'Inspiring Futures' - How social impact measurement as a form of organisational performance management can enhance outcomes for children and young people in custody.

Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

At the University of Northampton

2018

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Abstract

Since 2008, the number of children and young people entering the youth justice system has reduced, as has the use of custody (YJB, 2018). Despite this decrease, the youth justice system exists in a wider context with austerity measures reducing available resources and provisions for children and young people (UK Children's Commissioner, 2015), which in turn increases the requirements for effective and sustainable interventions that improve outcomes. Measuring the social impact of custody for children and young people is a nascent area academically, with current measurement approaches focused on output and outcome rather than social impact (Paterson-Young et al., 2017). This research employed a sequential mixed method approach that promoted the active participation of children and young people, as well as staff members in Secure Training Centres (STCs). Results supported the development of a social impact measurement framework to examine the outcomes and social impact of custody on children and young people, and illustrate that the current STC model lacks the multi-stakeholder approach that promotes stakeholder engagement, individual focused interventions, evidence based approaches and service redesign (Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny, 2014). Failure to develop such an approach limits the STCs' ability to measure the social impact of services which, inevitably, reduces opportunities for developing effective and sustainable services. Before embedding the measurement framework developed from this research, the STCs require significant overhaul to ensure their purpose and direction are clear. Although significant overhaul is required before implementing the SIM framework, research findings contributed to the development of a rehabilitative environment model that identifies the measurement factors contributing to positive outcomes for children and young people.

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Acronyms

AL	-	Adolescence-limited
BMSLSS	-	Brief Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale
CCM	-	Constant Comparative Method
DBS	-	Disclosure and Barring Service
DfE	-	Department for Education
DLC	-	Developmental and life-course
DTOs	-	Detention and Training Orders
GECES	-	Expert Group on Social Entrepreneurship
GED	-	General Education Development
ICAP	-	Integrated Cognitive-Antisocial Potential
IPA	-	Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis
LCP	-	Life-course persistent
MACR	-	Minimum age of criminal responsibility
MIAA	-	The Methodology for Impact Analysis and Assessment
NEF	-	New Economic Foundation
NELSON	-	Northampton Electronic Library Search Online
OFSTED	-	Office for Standards in Education
ONS	-	Office for National Statistics
STC	-	Secure Training Centre
SEN	-	Special educational needs
SIMPLE	-	Social impact for local economies
SLSS	-	Students' Life Satisfaction Scale
SROI	-	Social Return on Investment
UK	-	United Kingdom
UN	-	United Nations
YJB	-	Youth Justice Board
YOT	-	Youth Offending Team

Chapter One – Introduction

I want to be good and make people proud. I want a good life (P01)

Since 2008, the number of children and young people entering the youth justice system in England and Wales has reduced, with equally noticeable reductions evident in the use of custody. Between 2007 and 2017, an 81 percent decrease was noted in the number of cautions or convictions received by children and young people in England and Wales (YJB, 2018). Despite this reduction in offending, the youth justice system exists in a wider context with austerity measures reducing the resources and provisions available for children and young people (UK Children's Commissioner, 2015). This reduction in resources arguably increases the requirements for effective and sustainable interventions that improve the outcomes for children and young people involved in the youth justice system. Although the statistical information available on youth crime and offending indicate a decline in the number of young people involved in the criminal justice system and re-conviction, the Government's focus on developing effective strategies and intervention to reduce youth offending and recidivism continues (McNeil, Reeder and Rich, 2012). In England and Wales, the current state of government finances has resulted in increased scrutiny of public spending and an increased pressure on the development of effective and sustainable services (Prowle, Murphy and Prowle, 2014).

The focus on establishing sustainable youth services has resulted in the development of frameworks for measuring, managing and reporting on social impact (Maas, 2014). As discussed in Chapter Three, existing research on social impact measurement (SIM) is limited, with literature on this topic predominantly from collaborative networks, government agencies and consulting firms (Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014). Existing SIM research is under theorised, with no consistent approach or framework currently recognised. Gaps in SIM research extend to impact measurement in youth offending interventions, with literature and research in this area virtually non-existent. The limited literature on SIM and the implications for measuring the performance of youth offending interventions is directly linked to the aims

and objectives of the research thesis. A review of the literature on SIM indicates that: *"three quarters of Youth Offending Team managers agree that the evidence for what works is thin"* Nevill and Lumley (2011:7). The ambiguity surrounding SIM illustrates the complexities of researching this area, with Ogain, Lumley, and Pritchard (2012:33) reporting that: *"impact measurement means different things to different people…We therefore… take responses about whether they are measuring impact… at face value."* Research conducted by Nevill and Lumley (2011) and Ogain et al., (2012) demonstrates the importance of establishing an approach to SIM and illustrates the opportunity for this research to make an original contribution to knowledge.

1.1 – Background

1.1.1 – Youth Justice and Youth Offending

Throughout history, the behaviour of some children and young people have been categorised by 'respectable fears', which Pearson (1983) described in terms of the growing anxiety with regards to rebellious and threatening young people. These respectable fears have resulted in pressures to manage children and young people which are evident in the historical developments of the youth justice system, as discussed in Section 2.1. As mentioned above, between 2007 and 2017, an 81 percent decrease was noted in the number of cautions and convictions received by children and young people (YJB, 2018). Recent statistics illustrate that the average population in custody (year ending March 2017) was 868, with an average custodial sentence length of 16 months (YJB, 2018). Statistical information on children and young people in custody includes children and young people in Youth Offending Institutes (YOI), Secure Training Centres (STCs) and Secure Children's Homes (SCH). Between April 2015 and March 2016, the average occupancy rate in STCs ranged from 63 to 77 per month. Despite reductions in the number of children and young people entering the criminal justice system, the re-conviction rate for children and young people has increased over the past 10 years (YJB, 2018)[1]. In 2016, frequency rate of re-convictions for children and young people was around 3.79, an increase of 17 percent since

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[1] Finding comparable reoffending figures proves challenging as current statistics are based on a new methodology, adopted in October 2017.

2006. The current situation with youth justice in England and Wales has resulted in a renewed emphasis on developing effective and sustainable interventions that further reduce convictions and re-convictions by children and young people. This renewed emphasis on developing effective and sustainable interventions is influenced, not simply by figures on children and young people's offending behaviours, but also the wider context within which austerity measures are prevalent (UK Children's Commissioner, 2015).

Current interventions and approaches to dealing with children and young people in England and Wales are influenced by a desire to balance the welfare imperatives with punitive measures (Muncie, 2009; and Bateman and Hazel, 2014; McAra, 2017; Case, 2018). New developments in youth justice procedures, legislation and initiatives remain focused on punishment and justice rather than children and young people, despite the attempts to introduce welfare approaches. The dominance of punishment and justice approaches, combined with a perception of children and young people as '*threatening*', were the building blocks for the current justice system. Despite the dominance of punitive approaches, welfare principles emerged from key pieces of legislation and key reports over the past few decades – effectively acting as stepping stones for creating a child-focused youth justice system. However, from history we can observe that one extraordinary incident can rapidly remove these stepping stones (such as the murder of James Bulger by Jon Venables and Robert Thompson). A recent article from the Independent (2018) explored the catalogue of errors the criminal justice system has made in dealing with children and young people committing the most serious offences. This article explores the systems appetite for vengeance over justice and the negative outcomes as a result. The foundations of youth justice have influenced the seesaw between welfare and punitive principles which are evident from the historical examination of youth justice in Section 2.1. Despite attempts to introduce welfare principles, anxieties over children and young people have influenced a quick return to punitive principles in England and Wales. Youth justice researchers' have described this return to punitive principles in terms of "losing faith" in welfare principles and the rehabilitative ideal (Muncie, 2005; McAra, 2006). These approaches to youth justice raise essential questions around: how does society develop effective interventions for children and young people? And how does society develop principles focused on supporting young people when the

foundations of the youth justice system are based on justice, punishment, control and retribution?

Public and political concerns over the management of children and young people resulted in proposals that led to the introduction of STCs. Today, England and Wales has three STCs in operation: Medway (opened in 1998), Rainsbrook (opened in 1999) and Oakhill (opened in 2004). STCs were opened with the original purpose of *"accommodating trainees in a safe environment within secure conditions; and helping trainees prepare for their return to the outside community"* (STC, 1998 – Appendix B). The purpose was to introduce a child-focused approach to supporting children and young people in a custodial environment; however, the initial inception of STCs was underpinned by notions of control and security resulting from society's concerns with the management of persistent young offenders. Since the initial introduction of STCs, the purpose and principles have remained relatively static despite significant changes in the age and offence profile of children and young people accommodated. The average annual cost per placement in STCs is approximately £163,000 (as at 1st April 2015) (Parliament, 2016). The STCs cost per placement is significantly higher than Youth Offending Institutes (£75,000), but lower than Secure Children's Homes (£204,000) (Parliament, 2016) (See Appendix A for cost exclusions). Considering this high placement cost in the current financial climate in England and Wales, evidencing the effectiveness of STCs is paramount. The approaches to youth justice raise an essential question around: how does society develop effective interventions for children and young people? And how do we develop principles focused on supporting young people when the foundations of the youth justice system are based on justice, punishment, control and retribution?

1.1.2 – Social Impact Measurement

SIM has received considerable attention from the government, researcher's and academics. In 2002, the Department of Trade and Industry released a strategy document exploring the importance of appropriate impact measurement for developing sustainable services: *"We (the UK Government) do believe there are real economic and social gains for organisations*

that use appropriate mechanisms to evaluate their impact and improve their performance" (Department of Trade and Industry, 2002:76). With the current state of government finances in England and Wales, an increased scrutiny of public spending has emerged with the focus on the development of effective and sustainable services (Prowle, Murphy and Prowle, 2014). Indeed, the Government introduced the Public Services (Social Value) Act in 2012 which requires commissioners to explore the wider social, economic and environment benefits of services before procurement (Cabinet Office, 2016). From this financial perspective, funders and commissioners have placed increased emphasis on understanding the social impact resulting from the funded and commissioned services (Clifford and Hazenberg, 2015). Understanding the social impact of services is complex due to ambiguity and variance in the terminology surrounding social impact. Ogain, Lumley and Pritchard (2012:33) reported on a survey conducted by NPC that stated: "*impact measurement means different things to different people…We therefore… take responses about whether they are measuring impact… at face value*".

Definitions for social impact and social value contain subtle differences, with the main focus to address the overall benefit from specific actions or activities delivered. Vanclay (2003) proposed a definition for social impact that highlights the importance of analysing, monitoring and managing the intended and unintended social consequences of interventions, which allows for the development of effective services or activities and the identification of ineffective services or activities. This definition identifies the following areas in conceptualising social impacts: life, culture, community, political system, environment, health and wellbeing, personal and property rights, and fears and aspirations (Vanclay, 2003), which are relevant for children and young people involved in the criminal justice system. Although Vanclay's (2003) definition provides scope for measuring impact, adopting the approach in isolation reduces the opportunity to capture changes achieved by others or changes occurring regardless of interventions or activities. The definition established by Clifford et al. (2014) in the GECES framework acknowledges the changes resulting from other activities (alternative attributions), the changes occurring regardless of activities (deadweight), and the changes which decline over time (drop-off). By combining the definition provided by Vanclay (2003) and Clifford et al. (2014), the positive and negative (intended and unintended) consequences receive consideration in conjunction with alternative attribution (changes resulting from

other activities), deadweight (changes that happen regardless of activities), and drop-off (the decline over time).

Despite interest in SIM, academic literature on the use of SIM in youth justice is limited. Available literature on SIM is predominantly from collaborative networks, government agencies and consulting firms that centre on business and enterprise (Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014). Despite the limited literature on SIM in youth justice, Nevill and Lumley (2011) explored the benefits of measuring impact in the youth justice sector. Their report highlighted six key reasons for the importance of measuring social impact in youth justice: the impact on communities and individuals; the high cost of crime; potential to prevent harm; the importance of campaigning; the potential influence of sentencing; and the reliance on public funding. The six reasons proposed by Nevill and Lumley (2011) are explored further in Section 3.2. In developing a framework for measuring the impact of custody on children and young people, these six reasons (Nevill and Lumley, 2011) are pivotal and form a central part of this thesis.

1.2 – The Current Research

The research project sought to explore how the use of SIM can enhance outcomes for young people involved in the criminal justice system, with focus on the following three aims:

1. To examine the social impact for young people accommodated in STCs with a focus on the factors contributing to positive resettlement.
2. To support the organisation to embed monitoring practices that promote the delivery of effective practice.
3. To examine the evidence base for effective approaches in youth justice (specifically detention) and in the transitions to home communities or the adult estate.

The research aims and existing literature discussed in Chapters Two and Three resulted in the development of four research questions, illustrated in Table 1.1:

Table 1.1 – Research Questions	
Research Question One	How, if at all, have the organisation's values, aims, objectives and structure influenced the services offered to young people?
Research Question Two	How, if at all, have young people's experiences in the STCs supported their transition to adulthood and desistance?
Research Question Three	How, if at all, does the social impact measurement approach, developed by the researcher, contribute to ensuring the intended outcomes for children and young people in the STC?
Research Question Four	How, if at all, can the social impact measurement approach developed contribute to the development of a 'theory of change' that can be used to explain (and refine) the delivery of youth interventions nationally and the continued developments of an evidence base for effective approaches?

To explore the research questions, a sequential mixed method design was utilised, allowing for an iterative process, with the initial data collected contributing to the data collected in later stages (Creswell, 1998) (See Chapter Four).

1.3 – Outline of the Thesis

To address the aims and research questions presented above, this thesis has eight chapters. This introductory chapter explores children and young people's position in the youth justice system and outlines the reasons for developing a SIM framework within youth justice.

Chapter Two explores prior literature in relation to youth justice, examining the history development of STCs in England and Wales, the current picture with youth crime and offending in England and Wales and the theoretical perspectives attempting to explain children and young people's involvement in the criminal justice system. *Chapter Three* discusses prior literature in relation to SIM, examining the definitions for SIM, the

theoretical framework for developing SIM, as well as existing processes for measuring SIM. *Chapter Four* outlines the philosophical underpinnings for the methodological approach used to complete this research project. The chapter also explores the reasons for adopting a sequential mixed methods approach and outlines the research tools selected, as well as discussing the ethical considerations of the project.

Chapters Five and *Six* present findings on the perceptions of children and young people in custody resulting from the quantitative and qualitative elements of research. *Chapter Five* outlines the quantitative and qualitative phase, before exploring the health and wellbeing and relationship themes emerging from the research. *Chapter Six* explores the remaining themes emerging from the research - education, independence and attitudes to offending. *Chapter Seven* presents findings on the perceptions of staff members employed in the STC. The chapter outlines the quantitative and qualitative phase for collecting data before exploring themes emerging from the research – challenges, young people, support and services. *Chapter Eight* marks the final chapter, outlining the broad theoretical and practical recommendations resulting from the data analysed. This relates to the research aims and questions outlines in above, underpinned by existing literature. To finalise, the research limitations are explored with recommendations for future research included alongside policy recommendations.

Chapter Two – Youth Justice and Youth Offending

Youth crime and offending continues to receive considerable political, academic and media attention. Between the late nineteenth and early twentieth century criminological research found that peaks in offending behaviours occurred in adolescence before declining (Hendrick, 2006). The attention on young people in England and Wales is arguably categorised by 'respectable fears', which Pearson (1983) described as the growing anxiety with regards to the emergence of rebellious and threatening young people (Pearson, 1983). These 'respectable fears' have contributed to the expansion of the youth justice system and resulted in developments to mainstream youth justice services. These developments illustrate a net-widening approach which results in an intensified contact for some children and young people with the youth justice system. This results in a process that introduces a revolving door with some children and young people targeted by the youth justice system (McAra and McVie, 2007). Concern regarding children and young people displaying negative and/or criminal behaviour has resulted in the Government developing strategies (e.g. *Positive for Youth Green Paper)* with focus on the impact of young people's behaviour on communities, in conjunction with the importance of reducing recidivism (Nevill and Lumley, 2011). This chapter will examine the history and developments of STCs and the existing data on youth crime and offending in England and Wales, followed by an examination of the theoretical perspectives on youth crime and offending. This exploration will identify the developments in youth justice and explore the theoretical perspectives on youth crime and offending in order to identify suitable areas for impact measurement in STCs.

2.1 – Youth Justice

2.1.1 – Developments in youth justice and custody

Concerns over threatening youth have existed from at least the eighteenth century, with one Politician in 1788 commenting: *"[Young people]… are links which have fallen off the chain of society which are going to decay and obstruct the whole machine"* (cited in Muncie, 2015:47). Responses to children and young people in England and Wales have resulted in the development of a youth justice system founded on notions of punishment and justice. For example, information from 1814 illustrated the barbaric nature of punishment for children

and young people with the hanging of five children aged between 8 and 12 years-old for petty theft offences (Hopkins-Burke, 2008). Societal concerns over the management of children and young people influence changes and development, with current approaches in England and Wales characterised by the competing punitive and welfare principles that underpin the youth justice system. New developments in youth justice procedures, legislation and initiatives remain focused on punishment and justice rather than the welfare of children and young people, despite the attempts to introduce welfare approaches. The dominance of punishment and justice approaches combined with the perception of children and young people as '*threatening*' were the building blocks for the current justice system. As society changed and perceptions of young people altered, welfare principles became the centre of the debates on supporting children and young people in contact with the youth justice system. The historical developments in youth justice demonstrate that welfare principles emerged from key pieces of legislation (for example, Children and Young Persons Act 1963) and key reports (for example, The Longford Report, 1964), over the past few decades – effectively acting as stepping stones.

From history we can observe that one extraordinary incident can rapidly remove these stepping stones, such as the murder of James Bulger by two 10 year-old boys in 1993. This extraordinary incident resulted in a return to punitive principles, culminating in the commencement of the Criminal Justice Act 1993 followed by the Criminal Justice and Public Order Act 1994. These pieces of legislation introduced increased powers for courts to impose harsher sentences on children and young people, with the extension of long-term detention order for children and young people aged 10 to 13 years-old and the introduction of Secure Training Orders for children and young people aged 12-14 years-old (Goldson, 2002). The Audit Commission Report *Misspent Youth* was published in 1996, in response to increasing anxieties over the generation of 'untouchable' young people. *Misspent Youth* reported that the youth justice system was an ineffective and expensive service with limited impact (Audit Commission, 1996). Recommendations from the report promoted statutory time limits to speed up criminal justice processes and improve the services offered to children and young people (McLaughlin, Muncie and Hughes, 2001). Following the victory of New Labour in 1997, the White Paper *No More Excuses* was published which attempted to develop a system for

preventing the offending by children and young people based on Restoration, Responsibility and Reintegration (McAra, 2017). Despite New Labours desire to distinguish its approach from the punitive approach, directed by the Conservative Administration, they introduced legislation resulting in STCs.

The first STC was opened in 1998, establishing a centre for children and young people aged 12 to 14 years-old receiving Secure Training Orders. STCs were underpinned by notions of control and security resulting from society's concern with the management of persistent young offenders. Developments in the embedding stages for STCs led to recognition of the complexities for children and young people that marked a theoretical shift from notions of security and control to a 'child-focused' treatment model (Hagell and Hazel, 2001). Following the opening the first STC, the Crime and Disorder Act 1998 was introduced. This Act contained provisions for the creation of Youth Offending Teams (YOTs) and the Youth Justice Board (YJB). The introduction of YOTs placed emphasis on the development of multi-agency approaches to youth justice, with a range of orders offered as alternatives to custody. These approaches contribute to a renewed focus on welfare principles in youth justice, overseen by the newly created YJB who have responsibility for evaluating and promoting best practice for community and custodial services. Developments in youth justice have resulted in a requirement for defining the minimum standard for services providing support for children and young people. The first Statement of Principles and Practice Standards produced in the mid-1990s before the YJB published the first National Standards for Youth Justice in 2000. This YJB publication placed a responsibility on the agencies providing services to deliver key performance targets to secure funding (YJB, 2000). The National Standards recognised the importance of considering pre-release and post-release support for children and young people. This focus on transitions was reflected with the introduction of detention and training orders in 2000. Detention and training orders were established, placing emphasis on youth offending teams to implement resettlement support plans for children and young people (Bateman and Hazel, 2014). In 2002, the Home Office introduced the presumption of early release for children and young people sentenced to detention and training orders. This strengthened the focus on the importance of resettlement for children and young people, allowing for one or two months early release. Following this introduction, Justice Munby ruled

that the Children Act 1989 and human rights legislation apply to children and young people in custodial institutions (Bateman and Hazel, 2014).

The Youth Action Plan was published in 2008 with emphasis on reducing the numbers of children and young people dealt with in the criminal justice system by 2020 (Bateman and Hazel, 2014:4). Following this publication, youth rehabilitation orders were introduced in the Criminal Justice and Immigration Act 2008. This Act introduced statutory alternatives to youth custody with courts held accountable for decisions to imposing custodial sentences over other alternatives. The Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act 2012 extended the use of youth conditional cautions for 12 to 17 year-olds across England and Wales (Bateman and Hazel, 2014). This implementation resulted in the application of the care planning processes for children and young people remanded to the secure estate. The opportunity to establish responses proportionate to children and young people's behaviour was implemented by the introduction of flexible disposals for first time offenders and the repeated use of referral orders for children and young people pleading guilty (Bateman and Hazel, 2014). This influenced developments in the youth justice system, with proposals for transforming youth custody. The Ministry of Justice introduced plans to transform youth custody in England and Wales, with child behavioural expert Charlie Taylor appointed to examine the youth justice system in 2016. Taylor (2016) recommended re-designing the youth justice system to accommodate smaller groups of children and young people; placing education at the centre of rehabilitation; and replacing youth secure estates with small secure schools. The proposed principles for the new youth justice system recommended by Taylor (2016) compete with the current model delivered in STCs. Since the Taylor (2016) report, the government have released proposals for implementing Secure Schools with stakeholder events held in 2018.

