Partnerships (SSP) programme is one of a number of interventions and initiatives introduced to tackle such key behavioural issues in schools. Reductions in bullying, truancy and other problem behaviours can improve the quality of the school environment and educational achievement not only for those who would otherwise be directly affected by them, but also for all children and young people.

SSP were introduced in 2002. Their common theme is the building of closer working relationships between police and schools. The projects take various forms, depending on how they are funded, and the local police's schools strategy.

- The three projects the Youth Justice Board (YJB) funded, which were designed in collaboration with the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO), have a wholely operational police officer and supporting team located full-time in a secondary school.
- Other SSP models take various forms, ranging from a 'light touch' version with one police officer covering several schools, to the more intensive Behaviour and Education Support Team (BEST) approach, in which a police officer is part of a multi-agency partnership attached to a cluster of schools comprising a secondary school plus three or four of its feeder primaries.

The principal objectives of an SSP are to:

- reduce victimisation, criminality and anti-social behaviour within the school and its community
- work with schools on 'whole school' approaches to behaviour and discipline
- identify and work with children and young people at risk of becoming victims or offenders
- ensure the full-time education of young offenders
- support vulnerable children and young people through periods of transition, such as the move from primary to secondary school
- create a safer environment for children to learn in.

The purpose of this report is to record the impact of the SSP programme on a series of education and offending outcomes that can provide evidence for how far these objectives are being met.

The evidence suggests that:

- schools implementing an SSP have been able to work effectively with police
- discernible progress has been made on many of the programme's objectives.

### *Research design*

The report is based on a comparison between outcomes for a sample of 15 schools in which an SSP intervention has been implemented, and for a further 15 schools, matched by truancy and exam pass rates, in which it has not. The strategy is to outline, for the policy objectives at which the SSP programme is aimed, a set of outcome measures against which impact can be assessed. The research design, outlined in Chapter 4, is based on a before and after matched pair comparison between intervention and comparison schools. The choice of data sources is discussed in Chapter 5.

### *Implementation of SSP*

Chapter 6 summarises the scope of projects and derives some lessons for effective practice, based on interviews with school staff. The findings indicate that SSP have had a positive impact and worked better than many had expected. Nevertheless, some school staff are uncomfortable with the idea of having a police officer in the school, and/or remain unclear about the role of the officer.

### *Impact on educational outcomes*

Chapter 7 reviews the central question of the impact of SSP on education outcomes. The research found that absence rates in the 15 intervention schools fell significantly, relative to the corresponding rates in the comparison schools. Exclusions fell in all groups of schools, to the extent that there is no scope for isolating a net impact attributable to SSP intervention. Examination performance is not found to have improved significantly, in relative terms, in the intervention schools as a whole.

In addition to these overall findings about the impact of SSP, this report looks in greater detail at changes in the sub-samples for the two types of intervention (the three YJB/ACPO intervention schools, and the 12 Other SSP intervention schools).

In the YJB/ACPO intervention schools, average truancy rates fell by 0.97 percentage points between 2001–02 (the year before SSP) and 2003–04 (the second year of SSP). The three comparison schools experienced a rise in truancy of 1.13 percentage points over the same period, resulting in a net improvement in the intervention schools of 2.10 percentage points. The YJB/ACPO school sample is too small to support statistical inferences, so this finding is a promising indication, rather than definitive evidence of a positive impact.

In the 12 Other SSP intervention schools, the mean truancy rate fell by 0.62 percentage points in the intervention schools in comparison to the non-intervention schools.

There was a similarly significant reduction across the intervention schools as a whole in total absence (authorised plus unauthorised). Within the two sub-samples, absence fell in each of the intervention groups relative to their comparison groups. The mean (total) absence rate fell by 1.83 percentage points in the YJB/ACPO schools and by 0.92 in the Other SSP schools (both relative to their comparison groups).

Statistical analysis failed to find a significant impact of intervention on GCSE pass rates across the whole sample. Disaggregating by the two intervention types reveals a mixed picture.

The mean pass rate in the YJB/ACPO schools rose relative to the rate for the comparison schools. The proportion of pupils at YJB/ACPO schools passing five or more GCSEs at grades A*–C increased by 8.5 percentage points, relative to their comparison schools. In Other SSP intervention schools, there was an improvement in the pass rate, but in net terms they fell back by 3 percentage points in relation to the comparison schools. Impact is thus mixed. The sub-samples are too small to derive statistically significant results for each version of the intervention individually, but indicate a positive impact in the case of the YJB/ACPO schools.

## *Impact on offending outcomes*

Establishing the impact of SSP on offending is difficult, because safety and offending have not been measured much in schools, meaning baseline data are weak. A few one-off surveys of pupils' self-reported involvement in offending and anti-social or problem behaviour are available. These surveys generally ask how safe pupils feel in school and whether they have been victims of offending or bullying.

Recorded crime data on arrests or convictions of young people of school age are held by YOTs, but these include only limited information on school affiliation, and so cannot at present be considered a practical source of data for most schools.

It follows from this lack of evidence on the level of offending or problem behaviour at school level that there is little scope for using changes in levels to measure the impact on schools of SSP (or any other) intervention.

It was possible however to obtain school-level offending data from the three YOT areas containing a YJB/ACPO intervention school and its comparison school. Using the standard shift-share approach, we estimate that around 139 offences were prevented annually across the three intervention schools, relative to what would have been expected had they followed the trend in the comparison schools.

## *Improving reporting of school safety*

As expectations increase that schools and children's services will take responsibility for providing safe environments, inspection frameworks are being adapted. We develop a framework for schools that could improve the targeting of support to improve the safety of the school environment. We identify some of the implications of the Every Child Matters agenda for what Children's Trusts might need to know in order to satisfy themselves that a particular school offers a safe environment for a vulnerable child.

## *Cost-benefit analysis of SSP*

An economic evaluation of SSP is presented, following standard Treasury/Home Office/DfES methodologies for valuing benefits and costs. Lack of offending data prevents this analysis being carried out for the whole sample. Estimates of the principal categories of benefits and costs can, however, be made for the YJB/ACPO schools. The findings indicate that SSP has positive net benefit. These results are robust against most challenges to assumptions as tested via a sensitivity analysis. The three main sources of benefits are:

- the reductions in truancy rates or absence rates
- the reductions in current and future offending rates
- the improvement in examination results.

## *Summary of key findings*

Referring to each of the objectives of SSP in turn, our key findings are as follows.

**Objective 1 Reduce victimisation, criminality and anti-social behaviour within the school and its community.**

There is evidence that victimisation outcomes are improving in intervention schools, particularly YJB/ACPO schools. But data on school-level offending are weak, and this should be a cause for remedial action.

**Objective 2 Work with schools on 'whole school' approaches to behaviour and discipline.**

SSP schools have made good progress towards introducing a whole school approach. There remains scope for increasing clarity about the role of staff teaching, support staff and police officers, and for improving communication between the senior management team and other school staff.

**Objective 3 Identify and work with children and young people at risk of becoming victims or offenders.**

SSP schools have sought ways of identifying and working with children and young people at risk of becoming victims or offenders. In cases where the intervention is less generously resourced, this has been harder to achieve.

**Objective 4 Ensure the full-time education of young offenders.**

SSP has achieved its objective of reducing truancy rates. It has also helped reduce total absence rates in intervention schools relative to comparison schools. Permanent exclusions have fallen across most schools, whether or not they have an SSP intervention, so it is not possible to attribute the improvement to the implementation of SSP.

**Objective 5 Support vulnerable children and young people through periods of transition, such as the move from primary to secondary school.**

There are positive signs that intervention schools are devoting greater attention to vulnerable groups, and indications also of reduced offending by the Year 7 group in YJB/ACPO intervention schools. But, in more general terms, there are few data that distinguish outcomes for vulnerable children. This limits the findings that can be derived. As the Every Child Matters agenda progresses, pressure will increase for improvements in data on vulnerable groups – and there is a significant gap to fill.

**Objective 6 Create a safer environment for children to learn in.**

There are clear signs that pupils in SSP intervention schools, particularly YJB/ACPO schools, feel significantly safer than their counterparts in comparison schools. Exam achievements have increased across most schools, so there is no evidence as yet that the improvement is any greater in intervention schools.

## *Implications and recommendations*

### For schools and local agencies

- Continue the development of closer links between primary and secondary schools in order to improve the information flow about vulnerable children and to smooth the transition between schools.
- Develop closer links between schools and local agencies (such as the YOT and the police) in relation to youth offending and problem behaviour.
- Make greater use at school level of electronic recording of attendance and ensure follow-up of truancy and other absence.
- Develop greater dialogue between schools and the police, either directly or through partnerships, about school and community safety and youth offending
- Encourage police area commanders to review the role of schools in their community policing plans, and how best to support officers working in schools.

### Centrally

- Review the possibilities of giving the reduction of youth offending and anti-social behaviour greater priority in performance monitoring and management (such as in the best value performance indicators used for the police).
- Develop a mainstreaming policy for the SSP in a form that supports school-police dialogue (e.g. action templates, criteria for selecting a particular form of SSP).
- Review YOT database software with a view to encouraging greater use and development of its analytical and reporting capabilities.
- Review data-sharing arrangements between YOTs, schools, police, and other agencies with a youth offending focus.
- Review the case for, and the means of, encouraging schools to run regular surveys of pupil victimisation, fear of crime and involvement in offending and bullying.

# Introduction

The main purpose of this report is to examine the impact of the SSP programme on a sample of schools. The principal strategy followed is to identify the objectives of the policy on which the programme is based and, from these, to develop a series of outcome measures against which its impact can be assessed. Where possible, we endeavour to make estimates of the costs and benefits of intervention in order to provide some estimate of the returns achieved on the resources invested.

In this introduction, we set the scene by outlining:

- the aims and objectives of the SSP programme
- the policy environment in which SSP has been implemented
- the form the programme has taken.

These issues are all taken up in greater detail in later chapters. The final section of this introduction gives an outline of the remainder of the report, indicating where the main issues are pursued.

## *The SSP programme*

SSP aim to promote the safety of schools and the pupils attending them. They involve the police being more proactively involved with schools, often in conjunction with other support workers. The objectives of SSP include tackling key behavioural issues in schools (such as bullying, truancy, anti-social behaviour and offending), and a reduction in the relying on the use of pupil exclusion. The working hypothesis is that by intervening effectively to reduce bullying, truancy and exclusions there will be corresponding benefits in terms of reductions in offending and anti-social behaviour.[1] There may also be collateral benefits in the forms of less social exclusion and improved educational opportunity as the school safety environment improves for all pupils, and of improved labour market outcomes.

There is evidence to underpin many of the conjectures on which the SSP rely. There is a correlation, for example, between higher truancy rates and lower rates of academic achievement (measured by indicators such as the proportion of pupils getting five or more grades A*–C at GCSE, as we demonstrate in section 6.2 below).[2] There is evidence also of a link between exclusions and offending. The YJB's annual Youth Crime Survey, carried out by MORI, shows that excluded young people are more than twice as likely as those in mainstream education to commit offences. In the 2004 survey, for example, 26% of young people in mainstream school reported having committed an offence in the previous 12 months, while 60% of excluded young people reported having committed an offence over the same period (YJB, 2004).

[1] YJB (2004); Rutter et al (1998); McAra (2004).

[2] Malcolm et al, 1996; Munn and Johnstone, 1992.

SSP take many forms, as the more detailed discussion in later sections illustrates. In essence, they all involve closer working between schools and the police. In some cases (and certainly all those using the YJB/ACPO original SSP model), they involve a police officer based full-time in a secondary school. In other cases, such as the Department for Education and Skills' (DfES') Other SSP variant, they may involve a team of workers including a police officer covering a group of schools (normally a secondary school plus a group of primary feeders).

The purpose of the increased police presence in schools, around which SSP are built, is to bring about a more effective, joined-up response to educational and offending issues. This includes efforts to tackle truancy, bullying and exclusion; challenge any unacceptable behaviour by young people; and teach them to have respect for their communities and fellow pupils, in order to:

- reduce the prevalence of crime and victimisation among young people in and around the school grounds
- provide a safe and secure school environment.

Before the SSP programme, there had been little more than a token police presence in most schools, with involvement limited to occasional lessons or lectures, and responses to calls about incidents. SSP bring a greater police presence into schools and offer an opportunity for schools and the police to find new modes of working in partnership to tackle a range of youth problem behaviour. Its introduction represented a change in school-police relationships. Police forces, well beyond those involved in the first round of SSP projects, have taken note, and a number have strengthened their links with schools.

The aim of this report is to explore the impact of SSP in terms of a number of outcome measures that can capture the extent of progress made to date on the policy objectives. In order to achieve this, we begin by articulating the policy objectives in more detail.

## *SSP policy objectives*

The objectives of SSP are listed in various places in slightly different ways. The listing we use is as follows:

- reduce victimisation, criminality and anti-social behaviour within the school and its community
- work with schools on 'whole school' approaches to behaviour and discipline
- identify and work with children and young people at risk of becoming victims or offenders
- ensure the full-time education of young offenders
- support vulnerable children and young people through periods of transition, such as the move from primary to secondary school
- create a safer environment for children to learn in.

A number of outcome measures can be identified for the purpose of assessing the degree to which these objectives are being met within a school or group of schools.

## The policy context

The SSP programme was implemented in an environment where crime reduction in general, and youth crime reduction in particular, are given high priority. Crime reduction has been a central policy theme for a number of years, as evidenced by major initiatives such as the introduction in the late 1990s of Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships (CDRPs) and the Crime Reduction Programme (CRP).

Youth crime has been a specific target, not least because of its close link with social exclusion. The YJB was set up under the Crime and Disorder Act 1998 to monitor the performance and operation of the youth justice system. Its aim is to prevent offending by children and young people up to the age of 17. The YJB funds 72 Youth Inclusion Programmes[3] in the most deprived areas of England and Wales. It is also the central body to which YOTs report.

Every local authority in England and Wales has a YOT, made up of representatives from the police, probation service, social services, health, education, drugs and alcohol misuse and housing departments. A YOT manager is responsible for co-ordinating the work of the youth justice services. The YOT identifies the specific problems that result in a young person offending and measures their risk of reoffending. The YOT then identifies suitable programmes to address the needs of the young person with the intention of preventing further offending. The YOT is represented on the local CDRP and will be involved along with other partners such as the police in the formulation of a local youth offending strategy.

Another policy development that comprises part of the background from which the SSP programme emerged was the Street Crime Initiative (SCI), which launched in March 2002, covering the 10 police force areas that accounted for the majority[4] of robbery statistics. The SCI involves a wide range of agencies working in partnership with the aim of reducing street crime.

The introduction of SSP marked a step-change in school-police liaison, and there has been a rapid spread across police forces of the idea that closer links with schools are potentially of mutual benefit. Appendix 1 documents the current status of links with schools in a number of police force areas. Progress is clearly being made in this field, led by forces such as Essex and the Metropolitan Police, and by organisations such as ACPO.

[3] These target the 50 young people in an area who are most at risk of offending, and provide interventions to help those not currently attending school back into mainstream education. They are also open to other youngsters – such as peers and siblings of the target 50.

[4] In the year 2001–02, these 10 areas were responsible for 83% of recorded robbery (HMIC et al, 2003).

## The SSP intervention

The YJB/ACPO model of SSP was launched in September 2002 in four schools. In one of these schools, the intervention was later abandoned, but it continues to run in three schools, all of which are included in the sample of schools evaluated for this report. The YJB/ACPO version is an intensive form of intervention under which the school gets full-time support from a police officer based in the school. The officer is supported by one or two project workers, and is dedicated to this one secondary school (Briers, 2004). Given its origin, it is not surprising that the reduction of youth offending is a key priority of the YJB/ACPO model of SSP.

The DfES has developed its own approach. The stimulus, at base, is a little different. An SSP approach can be seen as one strand in a broader policy of seeking to improve behaviour in schools. By tackling issues such as bullying, truancy and offending directly, and using other strategies to reduce disaffection and help young people feel more engaged with school, it may be possible to deliver positive outcomes across a wide spectrum. Reduced truancy and exclusions might result in a safer and more positive environment in which all pupils might feel more comfortable and be better able to focus on learning.

The DfES Other SSP model runs in a large number of schools,[5] although not all of these were implemented in September 2002: in some cases, it was months before schemes were launched or fully implemented. The Other SSP version is somewhat different from the YJB/ACPO model, and there is considerable variation across the projects in this group. In one variant, a typical intervention involves a police officer being attached to a cluster of schools comprising a secondary school plus three or four of its feeder primaries. This officer is part of a BEST, which is located within a broader local authority area for which there is a Behaviour Improvement Programme (BIP). The BEST is a multi-agency partnership in which the police officer is working alongside a group of educational social workers (ESWs), health workers (from children and adolescent mental health services [CAMHSs]) and others.

The majority of Other SSP intervention schools do not, however, use a BIP/BEST approach. Instead, the intervention has emerged from dialogue between police, local education authorities (LEAs) and schools. The format for police involvement with the school, and the proportion of schools within an area covered, depends in large part on the strategy followed by the police force area in which the school is located. In some force areas, such as those of the Metropolitan Police and Thames Valley Police, a high proportion of schools is covered. In others, there are no SSP schools at all. In yet others, such as Essex, there has been local agreement as to which schools are to be prioritised as likely to benefit most from the establishment of SSP. Some police forces have overhauled their school liaison policy but chosen not to label the schools to which they have provided increased support as belonging to an SSP scheme. The funding arrangements also vary, with some SSP being fully supported by the police and others involving costs being shared between the school and the police.

[5] The Crime Concern *Current Analysis of SSP Baselining*, dated 15 May 2004, identified a total of 334 SSP schools, of which 143 were in London and 84 in the South East. By early 2005, the total had reached nearly 500 schools.

The result is that the distinction between SSP schools and non-SSP schools is not always very clear. In addition, the DfES are in the process of 'mainstreaming' SSP. This may result in a general overhaul of school-police liaison and mean that all schools will have closer links with the police and other local agencies with responsibility for reducing youth offending.

In the case of both models of intervention, the schools where the interventions have been targeted have for the most part been those with significant levels of problem behaviour. The BIP areas were selected on the basis of high street crime and truancy rates. BEST clusters have been selected on the basis of schools with "high proportions of pupils with, or at risk of developing, behavioural problems as demonstrated in levels of exclusions and attendance".[6] Analysis of the impact of interventions in these areas may therefore not be a reliable guide to the impact similar interventions would have if implemented in areas with fewer problems.

As a final note on the constantly evolving policy context, it will become evident that many of the objectives of SSP have counterparts within the emerging agenda of the Every Child Matters approach. Where appropriate we make reference to these links and to the ways in Every Child Matters agenda is wider than that of the SSP. Over the long term, it is possible that SSP will come to be thought of as one important component of a portfolio of policies and interventions that collectively support the delivery of Every Child Matters.

## *Outline of the report*

Our approach in this report is to begin, in Chapter 1, by outlining what is known about youth offending from the perspective of both research findings and recent data.

Chapter 2 reviews the policy objectives which the SSP programme is aimed at achieving and identifies a series of outcome measures against which the impact of the programme can be assessed.

Chapter 3 reviews the methodology available for assessing the impact of interventions and indicates the choice made.

Chapter 4 examines the data sources and requirements.

Chapter 5 looks at the implementation of SSP at school level and seeks to distill some lessons for good practice.

The next two chapters (6 and 7) review the evidence we have been able to assemble as to impact on the range of outcome measures identified in Chapter 1. Chapter 6 has educational outcomes and the volume of incidents experienced in school as its focus. Chapter 7 concentrates on the impact of SSP on offending behaviour.

Chapter 8 takes up the question of how to develop a reporting framework for schools that could improve the targeting of support to schools for purposes of improving the safety of the school environment.

Chapter 9 examines the evaluation of SSP from an economic perspective.

[6] As indicated at www.dfes.gov.uk/best.

The final two chapters draw conclusions. Chapter 10 concentrates on providing an overall assessment of the impact of SSP by reference to the policy objectives. Chapter 11 looks at the implications of the findings and at future developments, including some of the more contentious issues such as the role of school safety issues in inspection frameworks, and data-sharing and interfacing between schools, the police and other agencies (including YOTs).

# 1 Youth offending, problem behaviour and school safety

## 1.1 Introduction

The SSP programme has a wide set of objectives, many of which have long been targets of interest for both researchers and policy-makers. Youth offending, disruptive behaviour in schools, bullying, truancy, victimisation, interventions to reduce crime, and the quality of the school environment are just a few examples of areas that have attracted the attention of a mixture of academic disciplines, from criminology, education and psychology to applied statistics and econometrics. The result is a vast literature dealing with a wide range of issues that are potentially of relevance to this study. We do not endeavour even to give a flavour of most of it, since our main concern in this report is to investigate the impact of a pilot programme and not to design a new one.

Given the breadth of the area, it is useful to have some kind of framework within which to locate the analysis of SSP outcomes. We develop one based on Gottfredson's work on interventions to reduce youth crime, which formed part of the larger Sherman et al (1997) study of the effectiveness of criminal justice interventions. The research questions are policy-geared and organised around an analysis of intervention alternatives. This makes the ideas easier to adapt for evaluation purposes than many of the more academic, discipline-based studies.

In setting the scene, this chapter gives a very brief review of previous research findings on youth offending and problem behaviour, and of the effectiveness of interventions to reduce this behaviour. It also reviews some of the landmark features of youth offending and problem behaviour in schools in order to help set the context within which the SSP intervention can be explored.

## 1.2 Literature

We begin with a brief adaptation of the Gottfredson framework. Figure 1.1 shows how problem behaviour in school can take many forms and be traced back to many influences. The local labour market is seen as having an important influence, along with school and home. Interventions to prevent or reduce problem behaviour will normally have to exploit one or more of the influences on behaviour if they are to succeed. Programmes such as SSP are designed to work through schools, but many of the activities supported will seek to involve carers in the process too. For example, quick responses to unauthorised absence or news of problem behaviour may be an important element in an SSP project. Home visits or home contacts by SSP staff (whether education workers or a school police officer) may play an important role in trying to identify the reasons why things are going wrong, and to find solutions. These kinds of measures are, of course, consistent with much of the literature on early inventions where the consensus is that support for children will work more effectively if it is combined with work with families: see, for example, Farrington and Welsh, 1999, 2003; YJB, 2001; Prior and Paris, 2005.

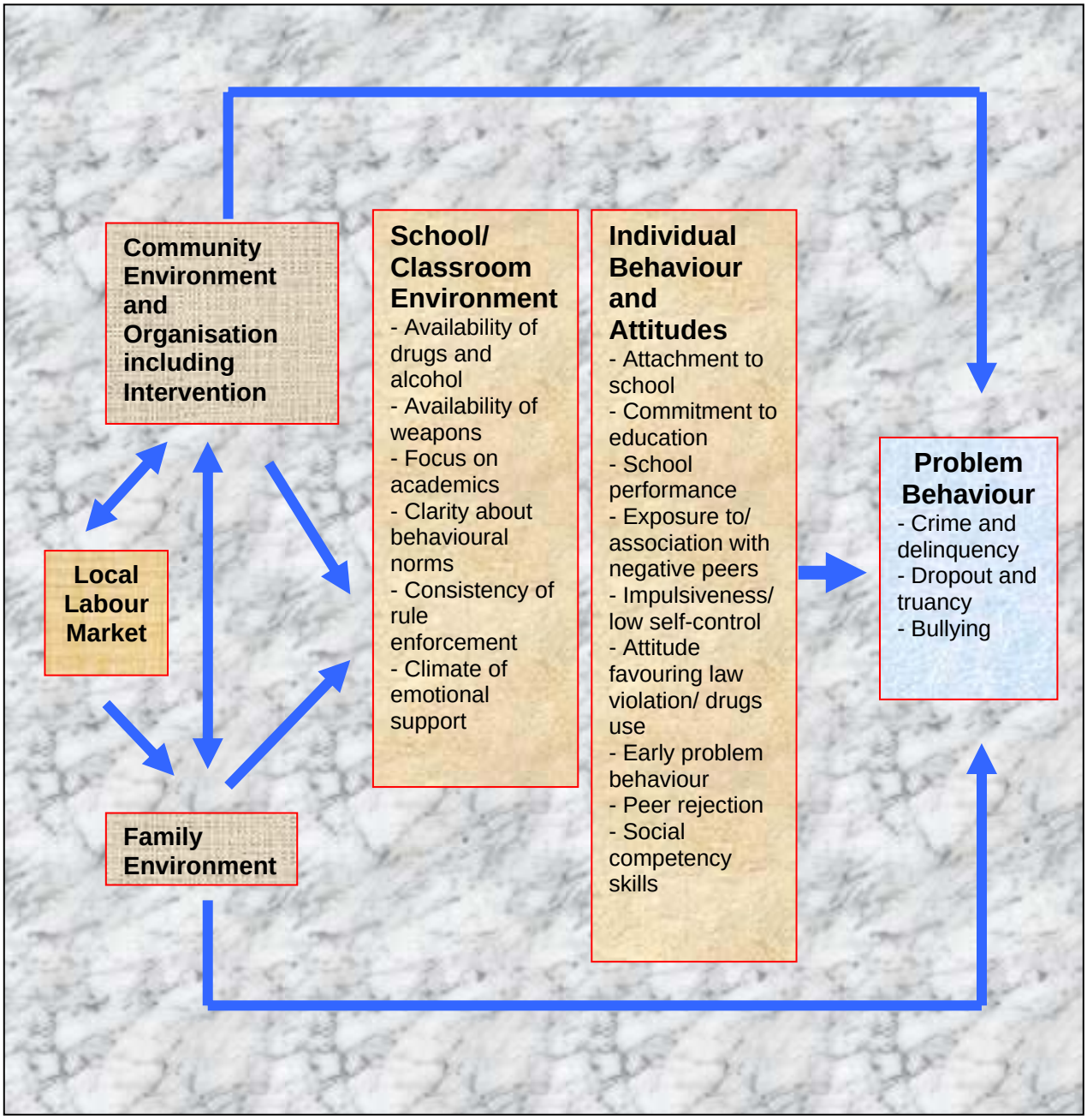
There is no single factor responsible for a child exhibiting problem behaviour. There are many risk factors, including psychological factors and parenting, which contribute to children's delinquency (Brier, 1995). It is not surprising then that many initiatives in early intervention programmes try to involve not only children but also their families. Early intervention programmes are based on findings from many studies, dating back to the 1900s, of a strong correlation between youths' anti-social behaviour, including committing crime, and their poor performance at school. Barnett (1993) and Karoly et al. (2001) reported that some such projects in the USA, including the Perry pre-school and Syracuse FDRP, successfully improved pupils' cognitive score and academic performance at school. These achievements were followed by a significantly favourable decrease in juvenile offending. But, by contrast, Clarke and Campbell (1998) found that even though the Abecedarian project had significant effects on cognitive test scores and performance at school, these achievements had no impact on youth crime. In addition to this, inconclusive results were also reported for the relationship between pupils' behaviour at school and their tendency to commit crime in the future (Clarke and Campbell, 1998; Karoly et al, 2001).

Preventing individuals from committing an offence at an early age can pay significant dividends. Not only can it reduce youth offending, but it may also help reduce offending in later life, including prolific offending.[7] Programmes based on early intervention in the lives of children thought likely to be at risk of becoming offenders have been introduced in many countries with the objective of preventing or reducing crime during both youth and the rest of the child's lifetime. Some initiatives specifically designed to improve pupils' cognitive score and school performance are expected to reduce the tendency of children to commit crime.[8]

[7] From analysis of offender-level data, it is well established that reconviction rates are higher for those first convicted at a young age. For example, OGRS scores, which measure the likelihood that an offender will be reconvicted, have age at first conviction as a significant component. See Lloyd et al, 1994; Bowles et al, 2004.

[8] For example, the Perry pre-school, Syracuse FDRP and Abercedarian projects, among others.

**Figure 1.1 Drivers of problem behaviour**



The aims of these interventions are compelling, not least because of the very high social and economic costs associated with prolific offending careers.[9] Cohen (1998), for example, estimated the cost to society of losing just one youth to a life of crime and drug abuse at a value somewhere in the range $1.7–2.3 million. The potential gains from a variety of early intervention strategies intended to reduce the incidence of juvenile criminal behaviour have been explored by a number of economists (e.g. Greenwood et al, 1998), and found to be quite high. Evidence from the 1968 cohort in the Offender Index data shows a positive correlation between the age at which an offender is first convicted and the number of offences committed subsequently. The younger an individual is when he or she starts committing crime, the more likely it is that he or she will become a prolific offender.

Evidence from UK school-based interventions provides a somewhat mixed picture as to effectiveness. Bagley and Pritchard (1998a) reported that the combination of school policies and school counselling may be effective in diverting youths from delinquent and criminal careers. These combined interventions are more cost-effective than school exclusion units, as the latter are more costly and not effective in diverting youth from criminal careers (Bagley and Pritchard, 1998b). In the UK in the early 1990s, school exclusion units were believed to be effective in tackling pupils' anti-social behaviour. Bagley and Pritchard (1998b) reported that from 1990–96, the number of students excluded tripled, and they projected that by the year 2000 this number might reach 20,000. The school exclusion units were costly however and their effectiveness in reducing the likelihood of reoffending limited. Bagley and Pritchard (1998a) reported that of a sample of 227 youths, with an average age of 19.5 years, who had been excluded and referred to school exclusion units, 63% were convicted after leaving formal schooling at age 16, and 31% were sentenced to imprisonment.

Bagley and Pritchard (1998b) reported on an alternative to school exclusion units in the form of a three-year experimental programme of school social work in a primary school and a linked secondary school. The experiment schools served deprived council estates with high rates of unemployment, poverty, crime and exclusion from school. The experiment had been conducted in Dorset by assigning 2.5 social workers to work with troublesome pupils in primary and secondary schools and to liaise with their family. At the time of the study, the cost per pupil of an exclusion unit was £580 per month (excluding other educational costs) and the cost per pupil of home tuition was £1,360 per month. The results show that the cost saving of the two project schools from non-excluded pupils was £450,550, and the net return of the project was £273,550. In comparison with two similar control schools, the effectiveness of the intervention was reflected in a statistically significant reduction in rates of self-reported theft, truancy, bullying, hard-drug use and net school exclusions.

[9] The Social Exclusion Unit, for example, estimated that repeat offending by ex-prisoners gave rise to costs in excess of £11 billion per annum (Social Exclusion Unit, 2002).

More recently the Home Office has reported on some findings from a range of projects comprising part of the wider CRP aimed at ”promoting individual life chances and reducing the likelihood of the onset of offending behaviour” (Home Office Research Development and Statistics Directorate, 2004). This included a large Crime Reduction Initiative in Secondary School (CRISS) programme, consisting of 38 projects funded across 103 schools. The Home Office report identifies factors that seem to improve interventions, including: ensuring that pupils are treated equitably and with respect; establishing a positive working environment, atmosphere and ethos; and working with parents in a co-operative and equal partnership.

### 1.3 Recent UK evidence

A great deal of information is produced about youth offending and school performance. The data come from many different sources and can be difficult to digest. In the following sections, we review very briefly some of the key developments. In addition to the normal sources, such as Home Office published crime statistics, we make use of findings from a number of surveys.

There have been a number of major youth surveys published in the past five years, providing an empirical context against which the findings reported in later chapters (particularly Chapters 6 and 7) can be compared. These surveys include findings on educational matters such as truancy and exclusions, as well as on offending matters such as self-reported involvement in offending and anti-social behaviour and victimisation.

The 1998/99 *Youth Lifestyles Survey* was based on a sample of 4,848 young people (aged 12 to 30 years) interviewed at home (Campbell and Harrington, 2000). It was a follow-up to an earlier survey reported in Graham and Bowling (1995).

A more recent *Youth Lifestyles Survey* was conducted as part of the national evaluation of the On Track programme (Armstrong et al, 2005). It was conducted in 24 high-crime On Track areas in England and Wales. Based on self-report data from over 30,000 young people aged between 7 and 16, it includes coverage of their involvement in a range of problem behaviour.

The 2003 *Crime and Justice Survey* included a youth component. Of the total sample of 10,079 people aged between 10 and 65 living in England and Wales who responded, 4,574 were young people aged between 10 and 25, and approximately half of this sub-sample were aged between 10 and 16 (Hayward and Sharp, 2005; Wood, 2005). The survey included questions on involvement in anti-social behaviour and victimisation.

The regular *MORI Youth Surveys* conducted on behalf of the YJB are a further useful source (YJB, 2000, 2003, 2004). The findings are based on responses from samples of young people in school each year.[10]

[10] The sample size varies from year to year but is generally around 3,000 to 5,000 young people.

### Educational indicators

The DfES publishes data annually on absence rates and examination performance by school. These data played an important role in tracking the impact of SSP.

*Absence*

Absence from school takes various forms. The normal distinction is between unauthorised absence (truancy) and authorised absence. The truancy rate has been the traditional focus of concern – in part, because it has been linked with poor educational achievement and problem behaviour. There has, however, been a move recently (late 2004) towards examining the broader measure of total absence, embracing authorised as well as unauthorised absence.

The truancy rate has remained stubbornly at or just above 1% for England's secondary schools for the past few years. Table 1.1 documents both truancy and total absence rates for the period 1998–2004. These rates of course vary significantly across schools. For a small number of schools, the rates are much higher than these mean values. Among the schools in our sample, for example, many have truancy rates that are three or four times as great as the mean.

**Table 1.1 Trend in absence rates, 1998-2004**

| | % absence, English secondary schools | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 |
| Unauthorised absence | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.2 |
| Authorised absence | 7.7 | 7.6 | 7.4 | 7.8 | 7.5 | 7.1 | 7.0 |

Source: DfES performance tables http://www.dfes.gov.uk/performancetables/

Reductions in truancy rates have been pursued through a number of policy interventions but, despite substantial spending, improvements have proved elusive (National Audit Office, 2005). An indication of the priority given to reducing absence is that schools have, from January 2005, been required to complete termly, rather than annual, returns on absence.

As noted above, authorised absence has become more of an issue since 2004. Although it has declined slightly relative to unauthorised absence, it still accounts for very many more days of lost schooling than does truancy.

School-level data give only the proportion of half days lost to absence during a term or year. These proportions are very useful indicators but they are silent on the question of whether the truancy is concentrated among a small number of persistent truants or is spread more widely. A number of pupil surveys have enabled the collection of individual-level data, giving further insight into truancy.

In the recent *Youth Lifestyles Survey* conducted as part of the *On Track National Evaluation* (Armstrong et al, 2005) 18% of boys and 16% of girls reported having played truant in the four weeks before the survey. Since the sample was confined to two high-crime On Track areas in England and Wales, it is unrepresentative of the national picture. But it represents a useful baseline for comparison with SSP intervention schools, many of which are also located in more disadvantaged areas.

#### *Exclusions*

Statistical data on exclusions are not published routinely at school level, although they are collected and monitored centrally by DfES. Considerable efforts have been made to reduce exclusion rates and to keep a higher proportion of pupils in mainstream schools rather than sending them to pupil referral units or providing them with home tuition. It is known from the MORI survey data reported below that a much higher proportion of excluded pupils are involved in offending than is the case for non-excluded pupils.

In the On Track surveys, there was a substantial difference between the reporting of exclusion in the previous 12 months by boys (17%) and girls (8%). Among looked-after children of secondary school age, the proportion that had been excluded was 32%. Exclusion rates were higher for Black (20%) and mixed Black/White children (20%) than for White children (12%).

#### *Examination performance*

The proportion of pupils in Year 11 achieving five or more passes at GCSE has been increasing. Care has to be taken with these data, partly because the upward underlying trend can exaggerate the impact of intervention (of whatever kind) at a school. In addition, changes in what is counted as equivalent to a GCSE for these purposes can likewise be deceptive. Changes in practice at LEA level can influence performance across all schools in an area.

## 1.4 Victimisation, offending and other outcomes

This other main group of outcomes is less well documented than educational outcomes, particularly at the school level. The reason is partly to do with the broad spectrum of behaviour it includes, ranging from bullying and name-calling through anti-social behaviour to convictions for criminal offences. As with the measurement of crime more generally, there are different approaches to estimating the incidence of youth offending, and they may give different, sometimes conflicting, results. We begin at the more formal level by reviewing developments in recorded criminal convictions, before moving to more informal types of data on offending, and finally to data on the incidence of anti-social behaviour and bullying.

### Recorded youth crime

Since not all perpetrators of recorded crime are detected, there is no definitive measure of the proportion of it that is committed by young offenders (aged 10 to 17 years) rather than by adults or under-10s. Somewhere between a fifth and a quarter of convictions are against a person younger than 17. In 2003 over 105,000 of the 484,000 offenders found guilty of, or cautioned for, indictable offences were aged between 10 and 17 (Criminal Statistics 2004). So, children and young people of school age are contributing significantly to total offending, whether or not the proportion of offending for which they are responsible is accurately reflected in the proportion of convictions. Profiles of convictions can be derived from both Home Office and YJB sources.

*Criminal statistics*

From the Criminal Statistics 2004 (Home Office, 2004) data, as summarised in Table 1.2, it can be seen that the number of young people convicted or cautioned for indictable (more serious) offences has for the most part been decreasing over the past three years. This runs counter to the trend for offenders aged 18 and over, since the total figure for offenders of all ages increased steadily over the same period. The share of young offenders in total cautions and convictions has thus been falling.

**Table 1.2 Number of offenders found guilty or cautioned for indictable offences, 2001–03**

| | Males | | Females | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Aged 10–17** | **All ages (10+)** | **Aged 10–17** | **All ages (10+)** |
| **2001** | 87.6 | 379.3 | 26.2 | 87.5 |
| **2002** | 82.4 | 391.5 | 23.3 | 88.6 |
| **2003** | 80.4 | 393.2 | 24.3 | 91.2 |

In respect of summary (less serious) offences, the picture is fairly similar, although we do not report the data here. Fewer young male offenders aged 10 to 17 were found guilty or cautioned in 2003 than in 2001, while the corresponding figure for males of all ages increased by more than 10%. But there was a 10% increase in the number of young females found guilty or cautioned, a growth rate slightly higher than that for female offenders of all ages.

The number of young males (aged 10 to 17) found guilty of summary motoring offences increased by about 5% from 2001 to just over 17,000 in 2003. The number of young females found guilty of such offences remained broadly stable at around 600 per annum, leaving this an area of youth offending dominated by males.

To summarise:

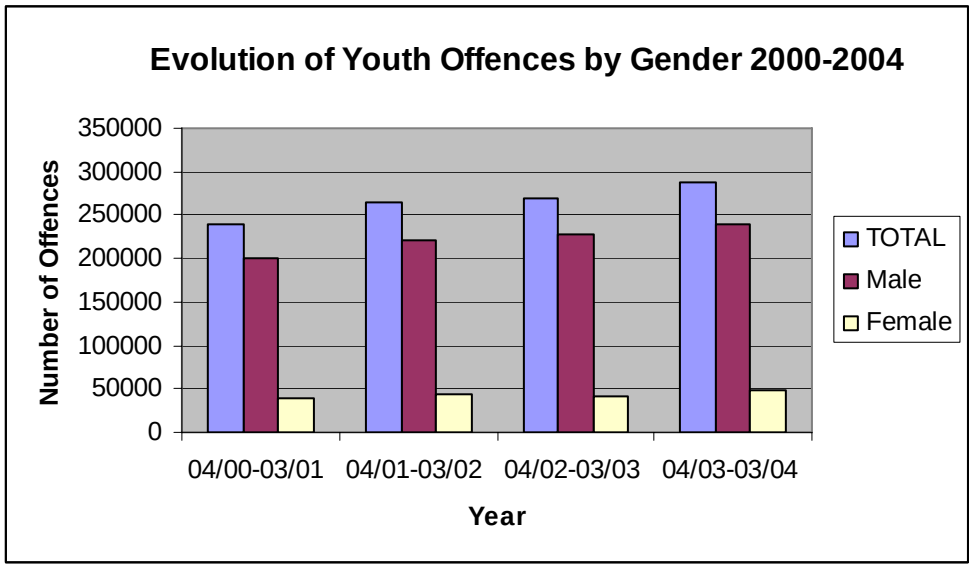
- the number of children and young people found guilty of or cautioned for offences fell slightly between 2001 and 2003
- female offenders account for an increasing proportion of total youth offending.
- among male young offenders, there was a fall in the number of indictable offence convictions or cautions (this was offset slightly by an increase in summary motoring convictions)

- the large majority (69.5%) of young offender convictions and cautions related to those aged 15 to 17, while 27.3% involved those aged 12 to 14, and just 3.3% involved offenders aged 10 or 11.

*Youth Justice Board data*

An alternative source of information on offending by youngsters are the data held centrally by the YJB, compiled from returns received from YOTs throughout the country. The total number of young offender convictions, as recorded by YOTs, increased by 19.91% between the recording years 2000/01 and 2003/04 (see Figure 1.3).

**Figure 1.3 Young offender convictions, 2001–04**

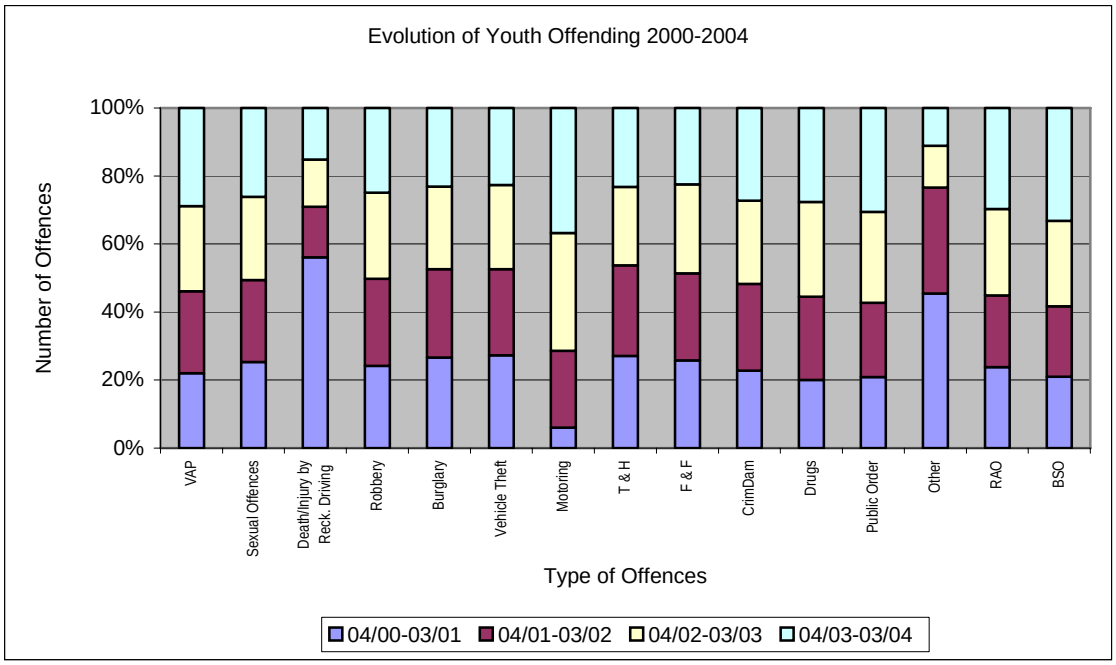



Source: Youth Justice Board

There might seem, at first glance, to be an inconsistency between the trends in the YJB data and those reported above that were based on Criminal Statistics data. The explanation for the difference is that the YOT databases were not set up until 2000. For the first year or two, their coverage was incomplete but increasing. The upward trend in the number of offences is thus a product of the extension of coverage as well as a reflection of any underlying trend in the number of offences. The YJB data should not therefore be used as yet for the analysis of time trends in the data. They can, however, subject to certain caveats, be used with more confidence for exploring changes in the pattern of offending.

The pattern of offending behaviour from 2000/01 to 2003/04 remains broadly similar across various types of offences, except in the case of motoring offences, which show a rapid increase in both absolute terms (up 512%) and relative terms (larger share of total offences) over the period. Figure 1.4 shows the share of the offences of each type that were experienced in a particular year. So if the number of offences was the same in each year, each block in the bar referring to that offence would be of the same length, and comprise 25% of the total. For offences such as motoring, where there was a rapid year-on-year growth, the blocks get larger each year. Other offences that increased significantly over the period include violence against the person (VAP), criminal damage, drugs, public order, racially aggravated offences (RAO) and breaches of statutory order (BSO).

**Figure 1.4: Youth offending behaviour by offence type, 2000–03**

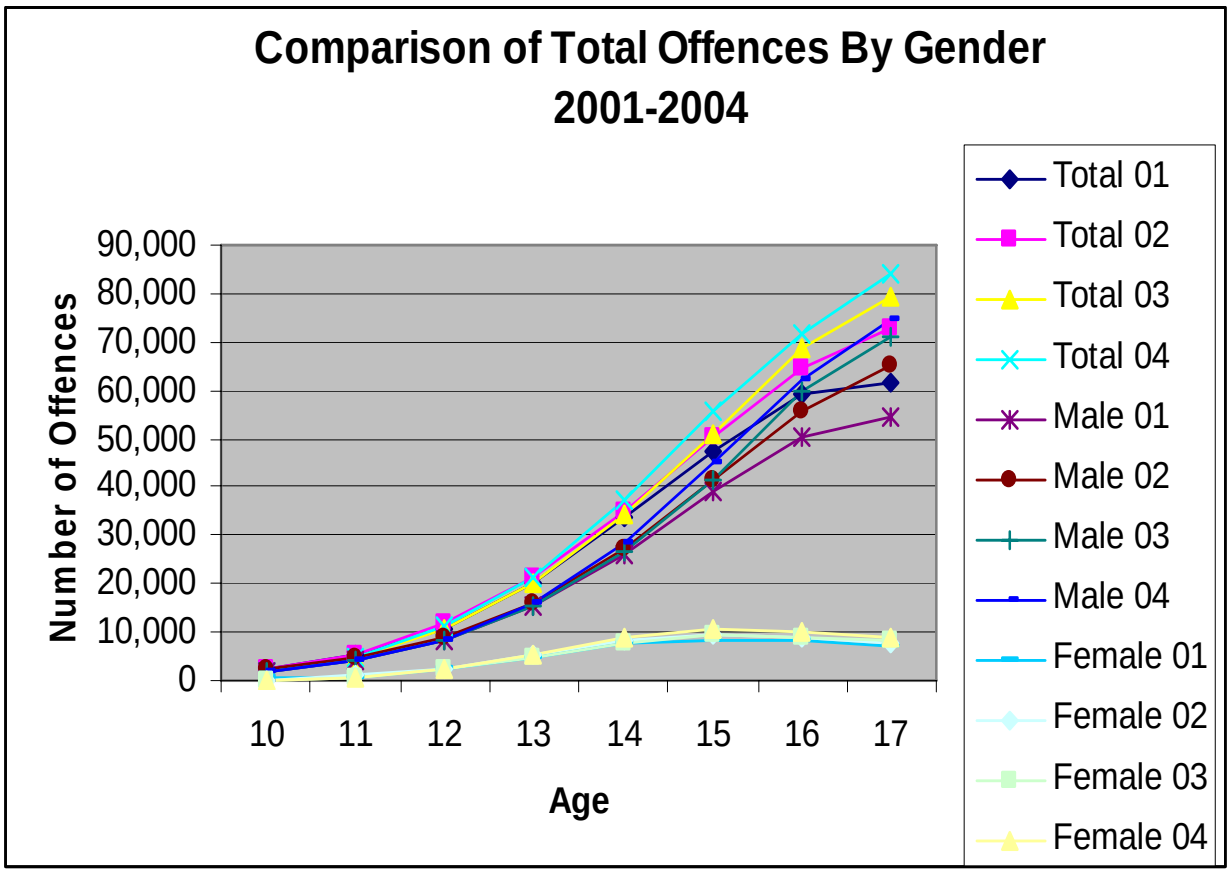



By contrast, offences showing a significant downward trend include death or injuries due to reckless driving and 'other' offences. Burglary, vehicle theft and theft and handling also show a downward trend.

The same data can be used to generate age profiles of offending by type of offence. This is potentially useful for targeting SSP-type interventions on particular year groups within schools, as well as for identifying gender variations in offending.

Figure 1.5, based on the YJB database, gives a more disaggregated picture of offending than the one in Table 1.2 (which was derived from Criminal Statistics data). It suggests that female youth offending peaks at around 15 years, an age at which male offending is still increasing, and even still accelerating.

**Figure 1.5 Age profile of youth offending by gender**




Appendix 2 contains a set of graphs in which the age profile is shown for each type of offence in the YJB classification of offending.

### Survey evidence on offending

An alternative method for estimating the prevalence of offending by young people is to use survey evidence. As might be expected, this gives rise to higher estimates of the proportion of young people who are committing offences – although, of course, there is no guarantee that the responses are reliable.

*Involvement in offending*

In the 1998/99 Youth Lifestyle Survey, 26% of young men and 11% of young women (19% of the total) admitted to one or more offences in the previous 12 months.

In the more recent On Track survey (restricted to high-crime areas), the proportion reporting involvement in offending over the preceding 12 months was 55% of boys and 49% of girls (52% of the total). Nearly double the number of looked-after children (42%) had stolen, compared with those living with two birth parents (23%).

In the 2003 Crime and Justice Survey, 12% of those aged 10 to 25 reported having committed an offence, as compared with 17% who had committed an act of anti-social behaviour and 9% who had committed both.