2.1.2 – Secure Training Centres

STCs are operated by either the National Offender Management Service (NOMS) or private companies contracted by the YJB. In 2018, England and Wales has three STCs in operation: Medway (operational since 1998) situation in Kent, Rainsbrook (operational since 1999)

situated in Rugby and Oakhill (operational since 2004) situated in Milton Keynes. Another STC was opened in Hassockfield situated near Durham; however, the centre was closed in 2014 due to reductions in the number of children and young people placed in the centre. The average annual cost per placement in STCs is approximately £163,000 (as at 1st April 2015) (Parliament, 2016). The STCs cost per placement are significantly higher than Youth Offending Institutes (£75,000) and lower than Secure Children's Homes (£204,000) (Parliament, 2016) (See Appendix A for cost exclusions). They were opened with the original purpose of *"accommodating trainees in a safe environment within secure conditions; and helping trainees prepare for their return to the outside community"* (STC, 1998 – Appendix B). To achieve this, STCs aim to:

- Provide a positive regime offering high standards of education and training;
- Establish a program designed to tackle the offending behaviour of each trainee and to assist in his development;
- Foster links between the trainee and the outside community;
- Co-operate with the services responsible for the trainee's supervision after release (STC, 1998 – Appendix B).

The rules for STCs seek to illustrate a 'child-focused' approach to supporting children and young people in a secure environment; however, the initial inception of STCs were underpinned by notions of control and security resulting from society's concerns with the management of persistent young offenders. Developments in the embedding stages for STCs resulted in recognition of the complexities for children and young people, which marked a theoretical shift from notions of security and control to a 'child-focused' treatment model (Hagell and Hazel, 2001). The shift for STCs is evident from the developments in the accommodation ages of children and young people. Initially, STCs were introduced to accommodate 12 to 14 years-old receiving Secure Training Orders (STO) (or Detention Training Orders (DTO)). The age of children and young people accommodated in STCs was reviewed in 2000, following the death of two children and young people in custody (Kevin Henson aged 17 years-old and David Dennis aged 17 years-old in 2000 died in custody in 2000) (YJB, 2014a). Resulting from welfare and safety concerns, the age of children and young people accommodated was extended to include 12 to 17 year-olds, with provision for the

continued accommodation of young people aged 18 years-old with additional vulnerabilities (Pitts, 2001).

Developments in STCs resulted in the introduction of the statement of purpose. This statement of purpose complements and enhances the original STC (1998) rules. For example, the STC (1998) rule 3.1(a) on safety is complemented the STC (2015) statement of purpose number 2 (See Appendix B and C). The statement of purpose (2015) (Appendix C) expands the rules (1998); however, the foundation of STCs have remained consistent despite the changes in age and offence profile of the children and young people accommodated. From examining the rules (1998) and statement of purpose (2015); it appears an important opportunity to review the STCs purpose and incorporate the development has been missed. Understanding the developments in STCs and the current direction is central for examining the overall impact on children and young people. For example, identifying the STCs purpose surrounding education is central to examining educational outcomes for children and young people. Equally, by identifying the intended outcomes the researcher can identify any unintended outcomes, drop-off, attribution, and deadweight (discussed further in Chapter 3.1).

Examining the pathway criteria for accommodation in the secure estate is equally important to understanding the developments. The current pathway for children and young people to secure estates is divided into two distinct categories: remand (awaiting sentencing) or sentenced (YJB, 2014b). The custodial remand options are: remand to local authority accommodation with a secure requirement (Sections 90-107 of the Legal Aid Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act 2012); and remand to prison custody (YJB, 2014b). The five custodial sentences which children and young people under the age of 19 years-old can receive are:

- Detention and Training Order (DTO);
- Section 90 (Mandatory Life);
- Section 91 (Serious Offence);
- Section 228 (Extended Sentence for Public Protection);

- Section 226 (Indeterminate Sentence for Public Protection) (YJB, 2014b).

Courts have the ability to sentence children and young people aged between 12 and 17 years-old to Detention and Training Orders (DTO) for a period of 4 months to 2 years (Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act, 2000). With DTO sentences, children and young people serve the first portion of sentences in custody, with the remaining portion served in the community with Youth Offending Team (YOT) supervision (Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act, 2000). For children and young people with significant concerns, the court can impose Intensive Supervision Surveillance (ISS). Some children and young people sentenced with a DTO may apply for early release from custody providing certain criteria are met (Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act, 2000). In the event early release is granted, the community element of the sentence is extended to reflect the sentence imposed. Before imposing a DTO, restrictions in the Criminal Justice Act (1991) require consideration (Hillingdon, 2016). The Criminal Justice Act (1991) restrictions require satisfaction of the following criteria before imposing DTOs:

- A custodial sentence is applicable in cases with adult offenders; and
- The seriousness of the offence (or the offence in combination with other associated offences) justifies a custodial sentence; or
- The child or young person refused to consent to a community penalty (in the event consent is required)
- For children and young people under 15 years-old, the Court must determine that he/she is a persistent offender (Hillingdon, 2016).

For children and young people sentenced for serious offences, the Crown Court may impose sentences under the Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act 2000. Section 90 (murder) offences receive a mandatory life sentence, with the sentencing court setting a minimum term in custody before applications to the Parole Board for release will be accepted (Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act, 2000). On release from custody, supervisory licence is required for an indefinite period. For Section 91 (other serious offences) offences children and young people are released after completing half of the sentence imposed by the court, with provisions for extending early release by 135 days on a Home Detention Curfew (HDC) (Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act, 2000). For children and young people sentenced

for violent or sexual offences, the Court may impose two sections of the Criminal Justice Act 2003. Section 226 (Indeterminate detention for public protection) is comparable with a discretionary life sentence (Criminal Justice Act, 2003). The Court may order Section 226 in the event Section 228 is deemed insufficient for protecting the public. The sentence imposes a minimum term (tariff) the child or young person will spend in custody before release (Criminal Justice Act, 2003). Section 228 (Extended sentence) of the Criminal Justice Act (2003) will impose a determinate (or fixed-term sentence) for children and young people deemed dangerous by the court (Criminal Justice Act, 2003). This sentence is structured as a custodial term and an extended licence period (Criminal Justice Act, 2003). Goldson (2002) explored the assessment criteria for STCs, stating that the number of children and young people meeting the assessment criteria are limited. From examining the data received from the STC on sentences (Table 2.7), the majority of children and young people receive a DTO (for example, from the 74 children and young people sentenced in July 2015, 80 percent received a DTO (including initial sentences and recalls). The Criminal Justice Act (1991) criteria for imposing custodial sentences has provisions for imposing sentences for "persistent offenders"; however, the Criminal Justice Act (1991) contains no definition for the term "persistent offender" which allows for discretion by courts. Ambiguity with the term creates the opportunity for courts to impose DTO sentences for the children and young people (Goldson, 2002). Before admitting children or young people in STCs, detailed and comprehensive processes and assessments are completed. Figure 2 demonstrates the process for children and young people entering STCs.

Figure 2 – Administrative Process for Secure Training Centre Admissions

Youth Justice Board Placement Alert Form to assess the vulnerabilities and risks for children and young people

ASSET Plus to obtain a holistic picture of children and young people and assess future needs.

Post-Court Report for the secure facility with core information on children and young people.

Prisoner Escort Record detailing information on the presentation of children and young people on the journey from court to custody

Anon (2016)

On arrival at the secure estate, the Care and Safety Officer (previously the 'Duty Operations Manager') assumes control of the child or young person and completes the admission checklist (Anon, 2016). Following the completion of admission paperwork, children and young people have the opportunity to speak with a parents/guardian/carer. Research on child-centred approaches highlight the important of the initial engagement with children and young people, with importance on safety and care (Milne, 2015). Ofsted (2017) reported that 93 percent of children and young people surveyed reported feeling safe in their first night staying in the centre, an increase from the previous year (88 percent). On the following day, the STCs staff will complete a full assessment (including the healthcare assessment) for children and young people to identify any additional support needs. Following full assessments and a

settling period (2 days), children and young people are enrolled in education with 25 hours (9am – 12pm and 2pm – 4pm) of education activities completed per week. The educational component of STCs has existed since the initial conception with 12-14 year-olds in 1998. With developments in youth justice resulting in STCs accommodating 12-17 year-olds (and some 18 year-olds), the effectiveness of current educational activities (particularly for the older age groups) requires consideration. Holden, Allen, Gray and Thomas (2016) explored the effectiveness of educational activities, suggesting the importance of introducing additional vocational training for young people aged 16-17 years-old.

Recent debates on the future direction of STCs were initiated in the BBC Panorama (current affairs and investigations) television programme in January 2016 that exposed the physical and emotional abuse children and young people suffered at the hands of staff at Medway STC (BBC, 2016). In response, the Government appointed an Independent Improvement Board to investigate allegations and recommend changes to policy and practice (see Appendix D for recommendations by the Independent Improvement Board). Overall, Holden et al. (2016:27) recommended the development of a new Vision for STCs *"…that clearly articulates the purpose of these establishments, their focus on education and rehabilitation, and cultural values that promote a nurturing and safe environment."* Recognising such recommendations is important in conducting this research project, particularly in examining the impact of new developments on children and young people. This thesis provides a fundamental contribution to knowledge by providing an evidence base for developing a theory of change and shape the vision of STCs. Identifying areas for measurement within STCs contributes to a theory of change process which, in turn, provides the STC with an opportunity to monitor performance and guard against mission/value drift.

2.1.3 – Youth Justice Statistics

With attention on children and young people persisting, the statistical information available highlights a reduction in the number of children and young people in the criminal justice system, with an 81 percent decrease in the number of cautions and convictions between 2007

and 2017. Recent statistics illustrate that the average population in custody (year ending March 2017) was 868, with an average custodial sentence length of 16 months (YJB, 2018). Table 2.2 illustrates a comparison for statistics on children and young people for 2015-2016 and 2016-2017 (YJB, 2017; 2018). For comparison purposes, the most recently published statistical information was examined.

Table 2.2 – Youth Justice Statistics in England and Wales (2015/2016 and 2016/2017)			
	2015-2016	**2016-2017**	**Change (%)**
Number of first time entrants	18,300	16,500	- 9.8
Number of cautions or convictions	32,900	28,400	- 13.7
Average population in custody (year-end)	960	868	- 9.6

(YJB, 2017; 2018)

Statistics on the re-conviction rates children and young people indicate a 0.4 percent decrease from the previous year and a 0.4 percent increase since 2006, with reports estimating that 42.3 percent of children and young people re-offended in a 12 month period (Table 2.3) (YJB, 2018).

Table 2.3 – Re-conviction data for young people (2016-2017)	
Number of proven re-offences	38,300
The total number of re-offences	61,300
Number of children and young people in the re-conviction cohort	8,900
The average number of re-conviction per young person	3.79

(YJB, 2018)

Although the statistical information available from the YJB indicates a decline in the number of young people involved in the criminal justice system and s, the Government's focus on developing effective strategies and intervention to reduce youth offending and recidivism continues. Alternative approaches to managing the behaviours of children and young people

(police restorative conversations and restorative orders) are supported by the Government's priority for reducing re-conviction highlighted in the YJB Corporate Plan (2014-2017) (YJB, 2014b). The YJB Corporate plan (2014-2017) expanded on the Government's original reducing re-conviction priority to focus on: protecting the public; supporting victims; promoting the welfare of children and young people; and reducing re-convictions (YJB, 2014b).

Monthly statistics from the STC (STC) from April 2015 and March 2016 illustrate a fluctuation in admission for children and young people. Table 2.4 illustrates the admission and release statistics for children and young people sentenced and remanded in STCs.

Table 2.4 – Admission and Releases to STC (April 2015 and March 2016)												
	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar
Admissions												
Sentenced	7	16	17	10	7	11	9	12	6	11	0	13
Remand	4	7	11	9	12	3	7	6	7	12	17	13
Total	11	23	28	19	19	14	16	18	13	23	17	26
Releases												
Sentenced	12	15	12	17	15	7	10	14	15	7	17	15
Remand	2	5	5	7	5	4	5	4	3	8	5	11
Total	14	20	17	24	20	11	15	18	18	15	22	26

The numbers of admissions remanded and sentenced vary from April 2015 to March 2016, with children and young people on remand in one month admitted as sentenced in future months. Children and young people on remand re-appear in the sentenced figures in Table 2.4; therefore the release numbers for remand are significantly lower than sentenced. The low remand release numbers suggested that custodial sentences were received for children and young people on remand. Considering the low remand numbers, the potential for release

and the status of remand (innocent until proven guilty), this research focuses on sentenced children and young people. From the information on Table 2.4, the numbers of children and young people admitted and released varies from month to month. For example, August 2015, the number of children and young people released was 20 and the number admitted was 19. The admission and release numbers in August 2015 were similar; however, in January 2016, the number of children and young people released was 15 and the number admitted was 23.

The throughput and average occupancy rates in one STC between April 2015 and March 2016 represent the overall number of children and young people in STCs (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5 – Throughput and Average Occupancy (April 2015 and March 2016)												
	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar
Throughput	79	88	96	98	97	87	92	95	90	95	95	98
Average Occupancy	66	63	73	77	73	76	75	76	77	75	74	72

The throughput numbers represent the number of children and young people in the STC, with reflection of the admission and release numbers. In April 2016, the occupancy rate for children and young people was 80. In April 2015 and May 2015, the average occupancy rates were lower (66 and 63 respectively) before increasing from June 2015 onwards. The highest rates of average occupancy were the months of July 2015, September 2015 and December 2015; however, no reasons for the higher occupancy rates were evident. Exploring the ages of children and young people in the STC was important for understanding the current approach to the crime and offending of children and young people. As discussed in Section 2.2, the age of criminal responsibility in England and Wales is 10 years-old; however, the lowest admission age for children and young people in STCs is 12 years-old. Table 2.6 illustrated the age breakdown of children and young people in the STC between April 2015 and March 2016.

Table 2.6 – Ages of children and young people in STC (April 2015 and March 2016)												
	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar
12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	8	6	9	9	11	11	8	10	10	9	7	6
15	21	30	35	29	27	22	29	28	29	39	41	36
16	32	32	33	37	40	37	37	37	29	26	23	31
17	18	17	17	20	19	17	17	19	20	19	21	22
18	0	2	2	2	0	0	1	1	2	2	3	3
Total	79	88	97	98	97	87	92	95	90	95	95	98

The highest proportion of children and young people (approximately 68 percent) in STCs were aged 15 to 16 years-old. For example, 67.1 percent of children and young people in the STCs in April 2015 were between 15 years-old and 16 years-old. As was outlined earlier, in 1998, STCs were introduced and modelled on accommodating children and young people aged 12 to 14 years-old; however, statistics show an increase in the age profile of those accommodated. The age of children and young people accommodated in STCs was extended to include 12 to 17 year-olds, with provision for the continued accommodation of young people aged 18 years-old with additional vulnerabilities (Pitts, 2001). Political and environmental responses to children and young people have impacted on the developments in the STCs, with the ages of children and young people accommodated increasing.

Similar changes in responses to children and young people are evident from the sentence types and sentence lengths for children and young people in STCs (Table 2.7).

Table 2.7 – Court outcomes (April 2015 and March 2016)												
	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar
Remand	17	17	23	24	28	19	23	21	20	24	31	35
DTO Recall	2	3	4	2	2	1	1	2	4	4	3	3
Under 6 Month DTO	6	9	13	16	18	18	18	23	14	12	10	15
6 - 12 Month DTO	24	27	24	18	20	20	21	21	21	20	19	15
Over 12 Month DTO	17	19	18	23	17	16	16	14	15	14	14	13
Sec 90/91/226/228	10	13	14	15	12	13	13	14	16	21	18	17

The highest proportion of sentences for children and young people between April 2015 and March 2016 were Detention and Training Orders (DTOs) under 12 months. Sentences under 12 months are significantly higher than other sentences, with 46 percent of children and young people in July 2015 receiving a DTO of less than 12 months. From the children and young people receiving a DTO of less than 12 months in July 2015, the custodial element is less than 6 months (with some less than 2 months). Recognising sentence length is important for assessing the impact of STC. For example, the window of opportunity for helping to develop positive outcomes is limited for children and young people subjected to short sentences (56.7 percent of children and young people will serve less than 6 months in custody). Exploring the issues associated with sentence length is equally important for long sentences, with Deprivation of Development theorists asserting that importation and deprivation factors will negatively impact the behaviour of children and young people on release from STCs (Matsuda, 2009). According to Matsuda (2009), the closer children and young people are to transitioning to adulthood the higher the probability that s/he will become productive members of society and reduce offending. From this perspective, long

custodial sentences for children and young people may negatively impact on post-release behaviour. Research on the effect of sentence length for children and young people focus on emotional and mental wellbeing (Garrido and Redondo, 1993; Shelton, 2001 and Matsuda, 2009) with limited exploration on the wider impact.

Examining the statistics on the number of children and young people in STCs is important for understanding the current picture of youth justice in England and Wales. With the current state of government finances, the increased scrutiny of public spending has resulted in pressure to develop effective and sustainable services (Prowle, Murphy and Prowle, 2014). Developments in approaches to youth justice in England and Wales have resulted in changes in the ages of children and young people (high proportion of 15 and 16 years-old) accommodated in STCs and the sentence lengths (high proportion of sentences less than 12 months). The statistical information highlights the current picture of youth justice; however, understanding the reasons children and young people commit crime is essential for identifying what effective services should deliver.

2.2 – Youth Offending

Exploring the theories of youth crime and offending are pertinent for understanding effective approaches and developing a theory of change for measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions. Theory of change models are grounded in plausible evidence, experiences, and literature, enabling a wider understanding of the strategies to generate intended results (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013) (See Section 3.3 for further information). Theories identifying and explaining the factors that influence crime and offending allow organisations and the Government to design effective interventions. Casey (2011) highlighted two important questions in understanding criminological theories: 'What is a theory of crime?' and 'What process translates theories into practice?' Theories of crime explore assumptions on human nature, social structure, and causation to provide an explanation for explaining the phenomena explored (Casey, 2011). Exploring theoretical perspectives on the reason for young people's involvement in crime and offending is important for developing a theory of change and understanding what is effective in reducing recidivism and promoting

desistance. However, surveys and research aiming to record the perceptions of children and young people have highlighted a multitude of reasons for offending. The User Voice (2011) report published information from survey findings and discussion forums with over half the survey participants (325) (User Voice, 2011). The most common causes of crime identified from the survey and discussion forms were:

Table 2.8 – Causes of crime as perceived by children and young people	
	Percent
Drugs and/or alcohol	19
Peers	19
Finance and/or money	12
Boredom	8

<div align="right">(User Voice, 2011)</div>

The issues with drugs and alcohol were explored in qualitative studies, with Barry (2005) highlighting that drugs and alcohol isolate a young person from their friends and family, which reduces potential positive influences and resources. Another issue considered in the User Voice (2011) report was boredom, with 8 percent reporting the influence of boredom on crime and offending (User Voice, 2011). The discussion forms indicated that 'boredom' was linked to other profound issues including anger, repeated rejection and the consequences of drugs or mental health problems. This idea was supported by a study conducted by Brown (2005) which found that a higher proportion of young men participating in the study reported boredom as a cause of offending. The other common issue highlighted in the survey related to family life, with 65 percent (380) of respondents reporting a happy home life and 35 percent (202) failing to answer or reporting an unhappy home life (User Voice, 2011).

Table 2.9 – Comparison of causes of crime for young people based on family background		
	Percentage of young people reporting a happy home life	Percentage of young people failing to answer or reporting an unhappy home life
Drugs and/or alcohol	38	57
Exclusion from school	69	75
School attendance	38	63

(User Voice, 2011)

The authors of the User Voice (2011) report highlight the importance of considering the other issues which exacerbate tensions and issues for young people (User Voice, 2011). The vast majority of young people participating in the survey or discussion groups were from deprived areas, and the survey data demonstrated the likelihood of committing crime had an inverse relationship to economic wealth (User Voice, 2011). Exploring the between-individual and within-individual theoretical explanations for crime and offending are important for understanding the factors identified in the User Voice (2011). Understanding the reasons for children and young people's involvement in criminal activity allows the researcher to identify effective approaches from children and young people's perspective. Do STCs work with children and young people to address the factors identified in the User Voice report? Do STCs deliver interventions to promote school attendance and issues with substance misuse? Analysing the theoretical explanations for children and young people's involvement in criminal activity is central to identifying effective approaches in promoting the positive outcomes, specifically in STCs.

2.2.1 – Traditional Criminological Theories

Traditional criminological theories for explaining crime and offending have developed over centuries with Sutherland and Cressey (1960:3) describing criminology as *"the body of knowledge regarding crime as a social phenomenon. It includes within its scope the scientific study of making laws, breaking laws and reacting towards the breaking of laws".* The

traditional approaches propose between-individual explanations for the reasons children and young people commit crime, which are central to informing effective approaches. The history of criminological reasoning has attempted to explain the association between criminal behaviour and the macro or micro factors. Two traditional criminological theories for explaining the link between macro-micro factors are: strain theory and differential theory. Analysing strain and differential associations theories offer an explanation for the relationship between criminal activity and individual-level variables (Hopkins-Burke, 2008).

2.2.1.1 – Strain Theory

Information from the User Voice (2011) report indicated a relationship between social class and crime which were issues explored by Merton (1938) in developing strain theory. Strain theory highlights the idea that the individual will experience pressure or strain following a failure to attain goals and aspiration through legitimate means (Hopkins-Burke, 2008). According to Merton (1938) the constrained opportunities and social imbalance for individuals to achieve goals may lead to the implementation of adaptations. From this perspective, Merton (1938) focused on the impact of social culture and social structure on strain. The five adaptions proposed by Merton (1938) were: conformity (the acceptance of societal goals in accordance with the legitimate means of achievement); innovation (the understanding of societal goals in accordance with a failure to accept legitimate means of achievement); ritualism (the relinquishing of societal goals for success but acceptance of the means); retreatism (the rejecting of societal goals and the legitimate means of achievement); and rebellion (the rejection of societal goals and the development of new goals) (Merton, 1938). Although strain theory offers opportunities for understanding crime and delinquency, the application is contested due to the limited opportunity for empirically testing the theories assumptions. Further criticisms of classical strain theory are predicated on the assumptions that social class influences delinquency. For example, Merton (1938) explored class differences in official crime rates and Cloward and Ohlin (1960) focused on the behaviour exhibited by lower-class young people. Overall, the adequacy of strain theory for explaining criminal behaviour committed by middle and upper-class children and young people is limited.

Revisions of strain theory attempted to overcome the criticisms of traditional strain theory. Agnew's (1985) revised strain theory resulted in the development of General Strain Theory (GST). For Agnew (1992:48) strain was defined as *"relationships in which others are not treating the individual as he or she would like to be treated"*. Agnew (1985) used this definition to expand strain theory to recognise the importance of: the removal of positive stimuli (bereavement), confrontation with negative stimuli (child abuse); and the commitment to goal pursuit (Agnew, 1985). Recognising this variable commitment is important in designing research exploring youth offending, due to the underlying assumption that children and young people involved in offending behaviour have a desire to change. Critics, most notably, Agnew (1992), highlighted the inadequacy of the theory in explaining strain resulting from non-social means. By developing a theory of change, this research project will explore social and non-social factors influencing children and young people's involvement in criminal activity.

The broad ideas offered by strain theory and general strain theory present a foundation for building a theory of change model, contributing to the understanding of effective approaches in reducing re-convictions, specifically in relation to reducing the barriers to achieving aspirations and goals. For example, children and young people in STCs participate in 25 hours of education per week which aims to support them to overcome the barriers to education, training and employment in order to attain goals.

2.2.1.2 – Differential Association Theory

Another theoretical perspective supported by findings from the User Voice report (2011) is differential association theory. Differential association theory was developed by Sutherland (1947) and focused on the hypothesis that criminal behaviour is learned in association with criminal organisations or gangs. This theory explains criminal behaviour in relation to the learning of *"definitions favourable to law violations over definitions unfavourable to law violations"* (Matsueda, 1988:6). Sutherland (1947) emphasised the importance of four factors

that influence the weight of law violation definitions: frequency; duration; priority; and intensity. Exploring the ideas proposed by Sutherland (1947) offers the researcher an opportunity to analyse the influence of law violation definition on criminal behaviour for children and young people in STCs. By comparing children and young people's attitudes to rules and boundaries, the opportunity to identify the positive and negative impact of interventions in the STC is maximised. Understanding the community level influence on offending behaviour is equally important, with Matsueda (1988) suggesting that rates of criminal behaviour are higher in communities with increased exposure to favourable law violations. Differential association theory proposed that higher rates of criminal and offending behaviour will be present for children and young people socialised in families or communities supporting pro-criminal norms. Research by West (1982) supports this idea, finding that 40 percent of young men with fathers convicted of criminal behaviour acquired a conviction before the age of 18 years-old. Critics, most notably Vold (1958), claimed that differential association theory failed to explain the reason individuals in contact with criminals refrain from criminal activity. Despite this criticism, Sutherland's (1947) theory contains no assumptions that contact with individuals involved in criminal activity results in their own criminal activity. Rather, Sutherland (1947:5-7) suggests that *"though criminal behaviour is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by those general needs and values since non-criminal behaviour is an expression of the same needs and values".* Other criticisms of differential association theory highlighted the theories inadequacy in explaining opportunistic crimes committed by individuals (Volt and Bernard, 1986). Despite such criticisms, the opportunity for understanding criminal activity presented by the differential association process is important for developing a theory of change.

Developments in differential association theory focus on influence of punishment and rewards on future offending behaviour (Akers, 1985). Akers (1985) described the influence of anticipated consequences, punishment and rewards as differential reinforcement. From this perspective, the future offending behaviour of individuals is influenced by *"anticipated future rewards and punishments for their actions"* (Akers and Sellers, 2004: 87). For example, positive rewards for offending behaviour (financial reward) increase the possibility of future offending behaviour. The importance of learned behaviour in differential associations and

reinforcement theory resulted in Akers (1973) reframing the theories as social learning theory. Social learning theorists argue that children and young people learn criminal behaviour from the observation of models. For example, in research conducted on aggression, Bandura, Ross and Ross (1963) found that the number of children and young people imitating the behaviour of adult models increased if the adult's behaviours were rewarded. From this perspective, understanding the experiences and backgrounds of children and young people before entering STCs is central to identifying the existence of learned behaviours. Furthermore, understanding the experiences of children and young people in custody in relation to their relationships with staff and family/friends in the community is equally important. For children and young people in the secure estates, introducing positive role-models and developing positive relationships may contribute to reducing re-convictions and improving positive outcomes.

2.2.1.3 – Summary

Exploring the theories of youth crime and offending are pertinent for understanding effective approaches and developing a theory of change for measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions. The traditional criminological theories explored in this section, highlight several important factors in developing a theory of change for measuring the social impact of youth offending intervention. Strain theory highlights that the importance of overcoming barriers to attaining goals is central to reducing offending, while differential association theory highlights the importance of socialisation and positive role models. By overcoming the barriers to attaining goals and promoting positive behaviour, children and young people have the opportunity to reduce offending. Traditional theoretical approaches provide a foundation for developing the theory of change and examining the positive and negative impact of STCs on children and young people. For example, if children and young people experience strain, do STCs promote and develop the skills required for goal attainment?

2.2.2 – Developmental and Life-Course Theories

Traditional criminological theories focus on explaining the between-individual differences in offending (Farrington, Loeber, Yin and Anderson, 2002). As an alternative, developmental and life-course theories (DLC) explain offending by focusing on the "within-individual" changes (Farrington et al., 2002). Developmental and life-course criminology are dynamic, focusing on three important factors: *"the development of offending and antisocial behaviour from the womb to the tomb; the influence of risk and protective factors at different ages; and the effect of life events on the course of development"* (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014:38) During the 1990s, developmental and life-course criminology received increasing attention, influenced by the significant number of longitudinal research studies on offending (Sampson and Laub, 1993; Moffit, 1993; 1995; Henry, Caspi, Moffit and Silva, 1996; and Farrington, 2007a). Farrington (2007a) suggested that offending behaviours depends on environmental factors and the strength of constructs. Important developmental theories for understanding offending and desistance in children and young people include: adolescence limited/ life-course-persistent theory; and social control theory.

2.2.2.1 – Adolescence limited/ life-course-persistent theory

Moffit (1993) proposed the existence of two distinct groups of antisocial young people: adolescence-limited (AL) and life-course persistent (LCP). The majority of children and young people involved in offending only engage in delinquent behaviour during adolescence. According to Moffit (1993), children and young people in the adolescence-limited group have the "capacity to suppress antisocial impulses" and abide the law. For children and young people in the adolescence-limited group, demonstrating maturity and independence are paramount (Moffit, 1995). The emphasis on demonstrating maturity and independence may result in involvement in low-level offenses such as shoplifting and vandalism. Moffit (1997:26) suggested that delinquency in children and young people from the adolescence-limited group reduces with the transition to adulthood. The contrasting group, life-course persistent, experience anti-social behaviours from early childhood (Henry et al., 1996). For children and young people in the life-course persistent group, problem behaviours manifest in early childhood and develop into adulthood. In comparing the behaviours exhibited by children and

young people prior to arrival with behaviours exhibited in custody, there is an opportunity to identify the positive or negative impact of youth justice interventions on behaviour.

Moffit (1997) explores the existence of two neuropsychological deficits influencing antisocial behaviour – verbal intelligence (i.e. reading ability, active listening, problem-solving, memory, language, and writing) and executive function (i.e. hyperactivity, impulsivity and attention deficit). For children and young people in the STC between January 2016 and December 2016, 14.5 percent had a reading age between 1 and 5 years lower than expected and 24.0 percent had a reading age between 6 and 8 years lower than expected. The high proportion of children and young people with limited literacy abilities in STCs supports the ideas proposed by Moffit (1997). Moffit (1997) explained children and young people with neuropsychological deficits often present as restless, fidgety, destructive, and non-compliant. Considering the literacy age of children and young people in STCs exploring the life-course persistent theory is central to this research. The manifestation of persistent antisocial behaviour limits the opportunities for children and young people to learn pro-social behaviours in formative development stages (Casey, 2011).

2.2.2.2 – Social control theory

Sampson and Laub (1993) developed Hirschi's (1969) social bond theory to explain the influence of social bonds on criminal behaviour. For Sampson and Laub (1993) desistance from involvement in criminal activity in adulthood is predicted by the strength of social bonds stemming from life experiences in childhood. The theory produced by Sampson and Laub (1993, 1995, 2003) aims to answer the question: why do offenders stop offending? Sampson and Laub (2005) emphasised the importance of the strength of bonds with family, peers and school for children and young people, and later, the importance of the strength of social bonds with partners and work for adults. For Sampson and Laub (2005), weak social bonds with society increase the likelihood of children and young people committing crime. These social bonds result from various life events and the strength of bonds influence reductions in criminal behaviour (Sampson and Laub, 1993; 1995; 2003). Sampson and Laub (1993:224-245) divide the life course stages into groups stating that:

"at onset (up to age 18), both structural factors (low socioeconomic status of the family, family distribution, residential mobility, parent's divorce, household crowding, parents employment) and individual differences (difficult temperament, persistent tantrums, early construct disorder) can affect whether a person becomes delinquent and commits crime".

Sampson and Laub (1993) suggest that offending behaviour is influenced by poor family relationships, negative school experiences and delinquent influences. From analysing the data produced by Glueck and Glueck (1968), Sampson and Laub (1993) found higher levels of offending in children and young people aged 10 to 17 years-old with weak social bonds. Sampson and Laub (1993) predict that entering adulthood with significant social relationships, social capital and stability in employment are increasingly likely to desist from committing further crime.

2.2.2.3 – Summary

Developmental and life-course theories (DLC) focus on the within-individual changes in offending by identifying the important factors in reducing offending for children and young people. The influence of educational factors (literacy and numeracy ability) on offending behaviour was explored by Lahey and Waldman (2005), Moffit (1997), and Sampson and Laub (1993). Considering the high proportions of children and young people in STCs with low cognitive ability, understanding the influence of education on reducing offending is critical. The *Positive for Youth* paper supports the importance of education with a vision for a society that promotes supportive relationships, strong ambition and good opportunities in education and personal and social development (HM Government, 2010). Considering the impact of education and the vision illustrated by the *Positive For Youth* paper, the youth justice system has a responsibility for ensuring children and young people receive positive educational experiences in conjunctions with managing negative behaviours. This research will measure the STCs impact in relation to the important factors identified by the social control, developmental propensity, and adolescence limited/ life-course-persistent theories. Recognising the ideas produced by developmental and life-course theories (and traditional criminological theories) allow the researcher to generate the foundation for developing a

theory of change. For example, exploring educational provisions (Lahey and Waldman, 2005; Moffit, 1997; and Sampson and Laub, 1993) in the STC allowed the researcher to identify the social impact of education on children and young people.

2.2.3 – Integrated Theoretical Approach

Exploring the between-individual and within-individual theories to youth crime and offending are important for developing a theory of change. Farrington (2005) developed the Integrated Cognitive-Antisocial Potential (ICAP) theory by examining the traditional and developmental theories of crime and offending. This theory proposed an explanation for the offending behaviour of children and young people, with a focus on explaining the behaviour of those from lower class backgrounds (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). The key construct in ICAP theory is antisocial potential (AP) which *"assumes that the translation from antisocial potential to antisocial behaviour depends on cognitive (thinking and decision-making) processes that take account of opportunities and victims"* (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014:28). Figure 2.1 illustrates a simplistic example of Farrington's (2005) Integrated Cognitive-Antisocial Potential theory.

Figure 2.1 – The Integrated Cognitive Antisocial Potential (ICAP)

Low income, Unemployment, School failure

Criminal parent, Delinquent peers, Delinquent schools, High crime neighbourhood.

Poor child rearing, Disrupted families, Low anxiety

Long-term energising, Directing, Capabilities

Antisocial Models

Attachment, Socialisation

Life events

Long-term Antisocial potential: between-individual differences

Impulsiveness

Short-term Energising factors: bored, angry, drunk, frustrated

Short-term Antisocial potential: between-individual variances

Opportunities, Victims

Cognitive processes: decisions, costs, benefits, probabilities

Routine activities

Crime, antisocial behaviour

Consequences: reinforcement, punishment, labelling, learning.

(Farrington, 2007b)

Farrington (2005) distinguishes the long-term antisocial potential (between-individual differences) from the short-term antisocial potential (within-individual differences). For Farrington (2005) the long-term factors are influenced by modelling, strain, socialisation and labelling while the short-term factors depend on motivation, situation, intelligence and cognitive ability. Farrington (2005) identified a continuum of long-term antisocial potential, ordering individuals from low to high. The distribution of antisocial potential on the continuum is skewed, suggesting that antisocial behaviour and offending are versatile

(Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). This versatility explains the reasons ICAP theory applies across different types of offending and antisocial behaviour. Findings from the Cambridge Study suggested several core risk factors for later offending including: hyperactivity; impulsivity; low academic ability, poor school attainment, family criminality, poverty, ineffective parenting, disrupted families and attention deficit (Farrington, 2003 and 2007). The long-term risk factors associated with criminal behaviour identify the reasons some individuals commit crimes; however, ICAP theory fails to explain the reasons other individuals desist. Furthermore, the focus on long-term risk factors results in a failure to explore the situational characteristics influencing criminal behaviour.

Identifying the protective factors such as unconditionally supportive parents or carers, high school attainment is equally important to identifying the risk factors (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). Recognising the protective factors for children and young people in STCs are critical for exploring the positive and negative (intended and unintended) impact. Exploring protective factors for children and young people in STCs allows for identification of the wider social impact of such environments. Farrington and Ttofi (2014) highlighted the complexities in distinguishing between the risk factors causing offending and antisocial behaviour and correlating factors. The exploration of risk factors influencing offending and anti-social behaviour, and the protective factors that reduce offending and anti-social behaviour, identification of effective interventions is plausible. For example, interventions that promote the protective factors while reducing the risk factors. For individuals with high long-term antisocial potential, the most prevalent motivational factors are: strain; desires for material goods; status with family members or intimates; excitement; and sexual satisfaction (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). These motivational factors indicate the presence of high long-term antisocial potential; however, the availability of legitimate means to satisfy such factors (employment, income etc.) is equally important in predicting offending (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). For example, the desire to offend for individuals with legitimate means to achieve is lower than for individuals with no legitimate means. Furthermore, Farrington and Ttofi (2014) highlight the influence of socialisation, attachment and exposure to antisocial models (differential associations) on the antisocial potential. Van Der Laan, Blom and Kleemans (2009) tested ICAP theory by completing a survey with 1,500 young people aged 10-17 years-

old in the Netherlands. Findings suggested that long-term individual, family and education factors correlated with serious offending and antisocial behaviour. Other factors considered by Van Der Laan, Blom and Kleemans (2009) related to the short-term situational factors including drug and alcohol and the absence of appropriate parents or guardians. The findings from the study conducted by Van Der Laan, Blom and Kleemans (2009) support the idea proposed by ICAP theory that the probability of young people engaging in serious offending and antisocial behaviour increase with the number of antisocial probability factors (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014).

Integrated Cognitive-Antisocial Potential (ICAP) theory identifies the short-term and long-term factors influencing future criminal behaviour. From this perspective, ICAP theory offers the researcher an opportunity to identify the influential factors for reducing offending behaviour and promoting positive outcomes. Identifying the protective factors (and risk factors) explored by ICAP theory are important for this research project, particularly for developing an effective SIM framework. Although, Farrington and Ttofi's (2014) focus on explaining the offending behaviour of children and young people from lower class backgrounds limits the generalisability of ICAP theory; positioning ICAP theory within a SIM approach with scope for including the transitions and individual transformation. This allows the researcher to create a robust theory of change framework, with acknowledgement of the between-individual and within-individual factors that contribute to offending and recidivism.

2.2.4 – Desistance

Researchers can understanding the reason children and young people commit crime by combining between-individual (traditional criminological theories) and within-individual (developmental and life course theories) approaches. Explaining the reasons children and young people commit crime enables researchers to understand the factors that can contribute to reducing and/or stopping children and young people's involvement in crime. Desistance research explores the processes of desistance by outlining the natural (changes over time) and manufactured (changes influenced by activities and interventions) factors

(Farrall and Bowling, 1999; Maruna, 2001 and McNeil, 2002). It describes: "the long-term abstinence from criminal behaviour among those for whom offending had become a pattern of behaviour" (McNeill et al., 2012:3). Desistance theories tend to offer explanations for changes in behaviours as influenced by aging, life events, social bonds and/or narrative (Maruna, 2001). These changes impact on the individuals' view of himself or herself, influenced by the interplay between aging, life events, social bond and narrative (Farral and Bowling, 1999 and Maruna, 2001). For example, desistance research aims to explain the significance changes such as securing a job, committing to a partner and getting older have on an individual's view of themselves. Not only this, but, it explores whether such changes compel individuals to change their behaviours.

Early theoretical and empirical literature on desistance explored the natural process of change, influenced by puberty and/or 'maturational reform' (Goring, 1919). Research exploring the life course of individuals involved in criminal activity found that "aging is the only factor which emerges as significant in the reformative process" (Glueck and Glueck, 1937:105). This idea remain prevalent in desistance literature, with research in the 1980s exploring age-related conviction and re-conviction rates. Hirshi and Gottfredson (1983) found that offending behaviour sharply increases during early adolescence (from around the age of criminal responsibility – 10 years-old) with a peak in offending noted during the mid-late teenage years. This initially declines sharply around the mid-20s before stabilising thereafter. This age-crime curve has been contested, with research by Sampson and Laub (1992) outlining the existence of many factors in understanding the influence of age (e.g. environment, structured). Thus, finding, that the features that mediate or change behaviour are complex (Sampson and Laub, 1992 and Rutter, 1996). Furthering this idea, Soothill et al. (2004) found that the peak age of conviction differed for crime types, with the peak age for burglary at 16 years-old or less in comparison with a peak age of 21-25 years-old for motoring offences. Ideas on age and desistance were explored by Moffit (1993) with ground-breaking research on the 'adolescence-limited offenders' and 'life-course persistent offenders' groups (as explored in section 2.2.2.1).

Another factor contributing to desistance relates to social bonds with family and friends (Farrington and West, 1995; Blokland and Nieuwbeerta, 2005; Sampson et al., 2006 and Bersani et al., 2009). Research conducted by Bersani et al. (2009:4) found that "salient life events such as marriage, employment, geographic mobility and military service are related to a reduction in criminal behaviours in adulthood". According to Bersani et al. (2009:4) marriage reduces an individual's involvement in criminal activity by creating security and strengthen social bonds – 'the good marriage effect'. Moving beyond marriage, sentencing children and young people to custody strains relationships with family and friends. The strain on relationships highlights the need for increased engagement between the custodial and community environment. Research by Moloney et al. (2009) outlines another factor influencing desistance – parenthood. Moloney et al. (2009:2) explored the impact of fatherhood on desistance in 91 male gang members, finding that "...fatherhood acts as a significant turning point, facilitating a shift away from gang involvement, crime and drug sales; a decline in substance use; and engagement with education and legitimate employment". The research conducted by Sampson et al. (2006); Bernasi et al. (2009) and Moloney et al. (2009) outline the role family relationships, community networks and increased opportunities play in improving outcomes for individuals.

Research exploring desistance expanded to explore the role of self-identity in the desistance process (Maruna, 2001; and Giordano et al., 2002). Maruna (2001:8) explained that "to desist from crime, ex-offenders need to develop a coherent, pro-social identity for themselves". This explanation was drawn from Maruna's (2001) research on the role of self-efficacy, control over ones future, in desistance. This personal narrative allows individuals to reflect on their lives and find redeeming values which encourages them to 'make sense' of their situation – encouraging change (Maruna, 2001). The desisting ex-prisoners he interviewed often said they wanted to put such experiences 'to good use' by helping others (usually young people in similar circumstances and/or situations) avoid the same mistakes. Maruna's (2001) research was followed by Giordano et al.'s (2002: 999-1002) 'theory of cognitive transformation' that explained desistance as a process with four parts - where they argue that the desistance process involves:

1. "General cognitive openness to change";

2. Exposure and response to "hooks for changes";

3. Reflection and development of a new "self"; and

4. Transformation in attitudes to deviant and criminal behaviour.

This process relies on the individual's desire to change, acknowledgement that change is required and, finally, the motivation to change (Giordano et al., 2002). Indeed, earlier research by Cusson and Pinsonneault (1986) and Farrall and Bowling (1999) found that reflection and reassessment was an important factor in the process of desistance. If an individual reflects on experiences and acknowledge that a change is required, then the process can begin. This process, combined with exposure to opportunities and the recognition that this opportunity is positive (the second part in the desistance process), may lead individuals to change (Giordano et al, 2002:1001, Farrall 2002:225). This leads to the individual's ability to perceive and develop a new "self" (the third part in the desistance process) with a desire to change their behaviour (Giordano et al., 2002). According to Giordano et al. (2002:1003) "the actor creatively and selectively draws upon elements of the environment in order to affect significant life changes". Essentially arguing that individuals draw on the relationships between individual agency and social structure to change behaviour (Farrall and Bowling, 1999 and Maruna and Farrall, 2004).

Desistance research outlines the processes of desistance by outlining the natural (changes over time) and manufactured (changes influenced by activities and interventions) factors. The process of desistance is central to understanding the reasons children and young people's involvement in criminal activity ceases. Based on desistance research, the factors that support children and young people (and adults) to desist from research include: developing a balanced, trusting and consistent relationships (with family, friends and professionals in the criminal justice system); emotional support and interventions that promote problem solving and pro-social behaviours. Relying only on desistance research is problematic, as Porporino (2010:61) outlines that "desistance theory and research, rich in descriptive analysis of the forces and influences that can underpin offender change, unfortunately lacks any sort of organised practice framework". Thus, combining desistance and ICAP theory allows

researchers to develop an understanding of the forces and influences leading to and from offending. Given Porporino's (2010) comments, positioning the theories in a SIM framework will allow the researcher to develop an organised measurement framework that can influence practice.