*Age profile of offending*

The type of offending was found in both surveys to vary with age. In the Youth Lifestyle Survey, the average age when offending started was 13.5 for boys and 14 for girls. Among males, fighting and criminal damage account for two-thirds of offences among 12 to 13-year-olds, half among 14 to 15-year-olds and fewer than one in 20 among 26 to 30-year-olds. In the On Track survey, the proportion of children reporting having stolen in the previous 12 months was 19% for Year 7, rising to 34% for Years 10 and 11.

For boys, the peak age of offending, if fraud and workplace thefts are excluded, is 15; for girls, it is 14, whether or not fraud and workplace thefts are excluded.

*Detection*

Overall, 4% of men and 1% of women in the Youth Lifestyle Survey said they had been cautioned or taken to court in the previous 12 months on at least one occasion. Among those reporting that they had offended, 12% said they had been cautioned or taken to court in the previous 12 months on at least one occasion. This figure is of particular significance when assessing the impact of intervention on offending, since it suggests that nearly 90% of youth offending is not being detected. Measures based on a reduction in the number of young offenders warned or taken to court may thus very substantially underestimate the overall impact of intervention. Among persistent offenders (those who had offended on three or more occasions), 18% said they had been cautioned or taken to court.

**Other survey evidence**

*Anti-social behaviour*

The 2003 Crime and Justice Survey contained quite a lot of questions on anti-social behaviour. Findings included the following.

- 17% of 10 to 25-year-olds reported having committed at least one act of anti-social behaviour, with the proportion higher for males (around a third) than for females (around a fifth).
- Among 10 to 16-year-olds, the proportion rises to 32%.
- Individuals in the 14 to 16-year-old group are most likely to commit anti-social behaviour (41%).

*Carrying weapons*

In the On Track survey, 15% of boys had carried a knife to school in the previous 12 months, compared with 4% of girls. The proportion of children and young people carrying a knife to school almost doubles between Year 7 (6%) and Years 10 and 11 (12%). A much higher proportion of looked-after children (21%) reported carrying a knife to school than children from other family types.

The On Track survey sample was based in high-crime areas. It is not surprising then that the 2003 Crime and Justice Survey, which is designed to be more broadly representative, finds a somewhat lower proportion (6.0%) of respondents aged 10 to 16 reporting that they have carried weapons.

*Crime and victimisation*

Looking at youth offending from the perspective of school pupils as victims of crime, the principal evidence comes from successive MORI Youth Survey (YJB 2000, 2003, 2004). As with all areas of crime, some offences will go unrecorded, particularly in an environment such as a school where pupils may be unwilling to report incidents. It is only through anonymous surveys that there is much chance of getting some idea of the scope of the problem, as is generally suggested by the increasing reliance on the British Crime Survey results for assessing the incidence of crime (see Dodd et al, 2004). The experience of crime by the young people in school responding to the MORI survey is summarised in Table 1.6.

**Table 1.6 Children's experience of crime, 2004**

| | |
|---|---|
| Been threatened by others | 26% |
| Had something other than a mobile phone stolen | 15% |
| Had belongings damaged or destroyed on purpose | 14% |
| Been physically attacked | 13% |
| Had a mobile phone stolen | 6% |
| Been racially abused | 4% |
| Been racially attacked | 1% |
| Been the victim of some other offence | 3% |
| Been the victim of none of these | 39% |
| | |
| Number in sample: | 4,715 |

Source: MORI Youth Survey, 2004 (YJB, 2004)

This suggests that 61% of young people in school were victim of one or more offences, although many of the offences may have taken place away from school.

The 2003 Crime and Justice Survey asked respondents about their experience of being victims of crime or other forms of problem behaviour. The key findings were as follows.

- The rates of victimisation of young people aged 10 to 15 and 16 to 25 (about 8%) are significantly higher than that of their adult counterparts (about 2%).
- 22% of young people aged 10 to 15 had been bullied in the last 12 months.
- Over 35% of young people aged 10 to 15 had experienced being the victim of at least one personal crime in the last 12 months. For those aged 16 to 25, the proportion was slightly lower (32%). Both proportions are well above the level of victimisation for those aged 26 to 65 (14%).
- Young people aged 10 to 15 tend to experience repeat victimisation in respect of violent offences. The results show that 19% of this age group had experienced five or more incidents in the last 12 months.

- Ethnicity does not affect the likelihood of victimisation of personal crime. White young people are less likely to be victims of robbery; however, they tend to be victims of assault as oppose to their Black and other Minority Ethnic counterparts.

*Safety of the school environment*

Falling victim to crime is one thing. But, for many children as for many adults, fear of becoming a victim of crime may loom large and reduce the quality of life. Results from the MORI Youth Survey (YJB, 2004), summarised in Table 1.7 below, indicate that over a third of pupils are worried about being bullied at school, while half are worried about the prospect of becoming a victim of theft, 55% fear physical assault, and a third are worried about being the victim of racism. The report noted that the level of young people's concerns about becoming a victim of bullying or crime at school was largely consistent with the position five years before.

**Table 1.7 Young people in school and their fear of victimisation: findings from MORI (2004)**

| | Percentage | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **1999** | **2000** | **2001** | **2002** | **2003** |
| Being bullied at school: | | | | | |
| Worried | 37 | 42 | 41 | 30 | 37 |
| Not worried | 59 | 56 | 55 | 65 | 58 |
| Being the victim of theft: | | | | | |
| Worried | 50 | 55 | 60 | 48 | 54 |
| Not worried | 43 | 41 | 33 | 44 | 40 |
| Being physically assaulted: | | | | | |
| Worried | 57 | 57 | 62 | 51 | 55 |
| Not worried | 43 | 41 | 33 | 44 | 40 |
| Being the victim of racism: | | | | | |
| Worried | n.a. | 40 | 41 | 29 | 33 |
| Not worried | n.a. | 53 | 51 | 61 | 58 |

At this aggregate level, it is not possible to infer anything about whether the introduction of SSP in September 2002 (as distinct from other interventions such as the Street Crime Initiative) is responsible for any or all of the improvement. It is unlikely that the scores for 2002 reflect much influence from SSP, although it is just possible that the 2003 figures do.

## 1.5 Risk factors for offending

In looking to shape crime reduction priorities and activities, it is almost always useful to explore the correlates of offending behaviour. This is just as true for young as for adult offenders. A high proportion of adult offenders begin offending when they are young. The younger an offender is at first conviction, the higher the risk of their reoffending.[11] It follows that early intervention, particularly if it can prevent or postpone the onset of offending, may have substantial value in relation to reducing both offending and social exclusion.[12]

Surveys are a particularly powerful tool for exploring the factors associated with problem behaviour, since they provide individual-level data both on personal characteristics and on offending.

Campbell and Harrington (2000) use the 1998/99 *Youth Lifestyles Survey* to explore the risk factors associated with serious and persistent youth offending. Serious or persistent offenders were defined for the purposes of the survey as those who have committed at least three offences of any type in the previous year, and/or one or more serious offence (assault, threatening or hurting someone with a weapon, burglary, car or motorbike theft, pick-pocketing or snatch theft). Their findings are summarised in Table 1.7.

**Table 1.7 Risk factors for serious or persistent offending**

| | 12 to 17-year-olds | 18 to 30-year-olds |
|---|---|---|
| Used drugs in the last year | * | |
| Used drugs at least once a month | | * |
| Drinks at least five times a week | | * |
| Disaffected with school | * | |
| Truanted from school at least once a month | * | |
| Temporary or permanent exclusion from school | | * |
| No qualifications on leaving school | | * |
| Delinquent friends or acquaintances | * | * |
| Parents rarely or never know whereabouts | * | |
| Hangs around in public | * | |

Source: Table 3 in Campbell and Harrington, 2000

Findings of this kind have obvious implications for the agencies involved with young people, particularly schools and the police. Similar kinds of findings emerge from the analysis of the factors found by the 2003 *Crime and Justice Survey* to be associated with anti-social behaviour.

[11] Home Office research on reconviction probabilities indicates that the likelihood of an offender reoffending is significantly higher for those whose first conviction is at an early age. This finding is incorporated into the OGRS score, widely used in the Criminal Justice System to assess risk of offending. For further analysis of the link, see Kershaw, 1993 and White et al, 1999.

[12] See Cohen (1998), for example.

## 1.6 Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed a range of statistical and survey evidence on youth offending and its effects. It makes clear that youth offending accounts for a significant proportion of total offending, and also that many criminal careers are launched during an offender's school years. It seems likely that truancy, disaffection with school and offending are closely linked, with substance misuse and having delinquent peers also making a contribution. This makes a strategy of co-ordination between schools, police and other agencies involved with young offenders look like a necessary condition for mounting an effective response.

# 2 Policy objectives and outcome measures

## 2.1 Introduction

The strategy underlying this evaluation is to use the expressed objectives of SSP as the basis for constructing outcome measures against which school progress can be compared. The following excerpt from the description of the purpose of SSP on the YJB website[13] is sufficient to motivate the development of outcome measures, which is the main purpose of this chapter:

> *All schools involved in the Safer School Partnerships initiative have a police officer based in their school. They work with school staff and other local agencies to:*
>
> - *reduce victimisation, criminality and anti-social behaviour within the school and its community*
> - *work with schools on whole school approaches to behaviour and discipline*
> - *identify and work with children and young people at risk of becoming victims or offenders*
> - *ensure the full-time education of young offenders*
> - *support vulnerable children and young people through periods of transition, such as the move from primary to secondary school*
> - *create a safer environment for children to learn in.*

The choice of outcome measures entails finding a means of measuring the success of policy objectives. Finding quantifiable variables that capture, at least approximately, the extent to which an objective is being met is sometimes a straightforward matter of selecting from performance indicators that are collected routinely. In the case of truancy and exclusions, for example, two widely used measures are the unauthorised absence rate[14] and the number of permanent exclusions per academic year.

For other objectives, such as the provision of a safer environment, choice of a measure can be much less straightforward. This may be because the objective does not lend itself readily to being quantified – for example, because it refers to subjective notions such as how safe individuals feel. Or it may be because there are logistical difficulties in obtaining the relevant data, as in the case of information on the proportion of pupils at a school convicted of an offence.[15]

[13] www.youth-justice-board.gov.uk/youthjusticeboard/prevention/ssp

[14] Measured as the average proportion of half-days of unauthorised absence per academic year.

[15] This is a matter we pursue at greater length in Chapter 8.

In terms of 'working back' from policy objectives to explore the effectiveness of intervention, it is often useful to distinguish between outcome measures, that give expression to objectives, and outputs, that indicate the actions taken in pursuit of an objective or outcome. Dhiri and Brand (1999) summarise the terms as follows:

> *Outputs are defined narrowly as the direct products of the process of implementation…Outcomes are defined as the consequences of the intervention. These can arise both during and after the implementation period. Key outcomes will relate to the stated objectives of the intervention…(T)here are likely to be wider outcomes such as a change in the fear of crime…These wider outcomes may or may not be measurable and can be negative as well as positive.*

To achieve an outcome such as reduced truancy, a school might do many things including organising truancy sweeps, telephoning carers on the first day of pupil absence, and so on. The 'output' might be measured as the number of sweeps conducted or calls made, the 'outcome' as the resulting change in the school's truancy rate.

## 2.2 Objectives, outputs and outcomes

We begin by identifying the outputs and outcomes associated with the policy objectives listed above.

**1 Reduce victimisation, criminality and anti-social behaviour within the school and its community**

- educational outputs
  - volume of crime awareness activities, patrols, etc.
- offending and safety outcomes
  - pupil involvement in offending and anti-social behaviour in school, the local community and elsewhere
  - pupil victimisation rates in and out of school.

***2 Work with schools on whole school approaches to behaviour and discipline***

- educational outputs
  - whole school approach incorporated in policy documents and school management and practice.
- offending and safety outcomes
  - self-reported victimisation
  - self-reported involvement in bullying, other problem behaviour and offending.

**3 Identify and work with children and young people at risk of becoming victims or offenders**

- educational outputs
  - listing of children and young people at risk

- activities provided to those who have been listed.

- offending and safety outcomes
  - self-reported victimisation among vulnerable pupils
  - involvement of problem pupils in bullying, anti-social behaviour and offending
  - feeling of safety on the part of the vulnerable.

**4 Ensure the full-time education of young offenders**

- educational outputs
  - twice-daily registration and follow-up of absence
  - audit of the activities of pupils following alternative curricula.
- educational outcomes
  - truancy rates of pupils with convictions
  - exclusions of pupils with convictions.

**5 Support vulnerable children and young people through periods of transition, such as the move from primary to secondary school**

- educational outputs
  - identify children at risk
  - support those identified as vulnerable
  - primary and secondary liaison.
- offending and safety outcomes
  - self-reported victimisation, other problem behaviour and offences among Year 7 pupils.

**6 Create a safer environment for children to learn in**

- educational outcomes
  - exam results
  - number of incidents at school
  - academic environment.
- offending and safety outcomes
  - proportion of pupils reporting feeling safe in school
  - proportion of pupils who are victims of bullying, offending and/or anti-social behaviour.

A mapping from the objectives onto the outcome measures is summarised in Figure 2.1, and lies at the heart of our evaluation of SSP. It could form the starting point for building an expanded mapping based on the five Every Child Matters outcomes, and for developing a format for the kind of self-evaluation of safety by schools we outline below. It could also be absorbed into the widening framework within which the provision of children's services and education provision will be inspected.

**Figure 2.1 Cross-tabulation of outcome measures and objectives**

| Objective | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Education outcomes** | | | | | | |
| Absence rates | | | | * | | |
| GCSE Results | | | | | | * |
| Exclusions | | | | * | | |
| Number of incidents in school | * | | | | | * |
| Academic environment | | | | | | * |
| **Offending and safety outcomes** | | | | | | |
| Self-reported victimisation | | | | | | |
| Bullying - Year 7 | | | | | | * |
| - Problem pupils | | | * | | | |
| - Whole school | | * | | | | |
| Other problem behaviour | | | | | | |
| - Year 7 | | | | | * | |
| - Problem pupils | | | * | | | |
| - Whole school | | * | | | | |
| Offences (e.g. theft) | | | | | | |
| - Year 7 | | | | | * | |
| - Problem pupils | | | * | | | |
| - Whole school | | * | | | | |
| Pupil offending and anti-social behaviour (YOT, police, self-reported) | | | | | | |
| - in school | * | | | | | |
| - local | * | | | | | |
| - elsewhere | * | | | | | |
| Safe environment (self-reported) | | | | | | * |
| Problem pupil identified | | | * | | | |
| Objective: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

*indicates the objective(s) to which each outcome measure is addressed

The typology presented in Figure 2.1 distinguishes between education outcomes and offending and safety outcomes. This is obviously to some degree an arbitrary distinction, especially in relation to outcomes such as truancy rates and exclusions that are likely to be associated with both the advantage being taken of education opportunities and with the propensity to offend.

By creating a mapping between outcome measures and policy objectives in this way, we open up the possibility, in the later stages of the work, of working 'in reverse' and reviewing progress made on each objective in turn by reference to the outcome measures identified as relevant to it. When reviewing events and activities within a school or group of schools, it is much easier to work by themes such as truancy or offences, etc; but taking a view of the whole programme requires judgments to be made in relation to its various objectives rather than to individual performance measures.

There is a minor conceptual complication in the mapping. The adoption of a 'whole school approach' is listed as an objective. It is not really an 'outcome measure' in the usual sense, because it is not an end in itself, as much as a means to an end. The outcomes to which it is directed are similar to those underlying other parts of the intervention, namely the reduction of truancy, offending and so on. Although it would in principle be possible to ascertain whether use of a whole school approach per se added value to the intervention, it is unlikely in practice that such effects will be quantifiable.

The principal sources of data for the outcome measures listed in Figure 2.1 are discussed further in Chapter 4 below. In some cases, it is difficult to collect such data at present even though the measures have been designed to be easy to apply in practice. We make a number of recommendations that should make it easier for these data to be collected in future. In particular, we argue that the aspiration should be for schools to be moving to a position in which they are producing evidence routinely, and in a standard format, of their own achievements in making their environment safe for pupils and staff alike. Such a self-evaluation approach has the potential to make it easier for LEAs and inspectorates (both Ofsted and Joint Area Reviews) to satisfy themselves that schools are playing their part in providing children with a safe environment.

# 3 Methodology

## 3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we outline the methodology to be used in measuring the extent of progress made on the various SSP objectives. This builds on the listing of outcome measures developed in Chapter 2. It anticipates some of the data constraints to be looked at in greater detail in the next chapter (Chapter 4), and it sets the foundations on which the substantive analysis of Chapters 6 and 7 is built.

One thing that is clear from the outset is that to evaluate an intervention with multiple objectives such as SSP requires the application of a variety of techniques. We focus in this chapter, and in the corresponding 'results' Chapters 6 and 7, on quantitative analysis of the impact of the SSP programme. Issues to do with the way the interventions have been implemented (or with the implementation 'process' as it is sometimes termed) are examined in Chapter 5.

Another thing that is clear from the outset is that we will need to include in the examination of the impact of intervention an account of what has been happening in schools where the SSP intervention has not been implemented. Changes in the educational and offending environments are occurring constantly, and we need to have some way of 'controlling' them. Without such control, it is impossible to discern the changes in outcome measures that are a result of these environmental changes from those that are a product of intervention. A great deal has been written elsewhere about the principles of research design, so we do not rehearse those arguments here (see, for example, Barnett, 1991). We concentrate instead on the choice of methods to be employed.

Where possible, we apply a research design methodology of a kind suitable for drawing inferences about whether the intervention has had the impact envisaged. In some cases, such as reduction of problem behaviour like truancy or offending, quantitative measures can be applied and a standard kind of quasi-experimental design model can be applied to secondary data sources.

In other cases, such as whether pupils feel safer at school, there is little secondary data and thus no prospect of getting pre-intervention baseline data. This limits the research design possibilities to a post-intervention comparison between intervention schools and comparison schools based on collection of primary data from a sample of schools.

In a third category of objectives, such as the adoption of a whole school approach to safety, judgments have to be made as to whether schools have adapted their policies and activities in a way that can be said to meet the requirement. These judgments will normally be based on the findings from interviews with senior school staff, although we do not normally go to great lengths to verify the reliability of claims that such steps have been taken. The same applies to objectives such as identifying problem pupils.

When it comes to more specialist features of the policy objectives, such as whether pupils have been enabled to make a safe transition to secondary school from primary school, we tend to rely on splitting sub-samples from our main samples to explore these questions specifically. The outcome measures are the same, but the analysis is limited to pupils belonging to a particular group (such as Year 7).

A summary of the outcome measures developed in Chapter 1 and the broad category of research method to be applied is set out in Table 3.1. This shows quite clearly that the kinds of methods to be applied in the case of offending and school safety outcomes have a rather different balance from those to be applied in the case of education outcomes.

**Table 3.1 Outcome measures and type of research method**

| Outcome Measures | Sources of data |
|---|---|
| **Education outcomes** | |
| Truancy rates | Secondary data: public domain: pre-post comparison |
| Exclusions | Secondary data: non-public: pre-post comparison |
| Exams | Secondary data: public domain: pre-post comparison |
| Incidents | Secondary data: non-public, incomplete: pre-post comparison |
| Academic environment | Primary data*: non-public, incomplete: cross-section comparison |
| Whole school approach | Primary data: non-public, incomplete: judgment |
| **Offending and school safety** | |
| Recorded offending | Secondary data: non-public, incomplete: pre-post comparison |
| Self-reported offending | Primary data*: non-public, incomplete: cross-section comparison |
| Self-reported victimisation | Primary data:* non-public, incomplete: cross-section comparison |
| Fear of crime | Primary data:* non-public, incomplete: cross-section comparison |
| Problem pupil identification | Primary data non-public, incomplete: judgment |

Notes:

*indicates that the principal source of data is a pupil survey

Elsewhere in the report, the term ‘primary data’ is used to refer to information from school interviews

In order to measure the impact of the SSP programme on schools, we construct a sample of schools and apply the outcome measures set out in Chapter 2 to assess the changes that have occurred. In the 'Choice of school sample' section below, we discuss the choice of schools for our sample. But before doing that, we outline some of the factors that guide the choice of research design.

## 3.2 Review of research designs available

There is a hierarchy of research design methodologies for dealing with the measurement of the impact of intervention on outcome measures. There has been criticism of the design of a lot of evaluation studies conducted in the criminal justice field. Researchers working in fields such as medical trials typically use much more refined experimental techniques for judging the impact of interventions than do their counterparts in criminal justice. This disparity can be explained partly by the fact that many criminal justice interventions have more ambitious, less readily quantifiable objectives than do medical experiments.[16]

The choice of technique is often constrained by the nature of the policy setting within which the intervention is implemented. Unless the evaluation is designed at the same time as policy pilots, it is very likely that evaluators will be constrained in the range of techniques open to them. This can, of course, result in criticism of the policy-making process in areas such as criminal justice. In the context of the SSP intervention, there are certainly some research design methods that are ruled out. The question then becomes that of finding the best available design for the task at hand. We look briefly at just a few of the alternatives.

### Randomised controlled trials

The 'gold standard' approach to estimating the impact of an intervention, sometimes referred to as a 'true' experimental design, is to use a randomised controlled trial (see Bennett, 2003; Torgerson and Torgerson, 2001). This would involve identifying, in advance of project implementation, all the potential 'test bed' schools for the SSP intervention, and then selecting a sample of schools randomly for each of an 'intervention group' and a 'control group'. An outcome measure is specified and a baseline measure on this variable[17] is taken for both groups before implementation of the intervention. The intervention is implemented and then, following an interval sufficiently long for the main effects to 'work through', a further round of measurements is taken. The impact of the intervention is inferred by comparing the change in the outcome variable for the intervention group with any changes in the control group. Statistically, this entails establishing whether it is possible to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference in outcomes attributable to intervention between the two groups.

[16] For a discussion of some of the other possible explanations, see Bowles, 2005.

[17] Sometimes several variables.

Although designs of this kind have been used in studies in the criminal justice sphere, they remain a small minority (McDougall et al, 2003; Sherman et al, 1997). It is a design precluded in the SSP setting because the schools where interventions were implemented had already been selected. There was therefore no scope for random implementation.

### Quasi-experimental research designs

The next best alternative is a quasi-experimental design, with some form of statistical control being enabled by means of the use of a comparison group and a before-and-after comparison. It has been possible to implement such a design here, at least in respect of outcome measures the values of which can be established from secondary data sources, by tracking back to a time before the programme was implemented. The principal limitation is that this prevents the use of outcome measures relying on primary measurement, since any surveys or interviews can only be done for the post-implementation period.

Thus, there is no problem in using this approach for outcomes such as truancy, exclusions and exam results, where secondary data can be collected in relation to a time two, three or more years before implementation. But where special exercises have to be commissioned to collect primary data (for example one-off pupil surveys in specific schools), it is not possible to reach back to pre-intervention times.

A potential difficulty with this kind of design is that the comparison schools may not match the intervention schools very closely. In statistical terms, this leaves us with a non-equivalent groups design. So when looking at the impact of the SSP intervention on truancy rates, for example, we have to take account of the likelihood that pre-intervention truancy rates may differ between the intervention and comparison schools. This requires us to 'control' for variation in the initial truancy rate 'covariate', using a standard GLM ANCOVA model. For the initial analysis of outcome measures based on secondary data, this would be equivalent to estimating a basic model of the form:

$$\textit{Post-test value of } X = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \textit{ pre-test value of } X + \beta_2 \textit{ intervention dummy } D + \epsilon$$

where variable X is the outcome measure, such as truancy rate or exam pass rate, $\beta_0$ is the intercept term and D is an 'intervention dummy' that indicates whether the school had an SSP intervention implemented.

In this simplest format, it is the coefficient on the intervention dummy D (i.e. $\beta_1$) that is the key indicator of policy impact. If this coefficient is significantly different from zero, the implication is that the policy has had a significant impact.

### Non-experimental research designs

In the case of the outcome measures relying on primary data collection, such as results from surveys of pupils' fear of crime or victimisation, the best that can be achieved is a comparison between matched pairs of schools at some date after intervention. On the assumption that intervention and comparison schools have been sufficiently well matched to ensure that their performance was similar before intervention, an after-the-event comparison can be made to see which is doing better. The problem, of course, is that it is impossible to verify whether the working assumption is correct.

## 3.3 Choice of research design

Given the various designs available, it remains to select the most appropriate for analysis of the SSP programme. The choice is constrained, in practice, largely by the type of data available. Where there is a good supply of secondary data, the possibilities are much greater than where we have to rely on specially commissioned data collection exercises.

### Secondary data available on outcome measures

The basic structure of the tests we apply wherever data permit is best illustrated in the context of an outcome such as truancy rates, for which we have data stretching back to before intervention. This enables a baseline figure to be defined, say for the academic year 2001–02 – before implementation of the SSP intervention in September 2002. Suppose the average truancy rate for the year 2001–02 in intervention schools is denoted by *g,* and in comparison, that for (non-intervention) schools is represented by *h*. If the rate over the following two years moves to *j* in intervention schools while it moves to *k* in comparison schools, then we can isolate an estimate of the impact of intervention by comparing the changes in the two groups of school. This would give the following:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Impact of intervention = | truancy rate intervention (post – pre) | – | truancy rate non-intervention (post – pre) |

Impact of intervention = $(j - g) - (k - h)$

Example:

Intervention school group:

| | |
|---|---|
| truancy rate 2001–02 | 5.00% |
| truancy rate 2003–04 | 4.03% |

Comparison school group:

| | |
|---|---|
| truancy rate 2001–02 | 2.50% |
| truancy rate 2003–04 | 3.63% |

Estimate of impact of intervention: = (4.03 – 5.0) – (3.63 – 2.50)

= -0.97 – 1.13 = -2.1

In the example, truancy rates fall in intervention schools and not in comparison schools. The conclusion here is that in this example the impact of the intervention is of the order of a 2.1 percentage point reduction in the truancy rate. This methodology underpins the findings reported in a number of the sections in Chapters 6 and 7. The reliability of this estimate from a statistical inference perspective will depend on a number of things such as the size of the sample of schools in each group and the degree of variation in the change in the outcome variable within each of these groups.

We note that the method outlined above, although it is much more convenient and intuitive than the ANCOVA model we estimate, gives only an approximation to the impact. The ANCOVA model used to make estimates of the significance of the intervention makes adjustments to these mean values based on the pre-intervention scores, and thus generates more refined estimates of the scale of the impact. For ease of interpretation, we present the unadjusted comparisons of group means in the main text of the report. More detailed analyses of the findings from the ANCOVA model are presented in the appendices.

#### Primary data required on outcome measures

In the case of outcome measures for which there are no pre-intervention observations, and data are collected to order, we have to rely on a cruder research design. The data can only be collected post-intervention, so the only possibility is to compare values or proportions at the post-intervention stage. In the above example, this is a bit like assuming that the pre-intervention values or proportions *g* and *h* are equal, and looking at whether there is a difference between the two post-intervention observations. For example, suppose we take a pair of similar schools and administer in each of them a survey post-intervention asking children how safe they feel at the school. If we find a sizeable difference in the responses, we might conclude that there is at least the possibility that the intervention has had an impact on the safety of the school environment as perceived by children. If this same pattern held true across two groups of schools containing matched pairs of intervention and comparison schools, we would be more confident that the intervention was having an effect.

In Chapter 7 in particular, we rely quite heavily on findings derived from pupil surveys relating to offending and school safety. As other chapters indicate, such surveys are being commissioned increasingly often. They generally contain questions about a wide range of issues including whether the respondent has been a victim of crime (or other kind of incident, including bullying or verbal abuse), how much they fear crime and what their involvement in offending is. The drawback is that, at least until now, the main purpose of the surveys has been to help build a nationally representative picture of youth offending and victimisation. They have not been aimed at tracking the situation within a single school.

If such surveys are to contribute to an analysis of the effectiveness of an intervention such as SSP, the research design has to be adapted to meet the normal methodological criteria. As we have seen in the earlier sections of this chapter, this is likely to require conducting surveys both before and after intervention and to include a sample of schools where there has been no intervention as well as a number where an intervention has been implemented. We will argue in the concluding section of this report that such surveys, administered perhaps in a simplified format, have potential as a self-evaluation tool for schools. Their routine repetition would enable schools to do their own tracking of school safety. In the longer term, such surveys could help make it possible for schools to review their safety level regularly and cheaply.

## 3.4 Choice of school sample

### Sampling strategy

Before making the selection of schools, we need to say something about the population of schools, or the 'sampling frame' from which our sample is to be collected. As was noted above, a total of four schools implemented the YJB/ACPO intervention, while a further 490 or so adopted the Other SSP model as of early 2005. We have assumed that the remainder of schools can be characterised as 'non-intervention' schools although, in some cases, they are visited regularly by police officers. It is known that the YJB/ACPO schools are non-representative of schools in general – they were selected because they were known to face challenges in providing a safe school environment. The same is broadly true of the Other SSP schools.

The plan originally was to include all 13 of the schools (11 intervention schools plus two control schools) covered in a previous round of evaluation work by the Policy Research Bureau (Policy Research Bureau: Bhabra et al, 2004). In the event, lack of access to many of these schools resulted in the construction of a revised sample comprising 30 schools in total, based on 15 matched pairs of intervention and non-intervention schools. The characteristics of the sample of 30 schools and its relation to the Policy Research Bureau sample are summarised in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2 Structure of the school sample**

| | Intervention schools | Comparison schools |
|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO**: | 3 schools | 3 matching schools (from same LEA) |
| | (all 3 in PRB sample) | (0 in PRB sample: 3 new) |
| **Other SSP**: | 12 schools | 12 matching schools (from same LEA) |
| | (6 in PRB sample: 6 new) | (1 in PRB sample: 11 new) |

The selection criteria used for identifying schools worked as follows. First, we considered only schools in areas where SSP had been implemented. Second, where possible, we retained schools from the initial Policy Research Bureau sample – and where this was not possible, we stuck with the same LEAs as the original sample. This left a requirement of selecting three further intervention areas. Of these, one is a north-eastern urban area; one is in the North West; and one in Manchester.

We selected a comparison school from the same LEA to correspond to each of the 15 intervention schools. In selecting the comparison school, we began by eliminating all SSP schools, identified by checking the Crime Concern listing of schools with the programme (Crime Concern, 2004). For the remaining schools, we took the one that best matched the intervention school in relation to two criteria:

- the truancy (unauthorised absence) rate for 2002
- the proportion of pupils getting five or more GCSE passes at grades A*–C during the academic year ending July 2002.

The criteria were based on the school's performance over the academic year 2001–02 because that was the stage at which the decisions were made as to which schools were to get an intervention. This helped ensure we would get as close as possible to conditions at the time when intervention was implemented. Difficulties in obtaining access to schools, particularly those selected for comparison purposes, meant that, in many cases, especially in LEAs with only a small number of secondary schools, we ended up with comparison schools that faced fewer challenges than the group of intervention schools. This clearly represents a potential threat to the validity of any inferences we can draw about the impact of intervention. Fortunately, use of ANCOVA models enables us to sidestep this threat.

The schools chosen for SSP interventions are located for the most part in areas where deprivation and crime rates are relatively high. The likelihood is that the schools will have above average rates of problem behaviour that will show up through relatively high rates of disaffection, truancy and pupil offending. They will generally have lower educational achievement as measured by GCSE results. The capacity of an intervention to have an impact on the incidence of problem behaviour may be influenced by the scale of deprivation. Our presumption has been that by matching schools on truancy rates and GCSE results, the likelihood is that the areas in which the comparison schools are located will be broadly similar in character to those of the intervention schools.

During the later stages of the evaluation, we were given access to some data on 10 Essex schools implementing the SSP programme. By following the same procedure for selecting comparison schools as outlined above, we chose a further 10 comparison schools in Essex. We used this set of 20 additional observations to test the robustness of findings from the basic sample of 30 schools. No interviews were conducted in the schools but we were able to use secondary data on absence and exam results.

## 3.5 Other issues

We report below some findings from the Bhabra (2004) study, which made an effort to get closer to a pre/post comparison based on primary data by running one pupil survey just after the SSP projects had begun, and a second one once it had been running for several months. Although in our view this approach is not entirely successful, it does show ingenuity in trying to escape some of the limitations of using primary data in a rather unpromising position.

In many more cases, however, the design challenges that surfaced during the research were related more to weaknesses in secondary databases than to the impossibility of collecting primary data retrospectively. For example, our original design was based on the assumption that it would be possible to interrogate YOT databases for reliable data on the number of offences committed by the pupils at a sample of schools for two years before-and-after implementation of the SSP programme. The discovery that such an exercise was impractical is, of course, of some value in itself and has implications for how developments are to be monitored in future.[18]

#### Variation between and within intervention type

Up to this point, our methodological discussion has assumed implicitly that there is a single intervention. This is a reasonable assumption when testing medical procedures or products where there is a protocol defining carefully the form of intervention. In the case of SSP, and many other criminal justice interventions, there is the complication that projects are not implementing an entirely uniform intervention. The implication of this is that the effect (or impact) observed will depend on the form intervention took as well as whether or not intervention occurred.

Since the YJB/ACPO model differs significantly from the Other SSP model, it cannot be presumed that the two models have the same kind of impact. This means that, in effect, we are evaluating at least two distinct interventions. The implication is that we should keep the analysis of the two separate and, in effect, treat the SSP programme as involving two sets of experiments. One experiment compares outcomes between YJB/ACPO intervention schools and a matched set of comparison schools. The other compares outcomes between Other SSP intervention schools and a matched set of comparison schools. This kind of design supports a more compelling comparison between the two forms of intervention than does the alternative of combining the two intervention groups and comparing them with an undifferentiated set of comparison schools.

As experience of other interventions indicates, even allowing for differences between intervention types may not be sufficient (Bowles and Pradiptyo, 2004). The content of projects may vary within each of the two types of intervention. Although outline parameters were set for the YJB/ACPO projects, the approach taken was different within each of the schools where it was implemented. The types of activities undertaken, the recording systems used and the priority accorded to various components of school safety all differed across the three schools. Particularly when only a small number of schools are involved, it is difficult to derive a clear picture of the effectiveness of 'the intervention' because each project involves a variant of the basic model.

[18] We pursue these implications in Chapter 8.

The implication of this substantial variation across projects within a type of intervention is that we need to move beyond models of the kind used in drug trials to other models that allow of wider variation within an intervention type as well as between intervention types. For example, some intervention schools might use their police officers in one way while others use them in another. As long as we can find a way of characterising such variations across projects within an intervention type, it is possible to incorporate this kind of difference in the model.

The ANCOVA model's structure enables such variation to be explored comparatively easily, since the categorical variable can take multiple values. So, instead of distinguishing three groups of schools (YJB/ACPO intervention, Other SSP intervention, and comparison) it is possible to divide the groups further. There are, of course, limits to any such sub-division, since it reduces the size of groups and so reduces the model's number of degrees of freedom. But it is a strategy that is potentially useful for examining the effect of incomplete implementation of the intervention or major differences in the form of intervention.

#### Modelling future benefits

The research designs we have reviewed thus far are appropriate for modelling impact where the effects from an intervention manifest themselves within a comparatively short time after implementation. For outcome measures such as truancy rates, this is probably sufficient. Once the project is up and running, the full effects on something like truancy will be felt within one or two years. If the resources are withdrawn, the truancy reduction may disappear. In more general terms, the benefits from the intervention are basically contemporary with the project.

But for some components of the SSP programme, there may be benefits that take longer to become apparent. If crime reduction interventions with young people are effective, there may be benefits from fewer crimes that stretch years into the future. The link between youth and adult offending is sufficiently strong to suggest that, if young people can be encouraged to desist from offending while young, there may be benefits for many years to come as a result of their being deflected onto a lower offending trajectory (this is the conjecture underlying Cohen, 1998). Insufficient information is known about these links but the important point is that intervention today may have pay-offs stretching into the future. Outcome measures involving future crime prevention effects will contain a large element of speculation, and this will create substantial uncertainty as to the scale of improvement brought about by intervention. But if these effects are simply ignored then project benefits will be underestimated.

With what is known about offending careers at present, the best that can be done is to assume that any reduction in offending by pupils observed over one or two years while they are at school will probably be accompanied by further reductions in future offending. If no reductions in offending are apparent within the first year or two, it is probably reasonable to assume that there will be few or no reductions thereafter.

### Further analysis of offending data

It will become clear that we encountered serious problems in collecting data on offending at school level. In the few cases where we were able to get data, it was possible to make some estimates of the number of offences 'saved' in intervention schools. As we have just noted, this raises the question of how to deal with reductions in offending that might occur after the evaluation has been completed. Another, somewhat related, issue is how to characterise the reduction in the offending rate itself. We applied the standard shift-share approach to generate an estimate of offences saved by comparing the number of offences observed in intervention schools with the number that would have been expected from the experience of the comparison schools.

But we also explore an alternative way of making such estimates. Provided we have YOT data on individual young offender histories, it is possible not just to generate annual counts of the number of convictions but to measure the length of time between successive offences. A successful SSP intervention might involve new ways of working with pupils who have been in trouble that reduce the likelihood of their offending in the future. This might manifest itself in two different ways, namely:

- fewer pupils being convicted each year
- pupils offending (and thus being convicted) less frequently.

Using duration models that have been more commonly used for exploring the length of spells of unemployment, it is possible to estimate explicitly whether there are indications that intervention has increased the time passing before a reconviction. Data limitations prevent us getting too far with this exploration but it is clear that there are exciting new possibilities for analysing youth offending that have not as yet been exploited.[19]

## 3.6 Conclusions

In this chapter, we have developed a standard 'quasi-experimental' research design of a pre-test/post-test non-equivalent groups kind. It compares the evolution of outcomes in the intervention schools from a (baseline) time prior to intervention until some later time following intervention, with the change in outcomes observed in an appropriately chosen group of comparison schools over the same time interval. This research design, while probably the best available for use in the SSP context, has some limitations which are inescapable. Critical among these are the following:

- the number of sites where the YJB/ACPO model was implemented was very small (three), limiting the scope for comparison between this model and either the Other SSP model, or the alternative of no intervention
- the Other SSP model was implemented at many sites, but our sample of 12 is still a comparatively small sample

[19] In other research at the Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology, we have been applying these models to exploring related topics such as the length of time elapsing before discharged prisoners are reconvicted (Bowles and Florackis, 2005).

- the only true pre-intervention baseline measures available have to be derived from secondary data, since the research model was not designed before implementation
- some of the objectives of SSP relate to its impact on offending outcomes over a longer period of time, and additional time and research would be needed to explore these longer term benefits
- variation in the content of intervention across schools reduces the quality of the evidence that can be produced about impact.

The wide range of objectives of the SSP programme, in conjunction with the range of implementation styles, means that there is no single test to determine whether the programme has been effective. We have developed a methodology that can be applied to each of several outcome measures independently. In addition, we have referred to a range of complementary methods, such as interviews, to be used in parallel with the quantitative methods. The focus of this chapter has been on effectiveness. We pursue the related question of cost effectiveness and the development of a cost benefit analysis of the interventions in Chapter 9.

# 4 Data requirements and sources

## 4.1 Data sources

Earlier chapters have established a set of outcome measures based on SSP policy objectives, and a methodology with which to analyse the impact of intervention. In this chapter, we review the principal sources from which data might be gathered to give substance to our empirical analysis. Wherever possible, we try to get data stretching two years either side of the September 2002 starting date for SSP intervention. The academic years 2000–01 and 2001–02 comprise the two years before intervention, while 2002–03 and 2003–04 make up the post-intervention period.

Table 4.1 below sets out a summary of the outcome measures and the corresponding sources of data. It is based on a somewhat arbitrary distinction between education outcomes and offending and school safety outcomes.

**Table 4.1 Sources of data on school safety and problem behaviour**

| Outcomes | Measure | Sources of data |
|---|---|---|
| **Education outcomes** | | |
| | Truancy | DfES Performance Tables |
| | Exclusions | DfES communication |
| | Exams | DfES Performance Tables |
| | Incidents | School records; pupil surveys; OFSTED reports |
| **Offending and school safety** | | |
| | Recorded offending | Police; YOTs |
| | Self-reported offending | Pupil surveys |
| | Victimisation | Pupil surveys |
| | Fear of crime | Pupil surveys |

We organise the sections of this chapter around each of these data sources. Later chapters are organised thematically and thus move around between different data sources.

Reducing offending is a central objective of the SSP intervention. In order to document the scale of the impact of intervention on offending, a central pre-requisite is reliable data on the number of offences being committed by pupils at a school between 2000 and 2004. Identifying a source capable of providing this core database has proved a major challenge. In essence, such a task should be achievable. YOTs, the local police and schools themselves all have an interest in being able to identify offending trends among pupils at a particular school. But incompatibilities between data systems, data protection and other issues make it very difficult to answer apparently straightforward questions such as whether offending by pupils at a school has fallen following an intervention. We take up this issue further below.

Two points are immediately obvious from Table 4.1. First, DfES-published data can be used to get good coverage of key educational outcomes such as truancy rates and exam results. Second, the volume of data referring to offending and school safety that is in the public domain is very modest. Some of the sources, such as the databases of offenders and offences held by the police and YOTs, are inaccessible because of confidentiality. But in other cases, notably concerning pupil surveys, the data are only available from one-off exercises and are based on a handful of schools – the data are simply not collected on a systematic basis at all. This has two important implications for our work here. First, it limits the degree to which evidence can be brought to bear in quantifying impact. Second, it prompts the question of what kind of overhaul of data collection would be needed in order to generate a regular flow in future of information about outcomes, particularly those related to offending.

We consider the various data sources by focusing on the organisation(s) producing each of them.

#### DfES

In its web-based open access Performance Tables, recently renamed the School and College Achievement and Attainment Tables, the DfES maintains a very useful database of various components of school performance running back prior to the year 2000. Organised by LEAs, it gives annual data for virtually all schools on a range of indicators. The two elements of direct interest here are the annual rate of unauthorised absence and the proportion of pupils achieving grades A*–C at GCSE. The data run up to and include the academic year 2003–04.

Even if the overall quality of a school's learning environment is improving, this may not be manifest for a while in GCSE performance. In addition, GCSEs encompass work done over two years, so the impact of SSP may take at least two years to find expression.

In addition to this published data, the DfES also holds information on the annual number of permanent exclusions and on free school meal entitlement. Data on permanent exclusions have been obtained for most of the schools in the sample from the Schools Statistical Unit at the DfES, who have also supplied corresponding data on free school meal entitlement. The impact of SSP on the number of exclusions has to be treated with care. This is partly because the number itself, for a particular school, is likely to be small but comparatively volatile over time. It is also because a number of efforts are being made across the whole school system[20] to reduce the number of permanent exclusions. Any background downward trend has to be removed before it can be concluded that the SSP intervention has itself been responsible for bringing exclusion rates down. The delays caused by efforts to check the reliability of exclusions data are such that we have not been able to access exclusions data beyond the academic year 2002–03. A second unpublished indicator is the proportion of a school's pupils with entitlement to free school meals. This measure is sometimes used as a proxy for the degree of deprivation of a school's pupils. Since children do not always go to the school that is physically nearest, and since contiguous suburbs may exhibit sharp differences in deprivation, the free school meals entitlement is sometimes a more reliable guide than the published measures of deprivation for the area in which a school is located.

In Chapter 6, where education outcomes are explored, the DfES measures we use are:

- truancy: the annual rate of unauthorised absence at a school, as measured by the proportion of half-day sessions missed
- absence: the annual rate of total (authorised plus unauthorised) absence at a school, as measured by the proportion of half-day sessions missed
- examinations: the proportion of pupils in the eligible cohort getting five or more grades A*–C at GCSE
- exclusions: the number of pupils permanently excluded from a school over an academic year.

### Schools

Each school is required to publish a prospectus containing information including its truancy rate, educational achievements and its school ethos. But there is no requirement to publish any information about safety or offending in school even though it is open to schools to compile such information if they wish.

Schools keep records on pupils that cover not only demographic, health and carer contact details but also details of examination achievements, absence, teacher reports and notes of involvement in incidents. But this information, while it is accessible to school staff, is not divulged or summarised for other purposes.

It has not been the custom for schools to collect information about pupil attitudes to school safety or problem behaviour. Schools may have an anti-bullying policy and staff will have an impression of the scale of bullying going on, but they will rarely collect systematic information to inform such impressions.

[20] These efforts include exhortation and also LEA schemes to manage migration between schools of excluded pupils in efforts to reduce pressure on pupil referral units or private tuition.

The same applies in respect of pupil feelings about safety in schools: national surveys have explored these issues across small samples of schools, but there is no regular collection of such data by schools. It may well be that this position will change as the Every Child Matters agenda develops. If schools are to be able to demonstrate that they are providing a safe environment, they will need to think seriously about conducting pupil surveys themselves from which findings about safety levels, and changes in them, can be derived. This will apply particularly in the case of pupils belonging to vulnerable groups.

### Market research organisations

We have established that schools do not themselves publish evidence on the number of 'incidents' experienced or results from pupil surveys relating to pupils' fear of crime, victimisation or involvement in offending. But that does not mean that such data have never been collected. Some schools run ad hoc surveys on an occasional basis, but coverage is very patchy and the results are of little use for comparisons across schools of the kind we need to be able to make here. There are, however, three mostly market research sources from which such information can be taken. We comment briefly on each.

#### *MORI*

For a number of years, MORI has carried out an annual survey of youth lifestyles commissioned by YJB. The survey questions several thousand school-age children and covers a number of issues directly relevant from an SSP perspective.

#### *Policy Research Bureau*

As part of the earlier evaluation of SSP, the Policy Research Bureau surveyed pupils in a sample of schools, using questions similar to those in the MORI survey (Bhabra, 2004). A two-stage strategy was followed by Policy Research Bureau. Pupils at nine intervention schools and two comparison schools completed questionnaires that covered topics including victimisation and the fear of crime. The Stage One round of questionnaires was administered in the autumn term of 2002–03, just after the SSP intervention started. The Stage Two round followed in the summer term of the same academic year. The sample of pupils at the second round included a sub-group who had responded at the first. By excluding unmatched pupils, it may be possible to draw some inferences from changes between Stage One and Stage Two responses about the impact of the intervention. One additional complication was that, instead of using the MORI binary approach (worried versus not worried), Policy Research Bureau used a question with graded responses.

The relevant questions, along with the range of possible responses, included the following.

- In general, how safe do you feel at this school? (*1=Very unsafe, 5=Very safe*)
- In general, how safe do you feel travelling to or from this school each day? (*1=Very unsafe, 5=Very safe*).

The Policy Research Bureau approach provides a potentially useful starting point for exploring the impact of SSP. It has strengths in that it covers a mix of intervention and non-intervention schools, contains some matched pair responses and at least tries to measure changes through time. But, unfortunately, it has serious limitations, particularly in respect of the following.

- The length of time between the rounds of surveys was limited to a few months and was insufficient for the full effects of intervention to have emerged.
- The Stage One responses were collected after the intervention had begun, and this will almost certainly have influenced responses so that they cannot be relied on as a characterisation of the position before intervention.
- The number of matched pair responses was comparatively small. The numbers of pupils participating in Stage One and Stage Two interviews were 1,335 and 859 respectively. Of the total sample, 699 pupils completed interviews at both stages.
- The number of pupils in the comparison group was small (drawn from two schools only). Of the 699 matched-pair respondents, 281 were pupils in YJB/ACPO schools, 298 pupils in Other-SSP schools and 120 pupils in comparison schools.

*Viewpoint*

In parallel with this evaluation, the YJB commissioned Viewpoint to survey pupils of the 24 schools included in our sample. Viewpoint has designed an interactive questionnaire for completion by pupils at as many as possible of the schools in our sample. The surveys were scheduled to be conducted at the same time (autumn term, 2004) but various barriers impeded the collection of data from the full sample.

*Police*

Police data on children and young people who have become involved in offending may be shared with the local youth offending service or YOT. They may also be shared with the offender's school if there is close liaison between the school and the local police or YOT. But as we will see later such liaison is often weak, and a school's knowledge of offending by its pupils may be very patchy.

*YOTs*

Because of the lack of systematic data-recording across schools of any of the components of offending or school safety, we make little reference to such data in Chapters 6 or 7. We will however be recommending that this position be reviewed in light of increasing pressure for schools to produce evidence concerning pupil safety.

# 5 Implementation of SSP in schools

## 5.1 Introduction

In April 2002, the Secretary of State for Education and Skills announced the introduction of a SSP programme to place police officers in schools. A number of variants of the programme have been implemented, ranging from the original, YJB-funded model of intensive support in one small group of schools (YJB/ACPO intervention schools), through the BEST model, to a 'thinner', more extensive approach adopted in some police force areas (Other-SSP intervention schools).

It is important to keep in mind that there have been many initiatives and programmes implemented at local level in an effort to address youth offending, to reduce the social exclusion of young people and to improve support in deprived areas. Support has been channelled through a variety of funding schemes including the Children's Fund, Neighbourhood Renewal, Communities Against Drugs, Positive Futures, Positive Activities for Young People, the Connexions Service and the schools-based Behaviour Improvement Programme, referred to in greater detail below. Schools have been involved to a greater or less degree in many of these programmes and some schools have received significant amounts of discretionary funding through them. Many of the projects funded in this way have strengthened informal contacts at local level between key agencies. Many of the SSP schools have benefited from being involved in such networks.