2.3 – Transitions

Understanding the within-individual and between-individual reasons children and young people commit crime and desist from crime is central to developing effective and sustainable services. An important final factor for children and young people in custody, which relates to the theories explored above, is transitions. Children and young people accommodate in STCs *"as a result of engaging in offending behaviour are particularly vulnerable to negative life outcomes (including unemployment, poor education, mental health, difficulties and social exclusions)"* (Beal, 2014:63). Researcher's examining the transitions from the secure estate to the community rarely explore the perceptions of children and young people (Beal, 2014). Understanding the perceptions of children and young people accommodated in, and transitioning from, STCs is important for identifying vulnerabilities and motivation. Research on the experiences of children and young people in custody suggests that custodial sentences decrease emotional stability, interrupt engagement in education and interrupt relationships with families and peers (Beal, 2014). Research conducted by Mendes and Moslehuddin (2006) on the transitions to adulthood for children and young people in care support the ideas proposed by other researcher's. Findings from Mendes and Moslehuddin (2006) suggest that children and young people leaving care experience social, educational and health deficits (such as homelessness, mental health problems, poor education outcomes, and inadequate support). The experiences and outcomes of children and young people transitioning from Youth Offending Institutes (YOI) were explored by Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) research conducted by Beal (2014). Beal (2014) conducted research with children and young people aged 15-17 years-old transitioning from Youth Offending Institutes, finding that tailored support packages were essential for addressing the individual needs of young people. Beal's (2014) research highlights the importance of obtaining the perceptions of children and young people; however, the subjective nature of the research methods reduces the transferability of results.

Research on transitions from the secure estate highlights the importance of establishing resilience in children and young people. Resilience is described by Masten (2001:228) as *"good outcomes in spite of serious threat to adaption or development".* For children and young people accommodated in secure estates, positive outcomes are dependent on developing effective services for addressing key areas (including education, emotional stability etc.). Masten (2001) explored the notions of resilience, focusing on the importance of the environment in fostering or hindering the individual's ability to thrive. From this perspective, resilience exists as a dynamic process with the interactions between the environment and individuals central to developing positive outcomes. Developing independence skills is equally important for promoting resilience in children and young people transitioning from secure estates. Research focused on the promotion of independence skills for children and young people in STCs is virtually non-existent. This creates an opportunity for the researcher to adapt and enhance theories to consider the role independence plays for children and young people transitioning from the secure estate. For example, in STCs children and young people receive daily support in cooking, cleaning, attending education, arranging healthcare, regulating emotions and developing relationships; however, this level of support ceases upon release from custody. From this perspective, developing independence in children and young people is central to ensuring positive outcomes in the future. Currently, the STCs statement of purpose (2015) No.12 states *"…staff are committed to helping sentenced young persons as they move into the community, supporting them to have appropriate accommodation and education and training on release"* (Appendix B). This statement highlights the commitment to support children and young people in terms of accommodation and education/training; however, limited provisions exist for supporting the development of independence.

Transition from custody relies on effective and sustainable resettlement approaches. Resettlement is described as *"a systematic and evidence-based process by which actions are taken to work with the offender in custody and on release, so that communities are better protected from harm and reoffending is significantly reduced. It encompasses the totality of*

work with prisoners, their families and significant others in partnership with statutory and voluntary organisations" (HM Inspectorates of Prisons and Probation, 2001:12). Children and young people leaving custodial environment express concerns with accommodation, finding employment, financial security, relationships, health and wellbeing and substance misuse (The Local Government Association, 2011). Beyond Youth Custody (BYC) was introduced to challenge, advance and promote the effective resettlement of children and young people by influencing policy and practice (Hazel, Goodfellow, Liddle, Bateman and Pitts, 2017). Recent reports published by Hazel et al. (2017) propose five key characteristics for effective and sustainable resettlement support: constructive (focused on identify shift, strength-based approached and empowerment), co-created (focused on inclusion of children, young people and supporters), customised (focused on individual and diverse support), consistent (focused on designing a seamless process from admission) and co-ordinated (focus on widespread partnership). Combining these characteristics offers a theory of change for the resettlement of children and young people that compliments this research project which focuses on the social impact of STCs on children and young people. Supporting children and young people to develop emotional stability, educational achievements, healthy relationships and resilience are important for promoting positive outcomes within a process underpinned by the five characteristics recommended by Hazel et al. (2017) promotes positive outcomes for children and young people. The areas identified from research support the youth offending measurement areas identified by Vanclay (2003) and the Big Society Capital Outcome Matrix (2013) (See Section 3.2.2).

2.4 – Summary

Developments in the youth justice system are marked by shifts between conflicting welfare and punitive paradigms. The central focus on punishment for behaviours and the perception of children and young people as '*threatening*' were the building blocks and foundations for the current justice system. As society changed and perceptions of children and young people altered to support, welfare principles became the centre of the debate on supporting young people to cease offending. These conflicting approaches to youth justice remain prevalent in England and Wales today, with the introduction of child-centred approaches in conflict with

the low age of criminal responsibility (10 years-old). The introduction and development of STCs from 1998 add to the welfare versus punitive debates by promoting child-centred approaches in the secure environment. With the current state of government finances, the increased scrutiny of public spending has resulted in pressure to develop effective and sustainable services (Prowle, Murphy and Prowle, 2014). Developments in approaches to youth justice in England and Wales have resulted in changes in the ages of children and young people (high proportion of 15 and 16 years-old) accommodated in STCs and the sentence lengths (high proportion of sentences less than 12 months). Statistical information illustrates the current youth justice picture; however, this information fails to explore the reasons children and young people commit crimes. Exploring the reasons children and young people commit crime aids the understanding of the wider needs of children and young people as well as identifying effective approaches. By examining children and young people's journey through the STC, this research will position children and young people at the centre. From examining theoretical approaches to understanding the reason children and young people commit crime; the researcher has identified an integrated theoretical approach that combines the between-individual (traditional criminological theories) and within-individual (developmental and life course theories) approach. Combining this integrated theoretical approach with desistance literature allows the researcher to explore the factors the lead children and young people to offend and the factors that support desistance.

Chapter Three – Social Impact Measurement (SIM)

In 2012, the Department of Trade and Industry released a strategy document exploring the importance of appropriate impact measurement for developing sustainable services: *"We (the UK Government) do believe there are real economic and social gains for organisations that use appropriate mechanisms to evaluate their impact and improve their performance"* (Department of Trade and Industry, 2002: 76). With the current state of government finances in England and Wales, an increased scrutiny of public spending has emerged with the focus on the development of effective and sustainable services (Prowle, Murphy and Prowle, 2014). From this financial perspective, funders and commissioners have placed increased emphasis on understanding the social impact resulting from the funded and commissioned activities (Clifford and Hazenberg, 2015). Whilst the financial perspective highlights an important reason for an increased focus on SIM, another important standpoint focuses on the provider, with the measurement of social impact central to identifying effective service delivery and the direction of resources and interventions to engage with beneficiaries and stakeholders (Clifford and Hazenberg, 2015). Balancing the requirements of funders and commissioners with services offered and provider requirements is important for establishing effective SIM practices. In addition, SIM allows for the constant refinement of social interventions and the ability to undertake evidence-based organisational development (Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny, 2014). This chapter will define SIM and explore the theoretical frameworks for measurement, followed by an examination of existing research, and the nature of SIM for youth offending interventions. In order to explore how a social impact measurement approach can contribute to the development of a 'theory of change' that can be used to explain (and refine) the delivery of youth interventions nationally and the continued developments of an evidence base for effective approaches. This chapter will identify the lack of SIM frameworks and approaches in the field of youth justice, demonstrating the originality of the research.

3.1 – Defining Social Impact

SIM has received considerable attention from the Government, researchers and academics. Terminology in the field of impact measurement remains ambiguous, with variance in local, national and international understanding. Ogain, Lumley and Pritchard (2012:33) reported on

a survey conducted by NPC that stated: "*impact measurement means different things to different people…We therefore… take responses about whether they are measuring impact… at face value*". Interpretations and understanding of social impact and social value differ, which has resulted in confusion in the development of measurement tools and the reporting of social impact. Definitions for social impact and social value contain subtle differences, with the main focus to address the overall benefit from specific actions or activities delivered. Examination of existing literature reveals variations in definitions for social impact and social value (See Table 3.1); however, the central element surrounds the consequence (intended or unintended) resulting from a particular action. Maas (2014) conducted a report on SIM to explore the various definitions of social impact and social value with the main differences relating to language. Table 3.1 highlights both the most commonly used definitions explored by Maas (2014:2) and definitions identified from alternative sources.

Table 3.1 – Social Impact Definitions (Adapted from Maas, 2014:2)	
Social impact (Freudenburg, 1986)	The impacts (or effects or consequences) that are likely to be experiences by an equally broad range of social groups as a result of some course of action.
Social impact (Burdge and Vanclay, 1996)	The consequences to human populations of any public or private actions that alter the ways in which people live, work, play, relate to one another, organise to meet their needs and generally act as a member of society.
Social value (Emerson, Wachowicz and Chun, 2000)	Social value is created when resources, inputs, processes, or policies are combined to generate improvements in the lives of individuals or society as a whole.
Social impact (Clark, Rosenzweig, Long and Olsen, 2004)	The portion of the total outcome that happened as a result of the activity of the venture above and beyond what would have happened anyway.
Social impact (Vanclay, 2003)	The intended and unintended social consequences, both positive and negative, of planned interventions and any social change process invoked by those interventions.
Social Impact (Clifford, Hehenberger and Fantini, 2014)	The reflection of social outcomes as measurements, both long-term and short-term, adjusted for the effects achieved by others (alternative attribution), for effects that would have happened anyway (deadweight), for negative consequences (displacement), and for effects declining over time (drop-off).

The definitions explored by Maas (2014) differed in the use of terms including impact, output, effect and outcome; however, the fundamental principles for social impact remain evident. Vanclay (2003) proposed a definition for social impact that highlights the importance of analysing, monitoring and managing the intended and unintended social consequences of

interventions, which allows for the development of effective services and the identification of ineffective services. This definition identifies the following areas in conceptualising social impacts: life, culture, community, political system, environment, health and wellbeing, personal and property rights, and fears and aspirations (Vanclay, 2003). In the youth justice field, the ideas proposed by Vanclay (2003) are important in developing SIM for youth offending interventions, specifically in considering the associations between social impacts and the causes of crime and offending identified previously. For example, responses of the User Voice (2011) survey and theoretical perspectives devised by general strain theory[2] highlight the relationship between deprivation and crime resulting from the inability to attain goals. In considering the social impact of youth offending interventions, one important area to consider is the promotion of changes in fears and aspirations that were highlighted by Vanclay (2003). Although Vanclay's (2003) definition provides scope for measuring impact, adopting this approach in isolation reduces the opportunity to capture the changes achieved by others or changes occurring regardless of interventions or activities. The definition established by Clifford et al. (2014) in the GECES framework allows for consideration of elements missed from the definition offered by Vanclay (2003). Clifford et al. (2014) allows for consideration of the changes resulting from other activities (alternative attributions), the changes occurring regardless of activities (deadweight), and the changes which decline over time (drop-off). By combining the definitions provided by Vanclay (2003) and Clifford et al. (2014), the positive and negative (intended and unintended) consequences receive consideration in conjunction with alternative attribution (changes resulting from other activities), deadweight (changes that happen regardless of activities) and drop-off (the decline over time). Defining the elements in SIM have equal importance for defining the terms social impact and social value. McLoughlin et al. (2009) and Clifford et al., (2014) highlighted five important elements in SIM: inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes and impact:

- Inputs (regularly referred to in terms of Resources) represent the resources used for the delivery of interventions.

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[2] General strain theory (GST) was developed by Agnew in 1992. Agnew (1992) argues that individuals experience strains or stressors in response to constrained opportunities. These strains or stressors increase negative emotions that encourage corrective actions including crime.

- Activities represent the specific actions employed by the organisation or social enterprise.

- Outputs reflect information on what the specific activities have produced or generated for beneficiaries.

- Outcomes represent the short, intermediate and long term changes accomplished by the activities.

- Impact reflects the ultimate intended change in individuals, organisations and the community. Variations in time for impact identification range from immediate impact to impact over time.

(Clifford et al., 2014)

It is clear that the establishment of consistent definitions for social impact, social value and SIM are central to developing an effective framework for measurement. Therefore, the development of a theoretical framework centred upon SIM that provides a clear definition of the term along with the processes involved in measuring impact effectively are crucial to this thesis and so the next section will explore the theoretical underpinnings of SIM.

3.2 – Theoretical Framework

Academic literature on the topic SIM is limited; predominantly being derived from collaborative networks, government agencies and consulting firms (Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014). Establishing a theoretical framework is grounded in three important questions: why measure? what to measure? and how to measure?

3.2.1 – Why measure?

Establishing the reasons organisations measure social impact is important for developing a framework for impact measurement. Identifying the 'whole story' of impact for beneficiaries, organisations and communities allow organisations to demonstrate the effectiveness of activities. Research has indicated the existence of numerous factors influencing an organisations decision to measure impact (Stevenson, Taylor, Lyon, and Rigby (2010); Chapman, Robinson, Brown, Crow, Bell, and Bailey, 2010a; and Chapman, van der Graaf, Bell, Robinson, and Crow, 2010b). Stevenson et al. (2010) and Chapman et al. (2010a,b) found that

a perceived expectation from funders was the most commonly identified motivation for the development of impact measurement tools. This idea was further developed in research conducted on the associations between impact measurement practice and funding conducted by Ogain, Lumley and Prichard (2012). From this research, Ogain, Lumley and Prichard (2012) found higher proportions of planning tools and evaluation practices in organisations funded by the government (such as before and after measures, long-term measures and randomised control trials). This idea was further developed by Ellis and Gregory (2008) in research reporting higher levels of prescription in the impact measurement tools and systems used by organisations funded by the government and public sector commissioners. Such prescription reduces opportunities for organisational innovation and development, with accountability to funders and commissioners given higher priority. Although research has identified associations between the influence from Government funders and commissioners and impact measurement practices, there has been limited exploration of the methods or requirements influencing organisation to measure impact (Ogain, Lumley and Prichard, 2012). One potential explanation, evident from the prior literature, relates to the increased scrutiny of public spending and the focus on organisations to measure impact. The reasons for measuring impact extend beyond funding and funders, with Stevenson et al. (2010), Chapman et al. (2010a,b) and Ogain, Lumley and Prichard (2012) completing research on the other elements influencing the use of impact measurement. Stevenson et al. (2010) and Chapman et al. (2010a, b) reported that organisations view measuring impact as a means of effectively targeting activities and resources. Furthermore, there was considerable emphasis on the importance of measuring impact in ensuring improved outcomes for service users. Lyon and Arvidson (2011) and Ogain, Lumley and Prichard (2012) examined the importance of measuring impact rather than simply recording the numbers, arguing that impact measurement allows for:

- Improvement in the organisation's credibility and staff morale,
- Encouraging the improvement of services and overall competitiveness,
- Demonstration of the effectiveness of services to stakeholders,
- Establish a basis for positive publicity.

The importance of considering the economic, social and environmental improvements of services was considered in The Public Services (Social Value) Act 2012**.** The Act placed legislative requirements on procuring authorities to identify the economic, social and

environmental benefits of their proposed services. Introducing legislative requirements has contributed to a new direction in commissioning focus, with influence on procuring authorities to demonstrate economic, social and environmental benefit (Cabinet Office, 2016). The influence on organisations to demonstrate the economic, social and environmental benefits was initially introduced in the Charity Act 2006. This act placed emphasis on the delivery of social value by promoting the importance of identifying impact and effectiveness in service delivery (Cabinet Office, 2016). The introduction of legislative requirements strengthens the focus on identifying social value and developing SIM practices. Financial pressures, internal motivation and legislative implementation have increased the profile of SIM; however, the lack of consistent guidance on measuring impact poses problems for organisations (Harlock, 2013).

Literature highlights the importance of understanding context in developing SIM practices. In the *Impact Measurement in the Youth Justice Sector* report, Nevill and Lumley (2011) discuss the introduction of SIM within the youth justice field. Nevill and Lumley (2011) highlighted six key reasons for the importance of measuring social impact in youth justice. The first reason - the impact on communities and individuals – was highlighted in relation to the impact of offending on the lives of victims, the offender, the offender's family and the resulting impact on communities. For example, Surrey Youth Restorative Intervention provides a victim-led intervention that aims to support young people involved in crime to meet with the victim of the crime within a restorative process. The intervention received a 91 percent victim satisfaction rate and observed an 18 percent reduction in re-convictions since commencing (RJC, 2015). This type of intervention proves pertinent for delivering positive outcomes for individuals and communities. The second reason - the high cost of crime – refers to the high cost of crime on public services. The current state of austerity limits the availability of financial resources to tackle crime and offending therefore developing successful youth offending interventions may reduce the burden on public finances Nevill and Lumley (2011). For example, the average cost of one place in youth custody per annum in 2016 was £104,000, with the cost of STCs reach £163,000 (Parliament, 2016), while by comparison the cost of one Youth Restorative Intervention is around £1,040 per person (Mackie, Cattell, Reeder and Webb, 2014). The third reason - potential to prevent harm – refers to the development of

approaches which impact negatively or harmfully on vulnerable people. For example, Nevill and Lumley (2011) highlighted the fact that inconsistent and short-lived mentoring relationships are damaging to young people who have no positive role models in their lives. The introduction of effective SIM will allow for the identification and removal of harmful interventions (Nevill and Lumley, 2011). The fourth reason - the importance of campaigning – relates to support available for determining alternative options for children and young people, such as the Howard League for Penal Reform campaign for alternatives to custody for children and young people. The development of robust SIM frameworks can support in identifying effective community based interventions as alternatives to custody (Nevill and Lumley, 2011). The fifth reason - the potential influence of sentencing – relates to sentencing options available for youth crime and offending. The Audit Commission (2004) found the sentencing decisions for four in five magistrates were influenced by the effectiveness of community programs (cited in Nevill and Lumley, 2011).The final reason - the reliance on public funding – relates to the highly competitive nature for the provisions of youth offending interventions. In 2008/2009 Nacro (2010) published an annual report for the year end in March 2009 which noted a high proportion of overall funding was obtained from statutory services (78 percent).

3.2.2 – What to measure?

The Government focus on reducing reoffending results in organisations that can evidence reduced re-conviction rates receiving positive attention (Nevill and Lumley, 2011). Focusing solely on re-conviction fails to recognise the wider impact services provide for young people involved in offending. For example, risk-factor prevention research recommends interventions are "based on empirical research rather than theories" (Farrington, 2007a:7) which measures the outputs and outcomes of programmes with focus on reconviction rates. These programmes fail to account for the effect and/or impact of early programmes (McAra and McVie, 2017) as well as the impact of relationships, social circumstances and personal narrative. Literature and research exploring 'what to measure?' in the criminal justice system relates to the 'what works' debate. This debate explores the effectiveness of criminal justice services in preventing reoffending (Maguire, 1995). Maguire's (1995:226) exploration of "what works" resulted in recommendation for assessing areas, such as:

- Social circumstances – accommodation, finances and relationships;

- Health/mental disorder – access to health, dental and other medical services;

- Addictions – self-reported use of alcohol, drugs and solvents;

- Education skill and ability – the offender's intellectual ability and competence in literacy and numeracy;

- Self-efficacy and self-control – social and interpersonal skills; and

- Offending behaviours – current or recent offending and criminal career.

Assessing the areas above essential in developing positive outcomes for individuals involved in offending behaviour. The recommendation from Maguire (1995) move beyond simply assessing the outcomes achieved to evaluating the content and process of programmes. Failure to assess the content and process of programmes could result in changes being attributed to the wrong programme (Maguire, 1995). These recommendations are relevant to the current research projects; however, this research moves beyond measuring outcomes to miss the broader long term effect of programmes.

Adding to 'what works' literature, Nevill and Lumley (2011) explore impact measurement in youth justice. Nevill and Lumley (2011) recommended exploring data surrounding offending history, risk profile and case studies[3] in developing measurement practices. They provide an important basis for understanding measurement in the youth justice sector; however, the report focuses on measuring outcomes with limited details on measuring impact (Nevill and Lumley, 2011). Establishing the areas for measurement in youth offending interventions is complex, with research by Carniero, Crawford and Goodman (2007) suggesting that cognitive and non-cognitive skills require acknowledgement in identifying the outcomes and the wider impact. Carniero, Crawford and Goodman (2007) considered persistence, self-efficacy, attentiveness, truthfulness, confidence, relationships with others, requesting help etc. as non-cognitive skills. This idea was supported by research conducted by Goodman and Gregg (2010) for the Joseph Rowntree Foundation, which, suggested that positive outcomes are influenced by social and emotional capabilities. Goodman and Gregg (2010) found that children and young people with self-belief, self-efficacy and agency acknowledged that risky

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[3] The young person's background and development.

behaviours could result in negative events. Further research conducted by Gorard, Huat See and Davies (2012) suggested the importance of four capabilities that impact on the lives of children and young people:

- Self-concept: the perceptions of self.
- Self-esteem: the evaluation of worth or goodness.
- Self-efficacy: the belief and confidence in your ability to achieve.
- Locus of control: the belief that actions have consequences and the ability to make a difference.

Heckman, Stixrud and Urzua (2006) attempted to explore the effects of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities further. In research on the General Educational Development (GED) certificate (qualification awarded to individuals failing to complete high-school), Heckman, Stixrud and Urzua (2006) found that recipients of the GED possessed similar cognitive abilities to other young people, but lower non-cognitive abilities. They concluded that recipients receiving a GED possess similar intelligence, but lacked discipline, patience, and motivation. The association between capabilities and attainment was explored in detail by Carniero, Crawford and Goodman (2007), Goodman and Gregg (2010), Gorard, Huat See and Davies (2012); however, the complexities in measuring this relationship have resulted in a limited focus by youth offending interventions on such areas. The Matrix of Human, Social, Environmental Rights and Benefit tool and the Big Capital Society (2013) Outcomes Matrix add to 'what works' literature by, both, providing frameworks through which to identify measurement indicators relating to the individual, community and society. Identifying indicators for measurement are central in SIM, with Vanclay (2003) recognising the importance of identifying the direct and indirect effects resulting from activities (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 – What to measure?	
Indicators	**Details**
Life	How they live, work, play and interact with one another on a day-to-day basis.
Culture	Their shared beliefs, customs, values and language or dialect.
Community	The cohesion, stability, character, services and facilities.
Political Systems	The extent to which people are able to participate in decisions that affect their lives, the level of democratisation that is taking place, and the resources provided for this purpose.
Environment	The quality of the air and water people use; the availability and quality of the food they eat; the level of hazard or risk, dust and noise they are exposed to; the adequacy of sanitation, their physical safety, and their access to and control over resources.
Health and Wellbeing	Health is a state of complete physical, mental, social and spiritual wellbeing and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity;
Personal and Property Rights	Whether people are economically affected, or experience personal disadvantage
Fears and Aspirations	Perceptions about their safety, their fears about the future of their community, and their aspirations for their future and the future of their children.

(Vanclay, 2003)

Table 3.2 demonstrates the broader scope of SIM by considering the direct and indirect issues resulting from activities. Expanding on the elements highlighted by Vanclay (2003); The Matrix of Human, Social, Environmental Rights and Benefit tool (Hornsby, 2012) assesses the extent an organisations activities affect the lives of beneficiaries. The matrix identifies core elements

in human development and the potential impact resulting for beneficiaries resulting from developing each element (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 – The Matrix of Human, Social, Environmental Rights and Benefit Tool	
Education and Family	Impacts advance beneficiary access to the right to education and the right to enjoy family life in a safe and supportive environment.
Employment	Impacts advance beneficiary access to the right to employment.
Housing and Essential Needs	Impacts advance beneficiary access to the right to housing within a healthy and sustainable environment, and the right to provisions.
Economic Factors	Impacts advance beneficiary access to rights to economic means and security.
Health	Impacts advance beneficiary access to the right to the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health.
High Risk Behaviour	Impacts help beneficiaries manage high risk behaviour. Including substance misuse, offending etc.
Care of Disabled and Older People	Impacts advance the access of disabled and older people to the right to a healthy and fulfilling life and the right to be as independently capable as possible.
Safety and Community	Impacts advance beneficiary access a sense of community, the right to personal safety and freedom from discrimination.
Arts, Sports and Culture	Impact advance beneficiary access to the right to participation in cultural life.
Information, Understanding, and Expression	Impacts advance beneficiary access to information and understanding regarding the issue under address, and access to the right to expression.

Table 3.3 – The Matrix of Human, Social, Environmental Rights and Benefit Tool	
Local Environment	Impact advance beneficiary access to the right to live in a healthy and sustainable local environment with adequate infrastructure and community space.
Well-Being	Impacts advance the right to well-being. Including confidence, satisfied, self-efficiency, connected etc.
Conservation and Biodiversity	Impact advances the conservation of natural and cultural heritage, natural ecosystems, and biodiversity.
Greenhouse Gas Emissions	Impacts serve to reduce global greenhouse gas emissions.
Consumption and Recycling	Impacts safeguard natural resources and promote environmentally responsible practices.

(Hornsby, 2012)

Each field in the matrix is assigned with a score (low, medium or high) to demonstrate the wider impact resulting from activities (Hornsby, 2012). Allocating scores for each field in the matrix allows for the identification of areas of development for beneficiaries; however, the meaning assigned is influenced on the scorer's ontological and epistemological beliefs and interpretation. For example, scorers from geographical areas linked with high levels of socio-economic deprivation may score differently to those from other geographical areas. This subjectivity of scores will limit the comparability of results. Another method for identifying measurement indicators at the individual, community and societal levels was developed by Big Capital Society (2013) in partnership with New Philanthropy Capital, the SROI Network, Triangle Consulting and Investing for Good. Table 3.4 represents the areas considered by the Big Capital Society (2013) for youth offending.

Table 3.4 – Big Society Capital Outcome Matrix		
Outcome	**Individual**	**Community and Society**
Employment and education	The person is in suitable employment, education, training or work	Jobs, education and training opportunities are available.
Housing and local facilities	The person has a suitable and secure place to live, affordable utilities and access to local facilities and transport	Investment and availability of different forms of tenure ensure that all housing needs can be met now and in the future.
Income and financial inclusion	The person has sufficient income to meet their essential needs and access to suitable financial products and services.	Everyone reaches an optimum level of income for health and well-being, and supports social cohesion.
Physical health	The person looks after their health. They recover as quickly as possible, or if recovery is not possible, their health and quality of life are maximised.	Good general physical health across the population.
Mental health and well-being	The person has a sense of well-being. Those who experience metal illness recover and lead a positive and fulfilling life even if symptoms remain.	Good mental well-being and life satisfaction across the population.
Family, friends and relationships	The person has a positive social network that provides love,	A society that support and encourages families and/or good personal relationships.

Table 3.4 – Big Society Capital Outcome Matrix		
	belonging and emotional practical support.	
Citizenship and community	The person lives in confidence and safety, and free from crime and disorder. The person acts as a responsible and active citizen and feels part of a community.	Stronger, active and more engaged communities.
Arts, heritage, sport and faith	The person finds meaning, enjoyment, self-expression and affiliation through informed participation in the arts, sport and/or faith.	A thriving cultural landscape with high levels of participation and engagement.
Conversation of the natural environment	The person has an appreciation of the natural environment and plays their part in protecting it, including reducing their carbon footprint.	The natural environment is protected for the benefit of people, plans, animals and habitats, today and in the future.

(Big Society Capital, 2013)

The six reasons for measuring the social impact in youth justice (impact on communities and individuals, the high cost of crime, potential to prevent harm, the influence of campaigning, the potential influence of sentencing and the reliance on public funding) identified by Nevill and Lumley (2011) compliment the previous discussions and highlight the importance of SIM on a wider scale. This relates to previous discussions on the current state of austerity, the proportion of crime and offending in England and Wales, and the sentencing of youth people in the criminal justice system. The indicators, proposed by Maguire (1995) in conjunctions with Vanclay (2003), Hornsby (2012) and the Big Capital Society (2013) contribute to the identification of measurement areas. The New Economics Foundation (NEF) (2007) recommended the use of nine questions in establishing the areas for measurement in projects and organisations. These questions aim to identify the purpose and objective of measuring

impact, the organisation's vision, the support available and timescales for measurement. The ideas proposed by NEF (2007) extend beyond simply establishing what to measure, with the identification of common principles for measuring impact. From this perspective, these questions act as a checklist for organisations developing SIM practices.

3.2.3 – How to measure?

The foundations for establishing effective measurement approaches rely on identifying the reasons for measurement and what to measure. Figure 3.1 illustrates a matrix for the key elements of the lead measurement frameworks in the field (See Appendix E for acronym meanings).

Figure 3.1 – Measurement by Scope and Stakeholder Engagement (n=28)

Impact Value Chain:
Output | Outcomes | Output/Outcome | Output/Outcome/Impact

Comprehensive

Limited

Low | High

A1 | A2 | C1 | C2
A3 | A4 | C4
B1 | B2
B3 | B4 | D3 | D4

SEBS | HIP | SIRA | LFF | IRIS | STAR
EFQM | MIAA
SIA | CBA | SROI
BCR | PCV | AII | OBR | SIMPLE | CCAT | SOT
AIA | APR | OIF | GRI | BPR | FCAT
LM3 | WAT
AP
AOAS
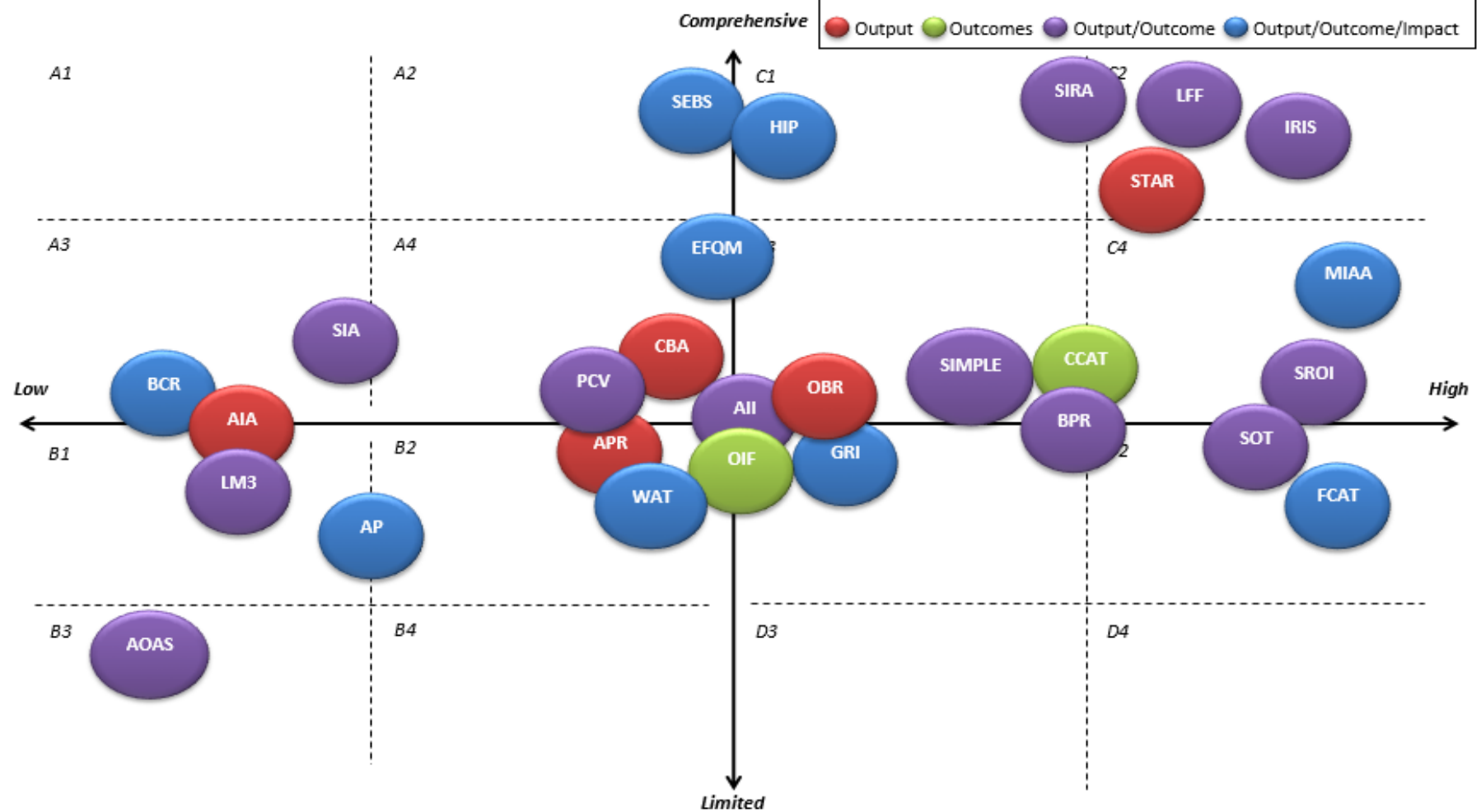
Key: Quadrant A = low-medium SE with comprehensive scope; Quadrant B = low-medium SE with limited scope Quadrant C = medium to high SE with comprehensive scope; Quadrant D = medium-high SE with limited scope. It is hypothesised that a balanced Social Impact Measurement would fit in quadrants C2, C3, C4 D1, D2 as this offers the best combination of SE and scope.

This figure identifies the scope of measurement tools (the factors explored by the measurement tool) and the level of stakeholder engagement (participation of stakeholders). The measurement tools in quadrant A1-B4 have low stakeholder engagement which is inappropriate for research focused on the active participation of stakeholders. While the measurement tools in C1, D3 and D4 have higher stakeholder engagement, the scope is either weighted to a comprehensive scope or limited scope. To achieve a balanced SIM, the measurement tools in quadrant C2, C3, C4, D1 and D2 offer the best combination of stakeholder engagement and scope. Three of the tools (SIMPLE, MIAA and SROI) identified within these quadrants are used in the research for the combination of stakeholder engagement and scope, as well as the opportunity they present for measuring social impact in youth offending interventions (outlines in Figure 3.7).

Exploring how SIM tools are currently used is central to developing effective approaches for measuring the impact of youth offending interventions. Research conducted by Ogain, Lumley and Prichard (2012:33-35) found that 84 percent of organisations collected output data as common practice; however, the collection of impact measurement data was less common. Instead, Ogain, Lumley and Prichard (2012) found that organisations focused on the design and implementation of case studies, satisfactions surveys and questionnaires to report the outcomes of activities. Establishing effective impact measurement approaches moves beyond the use of case studies, questionnaires and satisfaction surveys (Ogain, Lumley and Prichard, 2012). Stevenson et al. (2010) suggested the use of four questions in identifying the most suitable impact measurement method:

1. Why are you collecting the information? (Who are the audience for the information?)
2. What indicators and outcomes are central to the measurement?
3. What resources for measurement are currently available in the organisation?
4. How do you intend to minimize bias?

In establishing the most beneficial measurement approaches, Stevenson et al. (2010) suggested that a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods provide the most detailed information on impact measurement. Integrating qualitative and quantitative research allows the researcher to garner information on the factors affecting the research area and develop a quantitative research method of examining the factors identified. Existing

approaches to measuring social impact were explored by Substance (2012) as part of the Inspiring Impact collaborative programme. Substance (2012) identified 134 tools and systems, with exploration of the variance across sectors, with information on the type, format, sector, territory and cost of tools and systems. The 134 tools identified by Substance (2012) illustrate a proportion of the impact measurement tools available, with Hehenberger, Harling, and Scholten (2015) suggesting the existence of around 1,000 approaches. The variance with tools and systems highlights the difficulty in specifying the appropriate tools and systems to use for measuring impact in specific sectors.

Research exploring the use of SIM tools in specific sectors was conducted by Millar and Hall (2012) with focus on measurement tools in health and social care services. Millar and Hall (2012) completed survey and case study research with participants from social enterprises in health and wellbeing, social care, and social exclusion. Analysis of survey data found that 59 percent of social enterprises had existing SIM practices, with 33 percent in the planning stages. From those reporting the use of SIM, 40 percent developed internal tools and practices for measurement including: bottom-up engagement with users, case studies and service user forums. Table 3.5 indicates the use of measurement tools identified by respondents in Millar and Hall's (2012) survey:

Table 3.5 – The use of measurement tools (n=172)	
Measurement of social impact	**% of survey respondents**
Internal tools / systems	40
Social Return on Investment	30
Other	4
Not yet selected a tool	33
Do not measure social impact	8

(Millar and Hall, 2012)

In considering a research study conducted with CEDER, Stevenson et al. (2010) explored the use of SIM in the East of England. Stevenson et al. (2010) conducted interviews with 40

organisations (32 organisations with current SIM systems) and 10 organisation providing training on SIM in the East of England (Stevenson et al., 2010). The research found that 34.4 percent (11) of the organisations interviewed reported the development of customised approaches for measuring impact including: case stories demonstrating the direct and indirect effect of services on service users, and tailored performance indicators for the development of strategic objectives for identifying impact (Stevenson et al. 2010). The remaining organisations used a mixture of tools including SROI, which allocates a monetary value to service outcomes and Soft Outcome Universal Learning (SOUL Record), which measures the soft outcomes for children, young people and adults resulting from projects (Stevenson et al., 2010). From research conducted by Stevenson et al. (2010) and Millar and Hall (2012), organisations selected measurement tools appropriate for the mission, values, goals, service delivery and the availability of resources. From participant responses, Millar and Hall (2012) concluded that measurement tools are contextual and standardised tools limit an organisation's ability to understand wider related issues. Understanding the complexities of selecting impact measurement tools is important for ensuring that appropriate tools are selected for measuring impact in specific organisations.

The impact measurement tools and systems explored by Millar and Hall (2012), Stevenson et al. (2010) and Substance (2012) are only a proportion of the tools and systems that exist. From research, the genuine ability of tools and approaches to measure social impact was difficult to ascertain. Can the tools identified assess meaningful outcomes and impact? The existence of genuine impact measurement tools and practices was explored in research conducted by Wilkes and Mullins (2012) on 34 housing organisations, finding that:

- 35 percent adopted internally developed measurement tools,
- 41 percent adopted externally developed measurement tools,
- 9 percent adopted a mixture of internally/externally developed measurement tools,
- 15 percent do not currently use any tools.

Wilkes and Mullins (2012) found that comparing tools and identifying strengths and weakness was difficult as a result of variations in the nature and application of tools by organisations (Wilkes and Mullins, 2012). This research found that the organisational needs influence the use of impact measurement tools, with some organisations adopting impact measurement

tools to assess overall performance and others to assess specific projects (Wilkes and Mullins, 2012). This research project also identified variations in data collection; with some organisations collecting data at the micro level to assess the impact of projects while others collected data at the organisation or community level (Wilkes and Mullins, 2012).

Research suggests that the SIM tools selected are dependent on the organisation and context of measurement. Establishing a shared approach to SIM received consideration in literature, with researcher's considering the challenge in developing shared measures in such diverse organisations. Wilkes and Mullins (2012) found that research participants were motivated in the development of joint impact measurement indicators; however, the actual implementation of such indicators was limited. The idea of shared outcome indicators was discussed by the NEF (2007) in research with 18 organisations. NEF (2007) found that shared learning, collaboration and networking would result from the development of shared impact measurement indicators. Developing shared impact measurement practices has benefits in enabling wider access to measurement practices and tools for organisations with limited knowledge or experience in measuring impact. The development of shared impact measures has benefits for organisations; however, Wadia and Parkinson (2011) highlight the benefits to organisations establishing a process for planning and assessing impact independently. This allows organisations to identify and assess impact relevant to activities, rather than simply assessing non-specific standard impact measures. Wilkes and Mullins' (2012) research with housing organisations identified the difficulties in measuring outcomes with generic tools developed for measuring any activity including measuring the impact of specific activities. Overcoming such difficulties relies on organisations developing customised practices for measuring a diverse range of outcomes (Wilkes and Millar, 2012).

In the field of youth justice, introducing SIM to measure the effect and success of youth offending interventions are predicated on developing effective frameworks. Nevill and Lumley (2011) highlight the following key questions in developing SIM frameworks:

(1) What is the outcome to be measured? Do organisations in the sector agree on a single outcome or set of outcome measurements?

(2) How is that outcome defined? Has it been defined by a measurement tool or set of criteria?

(3) How should the outcome be captured? Are the right systems in place for capturing information?

(4) How can outcome be attributed to an intervention? Can organisations explain what would have happened without interventions?

(5) How can outcomes be valued?

The implementation of specific questions supports the development of effective SIM frameworks; however, challenges for developing measurement frameworks require consideration. Nevill and Lumley (2011) highlight two key challenges that exist in measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions. This first challenge surrounds identifying the outcomes and successfully attributing them to specific interventions (Nevill and Lumley, 2011). The second challenge surrounds tracking children and young people to collect data, a challenge that could be minimised by exploring existing longitudinal research. For example by exploring the methodological approach used in the Edinburgh Study of Youth Transition and Crime (Smith and McVie, 2003; McAra and McVie, 2010). Recommendations for minimising the impact of challenges were explored by Nevill and Lumley (2011) including: maintaining a database; engaging young people in the research process; explaining to young people that any data provided is confidential; and tracking young people or selecting a cohort if resources are limited (Nevill and Lumley, 2011). The implementation of recommendations can support in reducing the challenges to measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions and support the development of a suitable SIM framework.

3.3 – Measuring Social Impact (History and Foundations)

Modern scientific methods originated in the Seventeenth Century Europe, with the influential research conducted by Copernicus, Brahe, Kepler, Galileo, Descartes and Newton (Betz, 2011). Developments in research from Copernicus to Newton, resulted in the origins of *empirically grounded theory with:*

1. A scientific model that could be verified by observation (Copernicus),

2. Precise instrumental observations to verify the model (Brahe),

3. Theoretical analysis of experimental data (Kepler),

4. Scientific laws generalised from experiment (Galileo),

5. Mathematics to quantitatively express theoretical ideas (Descartes and Newton),

6. Theoretical derivation of an experimentally verifiable model (Newton).

(Betz, 2011)

Developments in the scientific method provide the foundation for modern scientific enquiry, with emphasis on observation, theoretical analysis, statistical analysis and empirical verification. Explicit attention on measuring social impact dates back to the 1970s; however, the fundamental ideas date back to the Renaissance era with the fundamental notions of an ordered universe (Hornsby, 2012). The historical foundations of SIM have been revisited over the past decade, with the government focusing on establishing effective measurement practices (Hornsby, 2012). According to Hornsby (2012), SIM and reporting relies on addressing two explicit questions:

- Understanding and describing the organisations process – *How is the social impact achieved?*

- Reporting of the organisation's results – *What are the kinds of social impacts being generated, and on what scale?*

Essential elements of SIM start with establishing the organisational impact chain. Hornsby (2012) highlighted the basic impact chain for organisations (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2 – Basic Impact Chain

Organisation → Activities → Output → Outcomes
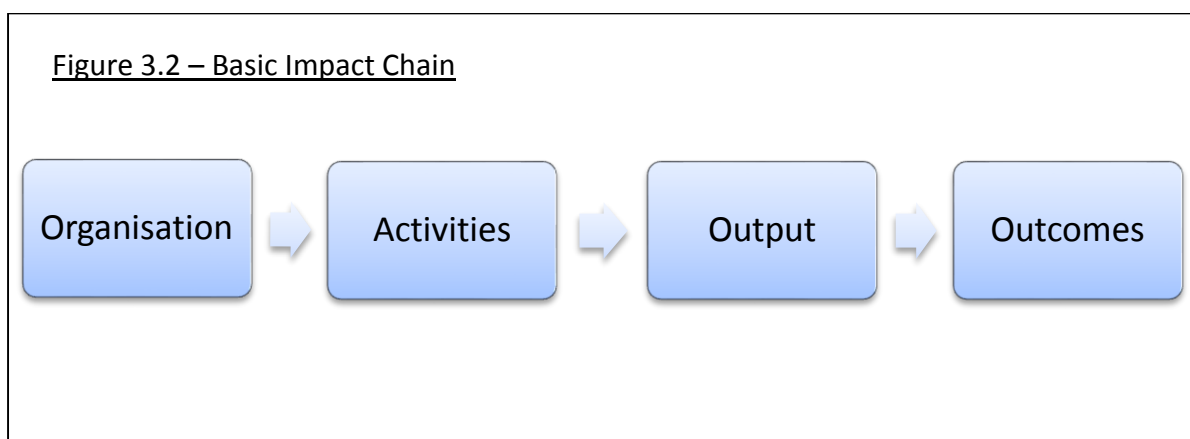
This basic impact chain provides the foundations for logic models, which are essential for understanding an individual or groups' understanding of the programs direction (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). The use of logic models dates back to the 1970s, with the U.S. Agency for International Development establishing a logical framework approach in 1971 followed by

Claude Bennetts hierarchy of program effectiveness in 1976 (cited in Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). The promotion and recognition of logical models continued with the United Way of America publication in 1996 on Measuring Program Outcomes and W.K. Kellogg Foundation publication in 2001 on the Logic Model Development Guide (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). Knowlton and Phillips (2013) identified seven important reasons for establishing logic models:

1. Developing common language among stakeholders,
2. Offers highly participatory learning opportunities,
3. Documenting and emphasising explicit outcomes,
4. Clarifying knowledge about effective approaches and why,
5. Identifying important variables to measure and enable effective use of evaluation resources,
6. Providing a credible reporting framework,
7. Leading to improved design, planning and management.