The speed with which the programme was introduced left comparatively little time for the development of guidance and support structures at national level. So, for example, training only began, once officers were already in post.

In order to analyse how the interventions were implemented, our approach was to interview senior staff in a selection of schools. This included 25 of the full sample of 30 schools generated by the procedure described in Chapter 3, and characterised in Appendix 3.[21] The purpose of the interviews was to explore how the intervention was working in the schools where it had been implemented, and to compare the management of school safety (in the broadest sense) between the 15 intervention schools and the 10 comparison schools.

We also interviewed the managers of several YOTs covering areas in which the sample schools are located. This gives a different perspective on local offending and is useful for probing matters such as the exchange of information between schools and YOTs.

We present a brief description of how SSP were implemented at the 15 intervention schools and then analyse some of the common themes at the 25 schools in the interview sample.

[21] Appendix 3 also indicates the status of the 25 schools where interviews were possible.

## 5.2 Intervention implemented

There are several versions of SSP, although the underlying model and motivation is fairly similar in most cases. The programme has spawned several variants, dictated by differences in funding sources or in school and police force attitudes to school-police liaison.

### Type of intervention

The key groupings and funding streams were as follows.

*YJB/ACPO intervention schools*

This model was implemented in four schools in September 2002 at the start of the academic year. By the third year of the YJB-funded programme (2004–05), three of the four remained. The characteristic of the YJB/ACPO model is that it is based in a single secondary school with a full-time police officer dedicated to the school. The officer has support from two or three other project workers, including an administrative worker and a couple of education officers who make home visits, organise activities for pupils with behaviour issues and so on. The officer based in the secondary school has close contact with feeder primaries. This helps schools prepare for the intake of a new group of Year 7 children each year and enables exchange of information about pupils at risk of offending or victimisation. The objectives of SSP were discussed in some detail in Chapter 2.

*Other SSP intervention schools*

For purposes of analysis, we have treated this as a single group even though, in reality, it contains several variants. The two principal sub-types are:

- **schools in BEST/BIP clusters**
  BESTs are multi-agency teams that work closely with defined groups of schools to provide whole school, group and individual support to address the needs of children and young people with emotional and behavioural problems. BESTs were introduced in targeted areas as part of the wider BIP. Schools with BESTs include those with high proportions of pupils with, or at risk of developing, behavioural problems as demonstrated in levels of exclusions and attendance. The programme began in July 2002 as part of the initiative to fight street crime. Funding of £50 million was allocated to 34 LEAs with the highest levels of crime and truancy. From April 2003, BIP was extended to a further 26 Excellence in Cities areas. By early 2004, 400 secondary and 1,500 primary schools had benefited from BIP. In April 2004, BIP was extended to a further 26 Excellence in Cities clusters. These teams generally have a police officer attached and are usually based at a secondary school working with a number (often three or four) of feeder primary schools. BEST/BIP funds a wide range of activities including diversionary activities for young people during school holidays, one-to-one therapy to work on issues such as anger management and low self-esteem, and children and families work. By including a mix of primaries plus a secondary school it is often easier to address family issues and to ensure that younger pupils get extra support if they have older siblings who are getting into trouble.

- **local variants**
  In addition to the BIP/BEST model, there are local variants in which a police presence in school plays a less central role. This group, which constitutes the majority of SSP, includes some schools in cities where youth work oriented police are based at a central location and support a variety of schools and youth organisations. The time input to a single school is thus limited, sometimes to a minimal level such as half a day per week. Other variations can result from this, where the SSP is blended in with other initiatives such as Excellence in Cities.

#### School characteristics

As has been noted above, SSP intervention was not implemented in a random sample of schools, but rather the schools were involved for particular reasons. In three cases, they had applied successfully for SSP funding from the YJB. In the case of BEST teams, they belonged to an area covered by BIP and succeeded in getting funding for their cluster. In the remaining cases the schools had enhanced access to police support as part of a local policy of increasing police support for schools. In virtually all cases, therefore, SSP schools are located in more deprived areas with high rates of offending and are characterised by comparatively high rates of absence and exclusion, and modest exam results.

Many of these characteristics are correlated with other factors which might have an influence on the impact of SSP, including:

- size, gender mix, whether the school has a sixth form, the extent of the catchment area, ethnic and other dimensions of the local community
- whether the school is a specialist college and if so the specialism on which it is based, e.g. technology, arts, sports, community college
- other circumstances, e.g. closure, special measures, moving to new premises, merging with another school.
- Profiles of the areas where the schools in our sample are located are presented in Table A4.1 in Appendix 4. This set of tables contains data on a variety of socio-economic and demographic indicators.

## *5.3 Infrastructure*

School site security measures can have a significant influence on school safety. Controlling access to the school during school time requires fencing and effective reception arrangements for visitors. The monitoring of school entry is a task that can be shared between a rota of pupils and school support staff. In schools where there is community access to facilities in evenings and/or weekends, a new layer of complication arises since this potentially leaves school equipment such as computers vulnerable to theft and facilities open to damage. Standard crime prevention measures, introduced in consultation with local police, can reduce vulnerability. Many schools also have CCTV systems used not only for crime prevention purposes but also for monitoring behaviour during school time so that incidents of bullying or potential trouble can be identified and response mobilised.

In SSP projects, police officers based in, or visiting, schools will normally be regularly involved in advising on crime prevention. This role may well extend to consultation about transport arrangements, especially if there are school buses dropping off and collecting pupils. An SSP police officer will normally have access to CCTV coverage and will often have a means of communicating directly via radio with a key senior member of staff. The SSP officer will usually keep a log of incidents, although this will not always be an integral part of school incident recording.

## 5.4 Activities

An SSP intervention will typically rely on a combination of a wide range of activities. Establishing whether some activities appear to be more effective than others in delivering SSP objectives is not a straightforward task. If anything is to be concluded about the effectiveness of different components of SSP programmes, it is essential to know which schools relied on which activities. If some activities are comparatively less effective, then projects making heavy use of them will tend to do less well than other projects that give them less prominence.

We are interested in how many of these activities formed part of intervention at particular schools, so that the relationship between project success and intervention composition can be explored more thoroughly. The findings from school interviews as to the extent to which these various activities are used within SSP are documented in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1 Activities used in SSP**

| Activities | Intervention schools (15 schools) | Comparison schools (10 schools) |
|---|---|---|
| Corridor patrols | 93% | 60% |
| Breakfast club | 87% | 70% |
| Classroom checks | 87% | 50% |
| Truancy sweeps | 80% | 20% |
| Restorative justice | 73% | 0% |
| Holiday activities | 73% | 50% |
| Playground work | 67% | 80% |
| Lunchtime activities | 60% | 70% |
| Homework/After-school club | 47% | 40% |
| Residential activities | 40% | 30% |

### Truancy sweeps

A high proportion of intervention schools make use of truancy sweeps. Intuitively, one might expect that truancy sweeps have an impact on truancy rates, since pupils might reduce the frequency of their absence if they find it is becoming more likely that they are intercepted and returned to school when truanting. This proactive approach may provide opportunities for exploring the reasons for truancy and for taking action to reduce it.

### Restorative justice

Perhaps the biggest contrast between intervention and comparison schools is in the use of restorative justice. Only one SSP school does not use restorative justice, whereas it is not used at all in any of the comparison schools. The purpose of restorative justice, in essence, is to get pupils to acknowledge and apologise for the damage or harm their actions have caused and to help victims of those actions come to terms with their experience. Restorative justice conferences are time-consuming and require trained staff to run them. When they work well they can be helpful to offenders and victims alike. Measuring their impact and effectiveness is a tricky matter and not something we dwell on here. For a review of some of the evidence of effectiveness of restorative justice in a school setting see Bitel (2004).[22]

Similar kinds of analysis can be done for each of the various kinds of activity. The general trend is clearly that schools with an SSP intervention engage in a wider range of activities aimed at reducing truancy and behaviour issues and at providing pupils with extra opportunities for spending time safely and constructively in school.

## 5.5 School management and policies

Another thing that varies across schools and may thus mediate the impact of an SSP intervention is the way the school is managed and the kinds of policies it implements. The YJB/ACPO schools have a commitment to two of the key SSP objectives, namely a 'whole school approach' and 'identifying and working with pupils at risk'. Before we discuss these two objectives in particular we look very briefly at one or two aspects of the way schools are managed and the policies they pursue in relation to behaviour issues. Schools in our sample were asked a variety of questions about how they are managed and about the policies they follow. The responses are summarised in Table 5.2. We now comment briefly on some of the key elements.

### Management information systems

Many schools use management information systems such as SIMS.[23] Most of these systems have optional modules that cover attendance and behaviour. These, like other systems designed specifically to cover attendance via electronic pupil registration (such as Bromcom), enable schools to track and analyse absence much more quickly and easily than manual systems. The National Audit Office *Report on Improving School Attendance in England* (NAO, 2005) suggests that the approximately 1,100 secondary schools in England not using electronic registration should do so.

Many of the systems will generate telephone calls to carers automatically on the first day of absence as well as automatically recording the statutory statistical returns on absence. Some systems are networked between schools and give LEAs access to live data.

[22] Available on the YJB website (www.youth-justice-board.gov.uk)

[23] Websites detailing the various products include: www.sims.co.uk; www.smis.org.uk and www.bromcom.com. Other systems include the CMIS system used in Nottingham schools. Behaviour monitoring systems include Sleuth (www.schoolsoftwarecompany.com).

Pupil-tracking requires the capacity for systems to run in real time if the data are to be used to chase up unauthorised absence within the same day. Such systems inevitably demand of a lot of effort to maintain their integrity and coverage, and unless there is a strong commitment to making them work they can become a liability. Similar kinds of system can also be used to record problem behaviour and incidents. In terms of the management of bad behaviour, information can be collected in a variety of ways, through formal means such as recording systems and also through informal channels such as the reporting of perceptions via school councils or peer mentors.

The extent to which such systems are employed in the schools we interviewed is summarised in Table 5.2. It indicates that in total 87% of the intervention sample schools and 80% of the comparison schools were using an electronic recording system. It suggests that a higher proportion of the intervention schools were using electronic behaviour recording than was the case in the comparison schools.

### School policies

Management of the school day clearly plays an important role. Variations in the number and length of lessons and break times can affect the incidence of problem behaviour. The length of lunch times, along with the provision of facilities where children can eat and play or stay warm, can affect the scope for bad behaviour in the middle of the day. The start and end of the day are other times when careful management is needed. Road safety is an issue where close school-police liaison is potentially useful in identifying policies and practice that can improve the safety of the school environs.

Management of problem behaviour within schools is another critical area. Schools vary in their use of learning support units (or an equivalent). The use of an extended curriculum involving children spending some or even a lot of their time in vocational activities away from school may help reduce disaffection. But it can also make it easier for children to find ways of avoiding being in school without necessarily being engaged in some constructive alternative as is intended. Effective monitoring of this group can be time-consuming, and may sometimes be absent if there is a lack of co-ordination between schools and training providers. It is important to note that this problem may not show up through absence rates, since the children may be away from the school with permission.

**Table 5.2 School management**

| School Infrastructure and Management | Intervention Schools | Comparison Schools |
|---|---|---|
| **Attendance recording** | **87%** | **80%** |
| **BromCom** | 33% | 20% |
| **CMIS** | 40% | 30% |
| **SIMS** | 0% | 10% |
| **Other system** | 13% | 20% |
| | | |
| **Behaviour recording** | **53%** | **70%** |
| **Sleuth** | 27% | 30% |
| **CMIS** | 7% | 10% |
| **SIMS** | 13% | 10% |
| **Other system** | 7% | 20% |
| | | |
| **Peer mentors** | **60%** | **70%** |
| **Alternative curriculum** | **73%** | **60%** |
| **LSU** | **87%** | **70%** |
| **EAL Unit** | **20%** | **20%** |
| **SEN Unit** | **13%** | **40%** |

Note: LSU, Learning Support Unit; EAL, English as an Additional Language Unit; SEN, Special Educational Needs Unit

## *5.6 Other comments and good practice*

Most of the data reviewed in this chapter are purely qualitative. We have been unable to discern any significant links between the use of particular policies or systems and more rapid improvement on any of the principal outcome measures. Nevertheless we have collected comments from schools as to what they believe contributes positively to the management of school safety.

The feedback on SSP is mostly very positive. The comments tend to cluster around some common themes including the following:

- exclusions, particularly permanent exclusions, reduced
- SSP staff presence found to be 'supporting, challenging and engaging pupils'
- absence rates reduced
- more activities provided for pupils
- a quicker response to behaviour problems possible
- possible to provide more pastoral work
- SSP-enabled innovations such as pupil watch schemes may produce rapid results
- more engagement with local community
- better attitudes and ethos enabled, with greater emphasis on mutual respect and inclusion

- pupils, parents and staff more accustomed to having a police officer in the school and normally prepared to build greater trust in the police as a result, provided that the officer demonstrates commitment to the school.

Advice for making SSP interventions work better includes ensuring that the role of the SSP team is clearly understood on all sides, and that strategic planning for the continuing improvement of school safety is maintained. The latter can be achieved in various ways, including the setting aside of whole or half days for reviewing aspects of SSP activities and objectives and having someone in the SSP team responsible for developing strategy.

## 5.7 Implementation and objectives

The objectives of SSP include two components that are concerned with the way in which intervention is implemented rather than with the impact it has on outcomes such as truancy rates or exam results. The two key requirements are first that schools adopt a whole school approach to safety, and second that they identify and work with children at risk of becoming victims or offenders.

### Whole school approach

Successful SSP of whatever type involve a school making a commitment to an approach to behaviour. Setting up a team of non-teaching staff to work with teaching staff and senior management in a co-ordinated way to improve school safety in a broad sense is a delicate and time-consuming task. Among the matters that have to be resolved are the following.

- Some tasks may best be carried out differently or given greater priority between different groups of staff .
- Office/working space has to be found for a police officer and other project workers.
- Communication between the SSP team, pastoral and other staff, senior managers and school support staff has to be established and maintained.
- Line management of SSP staff has to be developed.
- SSP staff induction arrangements are needed.
- Training in working with children and young people is needed for staff without relevant experience.
- Staff training is needed in the use of restorative justice techniques.
- The school's incident recording system may need to be overhauled in order to ensure consistency with police working practice.
- Agreement is needed on the point at which it is appropriate to bring an officer into a classroom incident, and this may require a review of how bad behaviour is to be dealt with fairly, consistently and proportionately.
- A review of pupil registration practice is needed, with clear understanding of responsibilities for following up absence.

- Provision of facilities to support pupil safety may need to be reviewed including:
  - SSP team access to CCTV coverage
  - cover for transport arrangements at the start and end of the school day
  - breakfast, lunch and after-school club provision for pupils
  - playground supervision responsibilities
  - school site access arrangements during the school day and in evenings or weekends
  - school site physical security.
- Working arrangements with other partners, including YOTs, social services, health services and drug action teams (DATs) will need to be reviewed, including information-sharing agreements, involvement in youth inclusion and support panels (YISPs) and relationships with community policy managers.
- Working arrangements with primary schools will need to be reviewed, especially in relation to pupil transition, behaviour of siblings and, if officers are based in a secondary 'hub', how they are to support feeder primaries.
- Ppolicies on bullying, truancy, authorised absence, leaving the school premises at lunchtime, drugs, weapons, acceptable behaviour, length and timing of breaks and so on may need to be revised in light of changes in priorities and staff roles.
- Schools need to consider how SSP is to be integrated into the school ethos and objectives, including decisions on relationships between SSP team, pupils and staff and the management of behaviour.
- SSP staff or the police officer need to develop, in conjunction with school pastoral staff, a system for allocating a child with behavioural issues to a team member or a police officer.
- An understanding with the local police needs to be reached, probably via the SSP officer or school liaison officer, as to how difficult issues are to be resolved and how any officer time is to be prioritised (e.g. will it be traditional 'reactive', school gate presence or more contemporary proactive involvement in behaviour management, restorative justice etc).
- As local police develop community policing, police and the school will need to reach an agreement whether via SSP or some other model liaison.
- Local police need to establish a policy on how working at the school will fit from a police career perspective.

Success in implementing an SSP project will greatly depend on how effectively the school and the SSP team have been able to deal with the rather formidable agenda set out above. This is not to say that all the elements have to be in place or working well. But if there is any serious weaknesses in the way the school is tackling the agenda then the result may well be that key indicators of school safety fail to improve in the way expected.

### Identify and work with children at risk of becoming victims or offenders

Tutors and pastoral staff, such as heads of year, are generally aware of pupils who are being victimised or have behaviour issues. This knowledge may not extend to offending, whether in school or in the community. Improved school-police liaison gives a chance for better information to flow between schools and the police, and thus for more reliable lists of children at risk to be compiled. Action plans for these pupils can then be better tailored to individual circumstances.

Intervention schools have been more likely to adopt pupil targeting than schools where there is no intervention. The YJB/ACPO model requires such targeting but, in any event, the availability of extra staff to support behaviour problems is likely to result in there being more time than in other schools to introduce targeting.

In order to establish the degree to which these two objectives are being met, we collected a variety of information from interviews with senior school staff. Since we did not seek access to files on individual pupils, we cannot comment in detail on how effectively schools were dealing with pupils at risk. This is clearly a matter that will have to be confronted with the development of the Every Child Matters agenda, because schools will be under pressure to demonstrate that they have effective systems in place for both identifying pupils at risk and working with them.

Our overall impression based on responses to the two questions covered in this section is that SSP schools have progressed further with a wider range of activities designed to tackle problem behaviour at a whole school level. All schools referring explicitly to the use of restorative justice methods were intervention schools.

### Effective implementation

The process of implementing SSP has been discussed at greater length elsewhere (Policy Research Bureau, 2004). We did not pursue this matter at great length, but the school interviews revealed an interesting variation in the degree to which, or the success with which, various SSP projects had been implemented. In the case of the YJB/ACPO model, all three schools had implemented a fully functioning SSP. In the case of the Other SSP model, experience was more mixed. Some of the difficulties experienced emerge when we summarise findings from the 10 Other SSP schools interviewed.

Four criteria were identified as indices for measuring the degree to which intervention had been effectively implemented at Other SSP schools: acceptance of the police officer; police officer's role; school management information systems; and operationality of SSP. For each individual school, all four criteria were graded on a three-point scale (1 = weak; 2 = incomplete or medium; 3 = full implementation) and a mean score calculated.

*Acceptance of the police officer*

The biggest challenge that faces the SSP initiative, in all models of police intervention, is changing the attitudes of the school towards the police and, in particular, towards the involvement of a police officer in school affairs. The success of an initiative can be seen as reflected in the attitudes of the school towards the police. Acceptance of the police officer by staff members and pupils alike largely depends on the ability of those involved in the management and implementation of SSP to inform the school of the role of the police officer in the SSP team, and to reassure school members that having a police officer in the school will be a positive experience. Acceptance of and trust in the police officer is a good indicator that SSP has been effectively implemented, the school understand the role and police involvement in the school is viewed positively. Schools that have been awarded a score of 3 have shown a high level of acceptance towards the police officer. Schools that have been awarded a score of 2 have demonstrated mixed levels, and those with a score of 1 have shown either a low level or no acceptance.

*Police role at the school*

In schools where the SSP initiative has been successful, reinforcement of the common stereotype of the police officer, and its associated stigma, has been avoided, and replaced with a more diverse one. Those managing SSP and its implementation have refrained from using the police officer solely in a reactive role and have made the most of the officer's abilities and experience, involving them in proactive initiatives and improving school attitudes towards the police (e.g. through out-of-school clubs and activities). Schools that have been awarded a score of 3 have shown a high level of diversity in the activities and the role that the police officer has performed. Schools that have been awarded a score of 2 have demonstrated that the police officer has had a more developed role than the stereotypical police officer, and those with a score of 1 have shown a low level of diversity in the officer's role and activity.

*School management information systems*

Effective intervention relies heavily on the sharing of information and dissemination of intelligence. A high level of communication between the school and SSP team is vital to the success of the initiative. In schools where SSP intervention has been successful, the team has had access to organised electronic school management information systems (CMIS, SIMS, BromCom etc), which has allowed individuals' behaviour to be closely monitored. Schools that have been awarded a score of 3 have shown a high level, or advanced use, of school management information systems. Schools that have been awarded a score of 2 have demonstrated a developed level, and those with a score of 1 have shown a limited or no level of use.

*Operational status*

Recruitment can be the key to the success of an SSP initiative. It is important that all positions are filled before the start of intervention, and that the effective start date of the team coincides with this date. The right team members must also be recruited. Each member must be a good team player and possess the qualities and skills to work well within the specific schools involved in the initiative. It is also essential that SSP team members be committed to the initiative, as changes in personnel, etc, can easily lead to setbacks in effectiveness. Schools that have been awarded a score of 3 have had a fully operational team that had been in place when intervention began. Schools that have been awarded a score of 2 had a team that either started later than the initiative start date, or lacked continuity in the employment of a team member, while those awarded a score of 1 started later than the initiative start date and lacked continuity in the employment of a team member.

**Table 5.3 The effective implementation scores of 10 schools**

| | Effective implementation scores | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School | Acceptance of the police officer | Police role at the school | School information management system | Operational status | Total | Mean |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 |
| 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 9 | 2.25 |
| 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 1.5 |
| 4 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 12 | 2.75 |
| 5 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 10 | 2.5 |
| 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 2 |
| 7 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 2 |
| 8 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 11 | 2.75 |
| 9 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 9 | 2.25 |
| 10 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 6 | 1.5 |

Table 5.3 illustrates the variability in the effectiveness of implementation of the intervention. In the empirical analysis of Chapter 6, especially using the ANCOVA model developed in Appendices 5 and 6, we treat School 1 as having incomplete implementation of the intervention, since it scores the minimum of 1 on every criterion.

## 5.8 Relationships between schools and other agencies

Central to SSP, as it is to many other initiatives in this field, is recognition that effective support of vulnerable children requires the intervention to be well co-ordinated across the range of agencies that might be involved in delivering services. Local CDRP may have an effective strategy on youth offending, involving partnership between local agencies such as the police, the YOT and Connexions. This may provide a framework within which schools can be involved at the individual offender level. But there is wide variation in the effectiveness of these local partnerships, the range of agencies involved and the quality of information flowing in either direction between schools and the other agencies.

### School-YOT relationship

There was a great deal of variation across the groups of both intervention and comparison schools in their comments about relationships with the local YOT. On balance, schools were positive about their link, but a sizeable minority in respect of each group cited poor relationships with minimal contact. The most promising signs came from one school where a member of the BEST was also a member of the YOT, and the fact that a number of schools referred to useful contacts about individual pupils, sometimes in relation to YISPs. Two main themes emerged from interviews with 11 YOTs.

The first theme is that links between YOTs and SSP vary widely.

- The SSP project may have been set up as an education-police initiative, thus excluding the YOT.
- YOTs may have many agenda items, with SSP low on their priority list.
- YOTs focus on children and young people in the youth justice system, and not necessarily on preventive work. They will usually only be in contact with a school about a child who is in their caseload.
- Schools and YOTs will both work with local YISPs, but not all YISPs have been set up.
- Local YIPs may target particular schools, although there is not always clarity about how YIPs and BEST/SSP schools work together. Again, the relationship is shaped by local circumstances and personalities
- YOTs may have better links with Connexions, often due to personalities or just shortages of staff.

The second theme is the operation of YOT information systems. There are two commonly used databases: YOIS and Careworks. These systems are used to maintain a database on young offenders in the YOT area. Although these systems are also used to produce regular summary reports for the YJB, there seem to be difficulties in producing school-level data on offending of a kind that might help schools and LEAs or children's trusts identify the extent of offending issues within a particular school. Among the reasons for this position are the following.

- Data input may be incomplete.
- School affiliation may not be input or may be inaccurately recorded, because:
  - YOT case manager does not know school
  - child may change school, may not be a regular attendee or be in the group who are not in education or training
  - it may not be a mandatory field.
- Data are input using free text:
  - some systems do not use drop-down menus with hard codes
  - codes are not systematically used

- lack of consistency across free text, e.g. can contain upper- and lower-case letters, or school names put in differently, may make analysis difficult
- purpose of the databases is to hold individual records of children
- time pressures on YOT information managers are generally considerable and this limits their scope to respond to requests for one-off items such as management information and summary reports
- the systems differ in their robustness and flexibility.

- Access to IT expertise within the YOT may be at a premium and this may inhibit the quality of information produced.
- There are poor links between YOT databases and LEA systems.
- Information-sharing across agencies may not work well, due to systems problems and data protection issue. Many YOTs have developed data-protection sharing policies.

#### School-police relationships

The impact here seems to have been much less equivocal. Even in cases where relationships with local YOTs had remained weak or limited, all intervention schools except one reported their relationship with the police to be positive and improving. There were only two negative comments. One came from an Other SSP school that reported that suspicions remained and that the local police were stretched and thus unable to supply as much support as desired; and a second Other SSP school reported that the first police officer they had worked with had been a let down but the relationship with a second officer was very good.

This illustrates that for intervention schools almost without exception SSP has resulted in the establishment of good, improving links with local police. It also demonstrates that the choice of police officer for SSP work has to be right. Some officers are less well suited to work within the school environment and it is important to ensure that officers with the right sorts of aptitude, training and commitment are assigned to work with schools.

Among the comparison schools, attitudes towards working with the police also varied widely. Some of the schools were not positive about prospects. In a couple of cases the feeling was that closer liaison was not an appropriate objective, that current working relationships were adequate and that bringing an officer into a school would just be treated as an indicator that the school had serious problems. But other comparison schools reported that they already had good informal links with the police. Some said they would welcome further involvement of the police in their school.

## 5.9 Attitudes to police in schools

An important consideration for schools contemplating introducing an SSP intervention is the worry that it might stigmatise the school and be unpopular with pupils, parents and staff. The evidence reported in this section suggests that though these fears may well be present initially, they dissipate, once such a step has been taken and people have had a chance to become accustomed to the idea.

### Pupils' attitudes toward having a police officer in school

Respondents' attitudes toward having a police officer vary with respect to the type of intervention. Respondents in both YJB/ACPO and Other SSP schools tend to perceive positively the idea of having a police officer in their schools. In the YJB/ACPO and Other SSP schools, 84% and 90% respectively support the proposition that it is a good idea to have a police officer attached to their school (see Table 5.4). Respondents in comparison schools, asked a hypothetical version of the same question, are less likely to agree, with 73% saying they think it would be a good idea.

Asked whether they think that having a police officer in their schools gives (or, in the case of comparison schools, would give) a bad impression of the school, 38% of pupils at YJB/ACPO schools and 62% at Other SSP schools agree, while 70% of non-intervention school pupils hold such a view (Table 5.4). In similar vein, only 27% of respondents in the YJB/ACPO schools and 32% in Other SSP schools agree with the suggestion that they would feel uncomfortable with an officer in the school. The corresponding figure for non-intervention schools is much higher, at 58%.

**Table 5.4 Respondents' attitudes toward a police officer in schools**

| Statements | School type | Responses | | | % Responses sometimes or very true |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Very True | Sometimes True | Not True | |
| It is a good idea to have a police officer attached to this school | YJB/ACPO | 2 | 9 | 7 | 84% |
| | Other SSP | 1 | 45 | 18 | 90% |
| | Comparison | 3 | 33 | 24 | 73% |
| Having a police officer here gives (would give) a bad impression of the school. | YJB/ACPO | 6 | 11 | 28 | 38% |
| | Other SSP | 3 | 79 | 68 | 62% |
| | Comparison | 25 | 38 | 27 | 70% |
| I feel (would feel) uncomfortable having a police officer in the school. | YJB/ACPO | 2 | 10 | 33 | 27% |
| | Other SSP | 17 | 41 | 121 | 32% |
| | Comparison | 20 | 32 | 38 | 58% |
| I feel (would feel) safer having a police officer at school. | YJB/ACPO | 29 | 10 | 6 | 87% |
| | Other SSP | 78 | 65 | 35 | 80% |
| | Comparison | 29 | 31 | 30 | 67% |

Source: Analysis of Viewpoint data

From the pupil perspective the key question, and one that features among our outcome measures, is whether pupils feel safer having an officer at their school. The bottom panel of Table 5.4 indicates that about 87% and 80% of respondents in the YJB/ACPO and Other SSP schools, respectively, report themselves as agreeing with the proposition that they feel safer. In the comparison (i.e. non-intervention) schools the figure is lower, but still quite high, at 67%.

A survey of 839 pupils in Essex Other SSP intervention schools produced results which are consistent with the Viewpoint findings reported in the preceding paragraphs. The questions were phrased slightly differently but the responses were similar. In response to the question of whether pupils thought it was a good idea to have a police officer at the school, 72% agreed or strongly agreed while 9% disagreed or strongly disagreed. On the bottom-line issue of whether they felt safer with an officer in the school, 59% agreed or strongly agreed while only 14% disagreed or disagreed strongly.

There is a tendency for respondents in YJB/ACPO and Other SSP schools to think that the presence of a police officer will make a difference to their schools. Returning now to the Viewpoint data, Table 5.5 shows these proportions to be 82% and 71% respectively, with a more pessimistic view among non-intervention schools, where only 54% think it would be likely to make a difference. Interestingly there is more agreement across the different groups of pupils about the prospects for improvements resulting in the area surrounding the school. The proportions for all three groups thinking it will make a difference lie between 50% and 60%, with the proportion being highest for the YJB/ACPO school pupils and lowest for the non-intervention school pupils.

**Table 5.5 Respondents' perceptions of the impact of the SSP programme**

| Statements | School type | Responses | | | | Number of Valid Responses |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Yes | % | No | % | |
| **Overall, do you think having a police officer will make a difference to your school?** | YJB/ACPO | 37 | 82.2% | 8 | 17.8% | 45 |
| | Other SSP | 127 | 71.3% | 51 | 28.7% | 178 |
| | Comparison | 49 | 54.4% | 41 | 45.6% | 90 |
| **Overall, do you think having a police officer at school will make a difference to this area?** | YJB/ACPO | 26 | 59.1% | 18 | 40.9% | 44 |
| | Other SSP | 95 | 53.4% | 83 | 46.6% | 178 |
| | Comparison | 43 | 50.0% | 43 | 50.0% | 86 |

Source: Analysis of Viewpoint data

## 5.10 Conclusions

In this chapter, we have reviewed briefly the implementation of SSP. This has demonstrated that while the YJB/ACPO model has been implemented in a similar format across the three schools where it was introduced, there is much greater variety in the format of the Other SSP intervention. This variety is not a surprise because the funding and motivation of these latter projects are diverse.

There are many components that an SSP may contain and there is wide scope for variation in the intensiveness and success with which individual components may work. Distinctive features of the SSP approach include the adoption of a 'whole school' approach to behaviour and safety issues, and restorative justice. There are some obvious lessons from our brief review of the functioning of projects. Threats to the success of intervention include a lack of clarity as to the role of SSP staff, employing an officer who is not fully committed to or prepared for work in a school environment, and failing to support an officer with appropriate policies and infrastructure such as electronic registration and behaviour monitoring systems.

In the latter part of the chapter we commented briefly on evidence collected from a variety of SSP and non-SSP schools that seems to show that the fears staff, parents and pupils might have about the possible negative effects of SSP are to a considerable degree misplaced. It is true that we are comparing schools with and without an SSP rather than looking at the evolution of attitudes at an individual school from a pre-intervention phase to a post-implementation phase. But there is every sign of differences in attitude between schools with and without an SSP intervention.

# 6 SSP impact on education outcomes

## 6.1 Introduction

Earlier chapters have reviewed conjectures about the direction of the impact of the SSP programme, the sorts of outcome measures to be used in capturing the programme's effects, the methodological framework to be applied and the sources of data. The present chapter is the first of two that look in detail at the impact of the SSP intervention. The following chapter considers outcomes related to offending and the safety of the school environment, such as the level of bullying and pupils' fear of crime.

The present chapter is concerned with educational outcomes including exclusions, absence and exam results. For the most part, these education outcomes pose fewer conceptual challenges than offending outcomes because the requisite data are easier to obtain and the outcomes are mostly contemporary rather than being benefits that are anticipated some time in the future.

The first type of educational outcome explored is absence from school. One of the main objectives of SSP projects is the reduction of truancy, in large part because of the evidence (reviewed in Chapter 1) of a link between truancy and offending. Traditionally truancy has been measured by the rate of unauthorised absence from school. Registration of pupils occurs twice per day, at the beginning (or end) of the morning and afternoon sessions. The unauthorised absence rate measures the proportion, over a term or year, of these half-day sessions for which pupils are missing without permission.

Increasing interest is now being paid to the rate of authorised as well as unauthorised absence, since practice in relation to authorisation varies across LEAs. Holidays taken during term time interrupt a child's education and thus entail a 'loss' even if the school operates a policy of allowing, say, ten days a year to be taken before absence is deemed to be unauthorised. Obviously some authorised absence is entirely reasonable and covers visits to doctors, dentists, hospitals and so on. But the rate of authorised absence stands at an average of 7.0% for English schools, sufficiently high to cause concern.

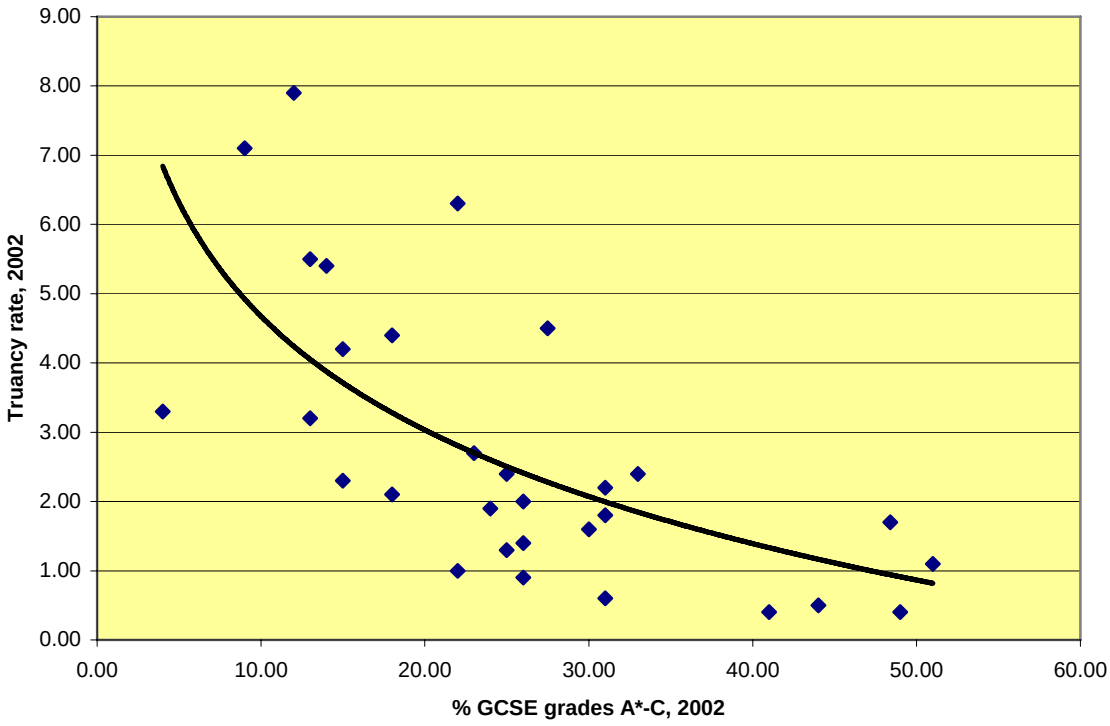
In our analysis of the impact of SSP on school absence we try to reflect this emerging concern by reporting changes in both unauthorised and total (authorised plus unauthorised) absence. It is the former that seems best to capture the 'reducing truancy' objective of SSP, but the latter gives more complete coverage of the objectives of educational bodies in 2005. There is some uncertainty as to whether the two measures will move together. A stricter approach to absence will ensure that some previously authorised absence (such as holiday in term time) will henceforth become 'unauthorised'. But parents or carers might respond to a tightening of the criteria by authorising more of the absence that is currently not authorised. It is worth noting that any move to stop recording unauthorised absence as a separate entity and to focus only on the broader category of 'absence' could be a blow to criminal justice researchers. The link between truancy and offending appears solid but might get lost if the reporting of absence does not distinguish between authorised and unauthorised components.

## 6.2 Truancy rates

This section reports on the impact of SSP on truancy (or 'unauthorised absence'), while the next reports on the impact on total absence (or 'authorised' plus 'unauthorised' absence).

Reductions in truancy rates (or 'unauthorised absence') are an important objective in schools in general, and for schools running an intervention like the SSP programme they are likely to be particularly critical. Unauthorised absence, like bullying, anti-social and disruptive behaviour within a school, represents 'problem behaviour'. It is likely to be associated with academic underachievement and disaffection with school. It is well established also that there is a high correlation between truancy and offending, both through the additional opportunities truancy may create for offending and also because the disaffection truanting signals may be associated with a higher propensity to engage in anti-social activities, including offending. The link between truancy and exam achievement for our sample of 30 schools is documented in Figure 6.1. The graph shows clearly the underlying negative relationship between truancy and examination achievement although it indicates that there is plenty of variation around the trend line.

**Figure 6.1 Truancy and achievement in our sample of 30 schools, 2002**




Note: logarithmic regression line generated by software

A survey of 30,000 16-year-olds showed that persistent truants were very much less likely to be successful in their GCSEs and to remain in education or find work afterwards. Occasional truants were more successful than persistent truants and less successful than pupils who did not truant (Table 6.1).

### Table 6.1 Truancy and exam achievement

| | (Percentage of respondents) | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **Persistent truants** | **Occasional truants** | **Non-truants** |
| Achieved five or more GCSEs at grades A*–C | 13 | 40 | 60 |
| Achieved no GCSEs | 25 | 5 | 2 |
| Were in education, employment or training | 66 | 89 | 96 |

Source: *Youth Cohort Study 2002* (DfES, 2003)

It has also been recognised that reduction of truancy will be an important indicator in the context of the Every Child Matters agenda, in particular in relation to the objective that every child or young person should feel that they enjoy and achieve.

Annual data on unauthorised absence are published for virtually all schools in the School and College Achievement and Attainment Tables, available through the DfES website. From these data, truancy rates can be tracked for the schools in our sample for academic years from 2000/01 to 2003/04. By comparing outcomes before and after intervention beginning in September 2002, estimates can be made of the impact of intervention.

### Table 6.2 Evolution of unauthorised absence rates, 2001–04

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO model | Intervention schools | 4.97 | 5.00 | 4.13 | 4.03 |
| | Comparison schools | 4.17 | 2.50 | 3.97 | 3.63 |
| | Average for 3 LEAs | 1.80 | 1.77 | 1.73 | 1.83 |
| | | | | | |
| Other SSP model | Intervention schools | 3.28 | 2.73 | 2.79 | 2.84 |
| | Comparison schools | 1.95 | 1.95 | 2.10 | 2.68 |
| | Average for 12 LEAs | 1.72 | 1.75 | 1.69 | 1.85 |

The raw data on annual rates of unauthorised absence, from which these averages have been derived, are set out in Table A4.2 in Appendix 4.

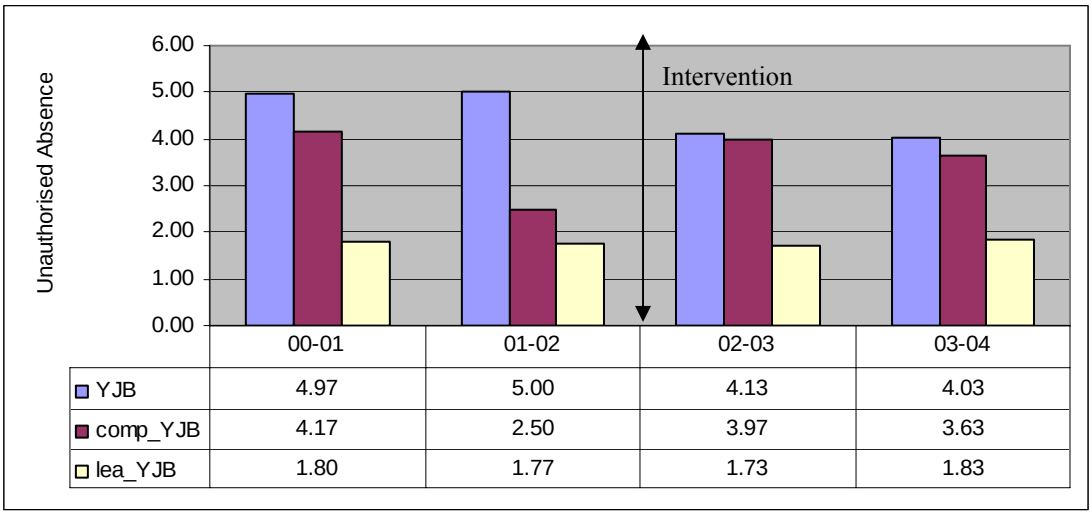
From Table 6.2 there are a number of observations that can be made about the context of the SSP programme.

- The YJB/ACPO model was aimed at schools with significant truancy issues, with average unauthorised absence rates of the order of 5% prior to intervention in September 2002, several times higher than the national average of 1.1% at that time.

- The schools selected for comparison with the YJB/ACPO intervention schools had lower truancy rates, although they were still above the average for their LEAs.
- The sample of schools in which the Other SSP intervention was implemented also had truancy rates in excess of the average for their LEAs.
- However, the average truancy rate for schools and LEAs for our sample of Other SSP schools was below the corresponding rate for YJB/ACPO schools, both before and after intervention.
- The LEA truancy rates were higher, in the case of both types of intervention, than the national average unauthorised absence rate, which had remained at 1.1% for the three years 2000/01 to 2002/03 and rose to 1.2% in 2003/04.
- Both intervention and comparison schools had truancy rates above those of their local LEAs.

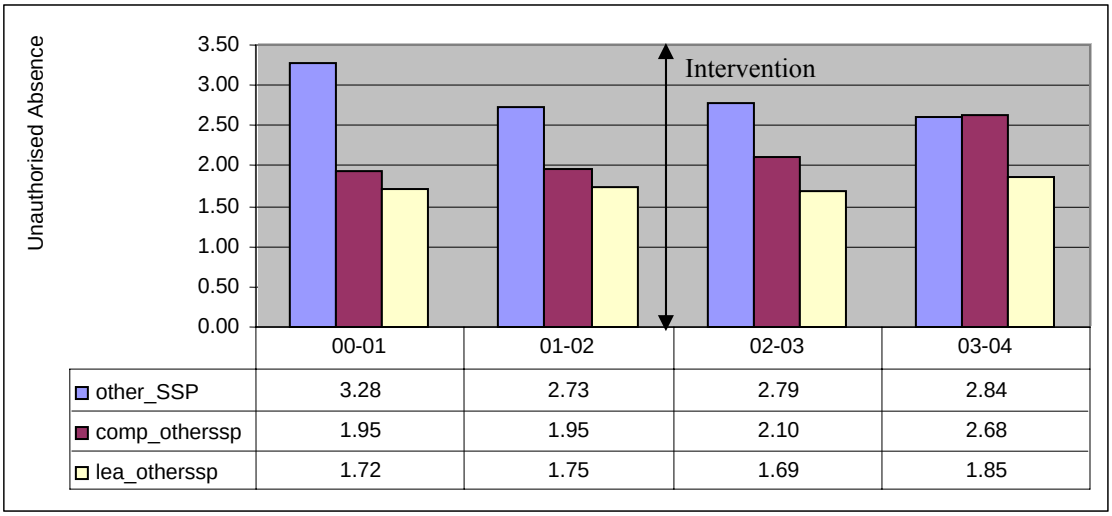
The summary data from Table 6.2 can be viewed in graphical format in Figures 6.2 and 6.3. The impression from the graphs, which will be confirmed when we look more closely at the numbers, is that intervention is accompanied by a reduction in truancy since unauthorised absence appears to fall in the intervention schools relative to the corresponding rates for comparison schools and LEAs.

**Figure 6.2 Evolution of truancy rates 2000–04: YJB/ACPO intervention**




| | 00-01 | 01-02 | 02-03 | 03-04 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| YJB | 4.97 | 5.00 | 4.13 | 4.03 |
| comp_YJB | 4.17 | 2.50 | 3.97 | 3.63 |
| lea_YJB | 1.80 | 1.77 | 1.73 | 1.83 |

**Figure 6.3 Evolution of truancy rates 2000–04: Other SSP intervention**




For purposes of exploring the impact of the SSP intervention more precisely, it is convenient to transform the data into index format, so that the changes occurring from September 2002 can be expressed relative to a common baseline. In Table 6.3, the truancy rate data for each sub-sample are set equal to 100 for the academic year 2001–02. The subsequent movements can then be measured easily with respect to this base value.

**Table 6.3 Truancy rates in index format**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | Change, 2002–04 (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO model | Intervention schools | 100 | 82.67 | 80.67 | -19.33 |
| | Comparison schools | 100 | 158.67 | 145.33 | 45.33 |
| | Whole LEA | 100 | 98.11 | 103.77 | 3.77 |
| | | | | | |
| Other SSP model | Intervention schools | 100 | 102.45 | 104.03 | +4.03 |
| | Comparison schools | 100 | 107.69 | 137.44 | +37.44 |
| | Whole LEA | 100 | 96.92 | 106.17 | 6.17 |

Note: Index based on values during academic year 2001–02

From Table 6.3 there is evidence of an improvement in truancy outcomes as a result of intervention. Comparing the truancy rate in 2003–04 with its pre-intervention level in 2001–02 shows that, in the case of both interventions, there was a large fall in the rates for the intervention schools relative to the rates for both the comparison schools and the LEA. In the case of the YJB/ACPO model, there is a 19% fall for the intervention schools compared with an increase of 45% for the comparison schools and a 4% increase for the LEAs. In the case of the Other SSP intervention, there is a 4% increase for the intervention schools compared with a rise of 37% for the comparison schools and an increase of 6% for the LEAs.

Another way of expressing the finding is to make direct comparisons of the absolute changes in the mean truancy rates for each of the sub-samples, as in Table 6.4 below. The upper part of Table 6.4 below shows that the YJB/ACPO intervention schools in the sample experienced a fall of 0.97 percentage points on average (from 5.00 to 4.03%) between the two years (2001–02 and 2003–04) in their truancy rates. The corresponding figure for the YJB/ACPO comparison schools was an increase of 1.13 percentage points. As the lower part of Table 6.4 indicates, following the methodology set out in Chapter 3, this suggests a truancy rate net improvement impact of 2.10 percentage points in YJB/ACPO intervention schools relative to the control schools.

**Table 6.4 Changes in truancy rates and intervention impact**

| **Sample** | **2002** | **2004** | **Change, percentage points** |
|---|---|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO schools | 5.0 | 4.03 | -0.97 |
| Comp_YJB schools | 2.5 | 3.63 | 1.13 |
| Other SSP | 2.73 | 2.84 | +0.11 |
| Comp_Other SSP | 1.95 | 2.68 | +0.73 |

| **Impact** | **difference in change, percentage points** |
|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO versus Comp_YJB | -2.10 |
| Other SSP versus Comp_Other SSP | -0.62 |

The impact for the Other SSP intervention appears to be similar in direction although smaller in scale. From the upper part of Table 6.4, it can be seen that the Other SSP intervention schools in the sample experienced a rise of 0.11 points on average (from 2.73% to 2.84%) in their truancy rate while comparable schools without the intervention exhibit a worsening of truancy, namely an increase of 0.73 points (from 1.95% to 2.68%). As the second line in the box at the bottom of Table 6.4 indicates, this suggests a truancy net improvement impact of 0.62 percentage points for the Other SSP schools relative to their control group.

Key finding: Between the pre-intervention year 2001–02 and the second year post-intervention 2003–04, mean truancy rates fell in the intervention schools relative to their comparators:

| | |
|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO schools relative to comparators: | mean improvement of 2.1 percentage points |
| Other SSP schools relative to comparators: | mean improvement of 0.62 percentage points |

Particularly in the case of the Other SSP intervention, it is important to note that although there is an improvement in the average or 'mean' truancy rate, there is substantial variation in the experience across schools in the samples. The standard deviations associated with the estimates of the mean change in truancy rates for samples in Table 6.4 are relatively large. This means that we must be careful in drawing inferences as to the effectiveness of intervention, especially in the case of Other SSP intervention schools.

These findings about truancy rates can be developed further in two directions. First, as indicated in the discussion of methodology in Chapter 3, we can replace these 'comparisons of pre- and post- intervention group means' with more reliable estimates of the impact of intervention derived from a general linear model ANCOVA analysis. Appendix 5 sets out the methodology of this more sophisticated approach and also the results from its application to the analysis of truancy rates. The principal objective of this further analysis is to explore the significance of the findings for purposes of drawing inferences about the impact of intervention. A second development is to explore the losses from truancy.

These findings about the scale of the reduction in truancy rates can be translated into estimates of the number of days of unauthorised absence saved by intervention.

The number of days lost due to truancy is simply the school roll times the truancy rate times the number of days in an academic year, namely 190. In Table 6.5 we can see the numbers of days lost in 2002 and 2004 at the YJB/ACPO schools and at their comparators. The number of days saved due to intervention is estimated as follows. First, estimate the number of days that would have been lost in the intervention schools if their truancy rate had mirrored the change in the comparison schools. This expected loss would have been 34,522 (= 24,038 x 12,582/8,761). This expectation is compared with the observed number of 20,099 to give an estimated saving of 14,423 days saved.