Establishing a coherent (i.e. strong associations between links in the chain) and reasonable (i.e. the results and outcomes are reasonably attributed to preceding links in the chain) logic model is important for establishing the overall direction of measurement. Once a coherent and reasonable logical model is identified, focus on the individual elements in terms of measurement (Hornsby, 2012). Two important logical models for consideration include the theory of change and program logic models (Table 3.6). The theory of change logic model offers organisations the opportunity to develop a general representation of how they believe a change may occur (Hornsby, 2012). Expanding on the logic model, the program logic model offers organisations the opportunity to develop the details on resources, planned activities and their outputs and outcomes over time that reflects intended results (Hornsby, 2012).

Table 3.6 – Features of Theory of Change and Program Logic Models		
Feature	**Theory of Change**	**Program**
Timeframe	No time	Time bound
Level of detail	Low	High
Elements	Few (Do – Get)	Many
Primary display	Graphics	Graphics and text
Focus	Generic	Targets and specific

(Knowlton and Philips, 2013)

Theory of change models are grounded in plausible evidence, experiences and literature to establish a wider understanding of the strategies to generate intended results (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). The basic theory of change logic model contains two elements (Figure 3.3).

Figure 3.3 – Theory of Change Logic Model
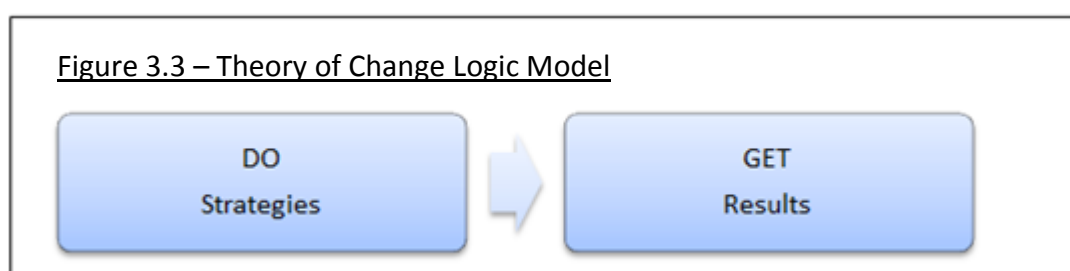
The strategies reflect the choice of actions required to secure intended results. This level represents the allocation of resources, which allow the organisation to provide services. The results reflect the short, intermediate and long term effects resulting from strategies. Figure 3.3 represents a basic theory of change model; however, the majority of programs have multiple strategies that contribute to results (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4 – Theory of Change Logic Model (Strategies)

DO

Strategies One

Strategy Two

Strategy Three

Strategy Four

GET
Results
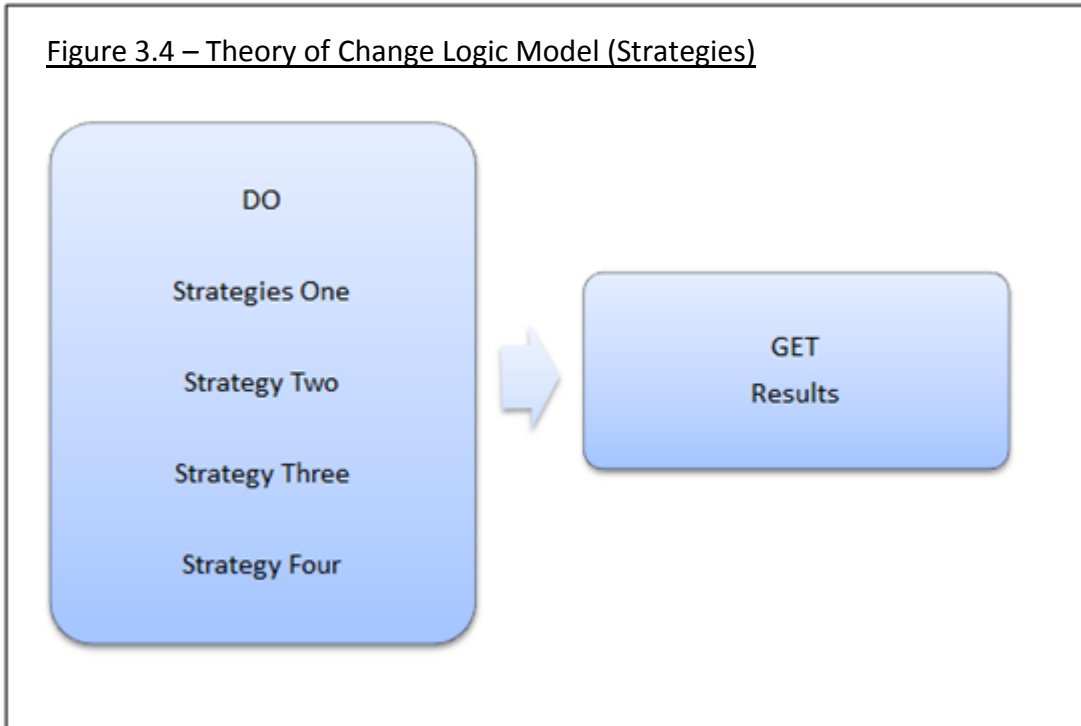
Developing a theory of change model relies on specifying the intended results, followed by identifying the strategies required to achieve the results. The focus on *intended* results with theory of change models limits the opportunity to capture *unintended* results, which proves pertinent in developing SIM practices, as discussed in section 3.1. The steps to generating a theory of change logic model were identified by Knowlton and Phillips (2013) (Figure 5):

1. Identify desired results,
2. Name the strategies required to deliver intended results,
3. Define the assumptions that support the specified strategies.

Figure 3.5 – Theory of Change Logic Model (Steps)

Step 3 – Define underlying Assumptions

DO
Strategies

GET
Results

Step 2 – Name Strategies

Step 1 – Identifying Results
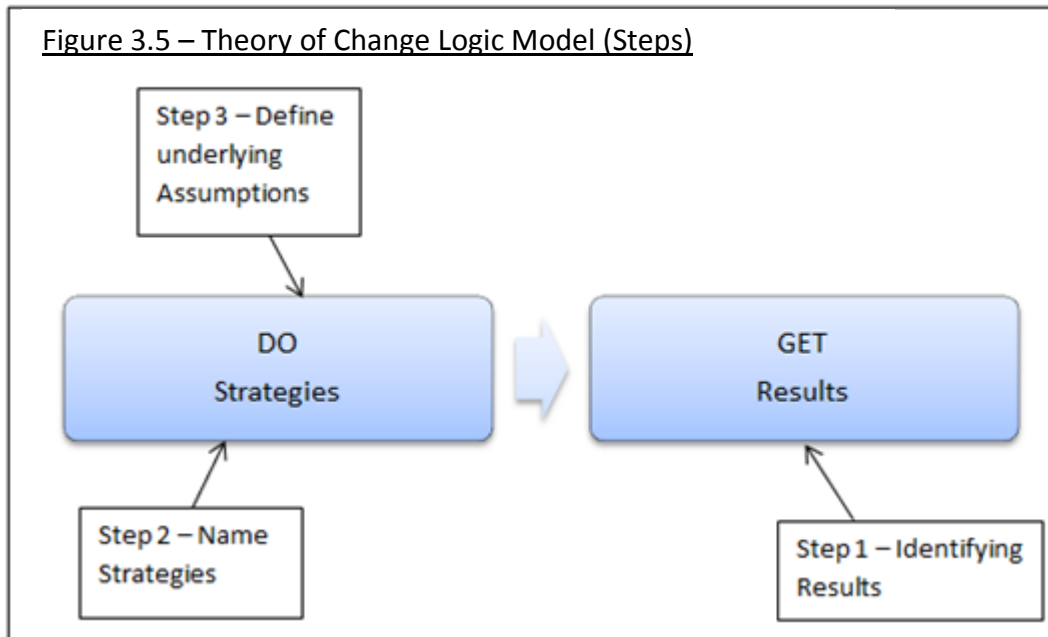
In establishing a theory of change logic model, identifying the beliefs, assumptions and knowledge of developers is pertinent. The strategies selected are rooted in assumptions, which result from the knowledge acquired through research, practice, experience and theory (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). For example, if you have access to specific resources then you can accomplish activities. Figure 3.6 represents the contribution of knowledge, beliefs and assumptions on theory of change logic models.

Figure 3.6 – Theory of Change Logic Model - Assumptions

KNOWLEDGE

Research

Practice

Theory

BELIEF
Assumptions

DO
Strategies

GET
Results
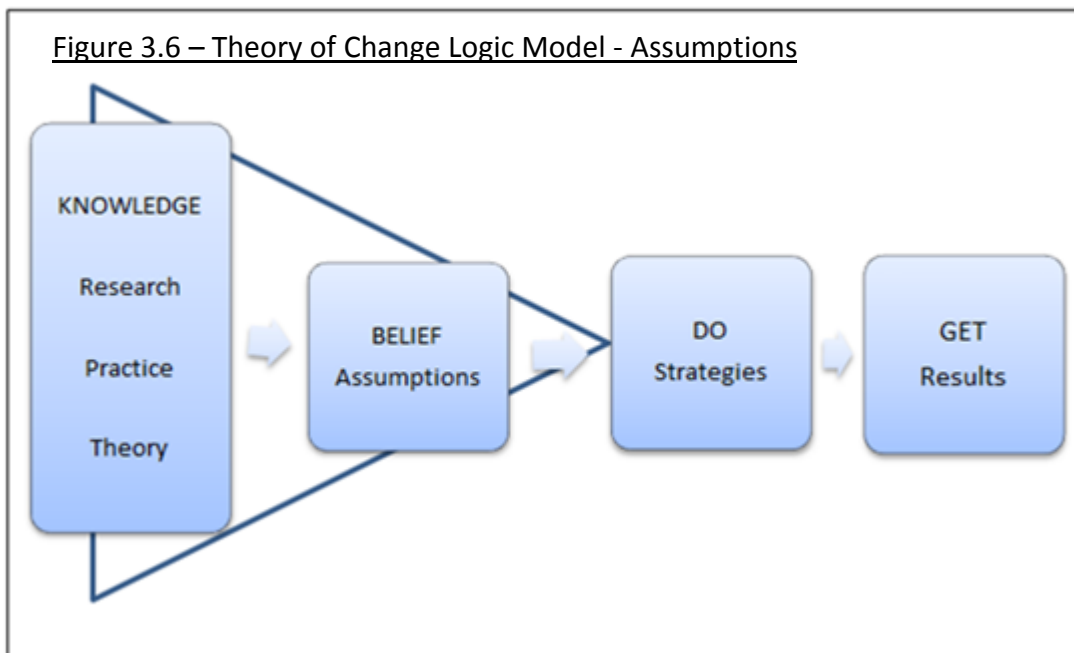
The knowledge, beliefs and assumptions provide the foundations and direction of theory of change logic models. Considering the foundations and direction are important for reviewing

and developing the model. Knowlton and Phillips (2013) highlighted five guiding questions for reviewing a theory of change model:

1. Are the results specified with shared meaning among stakeholders?

2. Did we uncover our assumption and carefully examine research, practice and theory as the grounding for our choices in strategies?

3. Did we 'toggle' between strategies and results to ensure plausibility given our assets and limitations? (Toggling is finding the optimal fit between a selected set of strategies and optimal / plausible results).

4. Have we carefully reviewed similar programs to learn what strategies worked under what conditions to secure results?

5. Does the model clearly show the relationship of strategies to result?

Realistically, theory of change models represent changes that occur iteratively with multiple interactions of features (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). For example, the strategies selected by the organisation for service delivery, will interact and interconnect to provide results.

The theory of change logic model demonstrates the direction of impact from the foundation level. This foundation provides the building blocks for developing a program logic model, as represented in Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7 – Foundations for Program Logic Models
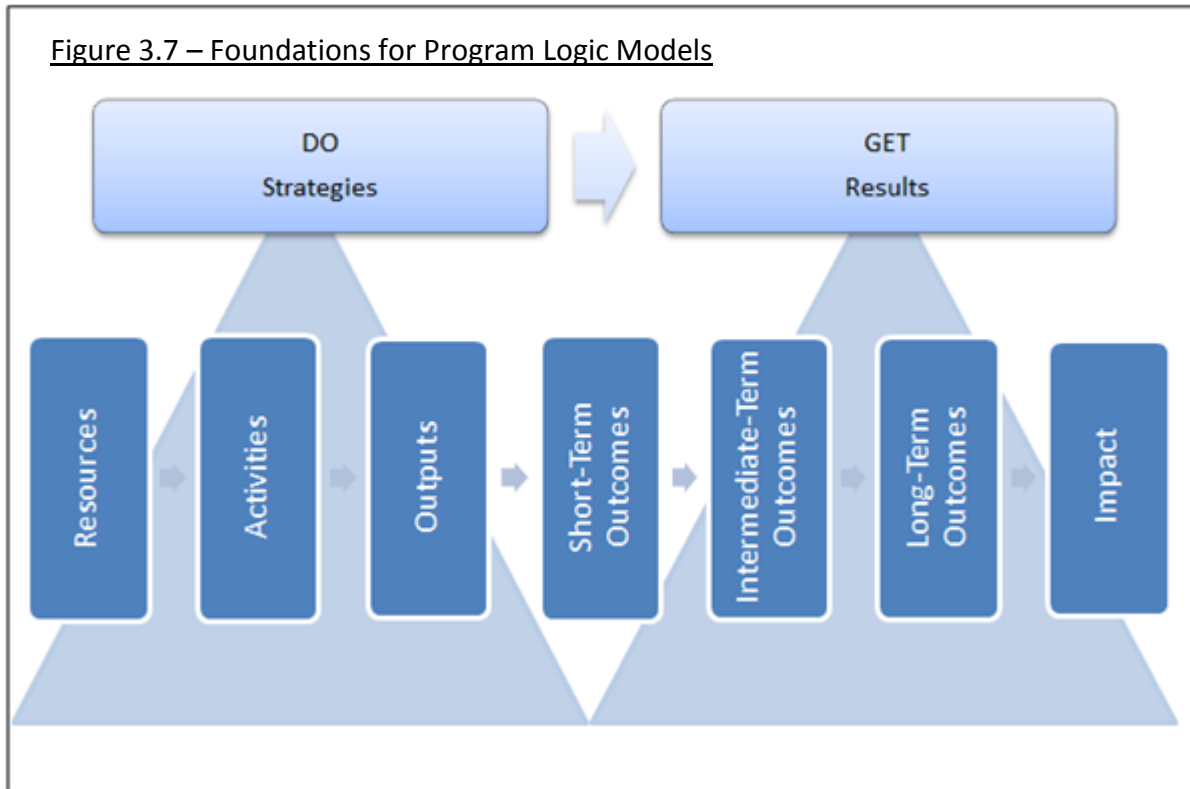
The strategies in theory of change models reflect the resources, activities and outputs required to achieve the results, which, reflect the sequence of outcomes from short-term to wider impact. Program logic models reflect the elements contained in ideas or programs from the initial concept to the results (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). As with theory of change logic models; identifying the beliefs, assumptions and knowledge base for program logic models is important. The absence of explicit assumptions with program logic models indicates variations in knowledge, beliefs and understanding (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). With program logic models, Knowlton and Philips (2013) describe impact in terms of the *intended* changes resulting from the programs delivered by the organisation. The focus on *intended* changes and consequences removes the opportunity for organisations to consider the *unintended* consequences resulting from the delivery of programs. By developing the program logic model to consider the unintended consequences with an equal weight to the intended consequences, the organisation has the opportunity to identify the effective and ineffective features of programs. This will allow organisations to improve program delivery and develop sustainable programs.

The key steps to generating a program logic model were identified by Knowlton and Phillips (2013) as:

1. Identify the results that one or more strategies will generate,
2. Describe the stepwise series of outcomes (changes) that will show progress towards impact,
3. Name all the activities needed to generate the outcomes,
4. Define the resources/inputs that link directly to the 'supply' of activity,
5. Identify the outputs that reflect the accomplishment of activities.

Adapting the logic model process to consider the intended and unintended consequences is important in developing effective SIM approaches (See Figure 3.8). Examination of literature and research found that logic models are inherent in forming SIM frameworks including the Social Impact for the Local Economy (SIMPLE) and the European Commission's GECES Framework.

Figure 3.8 – Intended and Unintended Consequences (Program logic Model)
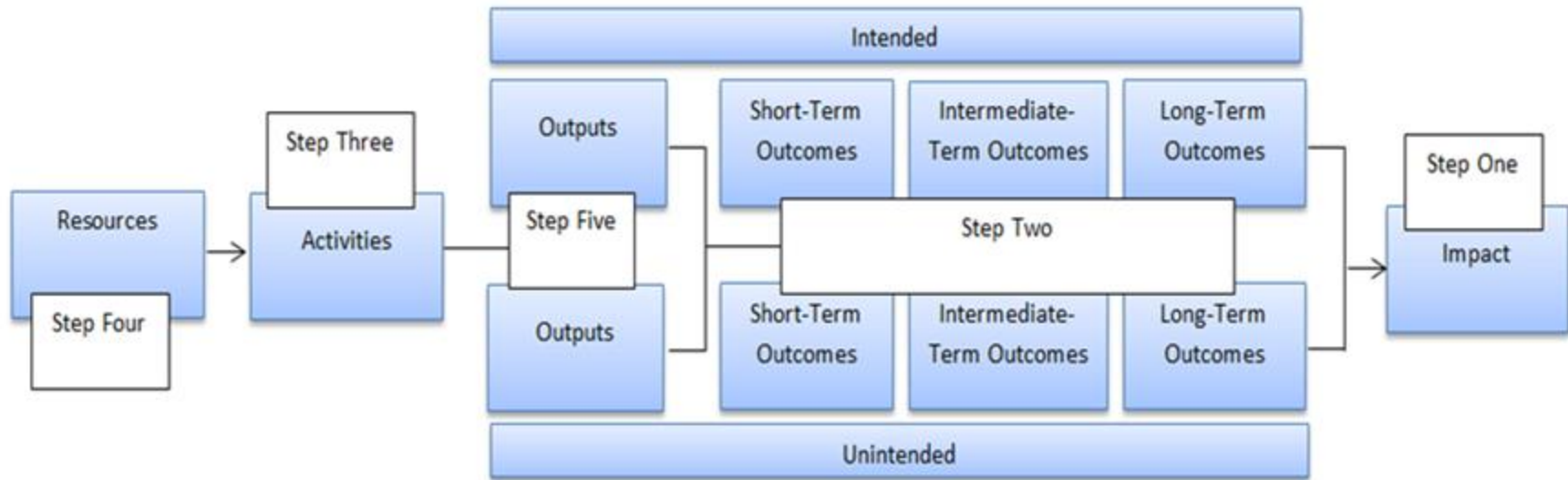
3.4 – Framework

An extensive number of impact measurement frameworks and approaches exist, with Hehenberger et al. (2013) identifying the existence of approximately 1,000 approaches for measuring impact. The existing approaches for measuring social impact differ in sector, format, territory (national or interactions) and value application (Substance, 2012). For the purpose of developing a robust SIM framework for youth offending interventions, this research will focus on the best practice framework introduced by the European Commission's GECES Framework (2014) (Clifford et al., 2014) with consideration of:

- Social Impact for the Local Economy (SIMPLE) (2009) (McLoughlin et al., 2009)
- Methodology for Impact Analysis and Assessment (MIAA) (2012) (Hornsby, 2012)
- Social Return on Investment (SROI) Framework (2012) (Nicholls et al., 2012)

The reason for selecting the GECES (Clifford et al., 2014) framework and specific approaches is reflected in the opportunity presented for measuring social impact in youth offending interventions (See Table 3.7 for descriptions of framework and approaches).

Table 3.7 – Social Impact Measurement Tools	
SIMPLE	This approach established a holistic and flexible approach, identify a five step approach to 'Social Impact for the Local Economy': conceptualising the impact problems (SCOPE IT), identifying and prioritising the measurement process (MAP IT), develop appropriate impact measures (TRACK IT), reporting impacts (TELL IT) and embedding the results (EMBED IT) (McLoughlin et al., 2009).
MIAA	This approach was developed in response to the increased focus on measuring social impact. Hornsby (2012) emphasised three distinct phases (or section) for determining social impact: mission-fulfilment, beneficiary perspective and wider impact.
SROI	Social Return on Investment is an internationally recognised tool designed to understand, identify and report on the social, environmental and economic value resulting from an organisations activities (Millar and Hall, 2012). Employing this technique results in the development of monetised social value, for example, a ratio of 5:1 indicates that an investment of £1 delivers £5 of social value (Millar and Hall, 2012). SROI = Net Present Value of Benefits / Net Present Value of Investments
GECES	The European Commission sub-group was established in 2012 to explore the methodology for social impact measurement. The sub-group found that measuring social impact varies for organisations; therefore, developing a generic set of indicators would limit the measurement of impact (Clifford et al., 2014). By considering this important factor, the sub-group aimed to develop a standard for impact measurement to balance the requirements of funders, investors and policy-makers (Clifford et al., 2014).

Each approach contains a systematic and logical process, with focus on introducing a logic model grounded in plausible evidence, experiences and literature to establish an effective approach to measuring social impact (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). The development of approaches underpinned by a logical process is central to establishing a common process for measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions. Theory of change and program

logic models are grounded in plausible evidence, experiences and literature to establish a wider understanding of the strategies to generate intended results (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). The SIMPLE (2009) approach supports organisations to understand the positive contribution of activities on society by combining outcome assessment with internal strategic reviews. By adopting a holistic approach to SIM, SIMPLE offers organisations an accessible and robust process. Nevill and Lumley (2011) highlight the important of developing holistic approaches to measuring youth offending by considering life satisfaction, confidence, strengthened family relations, educational attainment and reduced substance misuse. For developing an accessible, robust and holistic approach to SIM for youth offending interventions, considering the SIMPLE approach is important. Similarly, the MIAA framework (2012) offers a holistic approach with a series of indicators and scorecards introduced to examine the social impact resulting from activities or interventions. In developing detailed indicators and score cards, MIAA acknowledges the use of The Matrix of Human, Social, Environmental Rights and Benefit tool as discussed in Section 3.2.2. This approach is important for developing SIM for youth offending interventions by recognising the impact indicators important for children and young people (as highlighted in the *Positive For Youth* paper). Exploring and identifying indicators and mechanisms for scoring indicators is important; however, with the Government's focus on public spending, considering indicators from a financial perspective is important. The SROI approach/model offers a detailed process opportunity for applying monetary value to indicators. This allows organisations to understand, identify and report on the social, environmental and economic value resulting from activities.

Considering the wider benefits in developing a robust SIM framework (or approach) for youth offending interventions was important for the research conducted. Acknowledging the Clifford et al. (2014) standard is important for developing a SIM tool with applications both nationally and internationally. By developing a SIM framework for youth offending interventions that adheres to the common process introduced by Clifford et al. (2014), the framework has the opportunity for application to youth offending interventions on a wider scale. The thesis has adopted the five stage approach recommended by Clifford et al. (2014) in conjunction with McLoughlin et al. (2009), Hornsby (2012) and Nicholls et al. (2012) the

researcher has the opportunity to explore, enhance and combine different methods for measuring social impact (See Figure 3.9).

Figure 3.9 – Five Stages (Clifford et al., 2014)
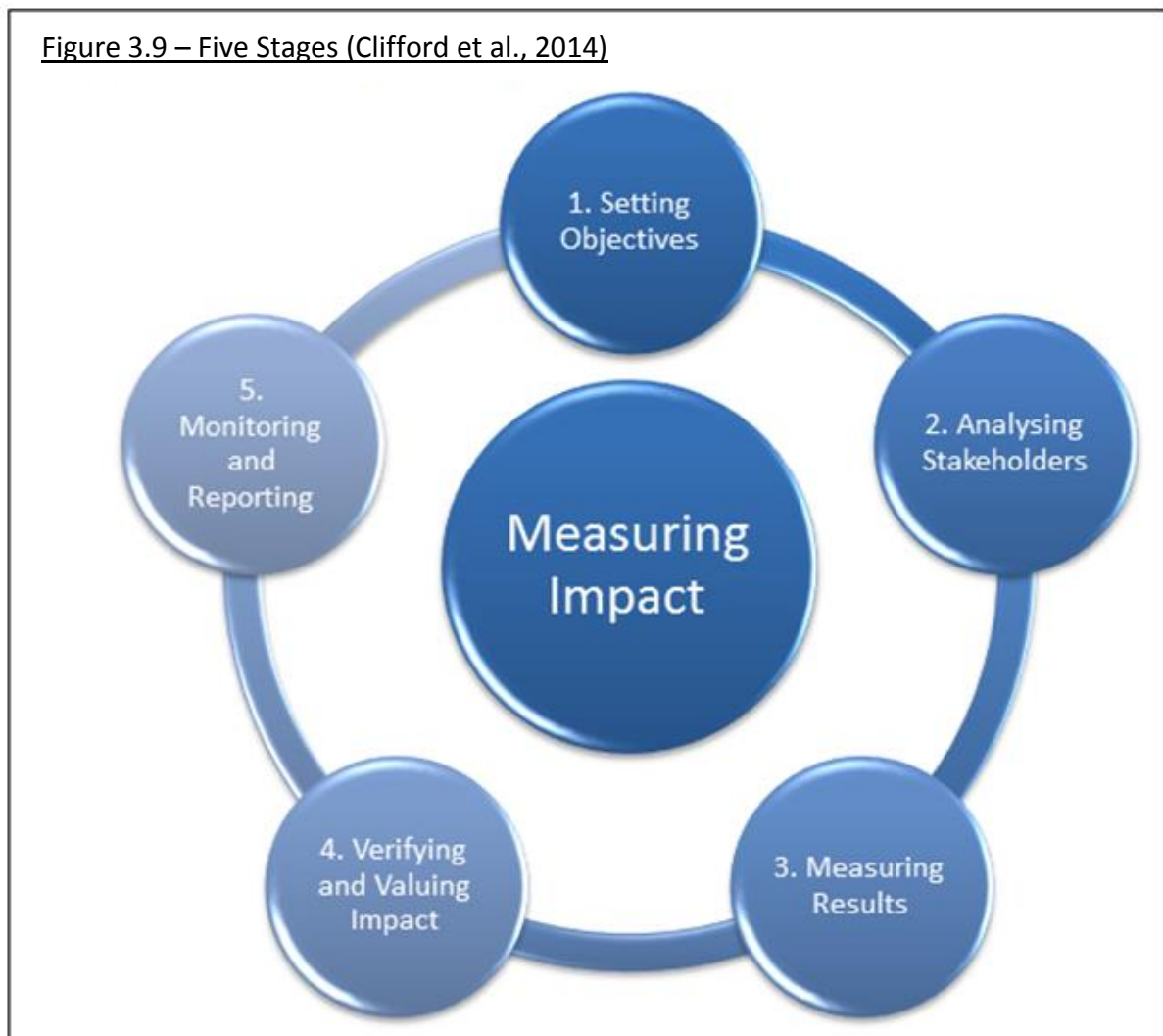
The framework introduced by Clifford et al. (2014:3) emphasises the importance of collaborating with the stakeholders to ensure a *"balance is achieved and maintained between the overriding need to deliver measurable social impact as against the need for a profitable operation that can meet investor expectations"*

3.4.1 – Setting Objectives

Identifying and setting the objectives for measuring impact is central in establishing the services targets, outcomes, activities and theory of change. Considering the mission, values and objectives of organisations upfront is important for accurately approaching the

proceeding stages. Acknowledging the ontological and epistemological foundations of the methodological approach and the analyst's interpretation is the first important element for identifying and setting objectives. Thus, acknowledging the researcher's presence and the unique nature of the area of measurement is important for developing a consistent and logical approach to measurement. For example, the first STC was established in 1998 for children and young people ages 12 to 14 years-old receiving Secure Training Orders. The STS's were underpinned by notions of control and security; however, developments in the embedding stages resulted in recognition of the vulnerabilities for children and young people (Hagell and Hazel, 2001). This increased the age of children and young people accommodated, marking a theoretical shift from notions of security and control to a 'child-focused' treatment model as discussed in section 2.2 (Hagell and Hazel, 2001). Establishing the notions underpinning current STCs (mission, objectives, principles and assumptions) is important in developing an appropriate SIM tool. Do current STCs deliver a child centred approach? What are the notions and principles of the STC? Adopting a logical approach from the outset allows the researcher to examine the assumptions, expectations and background of STCs and the interventions delivered. Understanding the assumptions, knowledge and background allows the researcher to create a detailed logical model for the proceedings stages in developing a sustainable and effective SIM approach. Understanding the ontological and epistemological foundations of STCs is central to establishing the areas of measurement. Examining the organisation's mission and values allows the researcher to understand the STCs foundations and the direction of services and interventions. Identifying the stated mission and values is important; however, acknowledging that the actual ethos of the STC may differ is equally important and requires consideration. McLoughlin et al. (2009) highlighted the benefit of considering the key impact drivers at the initial stage of the SIMPLE process:

- What is the STC for?
- Who is the STC serving?
- Who should STCs serve?

These questions explore the mission, principles and direction of STCs in order to identify the intended impact from delivering this service. Interviewing staff, children and young people will help aid understanding of the purpose, values and principles of the STC. The organisation's intended impact illustrates the direction of the organisation's resources,

influencing the stakeholder's analysis and the impact measurement selection (McLoughlin et al., 2009). For example, STCs moved from notions of security and control to notions of welfare; however, do current mission statements and principles support this move? Do the current demographics of children and young people in STCs reflect the mission statements and principles? Hornsby (2012) developed the idea proposed by McLoughlin et al. (2009) to consider the extent that mission is fulfilled by activities and operations associated with the organisation. The following question is essential to mission fulfilment: *is the organisation fulfilling its mission in a meaningful, well-evidenced, and effective fashion?* (Hornsby, 2012:81).

Assessing mission fulfilment is divided into five sections: examining the mission statement, contextualising and focusing on the organisation's activities, identifying the impact from activities, reporting results and moving forward. Implementing the approach proposed by McLoughlin et al. (2010) and Hornsby (2012) is important in exploring the SIM in STCs. From assessing the organisations purpose, principles and values, the researcher has the opportunity to understand the introduction of interventions and services in the STC.

3.4.2 – Analysing Stakeholders

Identifying stakeholders forms the foundations for understanding the outcomes and indicators that require analysis. Clifford et al. (2014) suggests the importance of considering who gains and who gives what and how in identifying stakeholders. The SIM approaches examined illustrate the benefits of investigating the impact from the stakeholder's perspective, specifically relating to the value attributed to change (Hornsby, 2012). In STCs, this idea is reflected by addressing what change has resulted from the intervention or service and what value is assigned to the change?

This idea was further explored by Hornsby (2012) with emphasis on understanding the beneficiary perspective. The beneficiary perspective investigates impact from the perspective of beneficiaries, specifically relating to the value attributed to change (Hornsby, 2012). In

STCs, this idea is reflected by addressing what change has resulted from the intervention or service and what value is assigned to the change? The importance of engaging stakeholders and beneficiaries is further examined by Bradly and Bolas (2013). In conducting SROI analysis, Bradly and Bolas (2013) conducted interviews with young people to assess the impact from substance misuse work. These interviews identified a wealth of changes resulting from substance misuse including: reduction in drinking alcohol, feeling better about self, feeling fresher and feeling like doing more in life. Figure 3.10 illustrates an example theory of change for young offenders.

Figure 3.10 – Young Offenders – Theory of Change (Example)
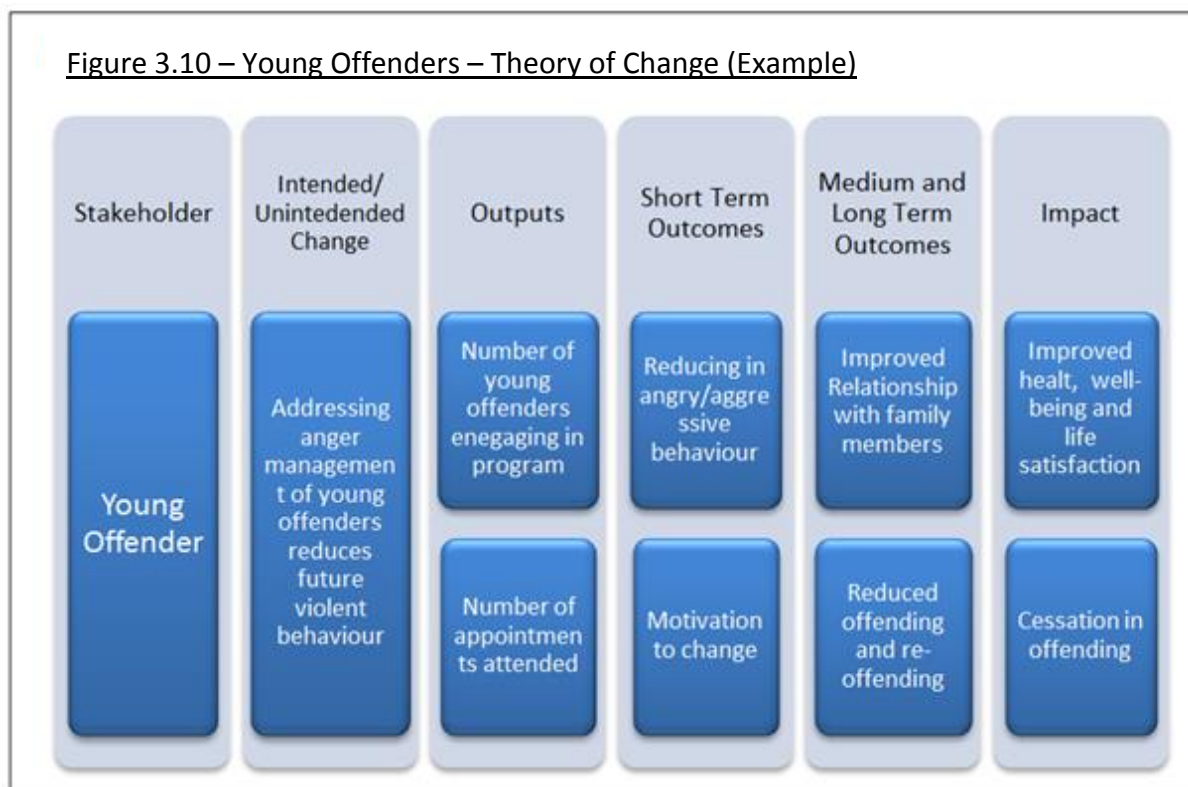
 Establishing the relevance of outcomes identified from stakeholder engagement is central to ensuring the inclusion of material outcomes. The SROI guidance defines materiality by suggesting that *"information is material if its omission has the potential to affect the readers' or stakeholders decisions"* (Bradly and Bolas, 2013:12). From this perspective, Bradly and Bolas (2013) suggests that outcomes have relevance if:

- Policies that require it or perversely block it and the intervention can deliver it;
- Stakeholders who express need for it and the intervention can deliver it;
- Others have demonstrated the value of it and intervention can deliver it;

- Social norms that demand it and the intervention can deliver it; and
- Financial impacts that make it desirable and the intervention can deliver it.

In the GECES framework, Clifford et al. (2014) identified the benefits for engaging with stakeholders, for both the organisations and the stakeholder (Figure 3.11).

Figure 3.11 – Benefits of SIM Stages on Stakeholders
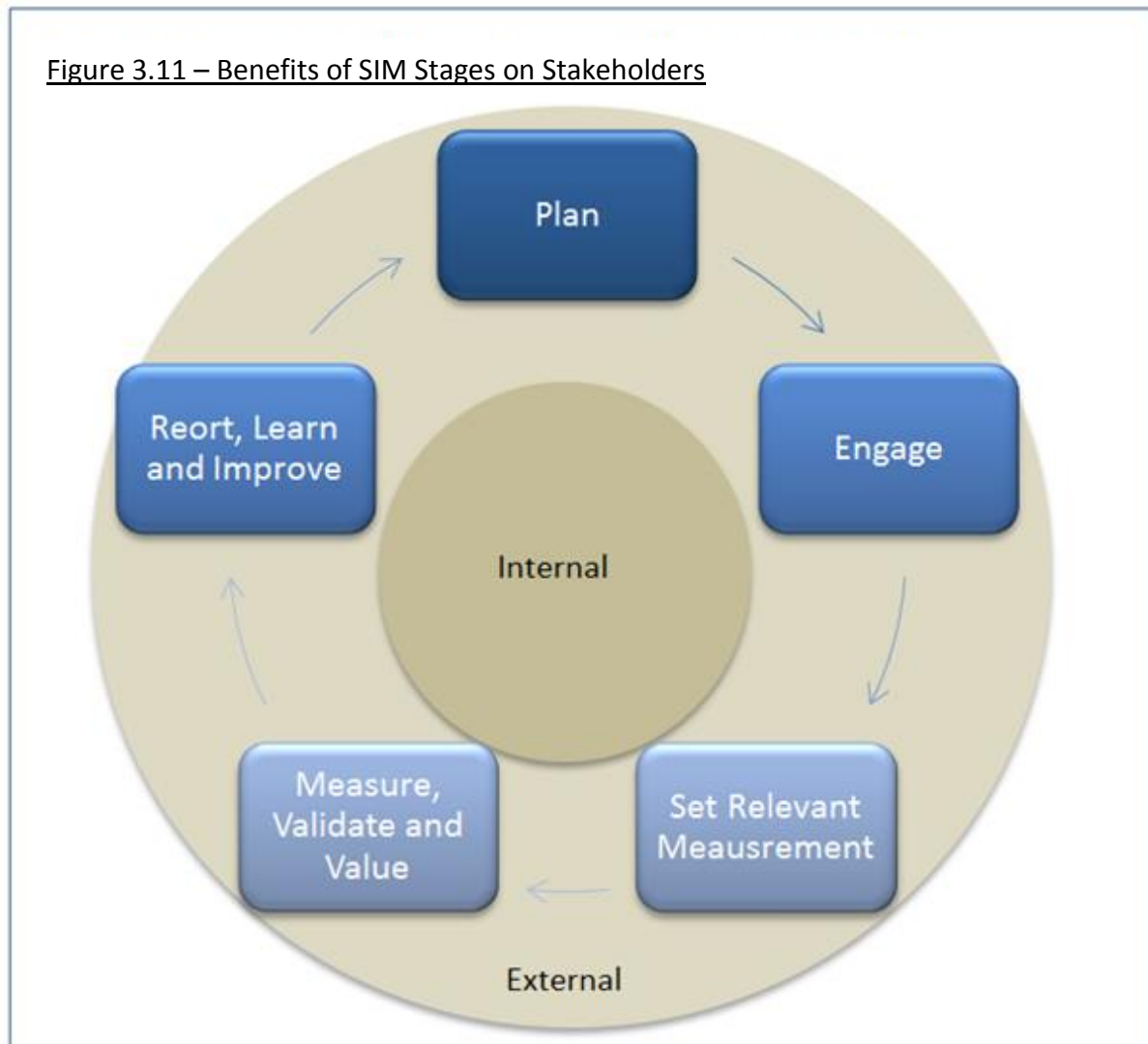
Each stage in the process is geared towards supporting stakeholders to understand the: purpose of the service, benefit of the service on an individual level, planned interventions and the outcomes/impact resulting from interventions, desired outcomes and communication of findings.

3.4.3 – Measuring Results

The exploration of logic models in Section 2.3 forms the basis for identifying the links between outputs, outcomes and impact. This approach was adopted by McLoughlin et al. (2009) with the logic model approach adopted in establishing the key components of the SIMPLE model:

- Activities – what are the products, projects or processes that all your activities to need fulfil objectives?
- Outputs – what is produced as a direct result of these actions? Generally depicting completion of activity (e.g. 15 participants completed the training programme).
- Outcomes – what benefit or change is accomplished, in the short-term, as a direct result of the output?
- Impacts – what your organisation is able to achieve over the long-term as a result of combined outcomes?

These components illustrate the core requirements for developing a logic model, reflected in the methodological approaches and frameworks suggested by Hornsby (2012) and Clifford et al. (2014). Introducing a logic approach to measuring the impact of custody on children and young people allows for the development of a clear framework for measurement. For example, exploring the youth offending interventions and activities offered by the STC is central to identifying the measurement indicators. Establishing indicators, allows the researcher to identify: How the service or activity achieve outcomes or impact? What links from the service or activity to the impact (theory of change)? (Clifford et al., 2014). McLoughlin et al. (2009) recommended the development of key impact information (KII), with a focus on Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time bound (S.M.A.R.T) targets and benchmarking in measuring impact (McLoughlin et al., 2009). On developing a SIM framework, each element requires key impact information (KII) or key performance indicators (KPI) based on the key areas identified by children, young people and staff participating in the research. Introducing an appropriate logic model is important in developing a consistent approach to SIM. Adapting the logic models examined in section 3.4 to consider the intended and unintended consequences has the opportunity to enhance consistency across organisations.

Consistency was explored by Clifford et al. (2014) with requirements for consistency and common practice promoted in the common characteristics for measurement reporting:

1) Clear explanation for the measurement process applied,

2) Clear explanation for the interventions outcomes and effects including explanations for deadweight, displacement, attribution and drop-off,

3) Explanations of how activities achieve outcomes and impacts (theory of change, or hypothesis),

4) Identification of any contributions from third parties (alternative attribution),

5) Recognition of the stakeholders with interests in the organisation SIM.

6) Clearly explained and proportion indicators for the identification of impacts.

7) Explanations of the financial and social risk, if necessary, with information on the expected impact.

Once the scope of measurement and stakeholders are identified, the focus shifts to building an impact map. In SROI, Nicholls et al. (2012) recommend the use of theory of change logic models in the mapping stage; however, program logic models offer more in-depth representation of the relationships between stages. Developing a SIM framework is reliant on identifying logical approaches to measuring change. McLoughlin et al. (2009), Hornsby (2012), Nicholls et al. (2012) and Clifford et al. (2014) identify the benefits logic models in developing frameworks; however, there is opportunity to develop this further. To establish a consistent approach to measuring the impact of custody on children and young people, identifying a specific measurement framework is paramount. Bearing this in mind, the researcher has developed a logic approach, which aims to address the issues identified with other approaches (Figure 3.12). This approach illustrates the importance of considering the foundations for measuring impact (assumptions, mission, external and internal drivers), the intended and unintended outcomes, deadweight, drop-off and alternative attribution.