In making these estimates, and their counterparts in section 6.3, we have chosen to hold the school roll constant at its 2002 level even when looking at absence in 2004. We have done this in order to eliminate any effect on the number of days of absence that might be a result of a change in the size of the school roll as distinct from the proportion of pupils who are absent. Of course, if the school were expanding and the truancy rate was falling then in reality the number of days saved would increase with both changes and thus be underestimated by our method. But if the school were contracting, this would offset, to a greater or less degree, any improvement in the absence rate.

**Table 6.5 Number of days truancy prevented by YJB/ACPO intervention**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | Days lost in 2002 | Days lost in 2004 | Expected loss in 2004 | Net Savings due to intervention (days) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO model** | **Intervention schools** | 24,038 | 20,099 | 34,522 | **14,423** |
| | **Comparison schools** | 8,761 | 12,582 | | |

Applying the standard shift-share approach, if the growth rate in days lost in the intervention schools had been the same as in the comparison schools then the intervention schools would have lost 24,038 x 12,582/8,761 days in 2004. In the event they lost many fewer than this. Our estimate of the saving is given by the difference between the expected and observed days lost.

There are some important caveats to these findings.

- The sample size is small, only three schools in the case of YJB/ACPO interventions. Sample size plays a key role in inferential statistics, and such small numbers make it very difficult indeed to draw inferences with any degree of confidence about the likely impact of extending the intervention to a further sample of schools. However the findings are based on the twice daily attendance decisions of more than 4,000 pupils.
- There is considerable variation in truancy rates both through time and across schools. To illustrate this we present, in Table 6.6, the range, measuring the absolute difference between the maximum and minimum truancy rates observed for a particular year
- The large range of observations persists and is of the same magnitude prior to and after intervention.

This highlights the high degree of variability we are facing and the limitations we confront in deriving robust inferences about impact.

**Table 6.6 Range of truancy rates during 2002 and 2004**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2002 | | | 2004 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Min | Max | Range | Min | Max | Range |
| YJB/ACPO model | Intervention schools | 3.3 | 6.3 | 3.0 | 2.2 | 5.9 | 3.7 |
| | Comparison schools | 0.9 | 4.2 | 3.3 | 2.1 | 6.0 | 3.9 |
| | | | | | | | |
| Other SSP model | Intervention schools | 0.4 | 7.9 | 7.5 | 0.7 | 7.4 | 6.7 |
| | Comparison schools | 0.5 | 4.4 | 3.9 | 0.3 | 7.3 | 7.0 |

## 6.3 Total Absence

As indicated above, there is increasing interest in the concept of 'total absence' comprising the sum of both unauthorised and authorised absence. The analysis of total absence in this section extends the analysis of unauthorised absence presented already to include authorised absence as well.

As a result of intervention we will see that total absence has fallen in intervention schools, with the fall in authorised absence reinforcing the reduction in unauthorised absence. At comparison schools, the increase in unauthorised absence is more than offset by the reduction in authorised absence so that, on balance, there is a reduction in total absence.

**Table 6.7 Evolution of total absence rates, 2002 and 2004**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2002 | 2004 |
|---|---|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO model | Intervention schools | 16.63 | 13.60 |
| | Comparison schools | 12.00 | 10.80 |
| | | | |
| Other SSP model | Intervention schools | 13.31 | 11.98 |
| | Comparison schools | 11.74 | 11.33 |

The raw data on annual rates of unauthorised absence from which these averages have been derived are set out in Table A4.2 in Appendix 4. Data on authorised absence are omitted from the appendix in order to help protect schools' anonymity.

From Table 6.7, which documents the evolution of total absence rates over the period 2002 to 2004, there are a number of observations that can be made about the context of the SSP programme.

- The YJB/ACPO model was aimed at schools with significant absence rates, with average total absence rates of the order of 16.61% prior to intervention in September 2002, nearly twice as high as the national average of 8.6% [24] at that time.
- The summary data from Table 6.7 can be viewed in graphical format in Figures 6.4 and 6.5. There is a reduction in total absence in both YJB/ACPO intervention and comparison schools but the size of the reduction is larger at intervention schools.

[24] The national average of total absence is 7.5% for authorised absence and 1.1% for unauthorised absence. Source: DfES website.

**Figure 6.4 Evolution of total absence rates between 2002 and 2004: YJB/ACPO intervention**

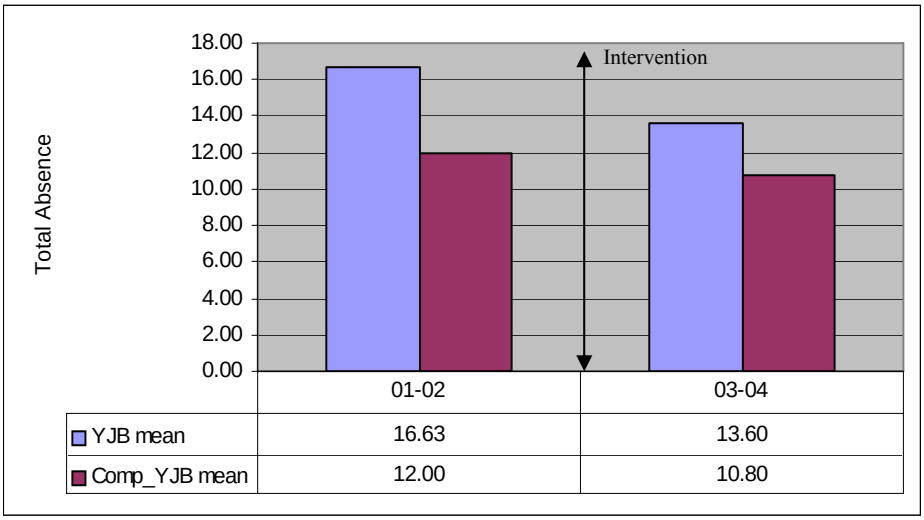
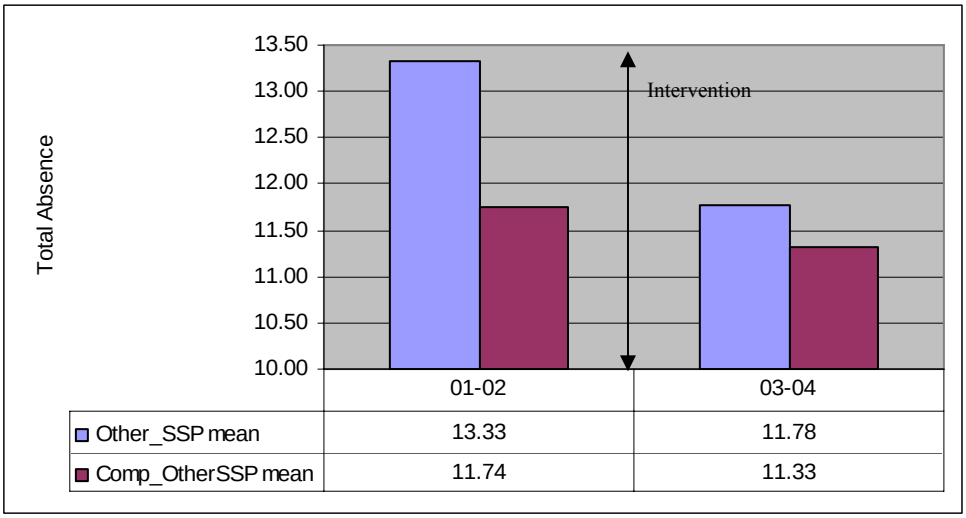



**Figure 6.5 Evolution of total absence rates between 2002 and 2004: Other SSP intervention**




For purposes of exploring the impact of the SSP intervention more precisely, it is useful to transform the data into index format, so that the changes occurring after September 2002 can be expressed in relation to a common baseline. In Table 6.8, the total absence rate for each sub-sample is set equal to 100 for the academic year 2001–02. The movements subsequently can then be measured easily with respect to this base value.

**Table 6.8 Total absence rates in index format**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2002 | 2004 | Change, 2002–2004, % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO model** | **Intervention schools** | 100 | 81.76 | -18.24 |
| | **Comparison schools** | 100 | 90.00 | -10.00 |
| | | | | |
| **Other SSP model** | **Intervention schools** | 100 | 90.01 | -9.99 |
| | **Comparison schools** | 100 | 96.50 | -3.50 |

Notes: Index based on values during academic year 2001–02

From Table 6.8, it can be observed that there is clear evidence of an improvement in total absence rates as a result of intervention. Comparing the total absence rate in 2003–04 with its pre-intervention level in 2001–02 shows that in the case of both interventions there was a fall in the rates for the intervention schools relative to the rates for the comparison schools. In the case of the YJB/ACPO model, there is an 18% fall for the intervention schools compared with a reduction of 10% for the comparison schools. In the case of the Other SSP imodel, there is a 10% fall for the intervention schools compared with a reduction of 3.5% for the comparison schools.

Another way of expressing the finding is to make direct comparisons of changes in the mean absence rates for each of the sub-samples, as in Table 6.9 below. The upper part of the table shows that the YJB/ACPO intervention schools in the sample experienced a fall of 3 percentage points on average (from 16.63 to 13.60%) between the two years (2001–02 and 2003–04) in their total absence rates. The corresponding figure for the YJB/ACPO comparison schools was a reduction of 1.20 percentage points. As the lower part of Table 6.9 indicates, following the methodology set out in Chapter 3, this suggests an absence rate net improvement impact of 1.83 percentage points in intervention schools relative to the control schools.

**Table 6.9 Changes in absence rates and intervention impact**

| **Sample** | **2002** | **2004** | **Change, percentage points** |
|---|---|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO schools | 16.63 | 13.60 | -3.03 |
| Comp_YJB schools | 12.00 | 10.80 | -1.20 |
| | | | |
| Other SSP | 13.31 | 11.98 | -1.33 |
| Comp_Other SSP | 11.74 | 11.33 | -0.41 |

| **Impact** | **Difference in change, percentage points** |
|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO versus Comp_YJB | -1.83 |
| Other SSP versus Comp_Other SSP | -0.92 |

The impact for the Other SSP intervention appears to be similar in direction although smaller in scale. From the upper part of Table 6.9 it can be seen that the Other SSP intervention schools in the sample experienced a fall of 1.33 percentage points on average (from 13.31% to 11.98%) in their total absence rate while comparable schools without the intervention exhibit a reduction of total absence rates of 0.41 percentage points (from 11.74% to 11.33%). As the bottom line of Table 6.9 indicates, this suggests a total absence net improvement impact of 0.92 percentage points for the Other SSP schools relative to their control group.

Key finding: Between the pre-intervention year 2001–02 and the second year post intervention 2003–04, mean total absence rates fell in the intervention schools relative to their comparators:

| | |
|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO schools (relative to comparators): | mean improvement of 1.83 percentage points |
| Other SSP schools (relative to comparators): | mean improvement of 0.92 percentage points |

For purposes of the benefit-cost analysis in Chapter 9 it is convenient to translate these rates into the number of days saved by the YJB/ACPO intervention. The results, derived using the same methodology as Table 6.5, are set out in Table 6.10.

In Table 6.10 we estimate the number of days that would have been lost in the intervention schools if their absence had grown at the same rate as absence in comparison schools. This total of around 71,000 is compared with the observed number of days lost, 63,533, to get an estimate of 7,425 days of absence saved as a result of intervention.

**Table 6.10 Number of days of total absence saved due to YJB/ACPO intervention**

| Sample of schools | 2002 | 2004 | Expected days lost in 2004 | Net Saving |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Intervention schools (YJB/ACPO model)** | 78,750 | 63,533 | 70,958 | **7,425** |
| **Comparison schools** | 41,842 | 37,702 | | |

There are some important caveats to these findings.

- The sample size is small, with only three schools (plus three comparison schools). Sample size plays a key role in inferential statistics, and such small numbers make it very difficult to draw inferences with any degree of confidence. However, the absence rates are derived from the individual decisions made by a sample of over 4,000 pupils on each of 380 half-day sessions each year.
- There is large variability among total absence rates as a consequence of variability in both authorised and unauthorised absence.

As with the truancy analysis of the previous section, it is helpful to use the ANCOVA model to explore more carefully the significance of these findings from a statistical inference perspective. Appendix 6 documents the findings, demonstrating that intervention significantly reduced total absence across our sample.

## 6.4 Pupil exclusions

The second indicator of the impact of SSP on educational outcomes in schools is the number of exclusions. We can see an important reduction in pupil exclusions since intervention, as is illustrated in Table 6.11. But, just as with the truancy data, there are some important caveats to keep in mind when using permanent exclusions as an outcome measure; these include the following.

- The data themselves are known, by DfES who compile them, to suffer some significant reliability problems.
- The number of exclusions has been falling across most schools, making it difficult to make reliable judgments about the extent of the fall that can be attributed to SSP.
- The number of exclusions in a particular year is generally quite small, making it hazardous to express exclusions as a rate (e.g. as a proportion of the school roll) even though using rates would normally be the best option since it controls for variation in school size.
- The numbers can be quite volatile from one year to the next so that even averaging over two-year intervals can produce apparently erratic trends.
- Data for 2004 are not available until June of 2005, so our analysis only runs up to academic year 2002–03.

**Table 6.11 Evolution of the number of permanent exclusions 2001–03**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO model** | **Intervention schools** | 7.33 | 2.33 | 0.00 |
| | **Comparison schools** | 2.00 | 1.33 | 0.00 |
| | | | | |
| **Other SSP model** | **Intervention schools** | 4.08 | 3.33 | 1.64 |
| | **Comparison schools** | 1.92 | 1.83 | 0.67 |

Note: Mean number of permanent exclusions per school

The raw data on annual rates of the number of permanent exclusions are set out in Appendix 5.

From Table 6.11 we can see a significant reduction in the number of exclusions across the board. This reduction has to be treated cautiously. The information from Table 6.11 can be viewed graphically in Figures 6.6 and 6.7.

**Figure 6.6 Evolution of the number of exclusions 2001–03: YJB/ACPO intervention**

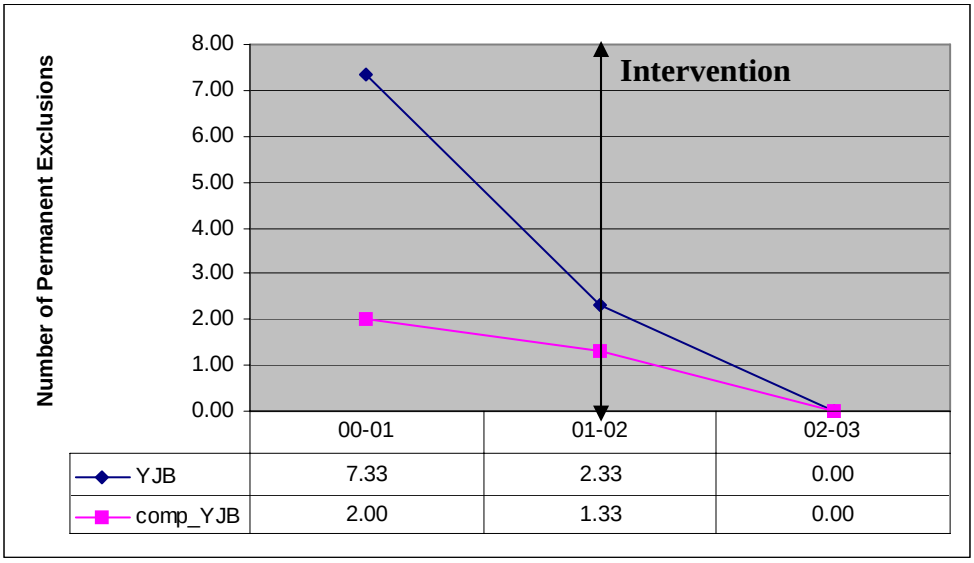
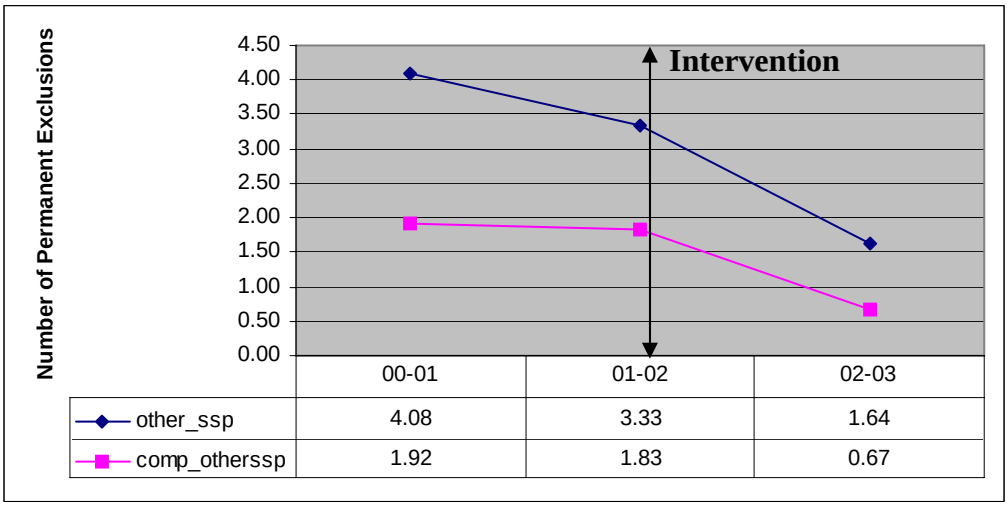



**Figure 6.7 Evolution of the number of exclusions 2001–03: Other SSP intervention**




From Figures 6.6 and 6.7 we can see that there is a general reduction in the number of permanent exclusions. Both types of intervention schools and comparison schools report a significant reduction. The trend they follow is the same and thus may not be attributed to the intervention.

## 6.5 Exam outcomes

The third outcome measure we apply is the most commonly used indicator of academic achievement, namely the proportion of students getting five or more grades A*–C at GCSE. This indicator is obviously measuring only one aspect of performance, namely the impact on achievement for a single year group (Year 11). It is thus ignoring potentially important aspects of academic performance across the school, such as how well new (Year 7) pupils are doing. It is hoped that improvements in school safety contribute over time to a more comfortable school environment in which pupils are free to focus more clearly on academic matters and are less distracted by disruptive behaviour on the part of other pupils. It is quite likely then that the beneficial effects of intervention as far as GCSE results are concerned may take quite some time to work through in terms of improved attainment levels in externally moderated exams such as GCSE that have a curriculum spread over two years.

Schools with high truancy rates generally achieve less good academic results. It is immediately clear from Table 6.12 that the intervention and comparison schools are well below their LEA average on GCSE results, just as they had higher truancy rates (as observed above).

There is some evidence of improvement between 2001–02 (the pre-intervention year) and 2003–04 (the second year of intervention). In Table 6.12, it can be seen that over that interval results improved for all intervention schools, comparison schools and their respective LEAs. In relative terms it can be seen that YJB/ACPO school performance improved relative to their comparison group but that the reverse was true of the Other SSP intervention.

Both types of intervention, YJB/ACPO and Other SSP, are associated with an improvement in exam results.

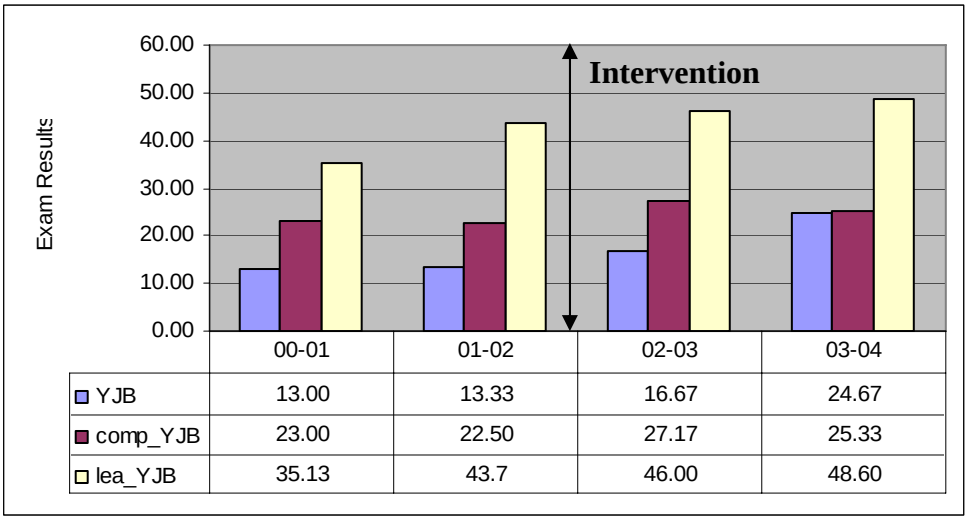
This finding is a little surprising, since we were expecting that the impact of intervention on exam results would take two or three years to build up.

**Table 6.12 Evolution of exam results, 2001–04**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO model | Intervention schools | 13.00 | 13.33 | 16.67 | 24.67 |
| | Comparison schools | 23.00 | 22.50 | 27.17 | 25.33 |
| | Whole LEA | 35.13 | 43.7 | 46.00 | 48.60 |
| | | | | | |
| Other SSP model | Intervention schools | 25.33 | 24.08 | 28.50 | 28.00 |
| | Comparison schools | 29.00 | 29.17 | 32.83 | 36.08 |
| | Whole LEA | 38.62 | 39.12 | 42.12 | 44.17 |

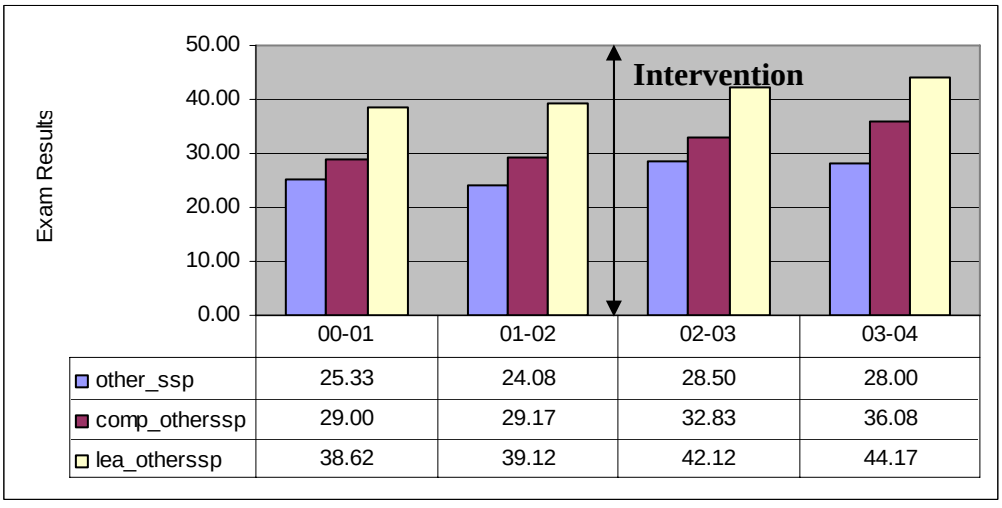
The raw data on annual rates of achieving five or more GCSE grades A*–C are set out in Appendix 8. The summary data from Table 6.12 can be viewed in graphical format in Figures 6.8 and 6.9.

**Figure 6.8 Evolution of exam results 2001–04: YJB/ACPO intervention**




| | 00-01 | 01-02 | 02-03 | 03-04 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| YJB | 13.00 | 13.33 | 16.67 | 24.67 |
| comp_YJB | 23.00 | 22.50 | 27.17 | 25.33 |
| lea_YJB | 35.13 | 43.7 | 46.00 | 48.60 |

**Figure 6.9 Evolution of exam results 2001–04: Other SSP intervention**




| | 00-01 | 01-02 | 02-03 | 03-04 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| other_ssp | 25.33 | 24.08 | 28.50 | 28.00 |
| comp_otherssp | 29.00 | 29.17 | 32.83 | 36.08 |
| lea_otherssp | 38.62 | 39.12 | 42.12 | 44.17 |

As can be seen from Figure 6.8 there is a substantial improvement in the exam results at YJB/ACPO intervention schools. From the graph, it can be seen that the GCSE achievement rates for comparison schools and LEAs have risen gradually and at a steady pace in line with the improvement in results nationally. YJB/ACPO schools have almost 'caught up' with their respective comparison schools. From Figure 6.9 it can be seen that the same is not true for the Other SSP intervention schools. Despite an improvement in pass rate from 24% to 28%, they have improved less quickly than the comparison group, where the pass rate increased from 29% to 36%.

For purposes of exploring the impact of the SSP intervention we have transformed the examinations data into index format (as we did with the truancy rates). The changes occurring from September 2002 can thus be expressed relative to a common baseline. In Table 6.13, the examination pass rate data for each sub-sample are set equal to 100 for the academic year 2001–02. Subsequently, the movements can then be measured easily with respect to this base value.

**Table 6.13 Exam results in index format**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | Change, 2002–2004, % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO model | Intervention schools | 100 | 125 | 185 | +85 |
| | Comparison schools | 100 | 121 | 113 | +13 |
| | Whole LEA | 100 | 105 | 111 | +11 |
| | | | | | |
| Other SSP model | Intervention schools | 100 | 118 | 116 | +16 |
| | Comparison schools | 100 | 113 | 124 | +24 |
| | Whole LEA | 100 | 108 | 113 | +13 |

From Table 6.13, we can see that the largest impact has been on YJB/ACPO schools, where exam results improved by 85% compared with a 13% rise at comparison schools and 11% at LEA level. More analysis follows in Table 6.14, showing the impact of the intervention. In the case of Other SSP intervention schools, the table indicates that the comparison schools' performance improved by 8 percentage points more than that of the intervention schools.

**Table 6.14 Changes in exam results rates and intervention impact**

| Sample | change, percentage points |
|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO schools | +11.33 |
| Comp YJB schools | +2.83 |
| | |
| Other SSP | +3.92 |
| Comp Other SSP | +6.91 |

| Impact | difference in change, percentage points |
|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO versus Comp YJB | +8.50 |
| Other SSP versus Comp Other SSP | - 2.99 |

Characteristics of the sample include the following:

- With there being only three YJB/ACPO interventions, it is difficult to be confident that the examination performance improvements could be sustained if the number of schools adopting the intervention were to be increased.
- There is large variability among exam results. To illustrate this, we present the range measuring the absolute difference between the highest and lowest exam achievement rates observed. This is illustrated in Tables 6.15 and 6.16, which show clearly the large range of observations. Although the range of the data is still large in 2004, it has in most cases decreased.

**Table 6.15 Range value for exam results during 2002 and 2004**

| Intervention type | Sample of schools | 2002 | | | 2004 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Min | Max | Range | Min | Max | Range |
| YJB/ACPO model | Intervention schools | 4 | 22 | **18** | 20 | 27 | **7** |
| | Comparison schools | 15 | 27.5 | **12.5** | 22 | 31 | **9** |
| Other SSP model | Intervention schools | 9 | 49 | **40** | 12 | 46 | **34** |
| | Comparison schools | 13 | 51 | **38** | 17 | 60 | **43** |

Due to the reduction in variability, we took the opportunity to test statistically whether exam results have improved. Results not reported from the ANCOVA model indicate that exam results did not improve significantly following intervention even though the mean pass rate rose for the YJB/ACPO intervention group.

## *6.6 Incidents*

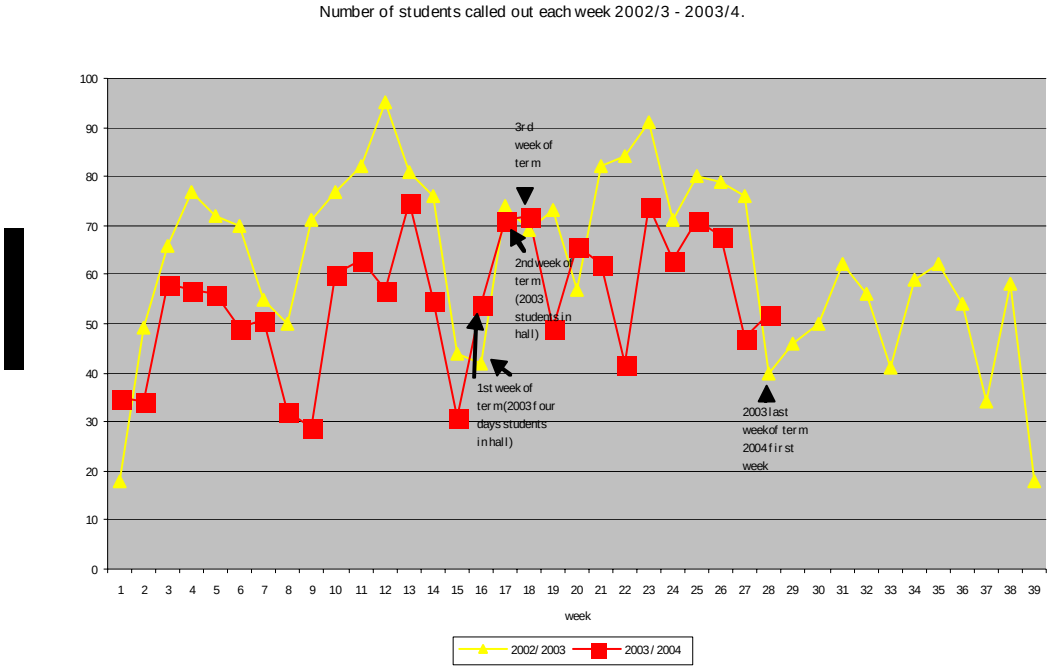
A fourth, less straightforward indicator we use for measuring the educational outcomes is the impact of intervention on the number of "incidents" recorded in a school. Schools normally keep a record of incidents but these are seldom available for research purposes. Increasingly, however, schools are installing software for recording incidents as well as absence and other information. Such systems have the potential to make it much easier for schools not only to track individual pupils but also to run analyses by year, tutor group or whatever. These profiles of problem behaviour can be used to inform school planning.

SSP intervention schools were asked to monitor incidents but were not, as far as we are aware, given explicit guidance as to the format in which this should be done. In the YJB/ACPO schools some progress has been made in terms of developing incident-recording systems. In the case of at least one school, a weekly tally of the number of incidents can be plotted and repeated for each of the two years since the intervention began in September 2002. Unfortunately, this exercise cannot be repeated systematically for non-YJB/ACPO schools, and since there are no pre-intervention data for these schools either, there is little scope for making meaningful comparisons from which inferences about the impact of intervention can be drawn.

In the medium term, as school safety and behaviour come to play a more significant role within the school inspection framework, it seems likely that there will be pressure for the development of more systematic monitoring of incidents within schools. The work that has been done by DfES on the development of assessment tools for measuring the impact of BEST (DfES, 2003) is a useful reference resource on the kind of self-evaluation forms that schools might use, although the tool would need to be adapted to meet the purposes of non-intervention schools as well as BEST schools. We pursue this possibility further below.

For an illustration of the kind of analysis that becomes possible when incidents are recorded systematically in electronic format, we look briefly at some monitoring data from one of the YJB/ACPO schools.

**Figure 6.10 Plot of incidents at a school following intervention**




The indications from Figure 6.11 are that the number of incidents fell during the second year of the intervention as compared with the first year. Interestingly the scale of the reduction, perhaps of the order of 20 percentage points on average, seems quite similar to the YOT offending data, which suggest a fall of 25% in offending by pupils at the school in year 2003–04 compared with 2002–03. However, this link is conjectural.

### Bullying

One particular type of incident of widespread concern is school bullying. Many schools have an anti-bullying policy but few are able to produce evidence as to the extent of such behaviour problems. In the absence of access to consistent, reliable records of bullying incidents in school the principal source of data on the impact of intervention on bullying is self-report data. At present, we have only the Policy Research Bureau data for exploring this angle, the limitations of which we have already outlined in Chapter 4. Bullying can be looked at from two perspectives, and pupil self-report data can shed light on both. However, the findings are not easy to interpret.

**Table 6.16 Incidents of bullying following intervention**

| School type: | YJB/ACPO | Other SSP | Control |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Change in numbers:** | | | |
| Taking part in bullying | +44.1% | +6.3% | +6.5% |
| Victims of bullying | -5.5% | +15.8% | -7.2% |

Notes: (1) Source of data, Bhabra et al, 2004; (2) Data measure the percentage change for matched pair individuals between Terms 1 and 3 during first year of implementation.

From Table 6.16, it can be seen, for example, that although there was an increase of nearly 45% over the six months in the proportion who reported involvement in bullying other pupils in YJB/ACPO intervention schools, the proportion of pupils in these schools reporting being victims of bullying fell by 5.5%. There are many possible explanations of these discrepancies but there is little point in speculating about this here. We have not been able to follow these data beyond the first year of SSP implementation.

## *6.7 Summary*

This chapter has used a straightforward approach to model the impact of intervention. We have estimated the change as between pre-intervention and post-intervention years in the mean value of variables including truancy rates and examination pass rates. By doing this for the different groups of intervention and comparison schools we have been able to make estimates of the 'net' effect of intervention.

These comparisons of mean values cannot be used as evidence of the effectiveness of intervention from a statistical perspective, even though they are a reasonable first approximation to the scale of impact. In order to establish the statistical significance or otherwise of the findings we have to use a more sophisticated methodology, namely the ANCOVA model, that is able to adjust for the non-equivalence of the intervention and comparison schools.

Our findings, in summary, were as follows:

- Truancy rates and total absence rates fell significantly in the intervention schools relative to comparison schools.
- The GCSE pass rate did not change in intervention schools relative to comparison school.
- In the YJB/ACPO schools the mean pass rate did increase relative to the rate in the YJB/ACPO comparison schools.
- The volume of classroom incidents fell between the first and second years post-intervention in the one YJB/ACPO school where the volume was plotted weekly.

It will be well worth continuing to monitor these educational outcomes in SSP schools and some comparison schools, because some of the benefits (such as improvements in GCSE results) may take at least until 2007 to mature.

# 7 SSP impact on youth offending and school safety

## 7.1 Introduction

Making schools safer and reducing offending by pupils are complementary but distinct objectives. The SSP intervention aims to contribute to both, as we outlined above. Since data on the two areas are often collected with a single research instrument we consider both areas in this chapter, although we endeavour to keep clear the distinction between them.

In principle, it should be straightforward to establish how successful the SSP intervention has been in achieving each of these objectives. If offending levels in a school have been falling and if the pupils at the school say they feel safer from crime, then there would be prima facie evidence that the project is succeeding. By comparing the scale of the crime reduction (or the improvement in the proportion of pupils who feel safe) in intervention schools with experience in non-intervention schools, it should be possible to infer an estimate of the scale of the improvement on either criterion attributable to the SSP intervention.

But, as we see later in the chapter, it is frustratingly difficult in practice to measure this success at all reliably. The data requirements of a research design based on comparing offending or victimisation data from intervention schools and matched non-intervention schools for an interval running from two years pre-intervention to two years post-intervention should not be underestimated. In other areas of school performance, such as examination results or truancy rates, such requirements are not a problem because schools have been required to submit statistical returns from which data can be derived. But this is not true in relation to pupil safety or pupil offending. These matters have not been completely ignored in the past, but it would be fair to say that they are being giving greater prominence now than they were until recently. Pupil offending and pupil safety both have close links with social exclusion and so have become more prominent targets for policy.

## 7.2 Measuring youth offending and school safety

Discussion of crime rates, and changes in crime rates, increasingly recognises the important difference between measures based on the number of offences recorded by the police and measures based on responses to interview surveys of the public's experience of being a victim of crime. Home Office publications on the incidence of crime now often refer to both types of measure.[25] A similar distinction can be made for children and young people. The British Crime Survey excludes under-16s, but the MORI surveys for YJB fill part of the gap by reporting on the victimisation of pupils (YJB, 2004). This provides a potentially valuable source of data against which findings from police figures on recorded crime data on young offenders from the age of 10 can be compared.

These pupil surveys include two further measures that may play an important role. They invite pupils to self-report their involvement in offending or other forms of anti-social or problem behaviour. In addition, they ask questions about how safe pupils feel in school. This makes the findings from such surveys a potentially rich source of data on both school safety and youth offending, providing the results are reliable.

The main drawback is that such surveys have not been routinely conducted across schools and thus there is little prospect of using them to establish baseline data. The sample of schools from which pupil survey data have been collected does not match the SSP intervention sample of schools sufficiently to use it for pre- and post-intervention analysis. Since such surveys comprise the only source of data on three of the four measures of youth offending and school safety, the result is that the empirical foundations for analysing changes in youth offending and school safety at the individual school level are very weak.

The strategy for the remainder of the chapter is to review each of the four measures of school safety and youth offending in turn. We review sources of data as we seek to highlight the limitations of the empirical evidence that has been produced to date on the impact of SSP interventions on youth offending and school safety. To conclude the chapter, we look at the prospects for making greater use of YOT databases as a source of data on recorded youth offending. We also anticipate some of the discussion in later chapters of the development of a self-evaluation approach for schools that would make it much easier to track changes in pupil offending and school safety.

## 7.3 Fear of crime in schools

In the absence of regular collection of data about safety in schools, any assessment of the impact of SSP on the fear of crime in schools has to rely on results from occasional, specially commissioned surveys. We had access to three such surveys, as outlined below. In the longer term the lack of data in this area may be rectified. There seems to be a consensus about the appropriate sorts of questions to ask and there is machinery in place to commission or collect such data in the form of the crime and disorder partnerships and youth offending services. But there is little sign at present of local youth offending strategies based solidly on such an evidence base.

[25] The two key sources of data are the recorded crime data collected by the police and the *British Crime Survey*. For further discussion, see Dodd et al, 2004.

### Policy Research Bureau survey

The first of the surveys we use was generated in earlier evaluation work on the SSP programme by the Policy Research Bureau (Bhabra, 2004). It set out to investigate, among other things, changes in the fear of crime in school by administering questionnaires to samples of pupils in a mixture of SSP intervention schools and comparison schools.

Pupils at nine intervention schools and two comparison schools completed questionnaires that covered topics including victimisation and the fear of crime. A first round of questionnaires was administered during the autumn term of 2002–03, or Time 1 as we refer to it, just after the SSP intervention started. A second round followed during the summer term later in the same academic year (referred to as Time 2). The survey included a matched sample of pupils interviewed at both Times 1 and 2. There were 280 of these matched pairs in the YJB/ACPO schools, 293 in the Other SSP schools and 119 in the Comparison schools. One difference from the approach of MORI referred to in earlier chapters was the use of questions with graded responses rather than binary responses (worried versus not worried).

The relevant questions, along with the range of possible responses, included the following:

- In general, how safe do you feel at this school? (1 = Very unsafe, 5 = Very safe)
- In general, how safe do you feel travelling to or from this school each day? (1 = Very unsafe, 5 = Very safe)

This multinomial formulation allows more information to be collected about the intensity of any worries, but generates responses that need more sophisticated statistical methods of analysis.

### Viewpoint

A second set of data was collected from a survey commissioned alongside the present evaluation. Viewpoint designed an interactive computer-based programme for collecting questionnaire responses from pupils at a number of the schools among the sample of 30 on which this report is based.

The questions used by Viewpoint were similar to those used by the Policy Research Bureau and others. A total of 457 responses were collected remotely by Viewpoint from school computer lab sessions between December 2004 and Easter 2005. For simplicity we label this Time 3. It occurred approximately 18 months after Time 2 in the Policy Research Bureau study. Unlike the Policy Reseach Bureau exercise, this was designed as a cross-section study, with no pre- or post-comparison possibilities. By using matched pairs of schools, the hope was to establish whether fear of crime was lower in intervention schools than in corresponding comparison schools, other things being equal.

### Essex police

A third set of data was generated from a survey commissioned by Essex police of pupils in the 10 Essex schools in which an SSP has been introduced. The type of intervention implemented was comparable with the Other SSP model outlined in Chapter 5. The responses were collected at broadly the same time as the Viewpoint data, so we simplify by assuming that they too were collected at Time 3. No responses were collected from comparison schools and the survey has only been conducted once thus far. Since the questions asked were similar to those in the Policy Research Bureau and Viewpoint exercises, the findings can be compared with those from the other two sources.

The next step is to look in turn at the two issues covered in all three surveys, namely fear of crime in school and fear of crime while travelling to school.

### Fear of crime in school

The findings from the Policy Research Bureau data on the fear of crime in school can be summarised most easily by setting them out in the form of a cross-tabulation of the Time 1 and Time 2 responses, as in Table 7.1. Along the diagonal (picked out in bold type in the Table) are located those respondents who report no change between times in how safe they felt at school. This group gave the same responses to the question when asked at Time 2 as they had at Time 1. Those above the diagonal felt safer, while those below the diagonal feel less safe at Time 2 than they did at Time 1.

**Table 7.1 Policy Research Bureau findings on fear of crime in school**

| | | Time 2 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Time 1** | **Very unsafe** | **Fairly unsafe** | **Neither unsafe nor safe** | **Fairly safe** | **Very safe** |
| **YJB/ACPO** | **Very unsafe** | **2** | 2 | 1 | | 1 |
| **$N_1$ = 280** | **Fairly unsafe** | 1 | **1** | 1 | 4 | 1 |
| | **Neither unsafe nor safe** | 3 | 1 | **10** | 17 | 3 |
| | **Fairly safe** | | 10 | 28 | **85** | 4 |
| | **Very safe** | 2 | 1 | 6 | 27 | **9** |
| | | | | | | |
| **Other SSP** | **Very unsafe** | **1** | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| **$N_2$ = 293** | **Fairly unsafe** | 3 | **3** | 2 | 6 | 1 |
| | **Neither unsafe nor safe** | 1 | 4 | **20** | 29 | 4 |
| | **Fairly safe** | 2 | 12 | 30 | **104** | 20 |
| | **Very safe** | 2 | | 5 | 27 | **11** |
| | | | | | | |
| **CONTROL** | **Very unsafe** | **1** | | | | 1 |
| **$N_3$ = 119** | **Fairly unsafe** | 2 | **2** | 3 | 2 | |
| | **Neither unsafe nor safe** | 1 | 3 | **8** | 5 | 2 |
| | **Fairly safe** | | 3 | 15 | **53** | 5 |
| | **Very safe** | 1 | 1 | 2 | 6 | **3** |

Another way of looking at these same data is to identify the proportion feeling safe or very safe at each time point, as in Table 7.2. This makes it easier to get a sense of how responses varied across the groups of respondents and the degree to which they changed during the first year following intervention.

**Table 7.2 Proportion in the Policy Research Bureau survey feeling fairly safe or very safe in school (%)**

| | Time 1 | Time 2 |
|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO schools** | 82.9 | 75.4 |
| **Other SSP schools** | 72.7 | 70.0 |
| **Comparison schools** | 74.8 | 64.7 |

There is no compelling a priori reason for expecting the proportion of pupils in YJB/ACPO schools who report themselves to feel safe at school to be higher than it is for the other two groups at Time 1, beyond the fact that they already have an intervention in place. They are schools with higher truancy rates on average than Other SSP or comparison schools so they might not be expected to have lower offending rates than these other groups. The implication is that the impact of intervention is already being felt at Time 1. Incorporating findings from the Viewpoint and Essex data sources does little to change this view. The Viewpoint data summarised in Table 7.3 indicate higher proportions feeling safe and lower proportions feeling unsafe in YJB/ACPO schools at Time 3 relative to the other two groups of pupils.

**Table 7.3: Viewpoint data on fear of crime in school**

| | Very unsafe | Fairly unsafe | Neither unsafe nor safe | Fairly safe | Very safe | Valid Responses |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO** | | 3<br>4.5% | 7<br>10.4% | 35<br>52.2% | 22<br>32.8% | $N_1 = 67$<br>100.0% |
| **Other SSP** | 6<br>2.5% | 12<br>5.0% | 47<br>19.7% | 116<br>48.7% | 57<br>23.9% | $N_2 = 238$<br>100.0% |
| **Control** | 14<br>9.7% | 10<br>6.9% | 22<br>15.3% | 61<br>42.4% | 37<br>25.7% | $N_3 = 144$<br>100.0% |

Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology analysis of Viewpoint data

In the case of the Essex survey, 74% of the pupils feel quite safe or very safe at school at Time 3. Table 7.4, which brings the various findings together, demonstrates that there is a considerable degree of consistency across the sources.

**Table 7.4 Proportions feeling safe at school in various surveys (%)**

| Type of school | Data source | Time 1 Autumn 02 | Time 2 Summer 03 | Time 3 Autumn 04 | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO** | Policy Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 82.9<br>- | 75.3<br>- | -<br>85.1 | 81.1 |
| **Other SSP** | Policy Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint<br>Essex | 72.7<br>-<br>- | 70.0<br>-<br>- | -<br>72.7<br>74.0 | 72.4 |
| **Comparison** | Policy Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 74.8<br>- | 64.7<br>- | -<br>68.1 | 69.2 |

A more sophisticated way of analysing the changes in attitude between Times 1 and 2 among the pupils in the Policy Research Bureau data is to use the Marginal Homogeneity Test, outlined in Appendix 9. Our conjecture, however, is that even though this test demonstrates that some pupils report feeling significantly less safe at Time 2 than they did at Time 1, this does not establish anything about the impact of the SSP intervention. A more likely interpretation in our view is that the Time 1 observations, taken during the first term SSP was in place, represent a post-intervention observation. The change between Times 1 and 2 is thus a result of something other than intervention, possibly a product of its being taken later within the school year.

### Fear of crime while travelling to school

We consider next the related issue of how safe pupils feel from crime while travelling to (and from) school. Data from the Policy Research Body study are summarised in Table 7.5.

**Table 7.5: Policy Research Bureau data on how safe pupils feel travelling to school**

| | | Time 2 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Time 1** | **Very unsafe** | **Fairly unsafe** | **Neither unsafe nor safe** | **Fairly safe** | **Very safe** |
| **YJB/ACPO** | **Very unsafe** | **1** | | | 1 | |
| **$N_1$ = 280** | **Fairly unsafe** | | **3** | | 3 | 2 |
| | **Neither unsafe nor safe** | | 3 | **13** | 15 | 10 |
| | **Fairly safe** | 1 | 3 | 8 | **58** | 34 |
| | **Very safe** | 1 | 2 | 10 | 28 | **74** |
| | | | | | | |
| **SSP** | **Very unsafe** | **2** | 1 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| **$N_2$ = 293** | **Fairly unsafe** | | **5** | 4 | 4 | 3 |
| | **Neither unsafe nor safe** | | 3 | **16** | 16 | 3 |
| | **Fairly safe** | 2 | 5 | 18 | **75** | 35 |
| | **Very safe** | 1 | 1 | 5 | 36 | **56** |
| | | | | | | |
| **Control** | **Very unsafe** | | | | 1 | |
| **$N_3$ = 119** | **Fairly unsafe** | | **2** | 3 | 1 | |
| | **Neither unsafe nor safe** | | 1 | **3** | 6 | 1 |
| | **Fairly safe** | 1 | 3 | 6 | **35** | 14 |
| | **Very safe** | 1 | | 5 | 9 | **27** |

Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology analysis of Policy Research Bureau data

The same data are rearranged in proportion format in Table 7.6. As in the case of feelings of safety in school we can interpret the Time 1 data either as a post-intervention observation or as a pre-intervention proxy.

**Table 7.6 Proportion of pupils in various surveys feeling quite safe or very safe while travelling to school**

| | Time 1 | Time 2 |
|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO schools** | 81.8 | 80.4 |
| **Other SSP schools** | 78.5 | 77.5 |
| **Comparison schools** | 84.9 | 79.0 |

Source: Policy Research Bureau data (Bhabra, 2004)

Interestingly, Table 7.6 suggests there is less variation both between school groups and between times in respect of fear while travelling to school than was the case for fear of crime while in school. This would be consistent with conjectures that (a) the SSP intervention has more impact on attitudes to safety within school than on safety while travelling and (b) that the YJB/ACPO intervention schools are not intrinsically safer than others in the absence of intervention. The Viewpoint data on fear of crime while travelling to school in Table 7.7 seem to be consistent with this picture, although they do show the YJB/ACPO schools doing relatively better.

**Table 7.7 Viewpoint data on how safe pupils feel while travelling to school**

| | Very unsafe | Fairly unsafe | Neither unsafe nor safe | Fairly safe | Very safe | Valid responses |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO** | | | 5<br>7.6% | 27<br>40.9% | 34<br>51.5% | $N_1$ = 66<br>100.0% |
| **Other SSP** | 3<br>1.3% | 12<br>5.0% | 40<br>16.8% | 113<br>47.5% | 70<br>29.4% | $N_2$ = 238<br>100.0% |
| **Control** | 6<br>4.2% | 9<br>6.3% | 16<br>11.2% | 63<br>44.1% | 49<br>34.3% | $N_3$ = 143<br>100.0% |
| | | | | | | |
| **Total** | | | | | | 447 |

Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology analysis of Viewpoint data

Adding the Essex data gives the comparisons summarised in Table 7.8.

**Table 7.8 Proportions feeling safe travelling to school (%)**

| Type of school | Data source | Time 1 Autumn 02 | Time 2 Summer 03 | Time 3 Autumn 04 | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO** | Policy<br>Research<br>Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 81.8<br>- | 80.4<br>- | -<br>92.4 | 84.9 |
| **Other SSP** | Policy<br>Research<br>Bureau<br>Viewpoint<br>Essex | 78.5<br>-<br>- | 77.5<br>-<br>- | -<br>76.9<br>78.2* | 77.6 |
| **Comparison** | Policy<br>Research<br>Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 84.9<br>- | 79.0<br>- | -<br>78.4 | 80.8 |

Note: * Responses to a slightly different question, namely how safe pupils feel outside school rather than specifically when travelling to and from school.

Our conclusions about the impact of the SSP intervention on the fear of crime at school and on the fear of crime while travelling to or from school can be summarised as follows:

- Pupils feel safer from crime when travelling to and from school than they do while they are in school.
- Over two-thirds of pupils feel quite safe or very safe from crime in school.
- There is a greater difference for pupils in comparison schools between how safe they feel travelling to school and how safe they feel in school.
- There is less variation across school types in how safe pupils feel when travelling to or from school than in how safe from crime they feel in school.
- Pupils in YJB/ACPO schools feel safer in both respects than pupils in other schools.
- Pupils in Other SSP schools feel safer from crime in school than while travelling to school while for comparison schools the reverse is true.
- The data on which these findings are based have a number of limitations.
- Fear-of-crime data are not routinely collected from pupils even though they provide a convenient, pupil-centred means of summarising school safety.

## 7.4 Self-reported victimisation

The next step is to move from the reporting of fear of crime in school to the reporting of victimisation. The most reliable guide to the incidence of offending in a school is likely to be the frequency with which pupils report having been the subject of a crime. This is the young person's equivalent in the argument that victimisation data from the British Crime Survey are the best available guide to the volume of many crimes (Dodd, 2004). The recorded component of crime in school may comprise only a small, unrepresentative part of the total crime in schools and thus be an unreliable guide to the underlying offending rate. Offences may go unrecorded because pupils feel intimidated and therefore unwilling to report them directly to a teacher for fear of reprisals. This unwillingness to reveal incidents, however, may fall away if pupils are asked about them anonymously in questionnaire surveys. Provided that the responses are reasonably honest and pupils are confident they won't be identified as whistleblowers, the pupil responses to questions about victimisation may be the best available source of information in schools.

In this section we review findings from the same three surveys used in the previous section on the fear of crime. As previously the three surveys relied on a similar array of questions so, in some cases, we can make direct comparisons of the findings.

### Policy Research Bureau

The Policy Research Bureau data from Bhabra (2004) can be used to explore changes in the proportion of pupils who reported having been victimised in the autumn and summer terms of the academic year 2002–03, the first year following implementation of SSP. Table 7.9, at first glance, shows an increase in the number of incidents per pupil during the year. But, as with the analysis of fear of crime, it is important to keep in mind that intervention was already in place by Time 1, with the result that it is not clear what the changes between Times 1 and 2 measure except perhaps the evolution of offending as the 'honeymoon' effects of putting a police officer into schools begin to wear off.

**Table 7.9 Policy Research Bureau data on the number of pupils victimised**

| | | Type of incident and number of victims | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School Type | | Physical attack | Threatened by others | Mobile phone stolen | Racial abuse | Racial attack | Belongings taken and damaged on purpose | Number of pupils in sample |
| YJB/ACPO | Time 1 | 48 | 56 | 10 | 34 | 7 | 47 | 281 |
| | Time 2 | 49 | 64 | 12 | 2 | 15 | 60 | |
| | **% Change** | **2.1** | **14.3** | **20.0** | **5.9** | **14.3** | **27.7** | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| Other SSP | Time 1 | 69 | 81 | 20 | 31 | 9 | 56 | 298 |
| | Time 2 | 53 | 75 | 17 | 20 | 8 | 47 | |
| | **% Change** | **-23.2** | **-7.4** | **-15.0** | **-35.5** | **-11.1** | **-16.1** | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| Control | Time 1 | 21 | 26 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 35 | 120 |
| | Time 2 | 22 | 35 | 3 | 13 | 3 | 26 | |
| | % Change | **4.8** | **34.6** | * | **18.2** | * | **-25.7** | |

Note: * The number of matched pair responses was small, so change not computed.
Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology analysis of Policy Research Bureau data

The Viewpoint survey covers a similar range of offences, as is evident from Table 7.10. The table indicates a somewhat different offence profile as well as different prevalence rates between the two sets of data. It indicates also that pupils at YJB/ACPO schools are less likely to be the victim of any particular type of offence than is the case for the counterparts at other types of school.

**Table 7.10 Viewpoint data on the proportion of pupils who were victims of various incidents**

| | Number of victims, % of respondents | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School Type | Physical attack | Threatened by others | Mobile phone stolen | Racial abuse | Racial attack | Belongings taken and damaged on purpose | Total number of respondents |
| YJB/ACPO | 6 | 8 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 10 | 67 |
| | 9.0% | 11.9% | 4.5% | 9.0% | 4.5% | 14.9% | |
| Other-SSP | 49 | 54 | 15 | 23 | 12 | 49 | 238 |
| | 20.6% | 22.7% | 6.3% | 9.7% | 5.0% | 20.6% | |
| Control | 35 | 30 | 11 | 24 | 9 | 26 | 144 |
| | 24.3% | 20.8% | 7.6% | 16.7% | 6.3% | 18.1% | |
| Total | | | | | | | 457 |

Note: Multiple offences are possible. The proportions do not normally sum to 100% across a row because each measures the proportion of respondents experiencing that particular kind of incident. Not all pupils are victims and some may be victims of more than one type of incident.

Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology analysis of Viewpoint data

As in the analysis of fear of crime, we can summarise findings across the three data sets to get a clearer idea of comparisons through time and across space. Table 7.11 indicates that the ratio of incidents to pupils varies widely. Essex pupils seem to run a lower risk of victimisation than pupils surveyed in schools elsewhere. For the most part, the indications are that the intervention schools are doing relatively better than the comparison schools, although the improvement at the YJB/ACPO schools suggested by the change in the ratio between Time 2 and Time 3 seems implausibly large given its fall between Times 1 and 2.

**Table 7.11 Comparison across surveys of the proportion of pupils victimised**

| | | Ratio of incidents reported to number of respondents | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Type of school** | **Data source** | **Time 1 Autumn 02** | **Time 2 Summer 03** | **Time 3 Autumn 04** | **Mean** |
| **YJB/ACPO** | Policy<br>Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 71.9<br>- | 82.6<br>- | -<br>53.7 | 69.4 |
| **Other SSP** | Policy<br>Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint<br>Essex | 89.3<br>-<br>- | 73.8<br>-<br>- | -<br>84.9<br>42.9 | 72.7 |
| **Comparison** | Policy<br>Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 73.3<br>- | 85.0<br>- | -<br>93.8 | 84.0 |

One of the objectives of SSP is to improve safety for vulnerable pupils such as those who have recently made the transition from primary to secondary school. The incidence of victimisation can normally be identified separately for Year 7 pupils from survey data. Table 7.12 indicates that Year 7 pupils are particularly vulnerable to victimisation, at least according to the Policy Research Bureau Survey. This makes Year 7 pupils a priority group from a crime reduction perspective within the school. Again, data of this kind can be very useful indicators of the scale and profile of offending in a school.

**Table 7.12 Incidents per respondent for Year 7 pupils in the Policy Research Bureau survey**

| | Incidents | Respondents | Incidents | Respondents | **Incidents per respon-dent** | **Incidents per respon-dent** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | All pupils | Year 7 | All pupils | Year 7 | **All pupils** | **Year 7** |
| **YJB/ACPO** | 232 | 63 | 281 | 65 | **0.83** | **0.97** |
| **Other SSP** | 220 | 65 | 298 | 83 | **0.74** | **0.78** |
| **Comparison** | 102 | 38 | 120 | 37 | **0.85** | **1.03** |

Note: Data refer to incidents reported at Time 2

## 7.5 Self-reported involvement in offending

Another dimension of offending within a school can be explored through pupil questionnaires that ask pupils to self-report their involvement in offending. There is no guarantee of reliable responses, but it is a way of cross-checking reports of victimisation. In schools in which offending is more common a higher proportion of pupils might be expected to report both involvement in offending and victimisation, even though neither figure may be a completely reliable guide.

From the school's perspective, offending belongs to the wide spectrum of what is sometimes termed 'problem behaviour'. Obviously, offending is towards the more serious end of the range, in contrast to more minor irritations such as low-level classroom disruption at the other end.

The extent of self-reported involvement in offending in the Policy Research Bureau survey is documented in Table 7.13. Comparing responses at Times 1 and 2 from the matched-pair sample, pupils at the YJB/ACPO schools (self-)reported an increase of 11.9% in the number of offences they had committed. The corresponding figure for pupils at the two comparison schools was an increase of 6.45%. In the Other SSP intervention schools self-reported involvement in offending increased by 22.2%, a rate considerably higher than in the comparison schools. But as in previous sections care is needed in interpreting these findings since the two survey rounds were both conducted after the implementation of SSP, with the result that the estimated change does not measure the impact of intervention.

**Table 7.13 Self-reported involvement in incidents and offences in the Policy Research Bureau survey**

| | | Number of pupils | | Total sample |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Involved in incidents or offences* | Involved in bullying* | |
| **Overall Pupils** | | | | |
| YJB/ACPO | Time-1 | 134 | 59 | 281 |
| | Time-2 | 150 | 85 | |
| | **% Change** | ***11.94*** | ***44.07*** | |
| | | | | |
| Other SSP | Time-1 | 135 | 80 | 298 |
| | Time-2 | 165 | 85 | |
| | **% Change** | ***22.22*** | ***6.25*** | |
| | | | | |
| Comparison | Time-1 | 52 | 31 | 120 |
| | Time-2 | 59 | 33 | |
| | **% Change** | ***6.45*** | ***6.45*** | |
| **Year 7 Pupils** | | | | |
| YJB/ACPO | Time-1 | 28 | 18 | 65 |
| | Time-2 | 32 | 24 | |
| | **% Change** | ***12.5*** | ***25*** | |
| | | | | |
| Other SSP | Time-1 | 21 | 25 | 83 |
| | Time-2 | 40 | 28 | |
| | **% Change** | ***90.48*** | ***12*** | |
| | | | | |
| Control | Time-1 | 10 | 9 | 37 |
| | Time-2 | 16 | 12 | |
| | **% Change** | ***60.00*** | ***33.33*** | |

Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology analysis of Policy Research Bureau data

These Policy Research Bureau findings can be compared with findings from the Viewpoint survey, at least in respect of bullying. Table 7.14 summarises the proportion of pupils reporting involvement in bullying.

**Table 7.14 Proportion of pupils self-reporting involvement in bullying in the Viewpoint survey**

| | Number of pupils involved in bullying | % | Valid Responses | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB** | 6 | 10.5% | 57 | 13 |
| **Other SSP** | 59 | 26.6% | 222 | 17 |
| **Control** | 27 | 23.1% | 117 | 29 |

Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology analysis of Viewpoint data

There is a tendency for respondents in the YJB/ACPO schools (10.5%) to be less likely to report being involved in bullying than their counterparts in the other schools. Almost 27% of respondents in Other SSP schools say they have bullied other pupils at least once during the last term. A similar proportion applies for comparison schools (23%). This result, which becomes rather clearer when set out in the format of Table 7.15, suggests that there was less bullying in the YJB/ACPO schools in the first term of intervention. But the proportion increased by more in these schools over the following two terms according to the Policy Research Bureau data. A different picture emerges from the Viewpoint survey data, which suggest a substantial fall in the rate in the YJB/ACPO schools while the position in the Other SSP and the comparison schools remained quite stable. Caution is clearly needed here because the number of respondents is comparatively small and the findings from the different sources not entirely consistent.

**Table 7.15 Comparison of proportions reporting involvement in bullying (%)**

| Type of school | Data source | Time 1 Autumn 02 | Time 2 Summer 03 | Time 3 Autumn 04 | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO** | Policy Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 21.0<br>- | 30.2<br>- | -<br>10.5 | 20.6 |
| **Other SSP** | Policy Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 26.8<br>- | 28.5<br>- | -<br>26.6 | 27.3 |
| **Comparison** | Policy Research Bureau<br>Viewpoint | 25.8<br>- | 27.5<br>- | -<br>23.1 | 25.5 |

## 7.6 Recorded youth offending

The empirical studies on which we have relied thus far in this chapter have all been based on questionnaire responses. The final source we explore, by contrast, is based on officially recorded offences involving young offenders. As noted above these recorded crime figures may give a biased and incomplete picture of offending. But, provided that the reporting and detection rates and recording procedures do not vary too much, this might not matter unduly at the level of inter-school comparisons.

A natural starting point for examining offences committed by young people of school age is the data on arrests or convictions collected by YOTs from the police. Data on a school-by-school basis for the number of convictions by offence type, gender and school year for each of the academic years from 2000–01 to 2003–04 would, in theory, be sufficient for applying a pre- and post-intervention research design of the kind outlined in Chapter 3. Unfortunately, in practice, it is much more difficult to generate such evidence than it sounds in our idealised account.

The principal barriers to compiling year-by-year data on offending by the pupils at a school at present include:

- there are no routine channels in place for informing schools about the involvement of their pupils in offending, although there might be an ad hoc arrangement by which police notify school staff of pupil arrests
- schools themselves have no particular interest in researching offending by pupils, although the pastoral system may identify pupils thought to be at risk of offending
- poor recording of school affiliation in YOT data systems and possibly also in police systems[26] means that the raw material required for collating information about offending by a school's pupils is unavailable or, at best, seriously limited
- the structure of local YOT databases inhibits extraction of school-level data.

In the concluding part of the chapter we make some recommendations as to how some of these barriers could be reduced in a comparatively straightforward way so that the flow of information about offending could be improved. But before moving to that, we look more closely at the findings based on the YOT data.

[26] We did not have access to police data and so are unable to comment authoritatively on the quality of pupils' school affiliation data. The likelihood is that the quality of such data varies across police forces.

### Findings based on YOT data

We were only able to obtain data on offending at school level for the three areas in which a YJB/ACBO intervention school was located. Based on the raw data in Appendix 8, Figures 7.1 and 7.2 show the number of offences per school in each academic year. Offending in intervention schools YOT_02 and YOT_03 is initially high and this may be part of the reason why intervention took place in these schools in the first place. What is important is to see the trends subsequent to the intervention. The three YJB intervention schools exhibit different patterns. In YJB/ACPO1, the number of offences increases each year (Figure 9.1) but much less quickly than in the comparison school, COMP_YJB1. In YJB/ACPO2 the number increases in 2002–03 but then falls sharply in 2003–04, while there is a continuing rise in the comparator COMP_YJB2 (Figure 7.2). In YJB/ACPO3 there is a significant fall each year while the reverse is true for the comparison school COMP_YJB3, where it increases steadily.

**Figure 7.1 Recorded offences at intervention and comparison schools in YOT_01: 2001–04**

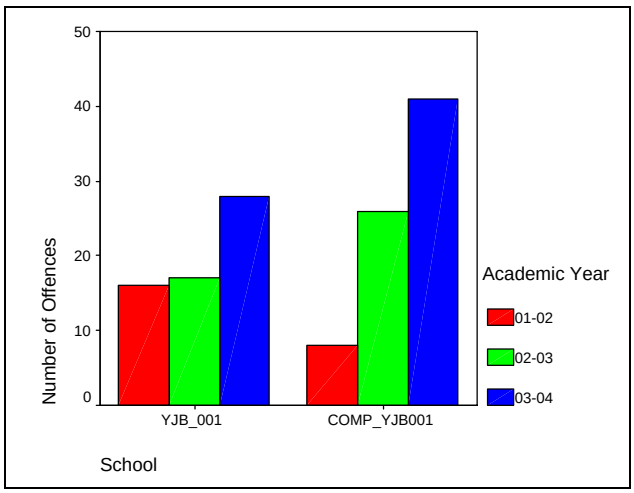


**Figure 7.2 Recorded offences at intervention and comparison schools in YOT_02: 2001–04**

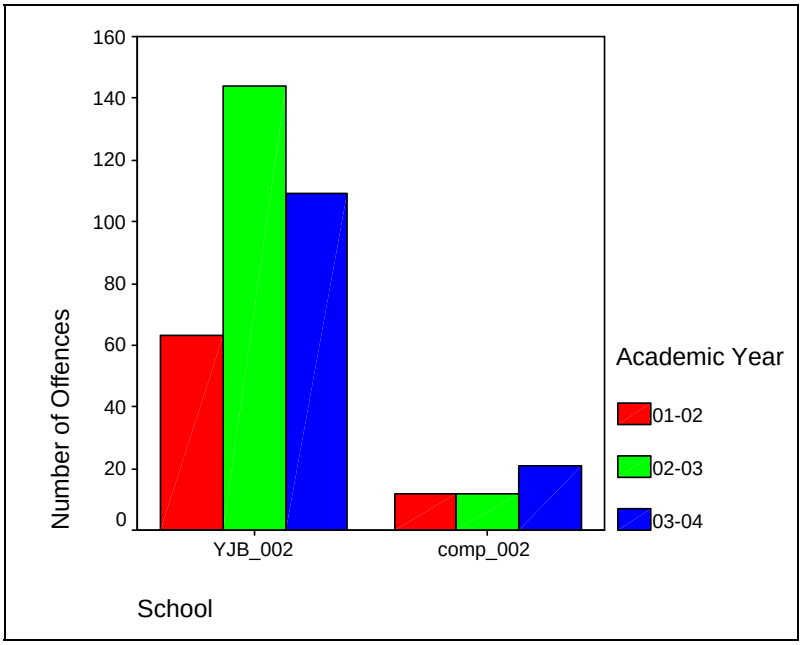
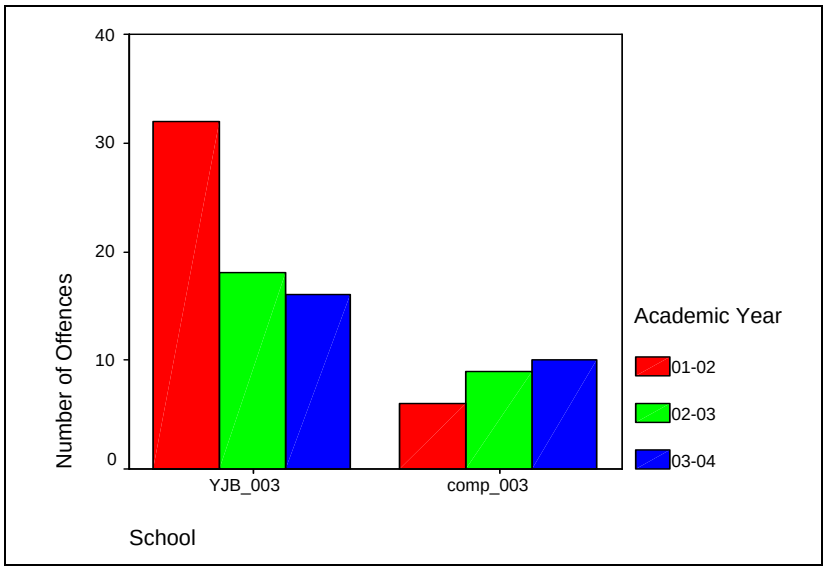



**Figure 7.3 Recorded offences at intervention and comparison schools in YOT_03 2001–04**




In Table 7.16, we show a summary of the data on offending in YJB intervention and comparison schools in the three YOTs in our sample.

**Table 7.16 Changes in offending and estimating intervention impact**

| | Number of offences | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Academic year:** | **01–02** | **02–03** | **03–04** |
| YJB/ACPO schools | 110 | 175 | 150 |
| Comparison schools | 27 | 47 | 71 |

| | Number of Offences, 2003–04 | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Estimated Impact, 2003–04** | **Forecast** | **Actual** | **Prevention impact** |
| YJB/ACPO schools | 289.3 | 150 | 139.3 |

Source: Data from YOTs in the three areas with a YJB/ACPO intervention school and comparison

The data reported in Table 7.16 suggest that offending rose sharply in the intervention schools during the year in which the intervention was implemented but that it fell subsequently by quite a large amount during a year (2003–04) when offending increased sharply in the comparison schools. This pattern is dominated by events in YJB2 where offending is greatest.

One possible explanation for this increase in offending during the first year of intervention followed by a fall in the second year is that the recording of offending increases but that the underlying offending may not be changing in the same way. This could be because the presence of a police officer in the school may increase the proportion of incidents reported as crimes. Initially the effect is an increase in recorded crime as recording 'catches up'. But after a while the higher propensity to record incidents is overtaken by a fall in the number of incidents occurring as crime prevention becomes more effective. There are, however, many other possible explanations for the trends observed.

The estimate of offences saved is derived from a simple shift-share approach, widely used in evaluation of the impact of burglary reduction projects and programmes: see Bowles and Pradiptyo, 2004. An estimate is made for offending in the intervention school by assuming it would have followed the same trend as the comparison school. This estimate is then compared with the observed value after intervention. The working hypothesis is that the same pattern would have been exhibited at the YJB/ACPO school but for intervention. As demonstrated in the lower part of Table 7.16, if the trend in the YJB intervention schools had matched the trend in the comparison schools the number of offences would have increased to 289 rather than falling to 150. Our best estimate is thus that the saving due to intervention is of the order of 139 offences.

There are other aspects of the change in offending that are of interest as well as the aggregate total. We are interested, for example, in the type of offences being committed and the age profile of young offenders since this can help guide the targeting of intervention within the school.

Evidence reported in Table 7.17 gives an indication of the age profile of offending.

**Table 7.17 Self-reported participation in offending by school year**

| | | 01–02 | 02–03 | 03–04 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **YJB/ACPO** | Year 7 | 11% | 8% | 3% |
| | Year 8 | 14% | 5% | 4% |
| | Year 9 | 22% | 21% | 14% |
| | Year 10 | 21% | 21% | 38% |
| | Year 11 | 32% | 44% | 41% |
| | **Total** | **100%** | **100%** | **100%** |
| **Comparison Schools** | | | | |
| | Year 7 | 6% | 0% | 4% |
| | Year 8 | 41% | 24% | 7% |
| | Year 9 | 18% | 19% | 39% |
| | Year 10 | 6% | 24% | 21% |
| | Year 11 | 29% | 33% | 29% |
| | **Total** | **100%** | **100%** | **100%** |

We can see in Table 7.17 that the participation of Year 7 decreased rapidly from 11% in the year prior to intervention to only 3% one year post intervention. YJB/ACPO schools are catching up with the national average of 3.3%.

Although Year 7 pupils do not normally account for a high proportion of offending, they will be a target for crime prevention activities on the assumption that the younger the age at which they first engage in criminal activity, the higher the probability they will become adult offenders.[27] Success in postponing the onset of offending may pay dividends in terms of reduced future offending as well as reduced current offending. Table 7.18 presents the changes in offending rates and an estimate of the impact of intervention. It suggests that there is a reduction in participation in offending by children in Year 7 following intervention in the two YJB and comparison schools for which we could do this disaggregated calculation.

[27] It is well established that the younger the age at which a person is first convicted the higher the likelihood that they will become a serious or persistent offender later in life (Lloyd et al, 1994).

**Table 7.18 Changes in offending rates at Year 7 and intervention impact**

| Sample | Change, percentage points |
|---|---|
| YJB schools (2) | -8.00 |
| Comp_YJB schools (2) | -2.00 |
| **Impact** | **Difference in change, percentage points** |
| YJB versus comp_YJB | -6.00 |

We are also interested in knowing if there is a change in the pattern of offences for which Year 7 pupils are convicted. Unfortunately, we are only able to do this analysis for one of the YOTs since the data for Year 7 are not sufficient to do it for the other. In the case of that single school the greatest reductions were for public order, arson and criminal damage and 'other' offences, while there were increases in the number of motoring offences and vehicle theft.

## *7.7 Summary*

Data limitations constrain what we have been able to learn in this chapter about the impact of the SSP interventions on offending and school safety outcomes. The two most promising sources of data, namely data from pupil surveys conducted in schools and school-level summaries of convictions and final warnings from YOT databases, are not as yet sufficiently developed to support year-by-year analysis of changes in offending and school safety. If the quality of data on offending were comparable with, say, data on school truancy rates then we could have used a research design like the one used in the previous chapter to plot trends in intervention and comparison schools and to make estimates of the impact of intervention.

In the event we were able to compile only a partial account of offending rates and school safety. The absence of pre-intervention baseline data against which the post-intervention findings could be compared precluded the application of a quasi-experimental research design, except in the case of YOT data on offending for the three YJB/ACPO schools and their comparisons. This sub-sample generated some very suggestive estimates of the crime reduction impact of SSP. These (speculative) estimates are used in the exploratory cost benefit analysis in Chapter 9. But the sample is not large enough, and the methodology not robust enough, to use as a base for making inferences about the impact of expanding intervention to other schools.

In relation to other indicators of the safety of the school environment (such as pupils' fear of crime in school, experience of crime and involvement in offending), we were again limited by the absence of pre-intervention baseline data. Such evidence as we were able to compile seemed to point in the direction of intervention reducing offending rates. From Tables 7.2 and 7.4, for example, we see that pupils in SSP intervention schools feel safer than their counterparts in comparison schools, a state of affairs that would not be predicted from the characteristics of the schools. Likewise, from Table 7.11 there are signs that a smaller proportion of pupils at the intervention schools are falling victim to crimes at school. But this cannot be treated as solid evidence of a crime reduction impact as yet.

The methodology used in pupil surveys is well established and there are national findings from the MORI youth surveys for the YJB that can serve as a benchmark. But given the atypical nature of SSP intervention schools and the lack of pre-intervention survey data from our sample of schools there is little prospect of being able, retrospectively, to fill the gap. From the pupil survey data that have been collected from SSP schools, however, there are very clear indications of how potentially valuable such data could be.

An improvement in both the quality and quantity of data of the kind reviewed in this chapter will be essential if schools are to beable to meet obligations to collect information about how safe the school is as a whole. As the Every Child Matters agenda is implemented, such development would seem to be inevitable. It will also be a prerequisite for the task of demonstrating that individual pupils, particularly those in vulnerable groups, are being provided with a safe environment. A subsidiary benefit that would result from having better information about offending at school level is that it would become possible for schools and police to target interventions between schools more precisely. These issues are pursued further in Chapter 8.

# 8 Monitoring of school safety

## 8.1 Introduction

We believe this report has exposed some serious gaps in what is known about safety in schools at present. The purpose of this chapter is to summarise the gaps and the sort of steps that could be taken to fill some of them. This analysis is informed partly by what would be needed to complete the analysis of costs and benefits of the SSP programme outlined in the following chapter. It is informed also by the changes taking place in the inspection frameworks for schools and children's services.

To maintain consistency we assume that the notions of what comprises a safer school are broadly agreed to be consistent with the objectives of the SSP programme. Provided that this is the case, it will be possible for success in making schools safer to be captured through the outcome measures identified in Chapter 2. We make the further assumption that a similar set of notions will also be implicit in any new inspection framework.

It follows from this that the gaps in data that have hindered the SSP evaluation will potentially be a barrier for inspectors in the future. To the extent that an inspection framework will rely primarily on schools to collect evidence that they are taking sufficient care of school safety, the onus passes to schools. So this leaves us with the question that forms the backbone of this chapter, namely: what evidence would a school need to produce to demonstrate that it offered pupils a safe environment in which to learn?

The ingredients of an evidence base can be compiled fairly easily by referring back to the SSP objectives and outcome measures developed in Chapter 4. A summary of the ingredients is set out in Table 8.1. Where possible we rely on measures already produced by the school for other purposes, such as the familiar set of unauthorised absence, exclusions and examinations data.

**Table 8.1 School safety: a self-evaluation checklist**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Education outcomes** | | |
| Truancy rates | as reported to DfES | time trend: level and change relative to LEA and national averages: variation from expected level based on |
| Deprivation | | (as captured by FSM/IMD) |
| GCSE results | as reported to DfES | as above |
| Exclusions | as reported to DfES | time trend: relation to LEA average |
| **Offending and safety outcomes** | | |
| Number of offences | data from YOT or local police by gender, year group and offence type | time trend: level and change relative to comparable schools in YOT |
| Number of incidents | school records by year group and incident type | time trend: level and change relative to comparable schools in LEA |
| Fear of crime | pupil surveys | time trend: level and change relative to comparable schools in LEA |
| Victimisation | pupil surveys by year group and incident type | time trend: level and change relative to comparable schools in LEA |

**Policies and strategies**

Register kept of pupils at risk of victimisation and offending: evidence of appropriate and effective responses

Whole school approach to safety: evidence of policy and actions

Policies on bullying, drugs, behaviour: evidence of policy and actions

Police liaison: evidence of policy and actions

Liaison with other agencies in relation to pupil safety: evidence of action and appropriate information sharing and referrals (social services, DAT, YOT, PCT etc)

Pupil involvement in governance, especially in relation to school safety issues

Safety curriculum content: evidence of inclusion in PHSE curriculum; safety awareness coverage for Year 7, regular updates via assemblies, tutors etc.

## 8.2 Practicalities of self-evaluation

Table 8.1 looks to contain a rather long list of data requirements. Our argument, however, would be that it is less onerous than it looks. We consider the three main sections, changing the sequence for convenience.

The education outcomes data (comprising the first third of the table) is all commonplace material collected for other purposes already by the LEA on behalf of DfES. This includes basic data on: school numbers; the number of teaching and ancillary staff; the number of pupils with special educational needs and with SEN statements; the number of pupils entitled to free school meals; the ethnic origin of pupils; exclusions; authorised and unauthorised absence; and public examination results, including end of key stages results.

A listing of policies and strategies may be kept in two places. The school prospectus is required to contain a number of elements such as policies on sex education, religious education and charging. Schools may add to this if they wish, including non-compulsory areas such as the anti-bullying policy. A behaviour management policy might also appear in the prospectus or in newsletters to parents. In addition to the school prospectus, the school also holds a file containing school policies. Part or all of this file, or a staff handbook containing the same information together with any teacher guidance, may be provided to new teachers joining the school.

When it comes to the remaining component (offending and safety outcomes), coverage is much less complete. Schools are not required to make returns of incidents, although they do have to keep a log of any incidents as required by health and safety legislation. Whether the school itself records behaviour incidents will depend on the kinds of recording systems it has in place and the priority accorded to tracking the volume or type of incidents. It may depend also on the kinds of support roles ancillary staff play and any associated recording systems. So, for example, if a school appoints midday supervisors responsible for particular areas of the school they may collect daily reports from supervisors about incidents, victims and pupil involvement.

More often, however, no such record will be kept. The same applies in the case of pupil offending. There is no requirement to record the information, or to publicise it or convey it to third parties. The result is that most schools would find it very difficult to produce evidence on offending and school safety.

A key question for us is whether this difficulty might come to be seen as a serious obstacle to schools being able to demonstrate to the satisfaction of school or children's services inspectors that they are making best efforts to secure a safe environment at school.

For purposes of exploring offending and safety outcomes in Chapter 7, we demonstrated that were really two principal alternative sources of data. One was information from the police or the YOT on recorded offending by pupils at a school. The alternative was to use the second approach to offending and victims of crime, namely to conduct a sample survey of pupils from which to establish the extent of fear of crime and the proportion of pupils who had been victims of offences.

We argued that better information flows to schools about offending by pupils might be a useful complement to information known within the school about behaviour issues in school and about conditions in other parts of a child's life. The key weakness at present is that such information is not kept in a format that makes it at all easy to generate listings of offences by pupils at a particular school. It would not, in principle, be difficult for YOTs to include school affiliation as a mandatory field in their databases. Such a development would of course be a nuisance for YOTs but could be of considerable value to LEAs when identifying schools with the greatest offending populations. An alternative would be to generate such information from police records. SSP officers have the capacity, usually, to check the Police National Computer for information on a young person's offending. So it is possible for schools to ask their SSP officer to run a check on pupils thought to be at risk to see if they appear on the database.

The alternative to using recorded crime data sources is to collect information directly from pupils via a survey. The feasibility of conducting such surveys with pupils is well established. National annual surveys for pupils in secondary school have been conducted by MORI on behalf of the YJB to provide information on pupils' offending behaviour and on victimisation. The studies involve several thousands of pupils across schools in England and Wales and the sample sizes vary from one year to another. The information gathered from the studies is rich. It is not, however, sufficient to serve as a baseline for schools' self-evaluation since it has only been collected from a sample of schools, rather than across the board.

For the purpose of schools' self-evaluation of safety, the information required is considerably narrower in scope than the range gathered by MORI and through other survey work by the Policy Research Bureau and Viewpoint. The information from a school survey should be sufficient to cover a pupil's experience and fear of victimisation, self-reported involvement in incidents and offending, and feeling of safety. It would be perfectly possible to complement these findings by surveying school staff as well as pupils. We would not expect the results to be published because some schools would decline to co-operate if they believed that the results might be exploited by local media.

A pupil survey would ideally cover matters such as whether the pupil had been a victim in school of:

- theft of property
- physical assault
- bullying
- racial or gender abuse
- anti-social behaviour (minor property damage, for example).

The survey might also ask about involvement in activities resulting in harm of the types listed above occurring to other pupils, plus about substance misuse and other offending outside school, including motoring offences and anti-social behaviour. A third strand of questions might refer to the fear of crime or other types of victimisation. A possible listing of areas for questions is set out in Table 8.2 below (p.122).

The questionnaire design might be required to ensure that pupils be able to answer all the questions within a short period of time, ideally in no more than 20–30 minutes. The development of software enabling pupils to complete questionnaires interactively via computer should be considered for supply to all schools for this purpose. Likewise it would be desirable for the software to contain routines to generate summary results automatically so that only a minimum of staff time would be involved.

Ideally, the survey would cover all pupils in a school, but if this is costly or impractical, schools will need to be advised on a sampling strategy for selecting a sample of pupils that is statistically representative for each year group as well as for certain targeted groups (such as Year 7 or looked after children). This would enable schools to identify problems relating to year groups or minority groups as quickly as possible. Schools would then be able to determine any interventions needed for these pupils.

### 8.3 Grading SSP resource allocation across schools

Having compiled responses across the three areas of self-evaluation, schools would be in a good position to produce an overall assessment of how well they were faring in delivering a safe environment. This could be done via a scoring system of some sort, giving weights to the various components. It would, in principle, be possible for LEAs to make judgments locally about the safety of the schools for which they are responsible. This judgment could, in turn, be used to guide SSP resources and support. For example, a system of traffic lights (green for safe schools, amber for schools with some issues and red for schools thought to be in the greatest need of police support for raising safety levels) could be devised, to give the LEA a straightforward indication of schools to prioritise for safety support.

### 8.4 Prioritising safety interventions within schools

A different approach that might help prioritise safety resource allocation within, as distinct from between, schools would be to set up a system for pupils to register safety concerns. Rather than conduct a pupil survey this might entail providing a secure box in which pupils could post anonymous or signed notes about their being subject to bullying, swearing, theft or whatever. This would help raise awareness of behaviour issues or offending. It could be used as a trigger for intervention, whether via an SSP team or other school staff. It might work as a deterrent to such behaviour and it could also be used as a rather crude measure of the extent of behaviour problems in a school. But it would also ensure that pupils had some readily available route through which to register safety concerns.

### 8.5 Development of the Every Child Matters agenda

The kind of self-evaluation exercise we have outlined might seem on the face of it rather intrusive and to be placing an unreasonable new burden on schools. It is salutary at this stage to refer back to the outcomes framework for Every Child Matters. In version 1.0, (December 2004), the requirements under Outcome 2, ‘staying safe’, are as follows:

- [Ensure that] Children and Young People are:

- Safe from maltreatment, neglect, violence, and sexual exploitation
- Safe from accidental injury and death
- Safe from bullying and discrimination
- Safe from crime and anti-social behaviour in and out of school
- Have security, stability and are cared for.

- Detailed criteria for illustrative purposes:
  - Children and young people and their carers are informed about key risks and how to deal with them
  - Steps are taken to provide children and young people with a safe environment
  - Steps are taken to minimise the incidence of child abuse and child neglect
  - Child protection arrangements meet the requirements of *Working Together to Safeguard Children*
  - Children and young people who are looked after are helped to stay safe
  - Children and young people with learning difficulties and disabilities are helped to stay safe.

Quite clearly some of these elements refer to events taking place away from school. But equally clearly there is a determination to ensure safety at school. If judgments about whether these conditions are being met are to be evidence-based then some way will have to be found to assess the safety of the school environment in rather the way we have tried, and failed, to do for this report.

We might note also that these 'detailed criteria' look rather 'supply driven': they focus on what is being done rather than on measuring the quality of what is delivered. An alternative (or complementary) approach would be to devise a set of indicators indicating the degree to which the outcomes were being achieved: e.g. look at 'accident rate' in an area or school; look at the proportion of pupils who are being sexually exploited or are on the Child Protection Register or are the victims of certain kinds of crime; or look at the incidence of bullying or victimisation.

Other parts of the Every Child Matters agenda touched on by the SSP approach include:

- Outcome 3 – Enjoy and achieve:
  - attend and enjoy school (avoid truancy and disruption)
  - achieve stretching national educational standards at both primary and secondary level (exam results).
- Outcome 4 – Make a positive contribution:
  - engage in law-abiding and positive behaviour in and out of school
  - develop positive relationships and choose not to bully or discriminate.

As we have already suggested, we believe there is a high degree of overlap between the information at pupil level required by the Every Child Matters agenda, and a full evaluation of school safety. This overlap emerges clearly in Table 8.2, which documents the two sets of criteria.

**Table 8.2 Information from a school survey**

| Variables | Details | Required for SSP | Required for Every Child Matters |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | | Yes | Yes |
| Ethnicity | | Yes | Yes |
| School year | | Yes | Yes |
| Free school meal entitlement | | Yes | Yes |
| Special educational needs | | Yes | Yes |
| Learning and/or language disabilities | | No | Yes |
| Looked-after child | | No | Yes |
| Been excluded in the last 12 months | | Yes | Yes |
| Frequency of playing truant | | Yes | Yes |
| Involvement in bullying | | Yes | Yes |
| Experience of victimisation (inside and outside school) | Any type of offence, racism and bullying | Yes | Yes |
| Fear of victimisation (inside and outside school) | Any type of offence, racism and bullying | Yes | Yes |
| Feeling safe (inside, outside and on the way to school) | | Yes | Yes |
| Experienced being offered drugs (inside and outside school) | Drugs Class A, B and C | Yes | Yes |
| Have sold drugs in the last 12 months (inside and outside school) | Drugs Class A, B and C | Yes | Yes |
| Frequency of substance misuse | Drugs Class A, B and C | Yes | Yes |
| Involvement in anti-social behaviour in the last 12 months (inside and outside school) | Graffiti, fare dodging, etc | Yes | Yes |
| Involvement in offending in the last 12 months (inside and outside school) | All type of offences | Yes | Yes |

Although collecting such survey data represents an extra burden for schools, it will become an obligation anyway under the Every Child Matters agenda. Thus, from the school's perspective, conducting a pupil survey for the purpose of the mainstreaming of SSP might be seen simply as an intermediate step in the preparation for Every Child Matters. This transition should, however, be managed in a way that is consistent with the likely requirements of Every Child Matters.

## 8.6 Information collection

If such pupil surveys were to become a part of the school's annual data collection exercise then a number of issues would have to be confronted, such as what questions were to be asked. A number of organisations including MORI, the Policy Research Bureau and Viewpoint have used somewhat similar bundles of questions for work commissioned by the YJB. Our view would be that a considerably shorter set of questions, focused firmly on the questions prompted by SSP and Every Child Matters objectives, should be developed. Such a questionnaire would need to be piloted carefully but, once a successful version was operational, it would be possible to build into it facilities to generate the kinds of cross-tabulations referred to above. This would make it easy for schools to use it for purposes of regular self-evaluation. Key results could be fed back to LEAs or DfES for purposes of helping target support resources.

Answers to these survey questions could be used for a variety of other purposes within the school, including:

- guiding pastoral support
- identifying the most vulnerable groups of pupils
- guiding the content of sessions on citizenship within the personal, social and helath education (PSHE) curriculum.

As we argued earlier in the chapter, the responses from a pupil survey, supplemented by further data collected through existing routes, could form the basis for regular (or pre-inspection) self-evaluation of a school's safety. If this were complemented by data collected through some standard behaviour monitoring software such as Sleuth, then it would be possible for schools to assess the contribution to their safety of any policy changes, including any SSP intervention.

# 9 Economic evaluation of the SSP programme

## 9.1 Introduction

The SSP intervention projects we have reviewed deliver a variety of benefits, as summarised above. Many of the projects are, however, quite costly to run. In most cases, they involve salaries for three or four project workers, one of whom may be a full-time police officer. To give a broad indication of costs, the YJB/ACPO model schools were allocated a budget of the order of £170,000 per annum for each of the three years of the project's life (2002–05). In the case of the Other SSP model, the funding arrangements varied significantly across schools. For those involving BESTs, the costs will probably have been comparable to the YJB/ACPO model, but for those relying on a part-time police officer with few supporting resources, the cost will have been much lower. The purpose of this chapter is to explore the scale of benefits delivered by the SSP interventions relative to the costs of delivering them.

We apply standard cost-benefit methodology following the guidelines the Home Office advocated for the economic evaluation of projects funded under the Crime Reduction Programme (Dhiri and Brand, 1999). These guidelines are based on the standard Treasury approach to public investment appraisal and investment as set out in the *Green Book* (HM Treasury, 2003). In conjunction with related work by Brand and Price (2000) on the economic and social costs of crime, this provides a basis for estimating the benefits of reductions in offending. There are other areas of policy where such methodology is applied routinely, such as health and transport (Drummond et al, 1997). As we will see later in the chapter, there have been some important steps forward recently in applying similar methods to the valuation of educational benefits from intervention. We make use of these developments in particular in relation to the valuation of reductions in absence and improvements in examination performance (see National Audit Office, 2005).

There are two important, recurring difficulties that inhibit the application of standard economic evaluation techniques (such as cost effectiveness analysis or cost-benefit analysis) in the criminal justice and education spheres. One is that the benefits of interventions can be difficult to quantify, and the other is that programmes often have multiple objectives and thus no single measure can be used to summarise all the benefits.

These two barriers do of course arise with the SSP programme. It has a wide range of objectives, stretching from raising educational achievement to a reduction in offending and disruptive behaviour. Capturing these objectives inevitably entails using a series of outcome measures, not all of which are readily commensurable. What, for example, is the value of a one percentage point reduction in the truancy rate compared with a one percentage point improvement in GCSE achievement? If it is not possible to capture all the benefits from the intervention readily and to convert them into some common unit, such as a financial value, then a straightforward comparison of costs and benefits cannot be made.

In order to make some progress here towards comparing costs and benefits, the first and most important challenge is to produce measures of the benefits from the SSP programme, whether or not they are expressible in common units. We demonstrate that, in many cases, such as estimating the value of the benefits from the crime reduction effects, the methodology is adequate but the data required are very limited. We demonstrate also that it is possible to develop a notion of 'dominance' that is sufficiently powerful sometimes to demonstrate that one programme is more effective on a series of outcome measures than another, even where the measures are not themselves directly commensurable.

A third difficulty in applying cost-benefit methodology to SSP is that many of the prospective benefits will accrue only over a comparatively long time. Compared with some crime reduction projects that deliver immediate but temporary impact, interventions with children and young people may have pay-offs that begin within a short time but extend long into the future. Improved examination results, for example, are likely to affect earnings over the remainder of a child's lifetime. Failure to get any GCSE qualifications can seriously weaken a young person's prospects in the labour market and thus undermine their lifetime prospects. Likewise, preventing young people from offending can pay a 'double dividend'. In addition to reduced offending in the short term there will be fewer young people moving into adulthood with the stigma of having offended while young.

There are two consequences of recognizing that a significant proportion of benefits may be delayed. The obvious one is that it puts a premium on finding ways of estimating benefits expected to occur in the future. The second is that it makes projects with a high 'investment' component look riskier than projects where the benefits occur over a shorter term or are more tangible and obvious. In evaluating projects such as SSP where many of the benefits may be longer term this makes it especially important to explore how robust estimates of costs and, especially, benefits are against variations in the assumptions being made.

There is an important sense in which programmes such as SSP should be evaluated as investments in children's futures and not just as current expenditure to reduce offending in the immediate term. Reductions in social exclusion and equipping young people more effectively for the challenges of independent, constructive lives may transform possibilities for young people and this can potentially pay a substantial dividend in the longer term through reductions in the prison population, greater economic output and so on, as Cohen (1998) has demonstrated for delinquency prevention programmes in the USA.

Earlier chapters have paved the way for compiling an account of the benefits from the SSP programme. Key developments have been:

- the policy objectives have been translated into a set of outcome measures against which success can be measured (Chapter 2)
- in many cases we have been able to make estimates of the impact of the SSP projects on outcomes (Chapters 6 and 7).

The remainder of this chapter takes up the challenge of reviewing the costs of SSP and relating them wherever possible to estimates of benefits. In a number of instances there are gaps in data that cannot be filled at present. We indicate where these gaps occur and what steps would be needed to fill them. The focus is on the YJB/ACPO intervention and comparison schools. This is primarily because the data are more complete and we are able to compose a reasonable picture of the costs and benefits of the intervention. The same methodology can, in principle, be applied to Other SSP interventions. In the latter case there is more variation in the content of the intervention and thus of its cost. This makes relating benefits to costs a more complex task, but possibly a more rewarding one insofar as it might enable benefit-cost ratios to be estimated for each of the main variants of the Other SSP intervention.

## 9.2 Activities

Economic evaluation is built round the idea of uncovering the relationship between inputs and outcomes and, thus, the achievement of policy objectives. Inputs are consumed in activities from which outputs are produced that may improve outcomes and thereby meet policy objectives or, more generally, increase social welfare. In Chapter 5, we discussed the activities, such as additional truancy sweeps or more rapid responses to unauthorised absence, that the SSP programme helps support in intervention schools. The test of the success of these activities is the improvement achieved on various outcome measures, such as the scale of a reduction in truancy rates or of an improvement in exam results.

Unravelling the relationship between activities and outcomes can of course be a complex task. So long as intelligent judgments are mad, however, it may not matter too much if the link is poorly articulated. The key question from an evaluation perspective is whether or not the activity has the effect of improving outcomes. Despite our best efforts we did not make much progress in linking improvements in outcomes to particular activities. But we were able to generate information about the impact on a range of indicators of different types of intervention.

The idea of the output of an activity should be kept distinct from its outcome. An activity might involve a police officer meeting regularly with a pupil thought to be at risk of offending. The output measures the scale of the activity, measured perhaps as the number of pupils a police officer meets in an average week. The outcome captures the impact of the meetings on the propensity of the pupils in question to become involved in offending, bullying or whatever. It will be measured ideally in units, such as the number of offences prevented over a year that can, in due course, be expressed in monetary terms. For further discussion, see Dhiri and Brand (1999).

Output measures can help comparisons of alternative ways of delivering a project component and can also contribute to an understanding of the process by which inputs are transformed into intermediate and final outcomes. But they are not usually of great interest in themselves. There is no merit in the police officer meeting more pupils each week unless some good is resulting. Maximising output (the number of meetings) therefore is not a sensible objective. What makes more sense is to ensure that the officer's time is allocated across all activities in such a way as to get the greatest possible impact in terms of outcomes. In more technical terms we will be assuming that officers use their time in an efficient way, meaning that activities are pursued only so long as they are contributing at least as much (to outcomes) as could be obtained by using the officer's time in some other way. A key task for project managers is to ensure that they understand the link between activities, outputs and outcomes so that they can deploy the resources available as well as possible.

The wide range of outcome measures for the SSP programme is not the only complication. There is also the fact that the relationship between activities and outcomes is not always a simple one. The various SSP projects involve a wide range of activities, each of which potentially impinges on more than one outcome measure. For example, intensive implementation of truancy sweeps might have a number of effects such as reducing truancy rates, improving exam results and reducing offending. It is unrealistic to expect to be able to untangle this impact very easily, particularly if at the same time a number of other activities are being pursued which have the same aim.

## *9.3 Inputs and resource costs*

For the most part, the inputs into schemes will be captured in project costs. The costs of an SSP project can be categorised in various ways. Ideally, a distinction should be made between the capital costs of setting up SSP projects, such as the costs of installing new equipment (e.g. electronic registration equipment), and the recurrent costs (e.g. a police officer's salary). Capital costs can later be converted to an equivalent annual charge if required so that streams of costs can be compared directly with streams of benefits.

In some cases, such as the appointment of new staff exclusively to do SSP work, the costs are readily identified. In other cases costs may be less easy to pin down. If the workload of personal tutors in a school rises because tutors meet more frequently to discuss tutees at risk, then their working hours (or those of their colleagues) will rise. These extra time inputs represent real costs both for the staff concerned and for the wider economy. It is likely to be difficult and costly to collect such information from schools, so these kinds of costs may be neglected.

The annual budget allocated to each YJB/ACPO School for SSP support is around £170,000. We will assume provisionally that the great bulk of the budget covers recurrent costs and that the capital costs of the programme are comparatively small. This total annual figure covers salary costs and overheads plus the operating costs for a number of children's project activities, such as provision of facilities or training inputs. It is a moot point whether all of these costs represent genuine 'opportunity costs' in the economic sense. Particularly in the case of the police officer, some allowance should be made for the fact that some part of the tasks done by the officer would have required police time inputs anyway. If a school-based officer spends six hours a week on truancy sweeps where previously the local police station sent an officer out three hours a week on a similar assignment, then the 'net cost' is really only the three additional hours of police time. If it should turn out that, prior to SSP, a teacher at the school also spent three hours a week helping the local police on truancy sweeps, then there will be a further saving of three hours of a teacher's time so the net cost may fall to virtually zero,[28] provided that both the local school and police put the 'freed up' time to good use.

It would clearly, however, be inappropriate to treat the social cost of the SSP programme as effectively being close to zero. Additional staff have been taken on, even if some part of this is met through redeployment, and so more resources are being absorbed. The key question is not so much whether the budgetary transfers paying for SSP are a close match for the real costs, but: how do benefits stack up against the budgetary flows? We tackle this question in two separate stages because it is a difficult one. First, we need to examine the effectiveness of activities in terms of outcomes delivered. Once this is established, it may be possible to 'monetise' benefits and thus to compare costs and benefits (see Dhiri and Brand, 1999).

## 9.4 Effectiveness analysis

The SSP embraces a wide range of outcomes including reducing the number of truancies, exclusions, and incidents and offences committed by pupils as well as improving exam results. We need to refer to them all in order to analyse the effectiveness of the SSP programme. The standard approach used in economic evaluation is to try to express outcomes in a common unit (i.e. in money terms) so that they can be treated as though there is a single outcome measure. In some criminal justice projects, this is not a problem because there is a single outcome – for example, in a burglary reduction project, where the number of burglaries prevented is the only criterion that need be applied. In other projects, it is not a problem because the outcomes can easily be expressed in common terms. A crime prevention project that reduces car crime as well as burglary and theft, for example, delivers a variety of crime prevention benefits. By applying estimates of the costs of the various types of offence prevented taken from Brand and Price (2000), the savings from each offence type in turn can be expressed in a common, financial unit and the resulting estimates simply added together.

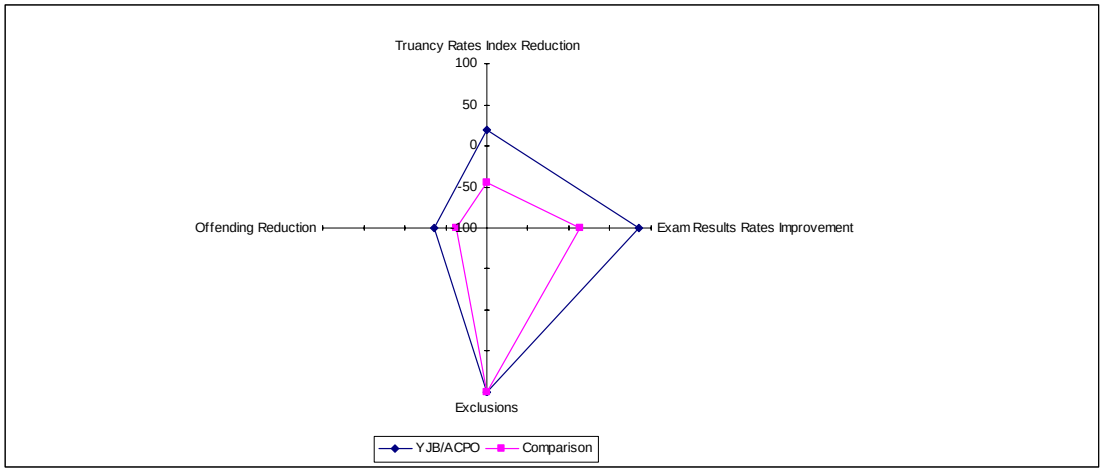
[28] Any difference will be a product of differences between the wage rates of the teacher and the police officer.

Amalgamating all the SSP outcomes into a single indicator to analyse its effectiveness is not so simple. There are seven outcome measures that we have used to evaluate the effectiveness of the SSP, namely: feeling safer, number of pupils victimised, number of offences, number involved in anti-social behaviour and offending, absence, exclusions, and exam results. Of these seven outcomes, four can be estimated with varying degrees of reliability at present, namely absence rates, exclusion rates, number of offences and exam results. The other three (involvement in offending, fear of crime and victimisation) require pupil survey data that are not available routinely (see Chapter 8).

For the moment, we focus on the four outcome measures for which we have good data.

Figure 9.1 shows the percentage changes in each of the four outcomes at a single site can be displayed in a single graph: for further details of the diagrams, please see Appendix 11. Each of the outcomes is represented on a line emanating from the centre of a spider diagram.[29] Caution should be taken in interpreting the diagrams. The farther a point (on a particular line) lies from the centre of the spider diagram, the better the outcome. For instance, an increase of 30% in the number of offences in YJB/ACPO schools is a better result than the 66% increase in the respective comparison schools. Thus the YJB/ACPO point is further from the centre of the web than the corresponding point for the comparison schools. In the case of exclusions, these were completely eliminated in both the YJB/ACPO schools and the comparison schools,[30] so in both cases there was an improvement of 100%. The two groups of schools thus do equally well on this criterion.

**Figure 9.1 The effectiveness of the YJB/ACPO intervention**




[29] The number of lines can be adjusted so if data were available on all seven outcome measures there would be seven lines radiating from the centre (see Appendix 10).

[30] Please refer to Table 8.11 for exclusions, Table 8.3 for truancy rates, Table 8.13 for exam results and Table 9.16 for recorded offences.

Figure 9.1 shows that for three of the four outcomes, the YJB/ACPO schools dominate the comparison schools. In the fourth case (exclusions), the groups do equally well. In all four cases, the outcomes of the YJB/ACPO schools are at least as far from the centre of the spider-web diagram as those of the comparison schools. This implies that the YJB/ACPO schools perform better than their comparative schools, based on the four outcome measures. This result is encouraging, despite the fact that three further outcomes cannot be measured because of data gaps. It demonstrates that the project is 'effective' since it produces improvements in all germane respects. The next question is whether it is 'sufficiently effective' to justify the spending on it.

## 9.5 Cost-effectiveness analysis

One further step towards being able to produce a 'high-level' judgment between two projects is to move on from effectiveness measures to cost effectiveness ratios. These ratios measure the cost per unit of achieving a unit increase in an outcome by different means (Dhiri and Brand, 1999). One project is more cost effective than another, if it can produce a unit improvement in outcomes at lower cost. Such a finding may be sufficient to establish which of two approaches is preferable.

Suppose there are two projects to reduce truancy rates, Project A based on truancy sweeps and Project B on an improved registration system. If Project A, costing 8, prevents four truanting episodes per week while Project B, costing 18, prevents six truanting episodes per week, then Project A is more cost effective. The cost per truancy episode saved is only 2 using A compared with 3 per episode using B. Provided that there are no other differences between the impact of the two projects, we would recommend using A rather than B.

In the case of SSP, the cost-effectiveness analysis cannot be conducted quite as easily as this unfortunately. Because there are multiple activities and multiple outcome measures, there is no one-to-one mapping between each activity and outcome. There is, therefore, no simple criterion on which to base a cost-effectiveness ratio. Truancy sweeps, for instance, may not only reduce the truancy rate, but they may contribute also to an improvement in exam results. Likewise, a reduction in the truancy rate may be a consequence not only of the use of truancy sweeps but also of other activities such as improved registration systems. Estimating the allocation of resources required to achieve a unit improvement on each outcome measure through each activity is a tricky task. Regression models, as we outlined in Chapter 3, are capable of generating these estimates. But, as we have also shown, there is no guarantee that it will be possible to get significant results when these techniques are used in practice.

To illustrate the difficulty of estimating a cost-effectiveness ratio, suppose the YJB/ACPO intervention costs £150,000 per annum per school and, on average, reduces the number of offences by 50 and improves the exam results by 10% in the first year. It would be misleading to conclude that the cost-effectiveness ratio is £3,000 per offence saved (based on dividing total cost by the number of offences or 150,000/50 offences) and £15,000 per 1% improvement in exam results (i.e. 150,000/10). Ideally, the total project costs should be disaggregated by activity and the costs of the truancy-reducing activity kept separate from the exam-improving activity. This will give more reliable indicators of cost-effectiveness ratios. In the example, if the costs had been split two-thirds to one-third in favour of truancy reduction, the relevant cost-effectiveness ratios would be 100,000/50 or £2,000 per offence, and 50,000/10 or £5,000 per percentage point improvement in exam results.

Unfortunately, there is no way of splitting out the activities and outcomes in SSP in to enable any firm conclusions to be drawn as to which is the most cost-effective method of delivering one or more of the outcomes sought.

## 9.6 Cost-benefit analysis

A cost-benefit analyst, following the Treasury *Green Book* (Treasury, 2003) approach to project appraisal and evaluationor the Dhiri and Brand (1999) guidelines on economic evaluation of criminal justice interventions, might endeavour to translate all the outcome measures we have touched on into a single financial measure of benefits. This would be a huge task. It is possible however to explore the relative merits of the principal SSP alternatives without having to make all outcome measures directly commensurable.

The valuation of the benefits from criminal justice and education projects is, in our view, an area that has received insufficient attention in the past. In settings such as the SSP programme, where it is likely that multiple outcome measures will be used, this problem is particularly acute. There are at least two important issues here. First, there is a danger that benefits of projects will be underestimated. Second, there is a question as to how comparisons are to be made in circumstances where there is no obvious metric for totting up the total value of a variety of different types of benefit.

In trying to draw up an overall assessment of costs and benefits, it is a useful exercise to ask what kind of information would have been needed to produce a reasonably complete account of the SSP programme. From a cost-benefit perspective it is important to avoid double-counting benefits, especially where, as here, there is a danger that there might be some overlapping of outcome measures. The main danger derives from the fact that there are three separate measures (victimisation, involvement in offending, and fear of crime) that all refer in a slightly different way to offending and other problem behaviour.[31] The purpose of applying different measures is to ensure that offences or incidents are not under-recorded. But at some stage these measures have to be combined to produce a best estimate of the incidence of offending and related behaviour, because the measures are alternatives.

Table 9.1 summarises the extent of information on costs and benefits of the SSP programme in the short term. The magnitudes of some outcomes are known, but the outcomes are not always capable of being measured equally[32] for all 30 schools. For some variables, such as crime reduction and total costs, information is available only for YJB/ACPO schools and their respective comparison schools.

The SSP is one of a range of youth intervention programmes, many of the benefits from which may not emerge immediately. Table 9.1 identifies the short-term benefits of the SSP programme, but leaves many questions unanswered with respect to the long-term benefits. Is there any difference in the likelihood of a pupil committing an offence in the future between pupils attending SSP schools and those attending comparison schools? Is there any correlation between improvement in pupils' exam results and their likelihood of offending in the future? Unfortunately, we are not in a position to answer these complicated questions. Answers to some of them might be obtained if the offending careers of pupils in both intervention and comparison schools were to be tracked for the next 15 or 25 years, as in some of the famous longitudinal studies such as the Perry pre-school project. But this would clearly be a long time to wait for results from a pilot study.

[31] If all participants are responding truthfully then, for every extra offence, there will be a victim and an offender plus the possibility of increasing fear of crime, albeit by a small amount. It is inappropriate to sum the (same) benefit measured in two or three different ways.

[32] For instance improvement in exam results, problem behaviour and pupils victimised.

**Table 9.1 Completeness of information on SSP benefits**

| | Volume or scale | Value (£) per unit | Total (£) |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Benefits** | | | |
| Reduction in absence (%) | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Reduction in exclusion (%) | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Improvement in exam results (%) | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Crime reduction | Partial | Yes | Partial |
| Reduction in fear of crime | Partial | No | No |
| Reduction in problem behaviour (ie. in ASB and bullying) | Partial | No | No |
| Reduction in victimisation | Partial | Partial | Partial |
| **Costs** | Yes | Yes | Yes |

Note: The information is based on immediate benefits from the programme and excludes estimates of longer term benefits.

### Valuing educational benefits

There are three types of educational outcomes for which we seek estimates here, namely absence, exclusions and examination results. Methodology exists for covering all three although, in the case of examination outcomes, the research is comparatively recent.

For estimates of the value of reducing absence we follow the National Audit Office (2005). This shows that every day 450,000 out of 6.7 millions pupils in state maintained schools in England miss school. Of the total absences each day, some 50,000 are unauthorised. It has been reported that the government spent an average of £3,620 per pupil per year to maintain schools in 2003–04 (excluding capital expenditure). The average cost per pupil per day of education is thus £19.05 (i.e. the average cost of provision of a day of schooling, namely 3,620/190).[33] Taking this cost as an estimate of the minimum value society puts on a day of education, it is reasonable to use it as a proxy for the benefit from preventing a day of absence. This same benefit rate can be used for reductions in both authorised and unauthorised absence. In the cost benefit analysis below we focus primarily on the benefit from reducing truancy, since that is the objective specified for the SSP programme. The increasing focus in 2005 on efforts to reduce authorised absence prompts us, however, to include it in the sensitivity analysis of Table 9.4.

[33] Implicit in this analysis is the assumption that the value of a day of schooling is worth at least as much as the cost of providing it. Using the cost of provision therefore gives a lower bound for the true figure.

For the value of reducing exclusions we could follow the approach of Bagley and Pritchard (1998a), who estimated at the time of their study that the cost per pupil of an exclusion unit was £580 per month (exclusive of other educational costs) and the cost per pupil of home tuition was £1,360 per month. A cost of around £7,000 per annum, the (marginal) cost of an exclusion unit place, would thus give a lower bound on the cost of exclusion. If such places were not available then the higher, home tuition fee would be appropriate. Any exclusions that can be prevented by an intervention confer benefits equal to the difference between the cost of provision of education to an excluded pupil and the cost of education in a mainstream school. In the event, we do not need to use a figure for exclusions since, at least among the YJB/ACPO intervention schools for whom we do the cost benefit analysis, there is no net reduction in exclusions because they as well as the comparison schools managed to eliminate completely all exclusions.

For the value of improving the examination pass rate at GCSE, we make use of work done recently by economists at the DfES. The essence of this approach is that it uses estimates derived from the National Child Development Survey as to the difference in lifetime earning prospects for those leaving school with no qualifications as compared with those who leave with five or more good exam passes.[34] Blundell et al (2004) estimate from the National Child Development Survey (NCDS) data that there is a wage premium of approximately 18% for those leaving with basic qualifications. The DfES model[35] applies this premium to data on earnings for those with no qualifications and the employment probabilities of individuals with and without qualifications taken from the *Labour Force Survey* (Spring 2003). Further adjustments are made, including an assumption of real earnings growth of 2% per annum and non-wage labour costs being 25% of the wage rate. By applying the standard public sector discount rate of 3.5% the present value of the lifetime productivity of each group can be estimated and compared. The resulting difference of approximately £276,000 is used as an estimate of the value per pupil achieving five or more passes at the higher GCSE grades. Accordingly, it can be used for purposes of valuing the exam grade improvements attributable to an intervention.

[34] In the NCDS, the cohort followed was at school at a time before GCSEs supplanted 'O' levels. The basic qualification used was therefore achievement of five 'O' levels. For present-day purposes, it is a reasonable approximation to treat five or more GCSE passes at grades A*–C as broadly equivalent.

[35] Private communication from DfES.

### Crime recording and the valuation of crime reduction

A good deal of crime is either recorded but not cleared up, or not recorded at all. The same argument applies to an even greater degree to less serious 'misbehaviour', as in the case of anti-social behaviour (including bullying and so on) in both a school and a community setting. An obvious danger is that some of the benefits from a project tackling such behaviour successfully will 'slip through the net' and result in less credit being given to the project than there should be. The benefits of a programme will tend to be substantially understated if estimates of the impact are limited to changes in the number of reported incidents (Bowles, Harris and Pradiptyo, 2003) and unrecorded incidents are omitted. There are, however, methods for correcting for this kind of under-recording effect, such as using 'multipliers' derived from comparisons between victim accounts of crime and recorded crime statistics (Bowles and Kara, 2003).

The monetary values of offences may be estimated by using the average economic social costs of offences (see Brand and Price, 2000). These costs were estimated as the weighted average of the costs of unrecorded and recorded crimes. Brand and Price (2000) show that, in general, the number of unrecorded crimes is higher than the number of recorded crimes. It would be misleading for purposes of this report to use the average cost of crime figures, since the value of recorded offences would be underestimated thereby. In order to tackle this problem, the monetary values of offences can be estimated by using the social costs of recorded crimes uprated to allow for under-recording (see Bowles et al, 2004). For further discussion of the estimation of the costs of recorded crime, please refer to Appendix 12.

The economic and social costs of crime consist of three major elements: costs in anticipation of crime; costs as a consequence of crime; and costs in response to crime (Brand and Price, 2000). The costs in anticipation of crime include security expenditure and insurance resources. However, they do not take into account the costs of fear of crime or the quality of life of potential victims. The emotional and physical costs incurred by victims, among other things, are part of the costs that are consequent on a crime – but these do not incorporate the quality of life of victims (Brand and Price, 2000, Table 3.1.).

Table 9.2 provides information on the costs of recorded offences of various types. The figures include the costs of victimisation incurred by individual victims and society, but they do not embrace the costs of fear of crime.

**Table 9.2 The social costs of recorded crime**

| Offence Types | Cost of recorded crime |
|---|---|
| Public order | N/A |
| Other | N/A |
| Arson and criminal damage* | £1,018 |
| Fraud and forgery | NA |
| Sexual offence | £28,872 |
| Death or injury by reckless driving** | £22,926 |
| Racially aggravated offences | NA |
| Theft and handling | £655 |
| Class A drugs offence*** | £1,927 |
| Violence against person | £22,926 |
| Robbery | £11,514 |
| Burglary | £3,283 |
| Breach of statutory order | NA |
| Vehicle theft**** | £962 |
| Motoring offences | NA |
| All crimes | £1,949***** |

Source: Bowles et al, 2004, based on Brand and Price, 2000. For further details please see Appendix 12
* We use the costs of criminal damage for households as a proxy for this variable. This proxy does not include arson in its classification.
** The costs for Violence Against the Person are used as a proxy for this offence, but are probably an underestimate.
*** This figure is based on Godfrey et al (2002) for the costs of class A drugs.
**** The costs of vehicle theft in households are used as a proxy for this offence.
***** This is the ratio of the total costs of all crimes to the total number of crimes: see further Appendix 10.

The typology of offences in Table 9.2 is based on the offence classifications used for youth offenders. The figures for the economic and social costs of offences, however, are based on the costs of recorded crimes committed by adult offenders. These costs may not be appropriate in all cases as proxies for the costs of offences committed by children and young people. The social costs of crimes committed by youths and adults are most likely different but have not, as far as we are aware, been estimated separately. It cannot be assumed that the social costs inflicted by youth offenders are always lower than those inflicted by their adult counterparts. Many offences committed by youths, such as taking a car or motor bike without the owner's consent or sneak theft of cash, may not inflict substantial costs. But there are plenty of offences that can inflict substantial costs on victims and also on society. Arson can cause millions of pounds worth of damage; careless or reckless driving can result in serious injury or death, and snatch theft of bags or mobile phones can inflict lasting psychological damage on victims whether or not this was 'intended' by offenders. In the future, it may be worth reviewing the economic and social costs of offences committed by young offenders since comparatively little is known about this area at present.

To illustrate how offence costs can be incorporated into benefit measures we use the cost estimates from Table 9.2 to make some preliminary estimates of the crime reduction benefits of SSP. Based on Table 7.12, the number of offences saved annually in the YJB/ACPO schools is estimated to be 139.3. An approximation of the immediate crime reduction benefits from the YJB/ACPO intervention can thus be generated by multiplying the number of offences saved (139.3, say 139) by the average cost of all crimes (£1,949 from Table 9.1) above to give £271,444.

Measures that succeed in preventing a youth committing a crime today may have a further long-term effect on offending. A speculative estimate of the long-term benefits of crime reduction can be generated on the basis of some further assumptions. Using information from the 1,953 cohort in the Offenders Index, it is estimated that a reduction of one offence this year will on average translate into a reduction of a further 2.92 offences in future years: see Appendix 11 for further discussion. Since this future offence multiplier is a speculative estimate, a conservative strategy is to set it rather lower, for example equal to one. Using this assumption, the future crime reduction is equal to the short-term crime reduction. Thus the long-term effect on offending is a further 139 offences saved, with subsequent long-term benefits of £271,444. Since these benefits occur in the future their value should be discounted. If we assume that the offence, on average, would occur five years after a first offence, then this brings down the average present day cost of an offence from £1,949 to a more modest £1,641. This would give future crime reduction benefits equivalent to £228,616.

The total benefits of an intervention are the summation of its immediate benefits and the future benefits. With the future offence multiplier set at one, and discounting at 3.5% per annum, the total crime reduction benefits of the YJB/ACPO intervention amount to around £500,000, which by itself is nearly sufficient to match the cost of the intervention across the three YJB/ACPO schools (£510,000). An estimate of this kind is obviously highly speculative but it does give some idea of the orders of magnitude that might be involved.

We look next at some of the other measures related to offending. Information on pupil victimisation is collected neither widely nor regularly for the kinds of incidents not recorded as crime, so the scale of the impact on this outcome measure cannot at present be estimated. The same data availability limitation applies in the case of the costs of victimisation (in the form of bullying, racial attack, etc) among pupils, and for the social costs of anti-social behaviour (i.e. graffiti, etc). If the classifications used for victimisation and the types of incidents coincided, estimating the average costs of incidents should accommodate the costs of victimisation. Weaknesses in the information available on youths' involvement in incidents and victimisation leave this an area where further research would be useful.

## 9.7 Overall assessment of the YJB/ACPO intervention

Table 9.3 collects together cost and benefit estimates for a partial assessment of the YJB/ACPO intervention. Unfortunately, a similar exercise cannot be conducted for the Other SSP intervention due to lack of information about offending outcomes.

It was estimated in Chapter 8 that the YJB/ACPO schools have reduced the number of days of unauthorised absence by 14,423 days relative to the comparison schools (see Table 6.4).[36] In monetary terms, this figure is equivalent to a saving of £274,756 (i.e. 14,423 days saved x £19.05 cost of absence per pupil per day). This figure is a conservative estimate of the benefits from a reduction in absence. The number of days saved would have been lower if we were to base it on total absence (7,425 days saved) rather than the unauthorised component of total absence (see Table 6.9).

In terms of reducing the exclusion rate, the YJB/ACPO intervention schools cannot be distinguished from their comparative schools since both succeed in reducing permanent exclusions to zero (see Table 6.5) over the period 2002–04. Information from Bagley and Pritchard (1998) about the average costs per pupil per annum of either running an exclusion centre or providing excluded pupils with home tuition is not, therefore, needed at this stage.

The percentage pass rate of exam results in the YJB/ACPO schools increased by 8.5% points more than that in the comparison schools (see Table 6.14). The benefits arising from this improvement can be monetised using the DfES model outlined above. In order to do this we translate the pass rate improvement into an estimate of the additional number of pupils at the intervention schools who passed five or more GCSEs at grades A*–C as a result of the SSP intervention. This is done by using the change in pass rate at the comparison school to estimate what would have happened at the intervention school had SSP not been implemented. The difference between this counterfactual estimate and the number of pupils passing is used as a measure of the improvement achieved. For each of these pupils we apply the DfES estimate of increased lifetime earnings to give a guide to benefits delivered. We noted in Chapter 7, however, that applying the ANCOVA model to the sample of 15 SSP intervention and 15 comparison schools failed to demonstrate a significant effect of intervention on exam results. In the cost-benefit results we use the mean (unadjusted) change for the YJB/ACPO schools, but in the sensitivity analysis we allow for the possibility that the YJB/ACPO estimate is illusory.

Information on the impact of intervention on the fear of crime, victimisation in terms of bullying, or other kinds of anti-social behaviour is not available on a consistent pre- and post-intervention basis, with the result that we omit any estimation of benefits of this type.

[36] Note that as in Chapter 8, we are using the mean change in intervention school outcome relative to comparison school outcome as the measure here. This is simpler and more intuitive than using the 'adjusted' differences that could be inferred from the ANCOVA model estimates.

**Table 9.3 Estimate of the benefits and costs of the YJB/ACPO intervention**

| | Quantity | Value per unit £ | Total Benefits £ |
|---|---|---|---|
| **1. Estimated Benefits:** | | | |
| **1.1 Educational outcomes:** | | | |
| Reduction in unauthorised absence | 14,423 Days saved * | 19.05 per day | 274,576 |
| Reduction in permanent exclusions | 0 pupils | | 0 |
| Improvement in exam results | 31 additional pupils A*-C | 276,000 per pupil | 8,556,000 |
| **1.2 Offending and school safety outcomes:** | | | |
| Short term crime reduction | 139 offences saved | 1,949 per offence | 271,444 |
| Long term crime reduction | 139* offences saved | 1,641** per offence | 228,616 |
| Reduction in non-criminal incidents | n.a. | | 0 |
| Reduction in fear of crime: | n.a. | | 0 |
| **Total Estimated Benefits** | | | **9,330,816** |
| **2. Costs of YJB/ACPO Programme** | | | |
| Number of schools | 3 | 170,000 Cost per school | |
| **Total Costs** | | | **510,000** |
| **Net Benefits** | | | **8,820,816** |

Notes: * assumes a pupil would re-offend (once only) five years after a first offence; ** future offences discounted at 3.5% p.a.

**Key finding**: Best estimate of benefit:cost ratio for YJB/ACPO schools is 18.29

Table 9.3 indicates that the total benefits from the YJB/ACPO intervention schools amount to the very large total of over £9 million per annum compared with total costs for the intervention of £510,000 per annum. This yields a benefit:cost ratio for the YJB/ACPO intervention of 18.29. That is to say, for every £1 spent on the programme, the estimated benefits are £18.29. This is a very high ratio and one that contains plenty of conjecture. It is well to be clear about the sources of this very high figure and where it might be vulnerable.

The greatest single weakness is that the figure applies only to the three YJB/ACPO schools. Since there were only three such projects there is no way in which this weakness can be avoided. Lack of data, particularly on offending, prevented us repeating the exercise for the Other SSP intervention schools. The other note of caution is that a substantial proportion of the net benefits are accounted for by a very large improvement in the GCSE pass rate in just a single YJB/ACPO school. Such improvements may be an entirely legitimate source of benefits but only schools with very poor exam results initially have the scope to deliver improvements on such a scale. We would therefore regard the findings as indicative rather than definitive. On the basis of a sample of three it would be inappropriate to draw inferences about what might be the impact of repeating such an intervention at another 10 schools or 100 schools.

What we have shown, however, is three things. First, for the YJB/ACPO schools the indications of a positive impact seem clear. On virtually all outcome measures for which data are available all three of the intervention schools perform better than their comparison group counterparts. The estimate of the scale of the impact is subject to large error but the probability that all indications show a positive impact when the underlying true position is a negative impact is low. This finding is robust against replacing the three comparison schools with the average results across the respective LEAs.

Second, the benefits from interventions of this kind have the potential to be very high indeed. Effective intervention that successfully targets young people who are at high risk of becoming offenders or are at danger of becoming disaffected, playing truant and leaving with few if any GCSEs is a potentially valuable tool. Improvements in truancy, exam and offending outcomes can each contribute benefits on a significant scale if conditions are right.

The third is that the likely high correlation between truancy, offending, poor qualifications, high unemployment risks and low wage prospects has a positive side as well as a negative one. If key elements in the bundle can be addressed, there may be scope to improve outcomes across the board. Successful intervention is then likely to have a positive impact across the board. Equally, however, if the intervention is not well implemented or other events serve to weaken or counter its impact then large positive benefits can quickly disappear.

Our methodology bases estimation of the impact of the intervention on direct comparison of outcomes at the three intervention schools with three comparison schools. If these comparison schools are not representative of the underlying conditions in the intervention schools prior to intervention then this comparison may be invalid. This possibility can be checked to some degree by testing the robustness of findings against choice of alternative schools, for example by taking the average changes in educational outcomes for all other schools in the LEA. But any strategies of this kind have their own weaknesses. For example, we chose comparison schools that, as far as possible, were similar to intervention schools in terms of truancy rates and exam pass rates in 2002 prior to intervention. If we replace them by other schools from the LEA then the comparison schools are 'less similar'. If we replace them with schools from other LEAs with a more similar truancy and exam profile then any area-specific characteristics may be lost.

In order to get a more robust estimation of the benefits and costs of the intervention, we conduct a sensitivity analysis (see Table 9.4 below and Appendix 14). There are various parameters of our model that can be varied in order to test the solidity of its results. Some other parameters are not permitted to vary. The discount rate is retained at 3.5% throughout even though it is sometimes allowed to vary in sensitivity analyses.[37] The truancy rate and total absence rate estimates are not varied. The variations we do consider are:

- the value of the future offence multiplier (relating an offence committed by a young person today to the number of offences the offender is likely to commit when older) is allowed to take values of 0, 1, 2.19 (75% of 2.92) and 2.92
- the estimated benefits from examination performance can be excluded on the grounds that (a) the ANCOVA model failed to establish an impact of the Other SSP intervention on exam results and (b) there was high variation across the three YJB/ACPO intervention schools in the change in exam results
- the benefits arising from a reduction in absence rates can be limited to truancy (unauthorised absence) or extended to total absence (the sum of authorised and unauthorised absence).
-

**Key finding:** Minimum benefit:cost ratio for YJB/ACPO schools is 0.81

Maximum benefit:cost ratio for YJB/ACPO schools is 19.15

[37] The *Treasury Green Book* (2003) on cost-benefit analysis in government is available in full from the Treasury's website (www.hm-treasury.gov.uk).

**Table 9.4 Sensitivity analysis of estimated benefits and costs of YJB/ACPO intervention**

| Case | Description | Future offending multiplier | Absence measure | Exams impact | Benefits :cost ratio |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Base 1 | 1 | Truancy | Yes | 18.29 |
| 2 | Base 2 | 1 | Total absence | Yes | 18.03 |
| 3 | Minimal 1 | 0 | Truancy | None | 1.07 |
| 4 | Minimal 2 | 0 | Total absence | None | 0.81 |
| 5 | Partial 1 | 2.19 | Truancy | Yes | 18.82 |
| 6 | Partial 2 | 2.19 | Total absence | Yes | 18.56 |
| 7 | Full 1 | 2.92 | Truancy | Yes | 19.15 |
| 8 | Full 2 | 2.92 | Total absence | Yes | 18.89 |

Notes:
1. YJB/ACPO schools only;
2. Base cases 1 and 2 reflect best estimates;
3. Columns 3–5 contain the three parameters whose value is allowed to vary;
4. Cases 3–4 are ultra-cautious, 7–8 allow for 'full benefits'

## *9.8 Concluding remarks*

It was estimated in Chapters 6 and 7 that the YJB/ACPO intervention schools dominated the comparison schools in terms of the four outcomes where measurement is possible, namely reductions in absence, exclusions, and offending, and improvement in exam results. The present chapter has indicated that our best estimate sees the intervention viable from a benefit:cost perspective as well.

The overall assessment of the impact of the SSP programme indicates that the YJB/ACPO intervention is effective and its estimated benefits exceed its costs. The sensitivity analysis shows that the YJB/ACPO intervention remains beneficial across a range of parameter estimates. For example, even if we completely ignore the future benefits from reduction of future offending, and all the labour market benefits from improved exam achievement, the YJB/ACPO intervention would still be generating annual, current benefits of around £412k from reduction in absence and in short-term offending. This is not quite enough to offset costs completely but is a very good start.

Taking account of future benefits makes a very big difference. This is primarily because of the critical role played by the DfES estimate of the impact on earnings of getting basic qualifications. The benefit:cost ratios are very sensitive to the proportion of pupils passing five or more GCSEs at grades A*–C. If only two pupils in a school achieve this who would otherwise not have done, benefits of over £500,000 accrue and this is sufficient to pay for the costs of an SSP team for a year. The change in exam pass rates thus plays a key role. The benefit:cost ratio is very sensitive to this assumption, but it remains above one in all but the two most pessimistic cases.

For the YJB/ACPO intervention schools, the positive impact of SSP on exam results is what drives the very high benefit:cost ratios. But even without these benefits, these three projects remain viable purely on the strength of offending reductions and improvements in absence. In the case of the Other SSP schools, we have not explored benefits and costs anything near as closely because of lack of data. One thing that is clear is that the deterioration in examination performance in Other SSP schools relative to their comparison schools means that the benefit:cost ratio will be much less favourable for that form of intervention.

It should be noted that the benefits estimated in the analysis are for the most part lower bounds on the benefits arising, since various types of benefit have had to be excluded because of lack of data. In order to make further progress in assessing benefit:cost ratios in this kind of setting, additional information is needed, including:

- the economic and social costs of youth offending where these might be different from the costs of adult offending
- the social costs of incidents in school such as bullying or damage to property and anti-social behaviour
- the change in fear of crime attributable to SSP intervention
- the change in the number of pupils falling victim to crime or other incidents following intervention.

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# 10 Summary of the impact of SSP on policy objectives

## *10.1 Introduction*

The purpose of this chapter is to summarise the findings from our empirical investigations into the behaviour of the outcome measures at the schools where SSP was implemented, and to compare them with the results from the comparison schools.

As we noted at the outset, the SSP programme had a series of objectives. We organise this chapter around this list of objectives, making use of the mapping set out in Chapter 4 that links the outcome measures and the policy objectives. In Figure 10.1 we reproduce Figure 2.1, which sets out the mapping, and note the sections in previous chapters where the relevant results are documented. This enables us to comment on our findings by policy objective rather than by outcome measure. The following paragraphs are accordingly organised by objective.

**Figure 10.1 Cross-tabulation of outcome measures and objectives (indicating section numbers)**

| Objective: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Education outcomes (Chapter 6)** | | | | | | |
| Truancy rates | | | | 6.2 | | |
| GCSE Results | | | | | | 6.5 |
| Exclusions | | | | 6.4 | | |
| Academic environment | | | | | | 5.7 |
| 'Whole school' approach | | 5.7 | | | | |
| **Offending and safety outcomes (Chapter 9)** | | | | | | |
| Self-reported victimisation | | | | | | |
| - Bullying - year 7 | | | | | 7.4 | |
| - Problem pupils | | | 7.4 | | | |
| - Whole school | | 7.4 | | | | |
| Other problem behaviour | | | | | | |
| - year 7 | | | | | 7.4 | |
| - Problem pupils | | | 7.4 | | | |
| - Whole school | | 7.4 | | | | |
| Offences (e.g. theft) | | | | | | |
| - year 7 | | | | | 7.5 | |
| - Problem pupils | | | 7.5&7.6 | | | |
| - Whole school | | 7.5 | | | | |
| Pupil offending and anti-social behaviour | | | | | | |
| (YOT, police, self-reported) | | | | | | |
| in school | 7.5 | | | | | |
| local | 7.6 | | | | | |
| elsewhere | 7.6 | | | | | |
| Safe environment (self-reported) | | | | | | 7.4 |
| Problem pupil id | | | 5.7 | | | |
| Objective: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

## 10.2 Objective 1: reduce victimisation, criminality and anti-social behaviour within the school and its community

From the data collected by Viewpoint from a sub-sample of the schools in our own sample, we can make some cross-sectional comparisons of victimisation and the fear of crime by school type. In Table 7.4, it was reported that the proportion of pupils describing themselves as feeling safe or very safe in school during autumn 2004 was 85% in YJB/ACPO schools, 73% in Other SSP schools and 68% in control schools. These findings seemed to be consistent with the findings reported in Table 7.11 about the proportion of pupils reporting having been victim of incidents such as theft or assault. The ratio of (total) incidents reported to pupils was lowest (0.54) in YJB/ACPO schools, 0.85 in Other SSP schools and highest (0.94) in control schools. These data were only collected in late 2004 and there is no baseline data from which to infer any time trends or intervention impact. But both types of intervention schools fare better than the control schools even though they do not have any 'natural advantages' in terms of lower deprivation or better educational outcomes.

Involvement in bullying seems to have followed a similar pattern. Table 7.15 summarised the proportion of pupils self-reporting involvement in bullying as between Policy Research Bureau data for the autumn term in 2002 (just after intervention) and the Viewpoint data for autumn 2004. It shows a 50% fall for the YJB/ACPO schools, while for Other SSP and comparison schools there is little change.

The other key source of data on criminality within the school and community is the number of pupils at a school found from YOT data to have been involved in offending. Findings based on YOT data for the three areas in which there is a YJB/ACPO school plus a comparison school suggest that 139 offences have been saved in those areas since intervention (see Table 7.16). Not only were there fewer reported offences at intervention schools, but also the participation of pupils in Years 7 and 8 decreased from 11% before intervention to 3% after intervention (see Table 7.17). We were unable to obtain data from YOTs covering Other SSP intervention and comparison schools, and thus it is impossible to extend our findings to this other group.

Even the YOT data that are available have to be treated with care. There are missing values for the school affiliation of many young offenders, since this field in the database is not mandatory. Improving the recording of affiliation would be a very useful step that would make it much easier to identify concentrations of pupil offenders and thus to target intervention more appropriately.

Our finding on this objective is that there is evidence that victimisation outcomes are improving in intervention schools, particularly YJB/ACPO schools. But data on school-level offending are weak and this should be a cause for remedial action.

## 10.3 Objective 2: work with schools on 'whole school' approaches to behaviour and discipline

This objective is of a different type to many of the others. It specifies a way of working rather than anything relating to changes in pupil behaviour or experience. Achievement of this objective can thus be expressed in the form of an answer to the question: are intervention schools using a whole school approach?

We suggested earlier that intervention schools have in many instances taken significant steps forward in respect of behaviour and discipline. We identified a number of characteristics associated with schools that were making progress towards a whole school approach including:

- a high degree of commitment from the senior management team in a school
- a rigorous review and 'joining up' of policies on absence, bullying, behaviour and so on
- good communication between the senior management team and staff in a school
- a proactive approach to tackling problem behaviour, including the use of restorative justice techniques
- clear understanding of the role of SSP staff by everyone in the school.

Particularly where there is a sizeable SSP 'team', schools have for the most part gone through the kind of overhaul needed for them to argue that they have moved to a 'whole school' approach. There do remain some gaps however. There are some intervention schools where staff remain less clear about the role and purpose of the SSP team than they might be.

Our finding on this objective is that we can say that SSP schools have made good progress towards a whole school approach. There remains scope for increasing clarity about the role of staff teaching, support staff and police officers, and for improving communication between SMT and other school staff.

### *10.4 Objective 3: identify and work with children and young people at risk of becoming victims or offenders*

As with Objective 2, this is more to do with how the intervention schools are implementing the programme than about what they are delivering. Section 5.7 reports the finding that SSP intervention schools have targeted pupils at risk. As with Objective 2, it is probably fair to say that this has been easier for YJB/ACPO and BEST schools than for schools where the intervention has been more low key. If the school does not have full-time staff working on the SSP agenda, however, there is rarely time for identifying a group of young people for additional support and supplying the extra inputs.

Our finding on this objective is that we can say that SSP schools have sought ways of identifying and working with children and young people at risk of becoming victims or offenders. In cases where the intervention is less generously resourced, this has been more difficult to achieve.

## 10.5 Objective 4: ensure the full-time education of young offenders

We can see a significant reduction in the number of permanent exclusions across the board (see Table 6.10) since intervention began. In YJB/ACPO schools and their comparison schools, exclusions had fallen to zero by 2003, the latest year for which exclusions data are available. In the Other SSP schools, the average number of exclusions fell from an average of 3.33 pupils in 2002 to 1.64, while in the Other SSP comparison schools the number fell from 1.83 to 0.67 pupils.

There are important limitations of permanent exclusions as an outcome measure:

- the number of exclusions has been falling across most schools, making it difficult to make reliable comparisons
- the number of exclusions in a particular year is generally quite small, making it hazardous to express exclusions as a rate (e.g. as a proportion of the school roll)
- the numbers can be quite volatile from one year to the next, so that even taking an average over two years intervals can produce apparently erratic trends.

However, the very low exclusion rates mean that these issues are not at present a major barrier.

Our findings indicate that intervention has reduced truancy rates significantly. An approximation to the impact shows a truancy rate net improvement impact of 2.10 percentage points in YJB/ACPO schools relative to the comparison schools, and an improvement of 0.62 percentage points at Other SSP schools relative to their comparison schools (see Table 6.4). The national truancy rate in 2004 is 1.2%, relative to which these reductions are substantial.[38]

Similar findings apply if we broaden the definition of absence to include both authorised as well as unauthorised absence. The comparable figures are a net improvement impact of 1.83 percentage points in YJB/ACPO schools relative to the comparison schools and of 0.92 percentage points at Other SSP schools relative to their comparison schools (see Table 6.9).

Our finding on this objective is that SSP has achieved the objective of reducing truancy rates. It has also helped to reduce total absence rates in intervention schools relative to comparison schools. Permanent exclusions have fallen across most schools whether or not they have an SSP project, so it is not possible to attribute the improvement to the implementation of SSP.

## 10.6 Objective 5: support vulnerable children and young people through periods of transition, such as the move from primary to secondary school

This is a third objective relating to steps schools take rather than to outcomes delivered. Its achievement can be looked at either from the point of view of the steps taken or, by extension, what it has delivered by way of experience for the vulnerable children and young people at issue.

[38] See www.dfes.gov.uk/cgi-bin/performancetables/dfe1x2_04.pl?Mode=Z&No=341&X=1&Type=&Base=e

There seems little doubt that SSP schools receiving more intensive forms of support have improved their links with primary schools and are better placed to support Year 7 pupils on arrival from primary school. This is true particularly for BEST clusters, where a group of primaries are part of the cluster, and for YJB/ACPO schools.

In many cases, it is still difficult to distinguish the experience of vulnerable groups in schools from that of other pupils. So although it is known, for example, that looked-after children comprise a vulnerable group, it is not usually easy for an outside researcher to get a sense of how different the school experience of this group is relative to that of others.

Some of the data collected can be used to compare outcomes for Year 7 pupils with that of pupils in other years of the school. In many pupil surveys, however, the size of the Year 7 sample is too small to support meaningful comparisons between Year 7 pupils and others, either through time (i.e. between year groups) or across space (between schools). As Table 7.12 indicates, the sample sizes can be small for this sub-group.

Our finding on this objective is that there are positive signs that intervention schools are devoting greater attention to vulnerable groups. There are signs also of reduced offending by the Year 7 group in a YJB/ACPO intervention school. But in more general terms there are few data that distinguish outcomes for vulnerable children. This limits the findings that can be derived. With progress on the Every Child Matters agenda will come pressure for improvements in data in respect of vulnerable groups, and there is a significant gap to fill.

## *10.7 Objective 6: create a safer environment for children to learn in*

One of the purposes of making schools safer is to enable pupils to be able to focus more clearly on their academic work. Success in meeting this goal should mean improvements in educational achievement.

There are two sorts of indicators we can use for exploring this. First, there is the question of whether students are feeling safer in intervention schools; then there is the further question of whether any such improvements are finding expression in educational achievement.

The Viewpoint data analysed in Chapter 7 make it clear that pupils in intervention schools, particularly YJB/ACPO schools, feel significantly safer as a result of having a police officer in the school. They are less likely to feel uncomfortable about having an officer in the school and less likely to think that having an officer there reflects badly on the school. Over 80% of pupils at YJB/ACPO schools think that having a police officer will make a difference to the school, compared with 71% at Other SSP schools and 54% at comparison schools. The evidence seems to point clearly in the direction of SSP interventions making pupils feel safer.

Whether this positive attitude finds expression in educational achievement is less clear-cut. What is very clear from the DfES estimates (outlined in Chapter 9) of the effect of examination passes on future earnings prospects is that any examinations pass rate improvement potentially has substantial social benefit. This was implicit in the framework set out in Chapter 2 where local labour market conditions are a key environmental factor.

The proportion of students getting five or more grades A*–C at GCSE is an indicator that measures only one aspect of performance, but it is an important one. For present purposes, this has the limitation that it is capturing the impact on achievement by a single year group (Year 11). It is thus ignoring potentially important aspects of academic performance across the school, such as how well new (Year 7) pupils are doing.

There is evidence of significant improvement in pass rates as between 2001–02 (the pre-intervention year) and 2003–04 (the second year of intervention) for all schools in our sample. From Table 6.14 it can be seen that results have improved for all intervention schools and comparison schools. It is also noticeable that the greatest increment occurred in YJB/ACPO intervention schools, where there is an increase of 8.50 percentage points relative to the relevant comparison schools. However, for Other SSP intervention schools the improvement in the pass rate is lower than for the comparison schools, with the result that the net impact is negative. The ANCOVA model estimates did not demonstrate a statistically significant impact of intervention on pass rates.

The picture is thus rather mixed. We were expecting that the impact of intervention on examination results would take two or three years to build up. In the case of the YJB/ACPO schools, a large part of the positive impact is attributed to substantial improvement in the pass rate at a single school that had been starting from a particularly low baseline rate.

Our finding on this objective is that there are clear signs that pupils in SSP intervention schools, particularly YJB/ACPO schools, feel significantly safer than their counterparts in comparison schools. Exam achievements have increased across most schools but there is no evidence as yet that the improvement is any greater in intervention schools.

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# 11 Conclusions and recommendations

## 11.1 Introduction

The previous chapter summarises findings on the effectiveness of the SSP programme in meeting its objectives. This was assessed in terms of the impact on outcome measures inferred from policy objectives. In this final chapter, we draw some conclusions and make some suggestions as to how the SSP programme might be taken forward.

The key findings are:

- SSP has had a positive impact in most respects and delivered measurable improvements
- truancy and absence rates have improved in intervention schools
- attitudes towards having police officers in schools seem to be distinctly more favourable in schools where an officer has been based
- baseline data in relation to school-level offending rates and pupil-level data about victimisation and fear of crime and anti-social behaviour in school are poor
- critical gaps in data collection protocols may inhibit progress in building better databases
- the costs of running SSP projects can be considerable because the projects involve funding support workers as well as a police officer in each school or cluster
- we have been able to get quite a way in calculating the monetary values of a range of benefits from SSP, including reductions in offending and absence and improvements in examination performance
- gaps in offending and victimisation data inhibit efforts to estimate benefits for Other SSP interventions
- relationships between schools and police (and to a less degree with YOTs) have improved significantly where SSP has been implemented
- much has been learned about which components of SSP are felt to be most worthwhile, although we have not been able to develop statistical evidence in support of these conjectures.

In light of these findings, we make a number of recommendations. Before concluding with a summary of these, there are a number of threads that need pulling together.

## 11.2 Data sources, data interfacing and the analysis of youth offending

At local level YOTs maintain large, live databases that are potentially a very rich source of data on youth offending. Unfortunately, we have not been able to make use of these data for analysis of the impact of SSP, because information about an offender's school affiliation is so often missing. Steps to rectify this are being taken, primarily by agencies other than YOTs themselves. To the extent that such an improvement is possible, there might be substantial benefits. Not only would it facilitate comparisons between schools, it would also make it much easier to explore the link between offending data, problem behaviour and educational achievement at the individual offender level. At present, even apparently straightforward questions, such as 'does low educational attainment or a poor truancy record increase the likelihood that a youngster will offend?', cannot be answered very effectively. It is naturally frustrating for policy-makers and Criminal Justice System managers if questions about the causes or correlates of youth offending cannot be answered, particularly when great volumes of data are being generated within the youth justice system and there is no shortage of hypotheses to test.

In order to solve these problems, we would suggest a review of the availability of datasets capable of supporting the kind of modelling and analysis policy makers need. Such a review might cover matters such as:

- the contents of police, YOT and other databases that contain information potentially valuable for supporting research into youth offending and/or real-time tracking of offending risk
- the feasibility of interfacing these datasets in ways that would allow them, in effect, to be merged for research purposes.
- the feasibility of developing a national-level database incorporating truancy at pupil level.

This would involve reviewing the data held by a number of agencies and the format in which they are held, and also identifying the data's reliability and weaknesses.

## 11.3 Data from pupil surveys

There seems to be a large gap in what is known at present about the extent to which pupils at school find themselves victim of a range of behaviour, ranging from swearing and bullying through intimidation to theft or having property damaged or stolen. It has become commonplace for councils and other agencies to commission surveys of offending issues and the fear of crime at local level. But these surveys often exclude school pupils and are rarely repeated in ways that enable trends to be discerned or the impact of interventions to be followed up. Even national victim surveys such as the *British Crime Survey* exclude children and young people for many purposes. The one national survey of youth life-styles covering such issues (the *MORI Youth Survey* for theYJB) is nowhere near large enough to support analysis at the individual school level.

Evidence about the scale of bullying in schools is hard to come by. We made some proposals in Chapter 8 about the design of pupil surveys that could go some way to providing evidence for such purposes. Software that pupils could use interactively to generate such data could be designed to produce output automatically for insertion into school safety self-evaluation forms. The number of questions need not be too great and the whole exercise might be a useful tutor time activity or a component in the curricula of PSHE or Citizenship. Responses could be used to generate automatic analyses of school safety that could be used both for internal purposes by the school and for external purposes such as informing local youth offending strategies.

## 11.4 Methodological development

As part of the analysis we have done for this report, Chapter 9 included an attempt to estimate the costs and benefits of SSP interventions. This effort was impeded primarily by the data gaps referred to above, but also by a number of gaps in the methodology for estimating the benefits of youth crime reduction. In particular, it would be helpful to have better information on both the economic and social costs of youth offending and anti-social behaviour, and the relationship between youth and adult offending. This would make it easier to estimate the crime prevention benefits, both immediate and long term, associated with interventions that successfully reduce youth offending.

Particularly if our suggestion for developing school surveys of offending experience were followed, it would be possible to contemplate constructing an 'Index of School Safety'. The choice of components and weights for such an index would need wider discussion, but the underlying structure could be similar to the York Index of Public Safety (see www.york.ac.uk/criminaljustice/HTML/yips/yipsmain.htm).

## 11.5 Review of models of the school-police relationship

The relationship between schools and the police lies at the heart of the SSP programme. Improving co-ordination between the two and the development of an effective approach to crime reduction within the school setting are essential for the creation of the kind of environment within which the spirit of the Every Child Matters agenda can flourish. Increased sharing of information and the better targeting of support and resources this allows are needed if schools are to be able to demonstrate that they are putting children's safety and development at the centre of what they do.

There is a spectrum of models for school-police relationships, ranging from the traditional school liaison officer approach to intensive intervention with an SSP team, including a police officer based in a school or a cluster of schools. The model chosen will need to be tailored to allow for variations in the working styles of individual schools and local police forces. For example, it will need to take account of the fact that some police forces do not have youth specialists, and to be consistent with an affordable scale of police involvement. It will be necessary also to prioritise police resources for use with schools or clusters where support can be most effectively deployed.

Important changes in the way in which human resources are deployed are occurring in both police forces and schools. It will be necessary to ensure that any SSP developments are integrated into these changes to ensure that impact is not lost. It is likely that the remodelling of the school workforce will create new opportunities for innovative configuration of inputs within schools. For example, greater employment of classroom assistants, lunchtime supervisors and security staff may improve behaviour support and the security of school premises. Likewise, it is possible that parallel developments such as the Every Child Matters agenda will bring about changes in pastoral support provision, and the rethinking that accompanies such change should be informed by school safety priorities. Remodelling work is going on also within police forces, as the police family is extended and greater emphasis is given to community or beat policing. This may open new opportunities, for example for more employment within police forces of specialist youth workers, use of community support officers for school-based activities and work, or even the creation of a new 'youth section' within police forces.

The move to community policing makes schools a natural focus from the local police perspective, especially in relation to youth offending indicators. Although problems of police isolation in the early stages of SSP have now mostly been resolved, there remains a 'culture difference' between schools and the police. Any such gap will have to be confronted when (non-SSP) schools are to invite a greater police presence or closer working relationships.

## *11.6 Schools and their partnerships with youth offending agencies*

As we observed, there is a tendency, albeit not a very strong one, for schools implementing an SSP intervention to develop a better relationship with their local YOT. But the levels of both communication and co-operation between schools and YOTs had for the most part been relatively poor prior to SSP. From the school's perspective, recording and tackling incidents and offences in schools comprise only a small part of the school's wide range of administrative activities. On the other hand, in the absence of school safety programmes such as SSP and BEST, there are few media to enable the agencies to communicate, let alone to co-ordinate and to share information.

From the perspective of the local CDRP, the school safety issue can look a little marginal. Young offenders of school age are an important group because they account for a significant proportion of crime and anti-social behaviour. They probably contribute disproportionately to the fear of crime because their presence on the streets in numbers can be more intimidating to many citizens than the harm they actually do. But developing a youth offending strategy is a matter that may well involve only minimal consultation with schools. There may be agreement that the local police should focus efforts on preventing truancy prior to Christmas in order to cut shoplifting and should be involved in the delivery of diversionary activities for children during the summer holidays. Even though these activities might be a part of an SSP project, this kind of approach is a far cry from the kind of closer school-police liaison envisaged under SSP.

There are however two developments under way that may help schools become more closely engaged in local partnerships with youth crime reduction objectives.

One pressure will come from the development of the Every Child Matters agenda. This will require a more concerted local effort for dealing with children and young people than is operational in most areas at present. The children's trusts will play a key role in this. It will be important, if youth crime reduction is to be a significant component in overall objectives, to integrate the work of the new agencies with the youth offending partnerships that have developed within CDRP.

The other development is the expansion of community policing. This provides a very obvious springboard for closer co-operation between police and schools. It is very likely that officers wanting to build a deeper knowledge of the community they are policing will find closer links with schools an essential part of the process. An SSP provides a very natural focus for the development of these links.

## 11.7 Concluding remarks

Some young people of school age will always offend. However, there are some encouraging signs, referred to in the introduction, of the numbers doing so being in retreat, albeit on a modest scale. Given the links between offending, truancy and educational achievement, there can be little question that effective steps to reduce youth offending could pay substantial dividends. Improved opportunities for themselves, their classmates and their communities might result if more young people can be persuaded to refrain from offending. The huge improvement in earnings prospects for those youngsters achieving good GCSE passes is evidence of the potential gains to young people from engagement with school. The challenge is to find ways of encouraging them to realise these gains and thereby to trigger the collateral benefits for their classmates and the wider community of reductions in social exclusion.

There appears to be evidence that schools with SSP interventions are making better progress in reducing truancy and offending than comparable schools that have not received intervention. Although it is difficult to pin down exactly which components of intervention are bringing about these effects, the SSP we have examined seem to have had success in reducing truancy and victimisation and improving school exam performance in many instances. The challenge now is to find ways of mainstreaming the SSP programme. This entails mobilising the support of schools and the police in particular, and finding ways of ensuring the most effective targeting of resources. The schools where children are most vulnerable will have most to gain from SSP and they will clearly be the top priority.

## 11.8 Summary of recommendations

From this and previous chapters, we can draw together a summary of our principal recommendations as follows:

### For schools and local agencies

- Continue the development of closer links between primary and secondary schools in order to improve the information flow about vulnerable children and to smooth the transition between schools.

- Develop closer links between schools and local agencies (such as the YOT and the police) in relation to youth offending and problem behaviour.
- Make greater use at school level of electronic recording of attendance and ensure effective follow-up of truancy and other absence.
- Develop greater dialogue between schools and the police, either directly or through partnerships, about school and community safety and youth offending.
- Encourage police area commanders to review the role of schools in their community policing plans and how best to support officers working in schools.

**Centrally**

- Review the prospects for giving the reduction of youth offending and anti-social behaviour greater priority in performance monitoring and management such as in the best value performance indicators used for the police.
- Develop a mainstreaming policy for the SSP in a form that supports school-police dialogue (e.g. action templates, criteria for selecting a particular form of SSP).
- Review YOT database software with a view to encouraging greater use and development of its analytical and reporting capabilities.
- Review data-sharing arrangements between YOTs, schools, police and other agencies with a youth offending focus.
- Review the case for, and the means of, encouraging schools to run regular surveys of pupil victimisation, fear of crime, and involvement in offending and bullying.

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# Appendix 1 A review of present police-schools liaison

There is no single model of police-schools liaison. The variation across forces is great, ranging from the approaches of Essex, Thames Valley and the Metropolitan Police, who take a highly proactive role, to other forces for whom development of an active approach to schools and youth offending has been a less urgent priority. Below are some sample details taken from police websites.

### *Avon and Somerset Police*

The strategic aim is, through effective strategic and local partnerships, to improve community safety and reduce crime through enhanced working relationships with schools, their communities and the young people of the Avon and Somerset Constabulary area.

The strategy is implemented in schools through staged inputs to the National Curriculum covering aspects of personal safety (including safety from illegal drugs) and good citizenship, to be delivered with teachers. The topics offered to Key Stages 3 and 4 students comprise: staying safe, bullying/harassment, minority group issues, assaults, public order and offensive weapons.

The more general policing needs of the school community, including security and crime prevention are also met. The force also supports LEAs in tackling truancy (Section 16 of the Crime and Disorder Act 1998) by implementing a series of truancy sweeps throughout Somerset. The Constabulary recognises that truants are potential victims of crime and abuse, as well as potential offenders.

### *Cleveland Police*

Anti-social behaviour and youth offending are two of the main challenges. Stockton Police try to reduce crime and disorder of these types by mounting high visibility patrols in the worst areas and liasing very closely with local schools so children of all ages have some input on issues of citizenship, bullying, drugs, crime and anti-social behaviour. In addition the development of local initiatives reinforces the message that anti-social behaviour is unacceptable.

Activities supported include a Good Citizenship Day, aimed at students from Years 5 and 6. The aim of the day is to deliver accurate information to help young people make informed choices, which will assist them in efforts to become good citizens. An anti-social behaviour CD is available.

### *Derbyshire Police*

Derbyshire Police take a lighter touch approach. They have schools liaison officers available at police divisional headquarters to offer advice and visit schools to talk with students and teachers about their problems.

### Devon and Cornwall Police

The Devon and Cornwall Police/Education Liaison Group (PELG) provides a forum to co-ordinate the efforts of the numerous police youth intervention officers. whose role is dedicated to assisting in the education of young people throughout the area. The PELG has identified key areas where officers can make a contribution within the National PSHE Curriculum, improving young people's knowledge of: crime reduction, personal safety, substance use and misuse, the citizen, and the law and duties, responsibilities and rights of being a citizen.

### Dorset Police

The Dorset Police Force sets out to foster positive relationships with schools. Each territorial division has a nominated Community Relations Officer (CRO) who focuses on liaison with local schools. The CRO takes primary responsibility for all Tier 1 responses, prioritised as follows: substance misuse, personal safety, road safety, and the role of the police in society. Local community beat officers (CBOs) are primarily responsible for all Tier 2 responses, which mostly involve primary schools dealing with personal and road safety advice. Schools are encouraged to take every opportunity to introduce CBOs into their environment.

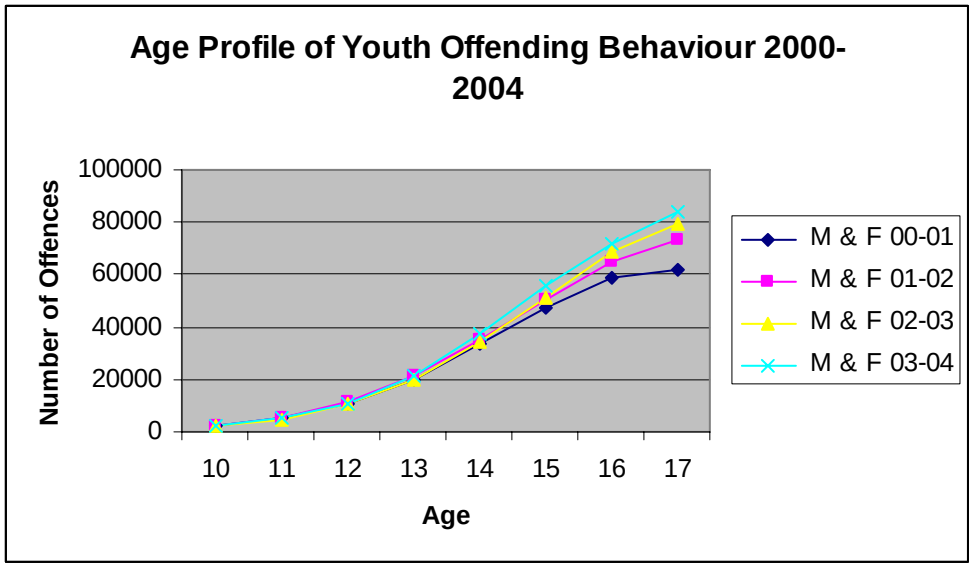
A police/schools liaison group of headteachers, the LEA and police representatives meet every term to continue to develop an effective liaison programme and deal with any issue that cannot be resolved locally.

### Gloucestershire Police

Gloucestershire Police have a Schools and Young Persons Unit consisting of four police officers who can be accessed by all educational establishments in the county. Officers deliver a wide range of police related subjects in a classroom setting. The unit is sympathetic to the PHSE programmes and has specifically developed sessions to satisfy the citizenship schemes on the Criminal Justice System and the role of the police. The lessons can be adapted to fit into most educational timetables and the officers attend in full uniform, with a variety of teaching aids to support them.
A variety of topics such as bullying, drugs, safety, crime and alcohol have been developed for presentation across the whole secondary-school age range. The unit also supports the Learning for Life package, which consists of a CD-ROM supported by a resource box, and is aimed at primary education across the county.

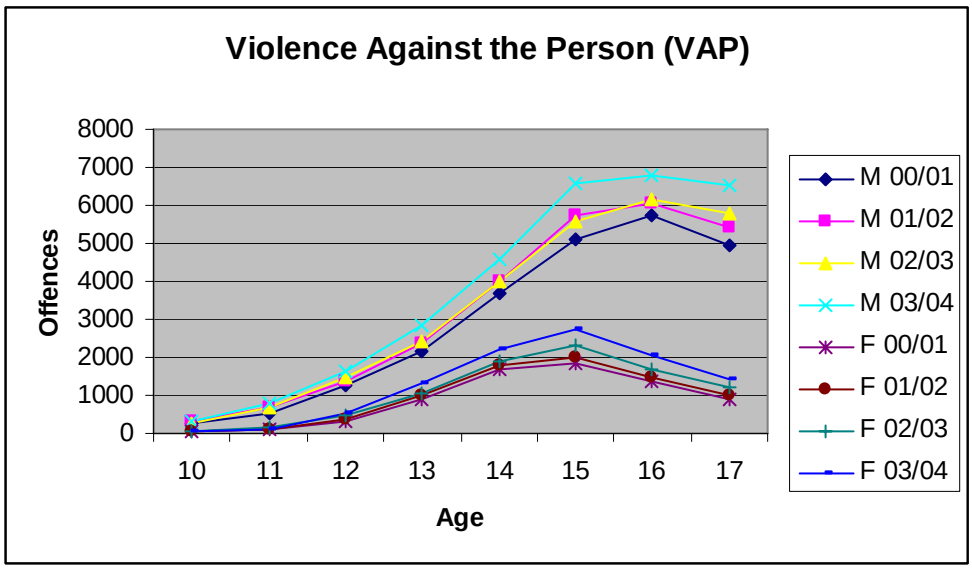
# Appendix 2 Age and gender profiles of youth offending by type of offence

The figure below depicts the evolution of overall youth offending behaviour from financial year 2000/01 to 2003/04. 'M&F' in the legend stands for male and female offenders, and '00-01' (03-04) means that the figure is for '2000/2001' (2003/2004) financial year. Similar interpretations apply for other terminologies in the legend.

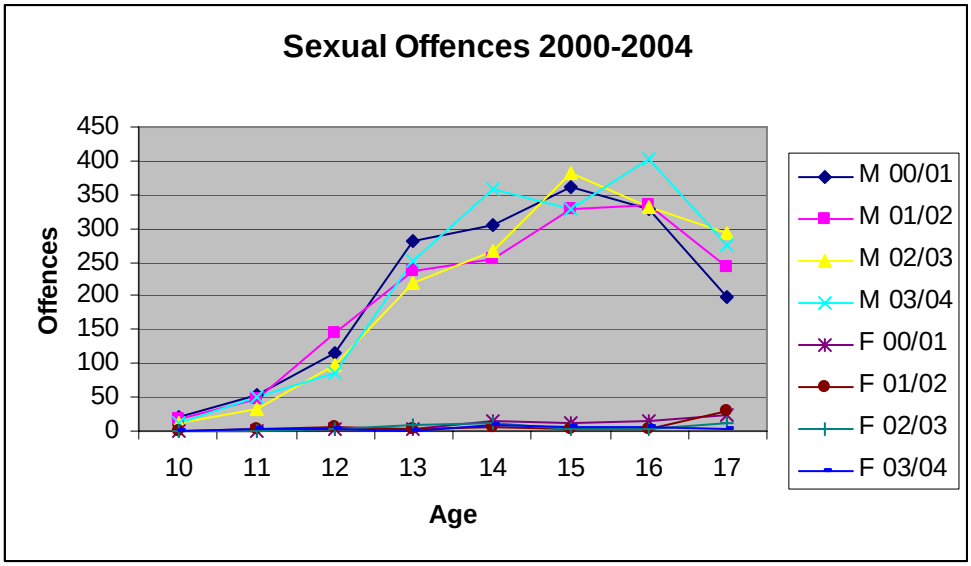



Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology estimation on YJB data

The figures below show gender comparisons of youth offending behaviour across various types of offences. In the legends thoughout the subsequent figures, 'M 00/01' (F 02/03) represents the number of offences committed by male (female) offenders during the financial year 2000/01 (2002/03). Similar interpretations apply for other terminologies in the legends. It can be seen that the peak age varies with both gender and the type of offence.




Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology estimation on YJB data

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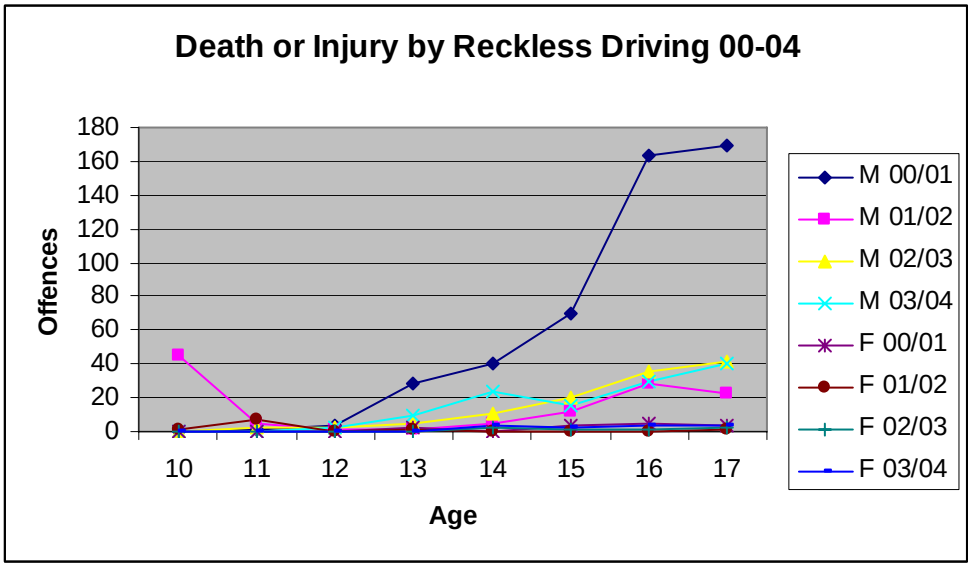


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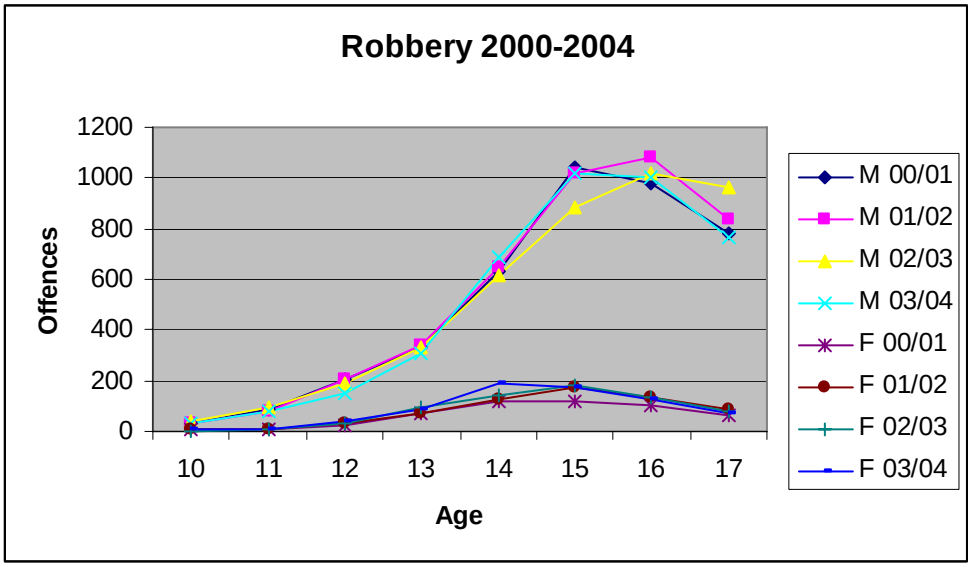


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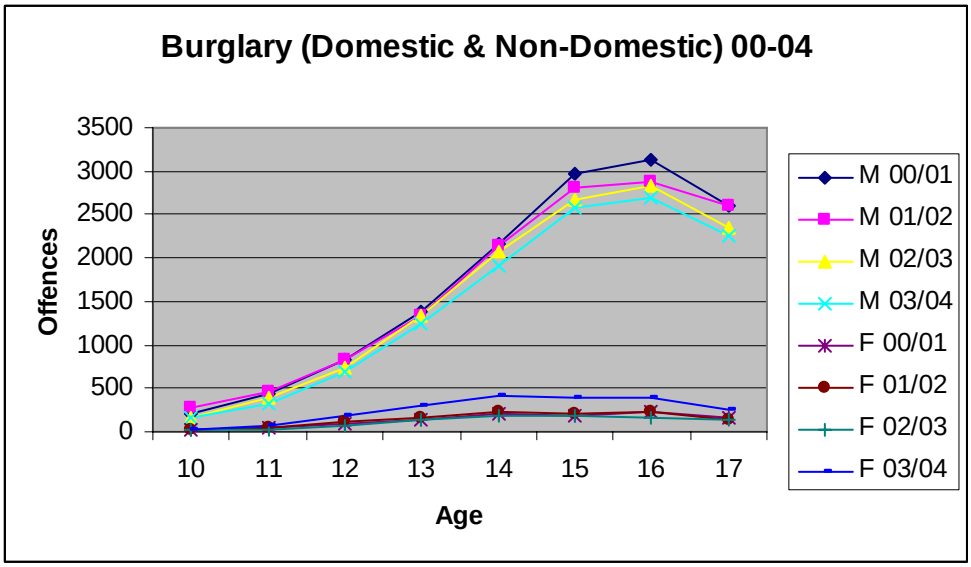
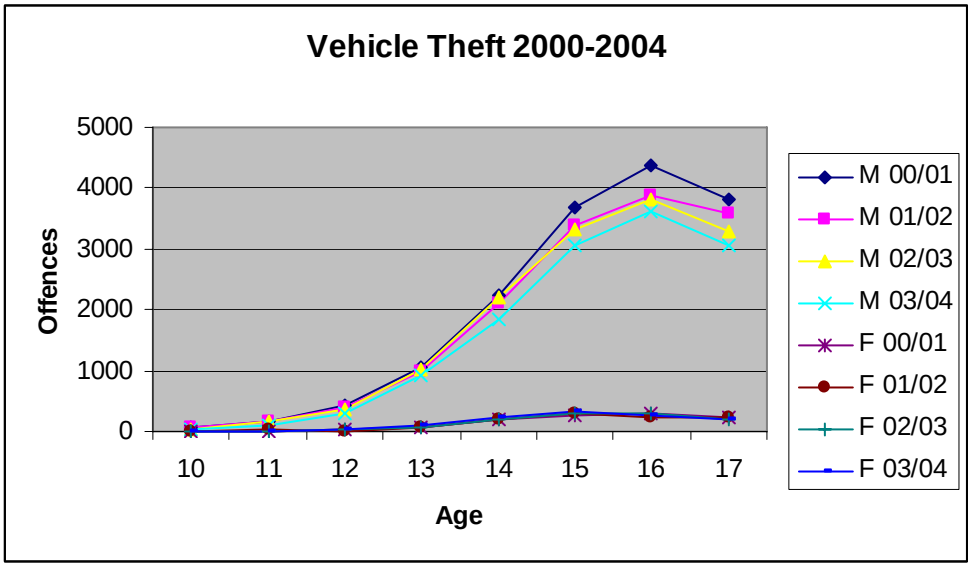
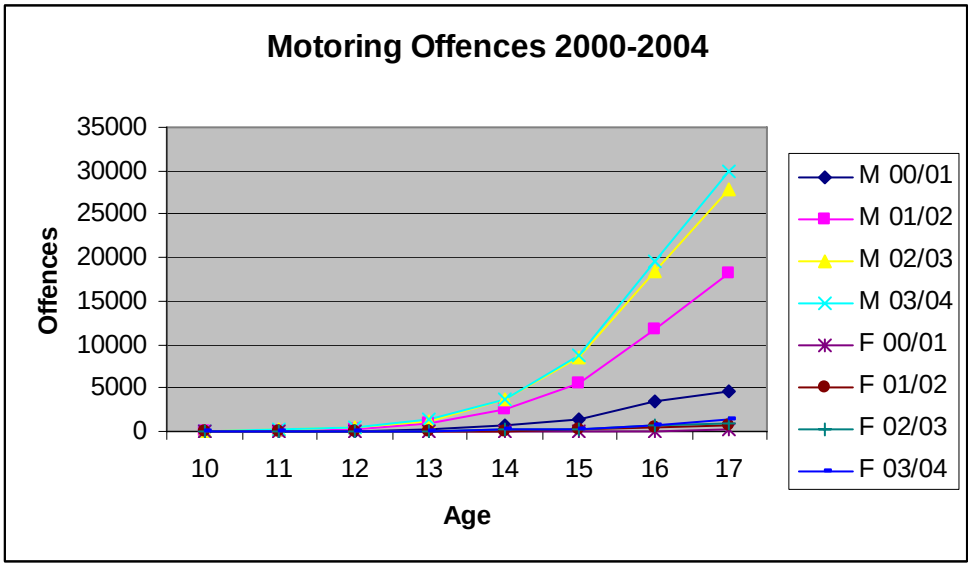



Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology estimation on YJB data




Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology estimation on YJB data

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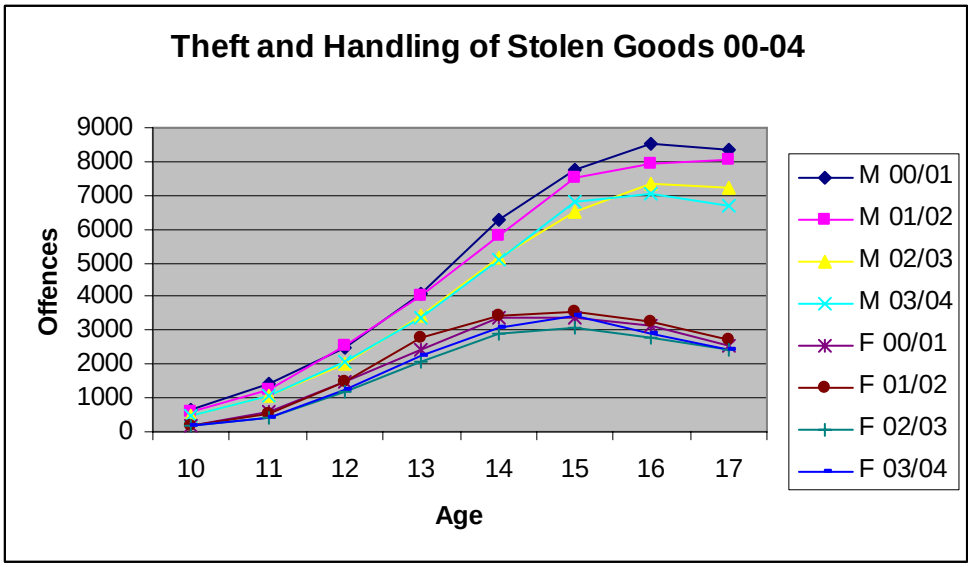


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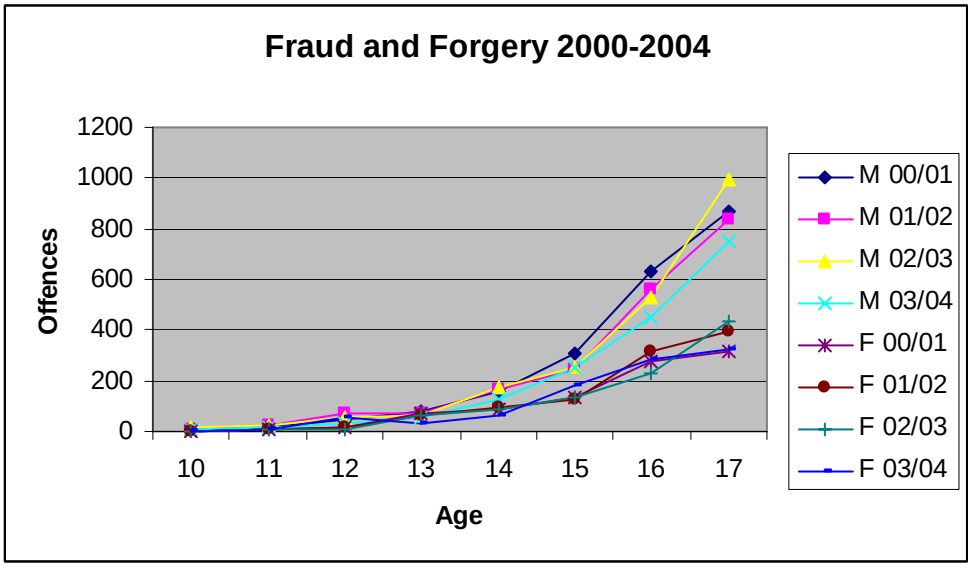


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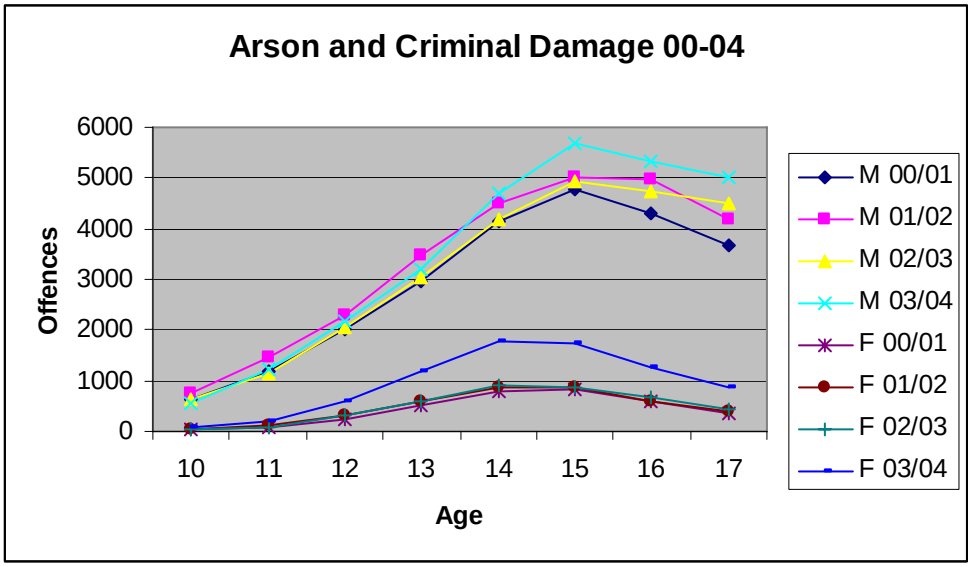


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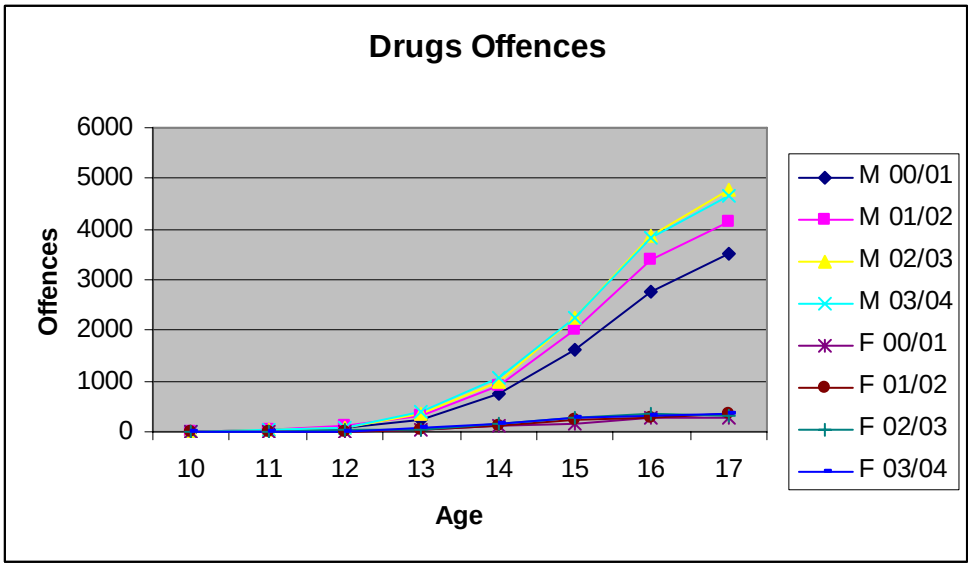


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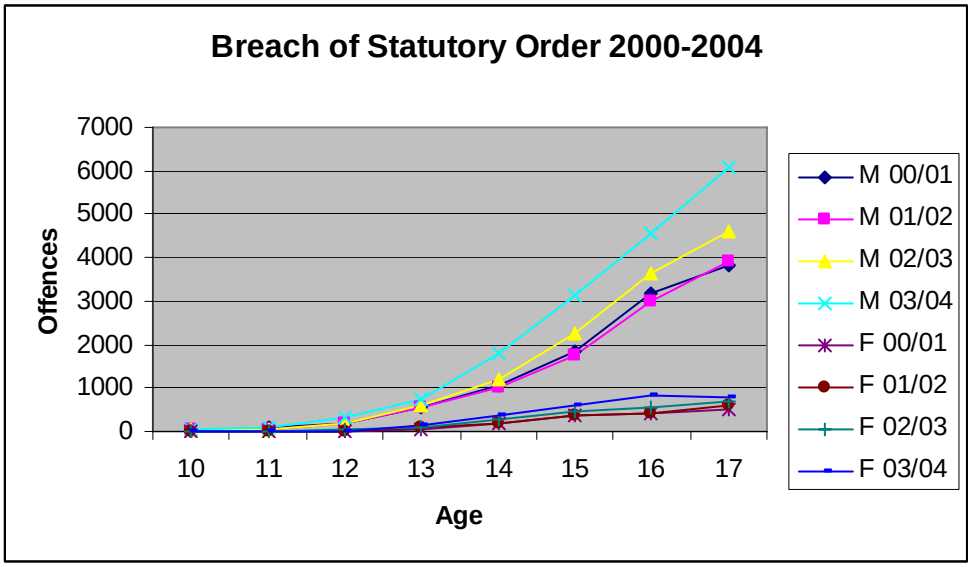


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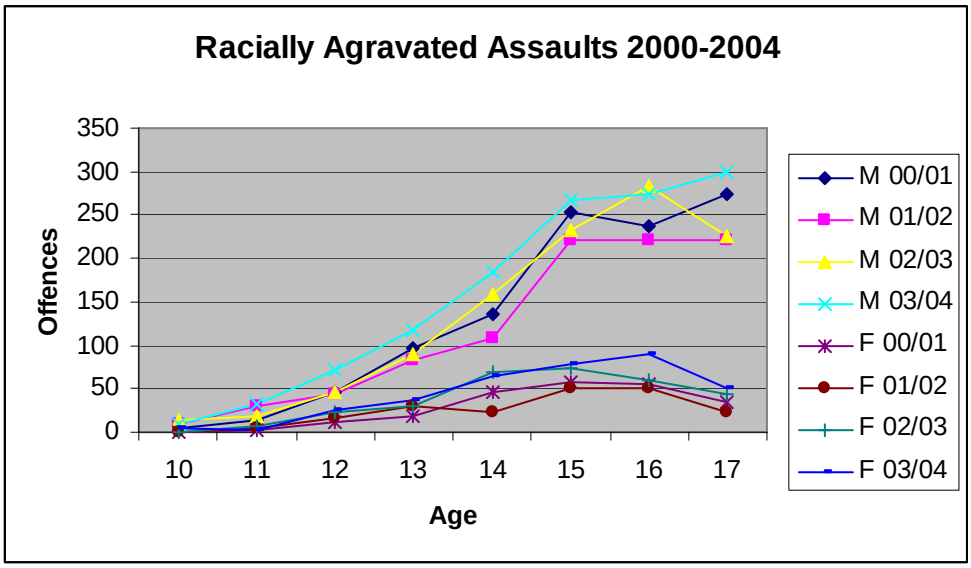



Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology estimation on YJB data

# Appendix 3 List of sample schools

| School ID | Status in sample | In Policy Research Bureau sample | Visited school | Visited YOT |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO1 | YJB/ACPO | yes | yes | yes |
| comp_YJB1 | comparison | no | yes | yes |
| YJB/ACPO2 | YJB/ACPO | yes | yes | yes |
| comp_YJB2 | comparison | no | yes | yes |
| YJB/ACPO3 | YJB/ACPO | yes | yes | yes |
| comp_YJB3 | comparison | no | yes | yes |
| Other SSP1 | Other SSP | no | yes | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP1 | comparison | no | yes | yes |
| Other SSP2 | Other SSP | yes | yes | no |
| comp_OtherSSP2 | comparison | no | yes | no |
| Other SSP3 | Other SSP | yes | yes | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP3 | comparison | no | yes | yes |
| Other SSP3 | Other SSP | yes | yes | yes |
| Other SSP4 | Other SSP | no | yes | no |
| comp_OtherSSP4 | comparison | yes | yes | no |
| Other SSP5 | Other SSP | yes | no | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP5 | comparison | no | no | yes |
| Other SSP5 | Other SSP | no | yes | yes |
| Other SSP6 | Other SSP | yes | yes | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP6 | comparison | no | yes | yes |
| Other SSP7 | Other SSP | yes | yes | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP7 | comparison | no | no | no |
| Other SSP8 | Other SSP | no | yes | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP8 | comparison | no | yes | yes |
| Other SSP9 | Other SSP | no | yes | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP9 | comparison | no | yes | yes |
| Other SSP10 | Other SSP | no | yes | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP10 | comparison | no | no | yes |
| Other SSP11 | Other SSP | no | yes | yes |
| comp_OtherSSP11 | comparison | no | no | yes |
| Other SSP12 | Other SSP | no | no | no |
| comp_OtherSSP12 | comparison | no | no | no |
| **Total of visited schools** | | | **25** | |

# Appendix 4 Profiles of schools and their areas

## Table A4.1 Schools and their areas – YJB/ACPO intervention and comparison schools

| | School | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Area profile* (percentages)** | YJB1 | YJB2 | YJB3 | comp_YJB1 | comp_YJB2 | comp_YJB3 |
| Population under 16 | 25.3 | 22.7 | 26.6 | 15.8 | 23.2 | 24.8 |
| *Ethnic Group:* | | | | | | |
| White | 96.8 | 95 | 85.9 | 94.9 | 58.5 | 55.6 |
| Mixed | 1.5 | 2 | 2.8 | 1.3 | 4.8 | 2.5 |
| Asian or Asian British | 0.4 | 1.8 | 6.3 | 1.5 | 22.9 | 35.5 |
| Black or Black British | 0.5 | 0.9 | 4.6 | 0.8 | 12.2 | 5 |
| Chinese/other Ethnic group | 0.8 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 1.4 | 1.6 | 1.5 |
| With limiting long-term illness | 29.7 | 29.3 | 16.8 | 26.5 | 25 | 15.8 |
| *Economic activity:* | | | | | | |
| Employed | 36.6 | 44.5 | 61.3 | 30.5 | 43.2 | 60.4 |
| Unemployed | 8.2 | 8.1 | 4 | 6 | 7.8 | 3.7 |
| Full-time students and | | | | | | |
| schoolchildren aged 16 to 74 | 4.2 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 20.9 | 6.5 | 5.6 |
| *Housing and Households:* | | | | | | |
| Containing dependent children | 31.5 | 28.4 | 37.7 | 22.6 | 28.5 | 38.3 |
| Lone parent with dependent(s) | 18.5 | 10.2 | 9.8 | 13.1 | 8.8 | 6.4 |
| *Levels of Crime:*** | | | | | | |
| (Rate per 1,000 population) | | | | | | |
| Violence Against the person | 15.6 | 5.8 | 11.1 | 15.6 | 5.8 | 11.1 |
| Sexual Offences | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.8 |
| Robbery | 3.2 | 1.8 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 1.8 | 2.7 |
| Burglary from a dwelling | 11.8 | 11.9 | 12.4 | 11.8 | 11.9 | 12.4 |
| Theft of a motor vehicle | 17.1 | 7.4 | 10.1 | 17.1 | 7.4 | 10.1 |
| Theft from a motor vehicle | 14.9 | 16 | 40.3 | 14.9 | 16 | 40.3 |
| **Deprivation scores 2004** | | | | | | |
| Income | 0.55 | 0.05 | 0.17 | 0.33 | 0.05 | 0.25 |
| Employment | 0.39 | 0.06 | 0.11 | 0.29 | 0.06 | 0.09 |
| Health Depr. and Disability | 2.41 | 0.15 | 0.33 | 1.62 | 0.15 | 0.04 |
| Education Skills and Training | 89.73 | 0.68 | 40.29 | 48.90 | 0.68 | 33.43 |
| Barriers to Housing & Services | 16.61 | 24.03 | 24.26 | 15.92 | 24.03 | 28.59 |
| Crime and Disorder | 2.14 | 0.35 | 1.13 | 1.25 | 0.35 | 1.07 |
| Living Environment | 36.55 | 12.73 | 20.77 | 31.82 | 12.73 | 21.34 |
| *IMD SCORE* | *81.12* | *10.92* | *28.78* | *54.34* | *10.92* | *29.02* |
| **Summary of education data 2002** | | | | | | |
| % of pupils with SEN, with statements | 3.9 | 0.7 | 3.8 | 2 | 2.7 | 1.2 |
| % of pupils with SEN, without statements | 60.5 | 41.7 | 35.8 | 49.5 | 6.7 | 14.6 |
| Figures for LEA: % half days missed due to unauthorised absence | 1.7 | 2 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 2 | 1.5 |
| No. Permanent exclusions *** | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| % of pupils known to be eligible for free school meals | 50.45 | 47.79 | 31.41 | 53.9 | 56.79 | 12.9 |

* All taken from 2001 Census, ONS unless otherwise noted

** Notifiable offences recorded by the police; April 2000 to March 2001

*** As at January of each academic year. January 2004 data provisional

## Table A4.1 (continued)

| | School | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Area profile* (percentages)** | other_ssp1 | other_ssp2 | other_ssp3 | comp_otherssp1 | comp_otherssp2 | comp_otherssp3 |
| Population under 16 | 25.6 | 22.9 | 29.3 | 20.1 | 22.6 | 29.5 |
| *Ethnic Group:* | | | | | | |
| White | 88.7 | 97.2 | 18.5 | 90.4 | 55.8 | 27.3 |
| Mixed | 3 | 1.1 | 56.8 | 2.9 | 1.4 | 2.9 |
| Asian or Asian British | 3.6 | 0.8 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 41.3 | 63 |
| Black or Black British | 4.1 | 0.4 | 18.8 | 3.7 | 1 | 5.4 |
| Chinese/other Ethnic group | 0.6 | 0.5 | 2.6 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 1.4 |
| With limiting long-term illness | 16.2 | 23.7 | 19 | 18.3 | 26.4 | 18.3 |
| *Economic activity:* | | | | | | |
| Employed | 64.3 | 51.8 | 35.1 | 63.7 | 42 | 40.2 |
| Unemployed | 3.7 | 5.5 | 8.9 | 2.5 | 7.3 | 8 |
| Full-time students and | | 1.6 | | | | |
| schoolchildren aged 16 to 74 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 9.7 | 3.1 | 5.8 | 7.7 |
| *Housing and Households:* | | | | | | |
| Containing dependent children | 37.1 | 31 | 43.7 | 28 | 28 | 43.6 |
| Lone parent with dependent(s) | 11 | 12.3 | 12.2 | 7.8 | 7.4 | 10 |
| *Levels of Crime:*** | | | | | | |
| (Rate per 1,000 population) | | | | | | |
| Violence Against the person | 10.8 | 13.7 | 19.6 | 10.8 | 13.7 | 19.6 |
| Sexual Offences | 0.8 | 0.7 | 1 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 1 |
| Robbery | 3.7 | 2.3 | 6.7 | 3.7 | 2.3 | 6.7 |
| Burglary from a dwelling | 12.8 | 16.9 | 13.6 | 12.8 | 16.9 | 13.6 |
| Theft of a motor vehicle | 11.6 | 17.4 | 11.9 | 11.6 | 17.4 | 11.9 |
| Theft from a motor vehicle | 25.4 | 15.9 | 16.9 | 25.4 | 15.9 | 16.9 |
| **Deprivation scores 2004** | | | | | | |
| Income | 0.24 | 0.22 | 0.38 | 0.10 | 0.22 | 0.28 |
| Employment | 0.08 | 0.18 | 0.19 | 0.06 | 0.18 | 0.19 |
| Health Depr. and Disability | 0.05 | 1.00 | 0.96 | 0.33 | 1.00 | 0.83 |
| Education Skills and Training | 49.80 | 48.98 | 40.09 | 18.60 | 48.98 | 14.46 |
| Barriers to Housing & Services | 30.58 | 26.92 | 27.79 | 35.67 | 26.92 | 28.99 |
| Crime and Disorder | 1.45 | 0.94 | 1.19 | 0.95 | 0.94 | 0.41 |
| Living Environment | 16.40 | 39.61 | 32.24 | 11.00 | 39.61 | 20.49 |
| *IMD SCORE* | *31.84* | *41.21* | *46.58* | *17.78* | *41.21* | *34.06* |
| **Summary of education data 2002** | | | | | | |
| % of pupils with SEN, with statements | 6.4 | 4.3 | 1.4 | 4.3 | 1.9 | 5.6 |
| % of pupils with SEN, without statements | 10.2 | 14.8 | 19.2 | 11.3 | 15 | 14 |
| Figures for LEA: % half days missed due to unauthorised absence | 2.1 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 2.1 | 1.5 | 1.6 |
| No. Permanent exclusions *** | 0 | NA | 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| % of pupils known to be eligible for free school meals | 29.83 | 45.74 | 55.76 | 12.42 | 35.5 | 0.9 |

* All taken from 2001 Census, ONS unless otherwise noted; ** Notifiable offences recorded by the police; April 2000 to March 2001; *** As at January of each academic year. January 2004 data provisional

## Table A4.1 (continued)

| | School | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Area profile* (percentages)** | other_ssp4 | other_ssp5 | other_ssp6 | comp_otherssp4 | comp_otherssp5 | comp_otherssp6 |
| Population under 16 | 23.3 | 21.6 | 19.8 | 20.1 | 23.4 | 21.8 |
| *Ethnic Group:* | | | | | | |
| White | 98.6 | 96.8 | 95.7 | 96.1 | 92.1 | 97.4 |
| Mixed | 0.5 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.1 | 3 | 1.1 |
| Asian or Asian British | 0.3 | 0.6 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 1 |
| Black or Black British | 0.2 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 1.4 | 2.8 | 0.2 |
| Chinese/other Ethnic group | 0.5 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| With limiting long-term illness | 21.6 | 22.8 | 22.5 | 22.3 | 28 | 21.2 |
| *Economic activity:* | | | | | | |
| Employed | 57.8 | 50.3 | 57.9 | 61.6 | 48.9 | 59.5 |
| Unemployed | 4.6 | 4.7 | 3.1 | 3.8 | 5.4 | 3.1 |
| Full-time students and schoolchildren aged 16 to 74 | 2.8 | 3.9 | 3.5 | 3 | 3.6 | 3.1 |
| *Housing and Households:* | | | | | | |
| Containing dependent children | 34.9 | 29.2 | 27.9 | 28.3 | 28.2 | 30.7 |
| Lone parent with dependent(s) | 7.3 | 9.5 | 10.4 | 8.6 | 10.4 | 8.8 |
| *Levels of Crime:*** | | | | | | |
| (Rate per 1,000 population) | | | | | | |
| Violence Against the person | 10 | 26.2 | 15.6 | 8.9 | 26.2 | 15.6 |
| Sexual Offences | 0.6 | 1.6 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 1.6 | 1.1 |
| Robbery | 0.7 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 1.5 | 5.2 | 5.1 |
| Burglary from a dwelling | 11.5 | 22 | 15.1 | 6.9 | 22 | 15.1 |
| Theft of a motor vehicle | 5.7 | 12.2 | 14.1 | 4.6 | 12.2 | 14.1 |
| Theft from a motor vehicle | 11.4 | 31.4 | 25.4 | 14.2 | 31.4 | 25.4 |
| | | | | | | |
| **Deprivation scores 2004** | | | | | | |
| Income | 0.03 | 0.19 | 0.28 | 0.17 | 0.24 | 0.05 |
| Employment | 0.06 | 0.18 | 0.15 | 0.12 | 0.15 | 0.05 |
| Health Depr. and Disability | 0.02 | 1.06 | 0.57 | 0.24 | 0.91 | -0.43 |
| Education Skills and Training | 13.58 | 74.82 | 52.68 | 51.48 | 80.67 | 29.05 |
| Barriers to Housing & Services | 26.83 | 19.79 | 22.06 | 9.72 | 19.80 | 31.17 |
| Crime and Disorder | 0.15 | 1.14 | 1.37 | 0.71 | 1.14 | 31.17 |
| Living Environment | 35.66 | 42.90 | 16.62 | 35.35 | 42.09 | 22.27 |
| *IMD SCORE* | *14.11* | *44.94* | *37.81* | *29.52* | *44.58* | *13.42* |
| | | | | | | |
| **Summary of education data 2002** | | | | | | |
| % of pupils with SEN, with statements | 0.3 | 0.6 | 3.6 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 3 |
| % of pupils with SEN, without statements | 7.4 | 38.6 | 23.2 | 3.6 | 20.7 | 22.3 |
| | | | | | | |
| Figures for LEA: % half days missed due to unauthorised absence | 1.5 | 2.2 | 2 | 1.5 | 2.2 | 2 |
| No. Permanent exclusions *** | 0 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| % of pupils known to be eligible for free school meals | 10.68 | 35.49 | 25.47 | 20.68 | 45.01 | 14.04 |

* All taken from 2001 Census, ONS unless otherwise noted

** Notifiable offences recorded by the police; April 2000 to March 2001

*** As at January of each academic year. January 2004 data provisional

## Table A4.1 (continued)

| | School | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Area profile* (percentages)** | other_ssp7 | other_ssp8 | other_ssp9 | comp_otherssp7 | comp_otherssp8 | comp_otherssp9 |
| Population under 16 | 22.6 | 13.5 | 19 | 18.7 | 13.5 | 19.2 |
| *Ethnic Group:* | | | | | | |
| White | 55.5 | 73.6 | 96.5 | 83.8 | 73.6 | 97 |
| Mixed | 4.5 | 4.1 | 0.9 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 0.9 |
| Asian or Asian British | 7.1 | 8.5 | 1.8 | 3.3 | 8.5 | 1.4 |
| Black or Black British | 28.8 | 7.4 | 0.5 | 6.4 | 7.4 | 0.3 |
| Chinese/other Ethnic group | 4 | 6.4 | 0.3 | 2.1 | 6.4 | 0.5 |
| With limiting long-term illness | 17.7 | 17.4 | 20.9 | 16.4 | 17.4 | 19.5 |
| *Economic activity:* | | | | | | |
| Employed | 47.6 | 32.9 | 64.6 | 61.8 | 32.9 | 66.5 |
| Unemployed | 7.4 | 5 | 2.4 | 4.9 | 5 | 2.6 |
| Full-time students and schoolchildren aged 16 to 74 | 10.2 | 32.7 | 4.3 | 6.5 | 32.7 | 3.3 |
| *Housing and Households:* | | | | | | |
| Containing dependent children | 28.8 | 16.2 | 30.8 | 25.4 | 16.2 | 30.3 |
| Lone parent with dependent(s) | 10.9 | 7.6 | 6.2 | 8 | 7.6 | 6.2 |
| *Levels of Crime:*** | | | | | | |
| (Rate per 1,000 population) | | | | | | |
| Violence Against the person | 31.8 | 8 | 17.6 | 27.2 | 8 | 17.6 |
| Sexual Offences | 1.9 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.6 | 0.7 | 0.8 |
| Robbery | 11.4 | 3.1 | 2.1 | 9.7 | 3.1 | 2.1 |
| Burglary from a dwelling | 15.7 | 18.7 | 14.9 | 15 | 18.7 | 14.9 |
| Theft of a motor vehicle | 15 | 12.5 | 14.1 | 10.4 | 12.5 | 14.1 |
| Theft from a motor vehicle | 25.7 | 21.3 | 13.6 | 29.8 | 23.1 | 13.6 |
| **Deprivation scores 2004** | | | | | | |
| Income | 0.32 | 0.15 | 0.03 | 0.25 | 0.15 | 0.04 |
| Employment | 0.13 | 0.41 | 0.06 | 0.13 | 0.41 | 0.11 |
| Health Depr. and Disability | 0.75 | 2.07 | 0.02 | 0.47 | 2.07 | 0.38 |
| Education Skills and Training | 26.25 | 60.89 | 10.71 | 11.21 | 60.89 | 21.90 |
| Barriers to Housing & Services | 41.45 | 21.69 | 16.20 | 37.52 | 21.69 | 7.93 |
| Crime and Disorder | 0.85 | 1.62 | 0.22 | 1.79 | 1.62 | 0.36 |
| Living Environment | 28.87 | 23.01 | 13.85 | 29.69 | 23.01 | 38.23 |
| *IMD SCORE* | *38.77* | *68.76* | *9.97* | *35.54* | *68.76* | *18.77* |
| **Summary of education data 2002** | | | | | | |
| % of pupils with SEN, with statements | 1.9 | 5.8 | 0.4 | 4.8 | 4.3 | 0.7 |
| % of pupils with SEN, without statements | 23.7 | 15.9 | 14.5 | 19.5 | 24.4 | 5.6 |
| Figures for LEA: % half days missed due to unauthorised absence | 2.2 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 1.6 |
| No. Permanent exclusions *** | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| % of pupils known to be eligible for free school meals | 52.22 | 46.58 | 28.01 | 26.41 | 56.27 | 17.76 |

* All taken from 2001 Census, ONS unless otherwise noted

** Notifiable offences recorded by the police; April 2000 to March 2001

*** As at January of each academic year. January 2004 data provisional

## Table A4.1

| | School | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Area profile* (percentages)** | other_ssp10 | other_ssp11 | other_ssp12 | comp_otherssp10 | comp_otherssp11 | comp_otherssp12 |
| Population under 16 | 19.4 | 17.2 | 21.2 | 16.9 | 19.4 | 23.1 |
| *Ethnic Group:* | | | | | | |
| White | 95.4 | 98.6 | 95.6 | 94.5 | 95.4 | 94.9 |
| Mixed | 0.5 | 0.5 | 1.5 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 2 |
| Asian or Asian British | 3.3 | 0.5 | 1.2 | 4.4 | 3.3 | 1.6 |
| Black or Black British | 0.3 | 0.1 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 1.1 |
| Chinese/other Ethnic group | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.5 |
| With limiting long-term illness | 18.9 | 29.5 | 27 | 20.8 | 18.9 | 23.3 |
| *Economic activity:* | | | | | | |
| Employed | 59.4 | 43.8 | 48.9 | 54.7 | 59.4 | 55.9 |
| Unemployed | 3.2 | 8.1 | 4.9 | 3.7 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Full-time students and schoolchildren aged 16 to 74 | 4.9 | 3.1 | 3.8 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 4.5 |
| *Housing and Households:* Containing dependent children | 30.5 | 23.1 | 27.2 | 27.2 | 30.5 | 31.4 |
| Lone parent with dependent(s) | | 4.3 | 7.6 | 11.4 | 2.9 | 4.3 |
| *Levels of Crime:*** | | | | | | |
| (Rate per 1,000 population) | | | | | | |
| Violence Against the person | 7.1 | 7.1 | 25.5 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 25.5 |
| Sexual Offences | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.6 |
| Robbery | 3.6 | 3.6 | 11 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 11 |
| Burglary from a dwelling | 20.2 | 20.2 | 20.7 | 20.2 | 20.2 | 20.7 |
| Theft of a motor vehicle | 15 | 15 | 19.2 | 15 | 15 | 19.2 |
| Theft from a motor vehicle | 27.9 | 27.9 | 24.4 | 27.9 | 27.9 | 24.4 |
| **Deprivation scores 2004** | | | | | | |
| Income | 0.07 | 0.41 | 0.07 | 0.05 | 0.07 | 0.32 |
| Employment | 0.15 | 0.38 | 0.11 | 0.12 | 0.15 | 0.25 |
| Health Depr. and Disability | 0.65 | 1.68 | 0.66 | 0.12 | 0.65 | 1.80 |
| Education Skills and Training | 15.03 | 51.89 | 25.40 | 10.74 | 15.03 | 47.88 |
| Barriers to Housing & Services | 2.13 | 7.11 | 27.34 | 3.07 | 2.13 | 30.62 |
| Crime and Disorder | 0.88 | 0.99 | 0.12 | 0.08 | 0.88 | 1.41 |
| Living Environment | 11.59 | 9.55 | 25.17 | 12.11 | 11.59 | 25.39 |
| *IMD SCORE* | *20.88* | *58.07* | *22.10* | *13.43* | *20.88* | *53.97* |
| **Summary of education data 2002** | | | | | | |
| % of pupils with SEN, with statements | 1.3 | 8.4 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 4.3 | 1.8 |
| % of pupils with SEN, without statements | 14.6 | 29.4 | 16.4 | 20.1 | 22.5 | 17.9 |
| Figures for LEA: % half days missed due to unauthorised absence | 1 | 1 | 1.8 | 1 | 1 | 1.8 |
| No. Permanent exclusions *** | 0 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| % of pupils known to be eligible for free school meals | 33.66 | 45.27 | 51.15 | 21.1 | 41.1 | 39.2 |

* All taken from 2001 Census, ONS unless otherwise noted; ** Notifiable offences recorded by the police; April 2000 to March 2001; *** As at January of each academic year. January 2004 data provisional

## Table A4.2 Truancy rates for Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology sample

| Intervention type | School id | Truancy rate* % | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | Difference |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB1 | 5.80 | 5.60 | 5.40 | 4.30 | 4.00 | -1.40 |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB2 | 5.20 | 4.90 | 6.30 | 5.90 | 5.90 | -0.40 |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB3 | 2.90 | 4.40 | 3.30 | 2.20 | 2.20 | -1.10 |
| **Average** | **YJB/ACPO** | **4.63** | **4.97** | **5.00** | **4.13** | **4.03** | **-0.97** |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB1 | 3.90 | 4.00 | 4.20 | 3.90 | 6.00 | 1.80 |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB2 | 2.70 | 2.60 | 2.40 | 2.70 | 2.80 | 0.40 |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB3 | 1.00 | 5.90 | 4.50 | 5.30 | 2.10 | -2.40 |
| **Average** | **comp_YJB** | **2.53** | **4.17** | **3.70** | **3.97** | **3.63** | **-0.07** |
| other_ssp | other_ssp1 | 1.90 | 1.60 | 2.30 | 10.00 | 7.40 | 5.10 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp2 | 2.50 | 2.00 | 7.90 | 2.50 | 3.50 | -4.40 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp3 | 1.80 | 1.60 | 0.90 | 1.80 | 2.90 | 2.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp4 | 0.50 | 0.60 | 0.40 | 0.30 | 0.70 | 0.30 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp5 | 3.70 | 6.80 | 5.50 | 5.20 | 4.20 | -1.30 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp6 | 3.70 | 7.10 | 1.00 | 1.10 | 1.30 | 0.30 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp7 | 1.30 | 1.30 | 0.40 | 0.10 | 0.80 | 0.40 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp8 | 6.60 | 8.40 | 7.10 | 5.20 | 6.30 | -0.80 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp9 | 5.00 | 2.90 | 2.40 | 1.90 | 1.00 | -1.40 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp10 | 1.40 | 1.50 | 1.30 | 1.10 | 1.10 | -0.20 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp11 | 2.50 | 2.90 | 1.40 | 1.80 | 1.00 | -0.40 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp12 | 2.00 | 2.60 | 2.10 | 2.50 | 3.90 | 1.80 |
| **Average** | **other_ssp** | **2.74** | **3.28** | **2.73** | **2.79** | **2.84** | **0.12** |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp1 | 0.30 | 0.30 | 0.60 | 0.40 | 0.40 | -0.20 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp2 | 1.70 | 2.30 | 2.20 | 1.90 | 1.60 | -0.60 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp3 | 1.50 | 2.50 | 2.00 | 0.70 | 0.40 | -1.60 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp4 | 2.40 | NIR | 1.60 | NIR | 4.20 | 2.60 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp5 | 5.60 | 4.80 | 4.40 | 3.80 | 3.30 | -1.10 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp6 | 3.10 | 2.40 | 1.90 | 2.70 | 2.80 | 0.90 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp7 | 0.90 | 1.40 | 1.10 | 1.00 | 0.70 | -0.40 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp8 | 3.10 | 3.00 | 3.20 | 5.90 | 7.30 | 4.10 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp9 | 1.90 | 1.80 | 1.40 | 1.00 | 1.00 | -0.40 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp10 | 0.80 | 0.40 | 0.50 | 0.30 | 0.30 | -0.20 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp11 | 1.70 | 0.70 | 1.80 | 2.00 | 3.10 | 1.30 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp12 | 1.60 | 1.80 | 2.70 | 3.40 | 7.00 | 4.30 |
| **Average** | **comp_otherssp** | **2.05** | **1.95** | **1.95** | **2.10** | **2.68** | **0.73** |

* % of unauthorised absence per annum.

# Appendix 5 ANCOVA analysis of truancy rate impact of SSP

## *The ANCOVA model*

The Analysis of Covariance is a statistical technique that allows us to look at the effect of a continuous independent (or explanatory) variable or 'covariate' on a dependent variable, while making allowance for the effects of groups of subjects being treated in different ways (Brace et al, 2003).

### Homogeneity of regression

The relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate is assumed to be both linear and also similar for all experimental groups, so that the regression lines are parallel and have a non-zero slope. To check whether this condition is met, and thus whether the regression is homogeneous, requires ensuring that any interaction term (between the covariate and the categorical variable) is insignificant.

### Application to the analysis of truancy rates

The basic idea is to explore whether the post-intervention truancy rate in a school can be well explained by reference to its pre-intervention value and the type of intervention (if any) it received. First, we need to check that the regression was homogeneous. The model is defined as follows:

Dependent variable: post-intervention truancy rate, denoted TRU04
Covariate: the pre-intervention truancy rate TRU02
Categorical variable SSPINTV that can take values:

| | |
|---|---|
| YJB/ACPO intervention | = 1 |
| Other SSP intervention | = 2 |
| Non-intervention | = 3 |
| Incomplete intervention | = 4 |

We are interested in knowing if the interaction term (SSPINTV*TRU02) is NOT significant. We can see in Table A5.1 that this is the case from the fact that the ~F value for this variable (0.111) exceeds 0.05. This is confirmed by Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance.

## Table A5.1 Tests of between-subjects effects

Dependent Variable: TRU04

| Sourc | Type III S of Sq | df | Mean | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected | 8.988E-03 [a] | 6 | 1.498E- | 6.20 | .00 |
| Intercept | 9.742E-06 | 1 | 9.742E- | .04 | .84 |
| SSPINT | 2.723E-04 | 2 | 1.362E- | .56 | .57 |
| TRU02 | 3.388E-03 | 1 | 3.388E- | 14.03 | .00 |
| SSPINTV * TRU02 | 1.171E-03 | 2 | 5.855E- | 2.42 | .11 |
| Error | 5.552E-03 | 23 | 2.414E- | | |
| Total | 4.106E-02 | 30 | | | |
| Corrected | 1.454E-02 | 29 | | | |

a. R Squared = .618 (Adjusted R Squared = .519)

Having satisfied the homogeneity test, we can go on to perform the ANCOVA test.

**Between-Subjects**

| | | Value | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| SSPINT | 1.0 | YJ | 3 |
| | 2.0 | SS | 11 |
| | 3.0 | COMPARISON | 15 |
| | 4.0 | Incomplete Int. | 1 |

From Table A5.2 it can be seen that the intervention categorical variable (SSPINTV) and the covariate (pre-intervention truancy rate) are both significant at the 5% level. The third and final step is to estimate the scale of the impact of intervention. This reveals that for the school where intervention was incomplete, the truancy rate was higher while for both the YJB/ACPO and Other SSP interventions the truancy rate was almost 1 percentage point (0.96) below where it might otherwise have been expected.

## Table A5.2 Significance of intervention

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: TRU04

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 7.817E-03[a] | 4 | 1.954E-03 | 7.268 | .001 |
| Intercept | 2.138E-03 | 1 | 2.138E-03 | 7.950 | .009 |
| TRU02 | 5.176E-03 | 1 | 5.176E-03 | 19.247 | .000 |
| SSPINTV | 2.819E-03 | 3 | 9.397E-04 | 3.495 | .030 |
| Error | 6.723E-03 | 25 | 2.689E-04 | | |
| Total | 4.106E-02 | 30 | | | |
| Corrected Total | 1.454E-02 | 29 | | | |

a. R Squared = .538 (Adjusted R Squared = .464)

# Appendix 6 Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) for total absence

**Using data on total absence pre and post-intervention**

The model was the post-intervention total absence rate TOTABS04 as the dependent variable and the pre-truancy rate TOTABS02 as the covariate and assigns each school a value for the categorical variable SSPINTV. The values that can be taken by the latter are:

YJB/ACPO Intervention = 1

Other SSP Intervention = 2

Non-intervention = 3

Incomplete Intervention = 4

We can see from Table A6.1 that this analysis includes our full sample of 30 schools.

## Table A6.1 Between subject factors

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | Value Label | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| SSPINTV | 1.0 | YJB | 3 |
| | 2.0 | SSP | 11 |
| | 3.0 | COMPARISON | 15 |
| | 4.0 | Incomplete Intervention | 1 |

The relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate is assumed to be similar for all experimental groups, so that the regression lines are parallel. To check whether this condition is met, and thus whether the regression is homogeneous, requires seeing whether any interaction term is insignificant. We are interested in knowing if the interaction term (SSPINTV*TOTABS02) is NOT significant. We can see in Table A6.2 that this is the case from the fact that the ~F valued for this variable (0.115) exceeds 0.05.

## Table A6.2 Homogeneity regression test

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: TOTABS04

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 203.319[a] | 6 | 33.886 | 13.211 | .000 |
| Intercept | 4.993 | 1 | 4.993 | 1.947 | .176 |
| SSPINTV | 7.947 | 2 | 3.974 | 1.549 | .234 |
| SSPINTV * TOTABS02 | 12.209 | 2 | 6.104 | 2.380 | .115 |
| TOTABS02 | 94.560 | 1 | 94.560 | 36.867 | .000 |
| Error | 58.993 | 23 | 2.565 | | |
| Total | 4411.240 | 30 | | | |
| Corrected Total | 262.312 | 29 | | | |

a. R Squared = .775 (Adjusted R Squared = .716)

Now we can go to perform the ANCOVA test as shown in Table A6.3. From Table A6.3 we can appreciate that the covariate is significantly related to the dependent variable and SSPINTV shows the main effect of the intervention.

## Table A6.3 Analysis of Covariance, ANCOVA, for total absence

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: TOTABS04

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 191.110[a] | 4 | 47.777 | 16.775 | .000 |
| Intercept | 15.105 | 1 | 15.105 | 5.303 | .030 |
| TOTABS02 | 151.669 | 1 | 151.669 | 53.253 | .000 |
| SSPINTV | 34.895 | 3 | 11.632 | 4.084 | .017 |
| Error | 71.202 | 25 | 2.848 | | |
| Total | 4411.240 | 30 | | | |
| Corrected Total | 262.312 | 29 | | | |

a. R Squared = .729 (Adjusted R Squared = .685)

Therefore after adjusting for pre-intervention scores, there was a significant effect of the between subjects factor SSPINTV ($F_{(3,25)}=4.084, p < 0.017$). Adjusted mean intervention scores presented in Table A6.4 suggest that those schools with either YJB/ACPO or Other_SSP had a significant reduction in total absence. It is noticeable from Table A6.4 that those schools had the smallest adjusted mean.

## Table A6.4: Estimated marginal means

**SSPINTV**

Dependent Variable:

| SSPINT | Mea | Std. | 95% Confidence | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Lower | Upper |
| YJ | 10.85 [a] | 1.04 | 8.70 | 13.00 |
| SS | 11.16 [a] | .51 | 10.11 | 12.22 |
| COMPARIS | 12.01 [a] | .44 | 11.09 | 12.94 |
| Incomplete | 17.12 [a] | 1.68 | 13.65 | 20.60 |

a. Evaluated at covariates appeared in the model

# Appendix 7 Number of permanent exclusions

| Intervention Type | School ID | Exclusions (number per annum) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB1 | 1.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB2 | 6.00 | 4.00 | 0.00 |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB3 | 15.00 | 3.00 | 0.00 |
| **Average** | **YJB/ACPO** | **7.33** | **2.33** | **0.00** |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB1 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB2 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB3 | 3.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| **Average** | **comp_YJB** | **2.00** | **1.33** | **0.00** |
| other_ssp | other_ssp1 | 6.00 | 3.00 | 0.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp2 | 5.00 | 2.00 | NA |
| other_ssp | other_ssp3 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 3.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp4 | 6.00 | 7.00 | 0.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp5 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 2.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp6 | 8.00 | 2.00 | 7.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp7 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp8 | 6.00 | 5.00 | 0.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp9 | 5.00 | 10.00 | 0.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp10 | 1.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp11 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 2.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp12 | 7.00 | 5.00 | 4.00 |
| **Average** | **other_ssp** | **4.08** | **3.33** | **1.64** |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp1 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp2 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp3 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp4 | 2.00 | 7.00 | 1.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp5 | 4.00 | 7.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp6 | 2.00 | 1.00 | 2.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp7 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 2.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp8 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp9 | 6.00 | 1.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp10 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp11 | 1.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp12 | 2.00 | 1.00 | 2.00 |
| **Average** | **comp_otherssp** | **1.92** | **1.83** | **0.67** |

# Appendix 8 Percentage getting 5+ GCSE grades A*-C

| Intervention Type | School id | GCSE A*-C | | | | | 2002-04 Difference |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB1 | 8.00 | 15.00 | 14.00 | 22.00 | 20.00 | 6.00 |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB2 | 17.40 | 18.00 | 22.00 | 20.00 | 27.00 | 5.00 |
| YJB/ACPO | YJB3 | 23.00 | 6.00 | 4.00 | 8.00 | 27.00 | 23.00 |
| **Average** | **YJB/ACPO** | **16.13** | **13.00** | **13.33** | **16.67** | **24.67** | **11.33** |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB1 | 15.70 | 11.00 | 15.00 | 24.00 | 23.00 | 8.00 |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB2 | 29.00 | 23.00 | 25.00 | 33.00 | 31.00 | 6.00 |
| comp_YJB | comp_YJB3 | 30.70 | 35.00 | 27.50 | 24.50 | 22.00 | -5.50 |
| **Average** | **comp_YJB** | **25.13** | **23.00** | **22.50** | **27.17** | **25.33** | **2.83** |
| other_ssp | other_ssp1 | 21.30 | 14.00 | 15.00 | 12.00 | 15.00 | 0.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp2 | 24.40 | 18.00 | 12.00 | 25.00 | 24.00 | 12.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp3 | 29.80 | 23.00 | 26.00 | 33.00 | 41.00 | 15.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp4 | 35.20 | 44.00 | 49.00 | 45.00 | 46.00 | -3.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp5 | 26.20 | 20.00 | 13.00 | 35.00 | 28.00 | 15.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp6 | 28.60 | 25.00 | 22.00 | 29.00 | 20.00 | -2.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp7 | 36.40 | 35.00 | 41.00 | 39.00 | 40.00 | -1.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp8 | 22.00 | 12.00 | 9.00 | 12.00 | 12.00 | 3.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp9 | 33.80 | 33.00 | 33.00 | 31.00 | 28.00 | -5.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp10 | 33.00 | 36.00 | 25.00 | 31.00 | 37.00 | 12.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp11 | 24.10 | 20.00 | 26.00 | 24.00 | 21.00 | -5.00 |
| other_ssp | other_ssp12 | 20.50 | 24.00 | 18.00 | 26.00 | 24.00 | 6.00 |
| **Average** | **other_ssp** | **27.94** | **25.33** | **24.08** | **28.50** | **28.00** | **3.92** |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp1 | 34.90 | 40.00 | 31.00 | 39.00 | 28.00 | -3.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp2 | 28.90 | 27.00 | 31.00 | 25.00 | 37.00 | 6.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp3 | 28.10 | 31.00 | 26.00 | 34.00 | 37.00 | 11.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp4 | 28.10 | 27.00 | 30.00 | 36.00 | 29.00 | -1.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp5 | 19.30 | 10.00 | 18.00 | 18.00 | 17.00 | -1.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp6 | 25.50 | 27.00 | 24.00 | 27.00 | 32.00 | 8.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp7 | 38.60 | 47.00 | 51.00 | 52.00 | 55.00 | 4.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp8 | 26.90 | 25.00 | 13.00 | 13.00 | 32.00 | 19.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp9 | 32.30 | 29.00 | 28.00 | 40.00 | 49.00 | 21.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp10 | 36.50 | 35.00 | 44.00 | 40.00 | 60.00 | 16.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp11 | 26.30 | 27.00 | 31.00 | 40.00 | 33.00 | 2.00 |
| comp_otherssp | comp_otherssp12 | 31.40 | 23.00 | 23.00 | 30.00 | 24.00 | 1.00 |
| **Average** | **comp_otherssp** | **29.73** | **29.00** | **29.17** | **32.83** | **36.08** | **6.92** |

# Appendix 9 Marginal homogeneity test

The marginal homogeneity (MH) test detects differences in the distribution of cases across successive sets of observations on a categorical variable. It is applied to the data in Chapter 9 on the evolution of pupils' fear of crime.

In tables A9.1 and A9.2 below, Distinct Values lists the five categories for the variable (1 = Very unsafe, 5 = Very safe). The marginal homogeneity statistic is based on observations of the off-diagonal cases, in other words on respondents whose response is different as between Time 1 and Time 2. The original version of the marginal homogeneity statistic is based on a Chi-Square distribution, which does not permit any inference as to whether pupils feel safer at Time 2 than they did at Time 1. The alternative measure for the marginal homogeneity statistic is based on the normal distribution. Using this approach, the marginal homogeneity statistic indicates the directional alternative hypothesis, i.e. whether pupils feel safer in Time 2 or not. Due to the coding system that has been used in this study, a positive marginal homogeneity statistic means that pupils feel safer in Time 1 than in Time 2, and vice versa.

**Table A9.1 Marginal homogeneity test: fear of crime in school**

| | YJB/ACPO | Other SSP | Comparison |
|---|---|---|---|
| Distinct Values | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Off-Diagonal Cases | 134 | 159 | 53 |
| Observed MH Statistic | 389 | 424 | 142 |
| Mean MH Statistic | 368.5 | 410 | 130 |
| Std. Deviation of MH Statistic | 8.352 | 9.274 | 5.831 |
| Std. MH Statistic | 2.455 | 1.51 | 2.058 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | **0.014** | 0.131 | **0.04** |

Note: Based on responses at Time 1 and Time 2 to the question: How safe do you feel in school?

Table A9.1, based on the raw data from Table 9.1 in the main text, shows that pupils in both YJB/ACPO and comparison schools feel significantly less safe at Time 2 than at Time 1, since for both groups the marginal homogeneity is positive and significant at the 5% level. This tendency is not shared by pupils in other-SSP schools, since the marginal homogeneity statistic is not significant for that sub-sample, meaning that we cannot reject the possibility that the distribution of cases across the five categories at Time 1 may be no different from the distribution at Time 2.

In the case of feeling safe travelling to or from school, the change in pupils' perceptions is not significant across the schools, since the marginal homogeneity is not significant at 5% (see table A9.2 below, based on the raw data from Table 9.3 in the main text).

**Table A9.2: Marginal homogeneity test; fear of crime travelling to school**

| | YJB/ACPO | Other SSP | Comparison |
|---|---|---|---|
| Distinct Values | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Off-Diagonal Cases | 132 | 144 | 53 |
| Observed MH Statistic | 397 | 407 | 152 |
| Mean MH Statistic | 393 | 410.5 | 147.5 |
| Std. Deviation of MH Statistic | 8.485 | 8.675 | 5.315 |
| Std. MH Statistic | 0.471 | -0.403 | 0.847 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.637 | 0.687 | 0.397 |

Note: Based on responses at Time 1 and Time 2 to the question: How safe do you feel travelling to and from school?

It should be noted that the marginal homogeneity test does not involve a direct comparison between groups and thus cannot be used to measure directly the effectiveness of an intervention. In this second application we conclude that attitudes to fear of crime while travelling to school did not change for any of the groups between Time 1 and Time 2.

# Appendix 10 Offences by academic year in YOT areas YOT_002 and YOT_003

**OFFENCES ACADEMIC YEAR Cross tabulation**

Count

| | | Academic Years | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | Total |
| Offences | YJB3 | 32 | 18 | 16 | 66 |
| | Comp_YJB3 | 6 | 9 | 10 | 25 |
| Total | | 38 | 27 | 26 | 91 |

**OFFENCES ACADEMIC YEAR Cross tabulation**

Count

| | | ACEDEMICYEAR | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | Total |
| Offences | YJB2 | 63 | 144 | 109 | 316 |
| | Comp_YJB2 | 12 | 12 | 21 | 45 |
| Total | | 75 | 156 | 130 | 361 |

# Appendix 11 Radar diagram for effectiveness analysis

All outcome measures of SSP can be incorporated into a single diagram to analyse the effectiveness of the intervention (provided that sufficient data are available). There are seven outcomes of the SSP: number of offences, incidents, victimisation, fear of crime, exam results, exclusion and truancy. Since we use a before-and-after approach, we can plot the outcomes in the same manner. Figure A11.1 shows the hypothetical outcomes (on each of the seven objectives or domains) from a single site. Each objective is represented on an axis emanating from the centre of the spider diagram. The site's performance on each of the seven measures is estimated before and after implementation of an SSP intervention, and two scores entered on each axis as appropriate. In this hypothetical example, there is an improvement on each domain and the 'new' polygon (post-intervention) joining up the dots lies strictly outside the 'old' one (pre-intervention). (The use of this kind of diagram is inspired by work done on the Police Performance Assessment Framework).

**Figure A11.1 Outcome measures for a site participating in SSP**

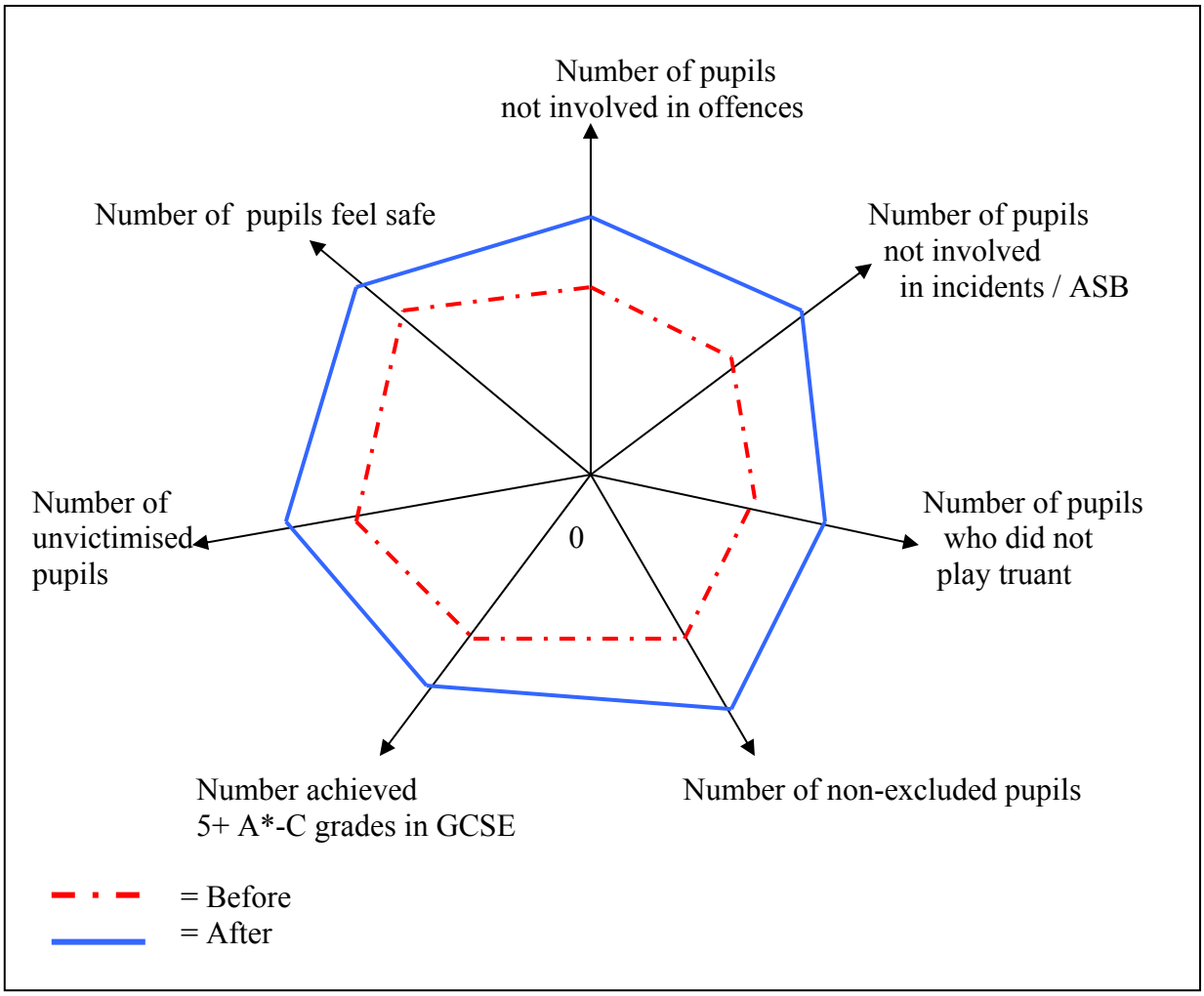
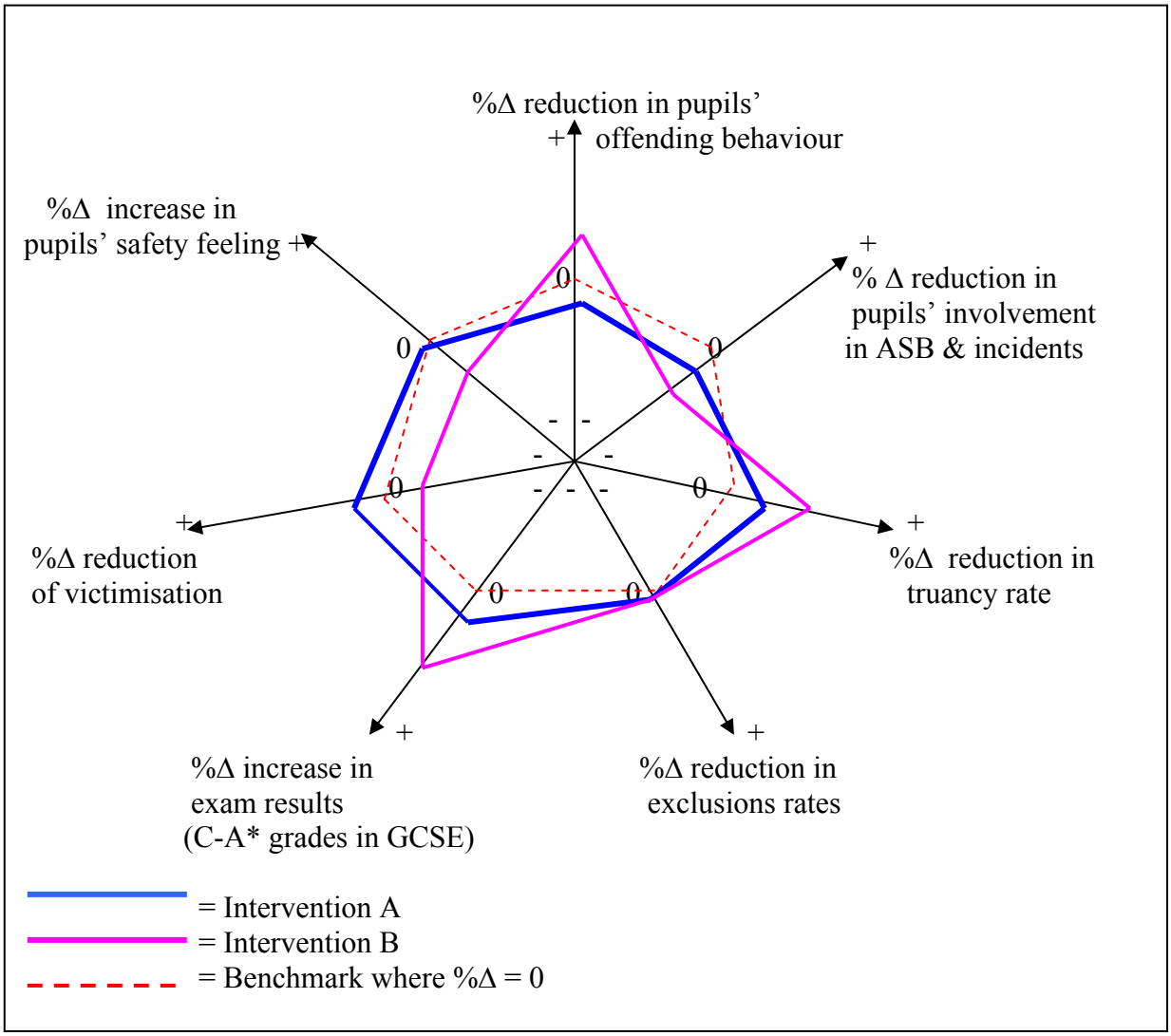


Figure A11.2 is a variant of the analysis shown in Figure A11.1. Instead of considering measures in *levels* we move now to measure *changes in levels*. This enables us to capture the change resulting from the intervention as a single point on each axis. The figure can capture negative changes on a domain if necessary, since an axis can 'start' at a negative value if required.

**Figure A11.2 Comparison of outcome measures across two sites (marginal values)**



The main purpose of Figure A11.2 is to support direct comparisons between sites or types of scheme. Extra caution should be taken in interpreting the direction of each arrow. It is assumed that the farther a point is on an arrow from the centre of spider web, the more preferable the outcome. Let us assume that the percentage changes in outcomes in Figure A11.1 are represented by the polygon in Figure A11.2 representing intervention A. A second polygon represents the effectiveness of the other project, B. Clearly if one polygon lies entirely 'outside' another then the outer scheme dominates because it is producing a greater improvement on all dimensions. If the polygons 'cross', as they do in Figure A11.2, then there is no dominant scheme or project. In that case there is no unambiguous ordering of projects and 'hard choices' may have to be made or explicit terms established on which a 1% improvement in one direction is to be traded against a 1% deterioration in another.

# Appendix 12 Cost of recorded crime

| Offence Types | Average Cost - Costs in response to crime (A – B) | Number or recorded crimes, 1999-2000 (no.) (C) | Recorded Offence Multipiler (D) | (=B*C) Estimated number of incidents, 1999-2000 (no.) (C*D) | (=B/D) Recorded crime share (%) | Average cost per recorded crime |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| VAP | £16,712 | 387100 | | 890900 | 43.45 | £22,926 |
| Homicide | £1,075,330 | 1100 | 1 | 1100 | 100.00 | £1,097,330 |
| Wounding | £15,208 | 386000 | | 889800 | 43.38 | £21,432 |
| Serious Wounding | £119,516 | 29000 | 3.6 | 104400 | 27.78 | £166,316 |
| Other Wounding | £726 | 357000 | 2.2 | 785400 | 45.45 | £3,586 |
| Common Assault | £266 | 194000 | 16.7 | 3239800 | 5.99 | £4,775 |
| Sexual Offences | £15,222 | 38000 | 3.5 | 133000 | 28.57 | £28,872 |
| Robbery | £3,394 | 84000 | | 487200 | 17.24 | £11,514 |
| Robbery/Mugging | £3,366 | 72000 | 5.8 | 417600 | 17.24 | £11,486 |
| Robbery or till snatch (business) | £3,560 | 12000 | 5.8 | 69600 | 17.24 | £11,680 |
| Burglary | £1,991 | 907000 | | 2392000 | 37.92 | £3,283 |
| Burglary in a dwelling | £1,854 | 443000 | 3.2 | 1417600 | 31.25 | £3,422 |
| Burglary not in a dwelling | £2,190 | 464000 | 2.1 | 974400 | 47.62 | £3,219 |
| Theft* | £174 | 2182000 | | 36517200 | 5.98 | £646 |
| Theft (not vehicle) (household) | £254 | 846000 | | 3766900 | 22.46 | £655 |
| Vehicle theft (household) | £860 | 1044000 | | 3550300 | 29.41 | £962 |
| Theft from a shop (business) | £80 | 292000 | 100 | 29200000 | 1.00 | £2,080 |
| Theft of commercial vehicle (business) | £9,560 | 0 | na | | | Na |
| Theft from commercial vehicle (business) | £680 | 0 | na | | | Na |
| Criminal Damage | £640 | 946000 | | 5959800 | 15.87 | £1,018 |
| Criminal Damage (households) | £450 | 473000 | 6.3 | 2979900 | 15.87 | £828 |
| Criminal Damage (business) | £830 | 473000 | 6.3 | 2979900 | 15.87 | £1,208 |
| *All Crime Against individuals and households*** | *£1,646* | *3497000* | *4.69* | *16395200* | *21.33* | *£3,306.8* |
| *All Crime Against commercial and public sector*** | *£220* | *1258000* | *26.62* | *33484000* | *3.76* | *£1,285* |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **All Crimes*** ** | | **4755000** | **10.49** | **4987920 0** | **9.53** | **£1,949** |
| All fraud and forgery** | £1,239 | 335000 | 27.46 | 9200000 | 3.64 | *£3,030* |

Source: Bowles et al (2004) based on information from Brand and Price (2000)

* It does not include motor offences, drugs, and fraud and forgery

** The cost elements are in £ billion except for the average cost and average cost-average cost in response to crime

*** The cost of recorded crime is the weighted average of all crime against individuals/households and commercial/public sectors

!) Based on Brand and Price (2000), the data for All fraud and forgery has been estimated by NERA (2000), who estimated the total number of actual incidents instead of the multiplier

!!) For fraud and forgery, the figure is estimated by dividing the total cost of the offence with the estimated number of actual incident

Cost of Recorded Crime = {Average Cost - ([Average cost - cost in response to crime]* Proportion of Unrecorded Crime)}/Proportion of recorded crime (see Bowles and Pradiptyo, 2004).

# Appendix 13 Lifetime offence multiplier

Data from the Offenders' Index, available in the public domain via the Essex University National Data Archive, provides rich information on offenders' lifetime criminal careers. Theoretically, information on patterns and correlation between youth and adult offending behaviour can be generated from this data set. We use data from cohort 1953 to generate estimates of the multiplier relating the number of offences committed by individuals aged 18 and over to the number committed by the same cohort when aged less than 18. In order to do that, we need profiles of all subjects' offending careers (see figure A13.1 and A13.2 below). Data from cohort 1953 cover information of offending up to 40 years of age.

**Figure A13.1 Lifetime offending behaviour by male offenders**

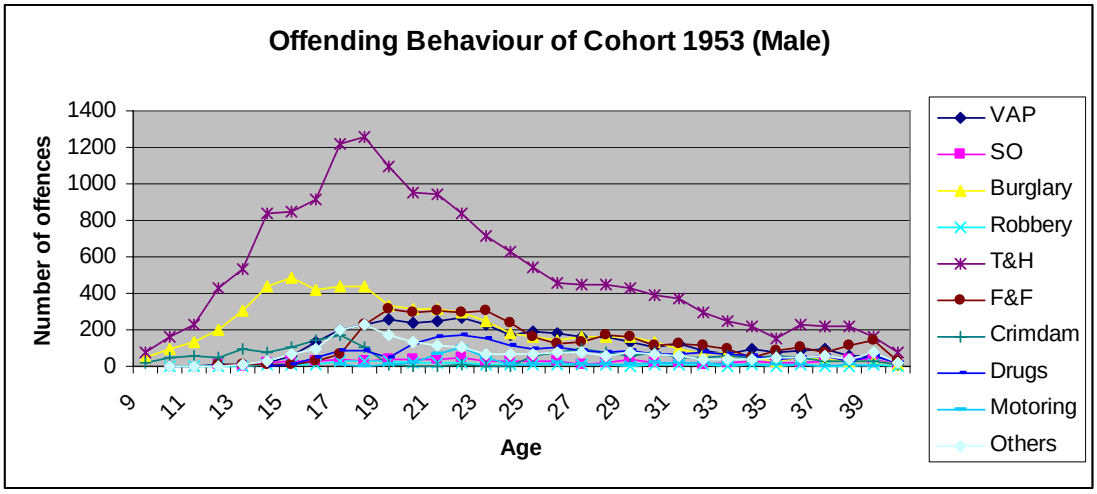
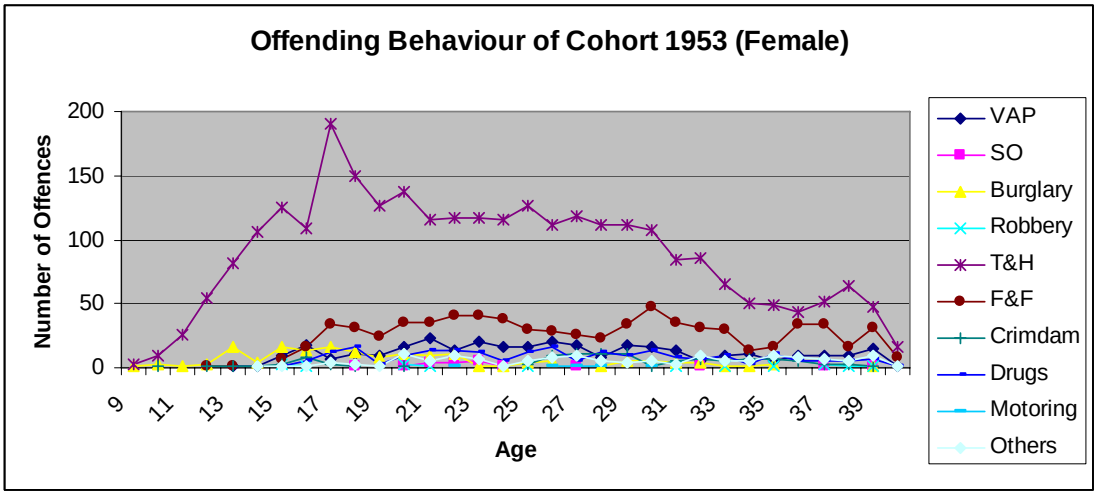



**Figure A13.2 Lifetime offending behaviour by female offenders**



The offence multiplier for a particular type of offence is estimated as the total offences committed by offenders aged more than 17 years divided by the number committed by offenders aged up to 17 years. Offence multipliers provide an estimate of how many more offences will be committed on average by an individual in the future for every offence committed up to 17 yearsof age. A young male who has committed a robbery when under 18 may well commit one or more similar offences when over 18. For many offence types, the majority of adult offenders were under 18 when first convicted.

**Table A13.1 Offence multipliers of cohort 1953**

| Offences | Cohort 1953 | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | Female | Overall |
| Violence against the person | 7.54 | 7.95 | 7.57 |
| Sexual Offences | 5.18 | NA | 5.35 |
| Burglary | 1.37 | 1.17 | 1.37 |
| Robbery | 4.12 | 2.80 | 4.02 |
| Theft and Handlings | 2.16 | 3.01 | 2.26 |
| Fraud and Forgery | 29.15 | 11.38 | 23.54 |
| Criminal Damage | 1.29 | 4.80 | 1.38 |
| Drugs Offences | 13.59 | 11.44 | 13.35 |
| Motoring Offences | 69.17 | NA | 70.17 |
| Other Offences | 4.38 | 19.71 | 4.65 |
| **SubTotal*** | **2.82** | **3.96** | **2.92** |
| **Unidentified Codes** | **1021** | **75** | **1096** |
| **Total Samples** | **38761** | **4669** | **43430** |

Source: Centre for Criminal Justice Economics and Psychology estimate based on the Offenders Index as available from the Essex University Data Archive.

# Appendix 14 Sensitivity analysis for benefit:cost ratio

| | | Parameters | BENEFITS in £'000's | COSTS in £'000's | B:C Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **BASE CASE** | Reduction in Absence | truancy | 275 | | |
| | Improvement in Exam Results | yes | 8,556 | | |
| | Current Year Offences | | 271 | | |
| | Future Year Offences | multiplier=1 | 228 | | |
| | | | **9,330** | **510** | **18.29** |
| | Reduction in Absence | total absence | 141 | | |
| | Improvement in Exam Results | yes | 8,556 | | |
| | Current Year Offences | | 271 | | |
| | Future Year Offences | multiplier=1 | 228 | | |
| | | | **9,196** | **510** | **18.03** |
| **Minimum B:C Ratio** | Reduction in Absence | total absence | 141 | | |
| | Improvement in Exam Results | no | 0 | | |
| | Current Year Offences | | 271 | | |
| | Future Year Offences | multiplier=0 | | | |
| | | | **412** | **510** | **0.81** |
| | Reduction in Absence | truancy | 275 | | |
| | Improvement in Exam Results | no | 0 | | |
| | Current Year Offences | | 271 | | |
| | Future Year Offences | multiplier=0 | | | |
| | | | **546** | **510** | **1.07** |
| | Reduction in Absence | total absence | 141 | | |
| | Improvement in Exam Results | yes | 8,556 | | |
| | Current Year Offences | | 271 | | |
| | Future Year Offences | multiplier=2.19 | 498 | | |
| | | | **9,466** | **510** | **18.56** |
| | Reduction in Absence | truancy | 275 | | |
| | Improvement in Exam Results | yes | 8,556 | | |
| | Current Year Offences | | 271 | | |
| | Future Year Offences | multiplier=2.19 | 498 | | |
| | | | **9,600** | **510** | **18.82** |
| | Reduction in Absence | total absence | 141 | | |
| | Improvement in Exam Results | yes | 8,556 | | |
| | Current Year Offences | | 271 | | |
| | Future Year Offences | multiplier=2.92 | 665 | | |
| | | | **9,632** | **510** | **18.89** |
| **Maximum B:C Ratio** | Reduction in Absence | truancy | 275 | | |
| | Improvement in Exam Results | yes | 8,556 | | |
| | Current Year Offences | | 271 | | |
| | Future Year Offences | multiplier=2.92 | 665 | | |
| | | | **9,766** | **510** | **19.15** |