Figure 3.12 – Social Impact Measurement Framework

| Knowledge and Assumptions | Resources | Activities |

Intended

Outputs

Short-Term Outcomes | Intermediate-Term Outcomes | Long-Term Outcomes

Outputs

Short-Term Outcomes | Intermediate-Term Outcomes | Long-Term Outcomes

Unintended

Attribution

Distribution

Deadweight

Drop-off
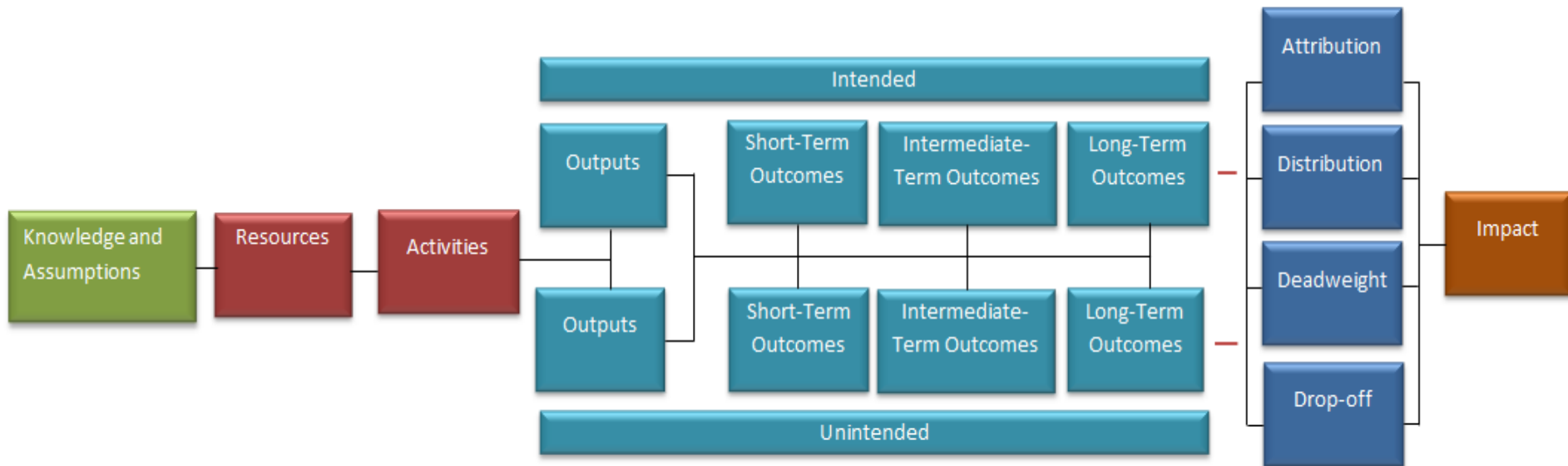
Impact

Developing outcome indicators and the period of time that outcomes last are identified through stakeholder engagement; however the process of assigning value relies on the identification of appropriate financial values (Nicholls et al., 2012). Assigning values and scores to outcomes is important in developing SIM approaches. Building on logic models by developing outcome indicators, identifying the period outcomes last, and assigning value to outcomes is important for assigning and applying values to outcomes. Hornsby (2012) identifies a consistent systematic procedure for measuring impact, which focuses on the change and effect resulting from activities. The approach places emphasis on the future orientation of services and activities, with the mission fulfilment element identifying the organisations ability to *fulfil its mission in a meaningful, well-evidenced, and effective fashion?"* (Hornsby, 2012:81). Hornsby (2012) adopts a weighted scoring system identifying low (no positive impact), medium (limited positive impact) and high (positive impact) scores. This weighted scoring system described impact as existent (limited impact or impact) or non-existent (no impact), discounting any negative change resulting from activities. Furthermore, adopting scoring approaches can increase the subjectivity of information obtained and reduce opportunities for comparison. For SROI, identifying financial value relies on the use of financial proxies to estimate a financial value to non-financial outcomes. For example, research conducted by Bradly and Bolas (2013) found that making more informed decisions and more motivated change was an outcome from substance misuse interventions delivered. Bradly and Bolas (2013) applied a financial proxy based on employing a life coach at £60 per hour (average price) for 10 weeks. The £600 total cost was used to describe the value of change. The SROI approach supports organisation to measure the social value resulting from services or activities by considering the outcomes for all stakeholders. The information obtained from SROI can be used by organisations to enhance services and activities; however, the limitations and weakness require consideration (see Millar and Hall (2012) for a detailed critique of SROI). In measuring and evaluating impact, SROI relies on the identification of appropriate financial proxies. The identification of financial proxies is challenging, although there have been steps to develop a standardised set of financial proxies (e. g. the WikiVOIS database of the 'The SROI Network') (Rauscher, Schober and Millner, 2012). The use of standardised indicators may offer a resolution; however, applying standardised indicators to all intervention highlights further issues. Furthermore, SROI analysis is contextualised to the

activity and organisation which restricts the comparability of information. Rather than limiting the scope, this research will adopt a seven-item Likert scale for measuring the impact of activities. This approach promotes children and young people's participation in research rather than simply exploring pre-defined areas. Once measurement areas are identified from the research (for example education), the organisation has the opportunity to explore the financial proxies as discussed above. For example, research showed that the average public financial cost of NEET per young person was £56K (Coles, Godfrey, Keung, Parrott and Bradshaw, 2010). If children and young people fail to complete appropriate education in the STC and secure education, employment or training on release then the financial cost is significant.

Assessing whether the identified outcomes are the result of activities provided by the organisation, as identified by Vanclay (2003) and Clifford et al. (2014) were considered in the SROI framework. Nicholls et al. (2012) suggested the importance of considering deadweight and displacement, attribution and drop-off in measuring impact with SROI. To overcome deadweight and displacement, Nicholls et al. (2012) recommended the use of comparison groups or benchmarking. For example, in reducing re-conviction rates among young ex-offenders (16-24 years) participating in a rehabilitation programme, the benchmark indictor used was the national average re-conviction rate for young people aged 16-24 years (Nicholls et al., 2012). Similar to deadweight, organisations should consider the percentage or proportion of outcomes attributable to the organisation. For example, the introduction of a cycling initiative may contribute to reductions in carbon emission; however, other initiatives (e.g. congestion charges) may also have contributed to reductions. The final consideration in measuring impact relates to the length of time the outcome lasts (drop-off). Nicholls et al. (2012) suggest the calculation of drop-off by deducting a percentage from the outcome annually, for example, reducing an outcome of 100 by 10 percent annually. The process for calculating attribution (or additionality) is equally important. *Additionality* refers to the changes or consequences resulting from interventions or activities. Establishing the changes resulting from interventions or activities is important in measuring impact; however, establishing if changes would have occurred regardless of interventions or activities is equally important (Hornsby, 2012). Two important elements to consider with additionality are: non-

intervention scenarios (what if the organisation is offering a service that a beneficiary would create themselves, if necessary?) and alternative intervention scenarios (What if the organisation is offering a service, which another organisation may offer?). This consideration offers the organisation an opportunity to consider the alternative attributions as described by Clifford et al. (2014). *Impact multipliers* reflect the importance of considering the impact resulting from the immediate impact. For example, the immediate impact for an organisation offering services to support service users to secure employment is employment, with additional impact (confidence, financial stability) resulting from the securing of employment. This highlights the benefits of exploring impact in the short, intermediate and long term (Clifford et al., 2014). Following the identification of impact multipliers, deadweight, displacement, attribution and drop-off, Nicholls et al. (2012) suggest the calculation of impact by the following steps:

1. Financial proxy multiplied by the quantity of the outcome equals total value.
2. Deduct the percentages for deadweight or attribution from the total value.
3. Repeat the step for each outcome.
4. Calculate the total to establish the overall impact.

3.4.5 – Monitoring and Reporting

Reporting the results from service delivery and impact measurement regularly and effectively is important. From examining around 1,000 approaches Hehenberger et al. (2015) recommended integrating impact approaches within the organisations performance management process. This enables stakeholders and beneficiaries to understand the impact from services, and to identify areas for developments and improvements. Clifford et al. (2014:23) promoted reporting that is *"appropriate to the audience, and needs to be presented in such a way as both to be transparent and useful, and to encourage future behaviours most useful to making the service effective in delivering desired outcomes".* For example, considering how are the results reported? And what has been learned from the results? McLoughlin et al. (2009) recommended considering: before and after data showing changes or improvements in target areas, the selection of appropriate comparative data, and the use of benchmarking where possible to set performance criteria and show improvement over

time. Furthermore, this stage identifies the use of internal management processes (McLoughlin et al., 2009). Establishing effective reporting standards are central to embedding the process by allowing organisations to:

- Raise awareness of why change is required,

- Foster desire to support and participate in the change,

- Show knowledge of how to change,

- Provide ability to implement new skills and behaviours,

- Undertake reinforcement to sustain change.

Furthermore, the training staff, board members, and/or volunteers on the reasons for measuring impact and impact measurement practices are important for ensuring sustainability (Hornsby et al., 2012). The research project aims to develop a SIM approach that will contribute to the development of a 'theory of change' that can be used to explain and refine the delivery of youth interventions. By developing effective reporting and monitoring structures, organisations have the opportunity to continually develop and refine the delivery of services and contribute to the evidence base for effective approaches.

3.4.6 – Framework Summary

Developing a determined or mechanical methodological approach with a single automated process has complexities, with the extensive number variables involved in measurement. The approaches explored focus on the intended impact resulting from the organisations activities, with limited exploration of the unintended impact. McLoughlin et al. (2009) identified a process with stages focusing on this impact. For example, stage two and three focus on the measurement of beneficial outcomes from activities. By promoting the identification of beneficial outcomes, McLoughlin et al (2009) reduced the opportunity to identify the negative outcomes that would support the improvement of effective service delivery. Elements from the Clifford et al. (2014) frameworks and the approaches explored offer important ideas on measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions; however, developing the frameworks and approaches further is essential. The enhanced logical model in Figure 3.13 illustrates the exploration of the intended and unintended results alongside deadweight, attribution, drop-off and displacement. Establishing an enhanced logical model approach

allows the researcher to answer the fundamental questions highlighted by Nevill and Lumley (2011) in measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions.

3.5 – Summary

The literature examined indicates the contextual nature of SIM and the benefits of recognising the organisations mission, objectives, context and practices for developing effective measurement systems. The definitions for social impact and social value explored contained subtle differences, with the definitions offered by Vanclay (2003) and Clifford et al. (2014) covering the intended and unintended consequences alongside the positive and negative consequences. For example, the potential to prevent harm relies on robust measurement to identify negative consequences of interventions. The identification of negative consequences, according to Nevill and Lumley (2011) can result in removing interventions which cause harm or increase offending. In selecting effective and successful interventions for young people, the negative impact on individuals, the community, and financial systems are reduced. Furthermore, the definitions offered by Vanclay (2003) and Clifford et al. (2014) consider the importance of identifying adjustments for alternative attribution, deadweight and drop-off. Enhancing the program logic model and adopting elements from the approaches and frameworks proposed by McLoughlin et al. (2009), Hornsby (2012), Nicholls et al. (2012) and Clifford et al. (2014) provides opportunities for considering the wider issues associated with impact measurement. The diversity of SIM (including the different time perspectives available) offers benefits on the micro (impact on individuals), meso (impact on organisations) and macro (impact on society) level. For youth offending interventions the use of SIM has benefits on individuals (supporting children and young people *to* develop communication skills, team working and overcome setbacks), communities (reparation to victims and reducing anxiety) and on the organisation, government and funders (identify effective approaches to reduce the financial burden). With increased pressure to reduce crime and offending in England and Wales, SIM frameworks can support the development of innovative and successful youth offending interventions which reduce the levels of re-convictions.

Chapter Four – Methods and methodology

A fundamental requirement of research involves establishing a valid and reliable research methodology. Grix (2002:179) recommended setting out the interrelationship between the researcher's view of the world (the ontological position), the criteria in which knowledge is generated and communicated (the epistemological position) and the methods utilised to acquire knowledge (the methodological approach). This chapter explores the ontological and epistemological consideration for this research and the methodological approaches these philosophical positions support. The researcher builds on the philosophical consideration by exploring the literature review process which will be followed by an examination of the specific research methods and the data analysis techniques adopted by the researcher. This chapter will conclude with an examination of the ethical considerations in conducting research with children and young people.

4.1 – Ontology and Epistemology

Establishing clear and explicit ontological and epistemological assumptions that underpin research allows the researcher to clarify the theoretical approaches to research and understand the interrelationships of components of the research (Scotland, 2012). Recognising the interrelationships between the researcher's view of the world and the criteria in which knowledge is generated is important for establishing reliable research results. Figure 4.1 highlights the process from the philosophical positions to the methodology and methods.

Figure 4.1 – Research Process

Ontology → Epistemology → Methodology → Methods

Researcher's studying similar areas may produce different research findings as a result of the ontological and epistemological positions selected. For example, researcher's adopting the positivist approaches focus on obtaining evidence for reality guided by highly structured quantitative data collection methods; while researcher's adopting the interpretivist approach focus on individuals interpretations and understanding of experiences guided by qualitative data collection methods. To complement this approach, a critical realist perspective was employed, asserting that reality exists independently to the interpretations and constructions of social actors and researcher's (Bryman, 2012). Critical realism is based on the fundamental question *"what properties do societies and people possess that might make them objects for knowledge?"* (Bhaskar, 1978:13). From this perspective, critical realism recognises that our understanding the social world is reliant on identifying mechanisms and structures that produce events (Danermark et al., 2002). For critical realists, structures and mechanisms in society exist independently of physical observation. Thus, understanding social reality is reliant on exploring the structures and mechanisms that produce or generate events (Danermark et al., 2002). Understanding social reality, then, is reliant on the individual understanding the structures in society. Critical realism shares in the positivist belief that researchers have the opportunity to study reality and the interpretivist belief that reality exists independently of the interpretations and constructions of researcher's (Bryman, 2012). The combination of such approaches offers the researcher the opportunity to amalgamate the objectivist and constructionist ontological approaches with the positivist and interpretivist approaches. From an ontological perspective, the researcher can consider the socially constructed nature of social impact and youth convictions and to examine the impact

of the intervention on individuals by observing social phenomena in the natural environment. This allows for the application of deductive and inductive approaches (See Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 – Deductive and Inductive Approach

Bryman (2012)
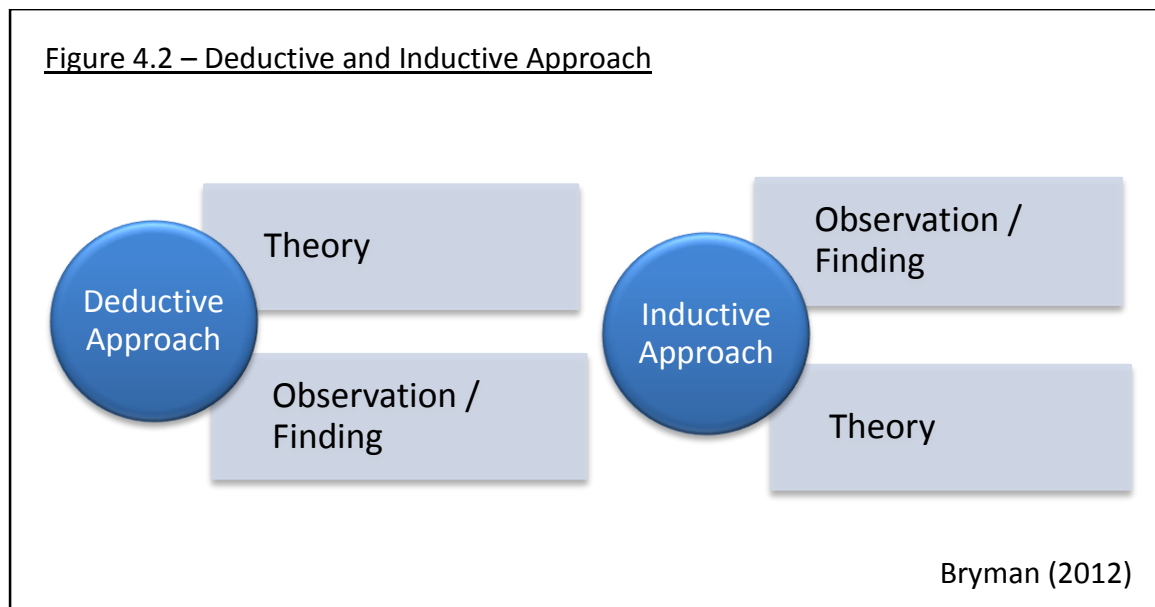
From an epistemological perspective, this approach allows the researcher to examine the social impact of youth offending interventions while recognising the researcher as independent to the research as well as a social actor. Equally, this approach allows the researcher to adopt a mixed research approach, with scope to complete quantitative and qualitative research. This is important for research on the social impact of custody on children and young people as it recognises: the impact of interventions on the young person, the influence of the young person's perceptions on the interventions, and acknowledges the socially constructed nature of crime, behaviour and society's attitude. The foundations of research are rooted in ontological and epistemological assumptions that influence the methodology, thus, the methodological approaches selected for this research are influenced by the researcher's motivation for research and desire to facilitate the active participation of children and young people in the research.

4.2 – Justification and Motivation for Research

The attention on young people's involvement in crime and offending has appeared in criminological discourse for centuries. Between the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, Adolphe Quetelet referred to youth crime and offending in research, which showed

that peaks in offending behaviours occurred in adolescence or early adulthood before declining with age (Hendrick, 2006). As discussed in section 2.1, youth crime and offending continues to receive considerable political, academic and media attention despite reduction in the number of children and young people entering the criminal justice system. Between the late nineteenth and early twentieth century criminological research found that peaks in offending behaviours occurred in adolescence or early adulthood before declining (Hendrick, 2006). The attention on young people in England and Wales is categorised by 'respectable fears', which Pearson (1983:236-242) described as the growing anxiety with regards to rebellious and threatening young people. These 'respectable fears' have contributed to the expansion of the youth justice system and resulted in developments to mainstream youth justice services. The concern regarding young people has resulted in the Government developing strategies (e.g. *Positive for Youth Green Paper)*, which focus on the impact of young people's behaviour on communities, in conjunction with reducing recidivism (Nevill and Lumley, 2011). Although the statistical information available on youth crime and offending (see Section 2.3) indicate a decline in the number of young people involved in the criminal justice system, the Government's focus on developing effective strategies and intervention to reduce convictions and recidivism continues (McNeil, Reeder and Rich, 2012). The current state of government finances in England and Wales has resulted in an increased scrutiny of public spending and an increased pressure on the development of effective and sustainable services (Prowle, Murphy and Prowle, 2014). The focus on establishing sustainable youth services has resulted in the development of frameworks for measuring, managing and reporting on social impact (Maas, 2014). As discussed in Chapter Three, existing research on SIM is limited, with literature on this topic predominantly from collaborative networks, government agencies and consulting firms (Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014). Existing SIM research is under theorised, with no consistent approach or framework currently recognised. The gaps in research on SIM extend to impact measurement in youth offending interventions, with literature and research in this area virtually non-existent. The limited literature on SIM and the implications for measuring the performance of youth offending interventions is directly linked to the aims and objectives of the research thesis. From reviewing literature on SIM in youth offending interventions, Nevill and Lumley (2011:7) report that around three quarters of Youth Offending Team Managers believe that the evidence for 'what works' is limited. The ambiguous nature of defining SIM illustrates the

complexities researching this area, with Ogain, Lumley and Pritchard (2012:33) reporting that: *"impact measurement means different things to different people…We therefore… take responses about whether they are measuring impact… at face value."* Research conducted by Nevill and Lumley (2011) and Ogain, Lumley and Pritchard (2012) recommended establishing an approach to SIM and illustrates the opportunity for this research to make an original contribution to knowledge.

Acknowledging the researcher's personal motivation for conducting this research is equally important. The researcher has a background in supporting and engaging children and young people involved in the criminal justice system. For this researcher, securing engagement is central to conducting effective research thus the researcher's experience is beneficial. This experience fuels a desire to facilitate the active participation of children and young people in the research process. Another motivating factor for conducting this research is the researcher's commitment and focus to developing effective services for children and young people. This commitment and focus to developing effective services introduces a potential bias to influence findings based on the opinions of children and young people. From engaging and supporting children and young people in various roles, the researcher has experience remaining objective and impartial. Understanding the context the research was conducted is equally important for considering any potential research bias. This research is a collaborative project funded by a private organisation[4] to examine SIM as a form of organisational performance management in STCs. Recognising the funding institution's potential bias to influence the findings from the research is equally important to considering the researcher's bias. Any potential bias was acknowledged at the initial stage of research with the researcher's objectivity and impartiality remaining central to the research.

4.3 – Literature

Literature reviews represent an important element in research, strengthening understanding in of youth justice and SIM. Bryman (2012) suggests that literature reviews support

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[4] The organisation has requested anonymity.

researcher's to understand: existing information available on SIM and youth offending interventions; concepts and theories applied to the research area; research methods applied to the research area; and key contributors to the research area. For this research, an analysis of existing research and literature was completed by adopting the seven step approach suggested by Cooper (2010:12):

1) Formulating the problem

2) Searching the literature

3) Gathering information from studies

4) Evaluating the quality of studies

5) Analysing and integrating the outcomes of studies

6) Interpreting the evidence

7) Presenting the results

This analysis was initially conducted with the Northampton Electronic Library Search Online (NELSON) service, followed by expanded searches conducted with Google Scholar, Zetoc and Web of Science. The key search terms used were *youth custody, youth offending interventions and social impact measurement*. To maximise search results, the researcher considered variations and acronyms for the terms identified above. For example, searches were conducted with the terms: *juvenile justice*, *juvenile offending, recidivism, adolescents, YJ and SIM.* The journal articles produced by the searches were refined by title and subject area to identify the articles relevant to the area of study. This analysis found 129 journal articles on SIM; however, the relevance of articles for this thesis were limited, with only 22 journal articles relevant on further refinement. These 22 journal articles were conceptual in nature, focusing on the concepts and theories explaining SIM or suggesting frameworks for measurement. There was limited testing of the frameworks presented, which would have added to the body of literature. This supports finding by Ebrahim and Rangan (2014) that the literature on SIM is predominantly from collaborative networks, government agencies and consulting firms. The meta-analysis on youth custody and youth offending interventions returned 1,785 results, with further refinements reducing the numbers to 1,009. On exploring the articles further, the research contained limited exploration of social impact in articles relating to youth offending. The limited availability of literature on SIM and youth offending interventions positions this research within a nascent field which illustrates its significance.

Further exploration of literature on SIM illustrated the importance of synthesising qualitative and quantitative approaches to measurement (Garbarino and Holland, 2009). According to Garbarino and Holland (2009), quantitative methods produce data for the purpose of describing and predicting relationships while qualitative methods produce data that allows the researcher to explore and explain those relationships. The combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, as selected, provides an opportunity to describe the relationships for children and young people in STCs and contextualise such relationships in order to determine social impact.

4.4 – Research Aim and Questions

This research project explored how the use of SIM can enhance outcomes for young people involved in the criminal justice system. This involved collaborating with a large national organisation in the youth justice sector to assess the impact of the organisation's 'interventions'. It explored experiences of children and young people in custody and the transitions to adulthood, specifically in relation to the development of a 'theory of change' that can be used to evaluate (and refine) the delivery of youth interventions nationally. SIM involves measuring the intended and unintended consequences of planned interventions and the social changes invoked by these. The diversity of SIM offers the researcher the opportunity to adopt a three-tiered approach to research (See Figure 4.3). This will involve analysis at the macro (impact on society), meso (impact on organisations) and micro (impact on individuals) level.

Figure 4.3 – Analysis
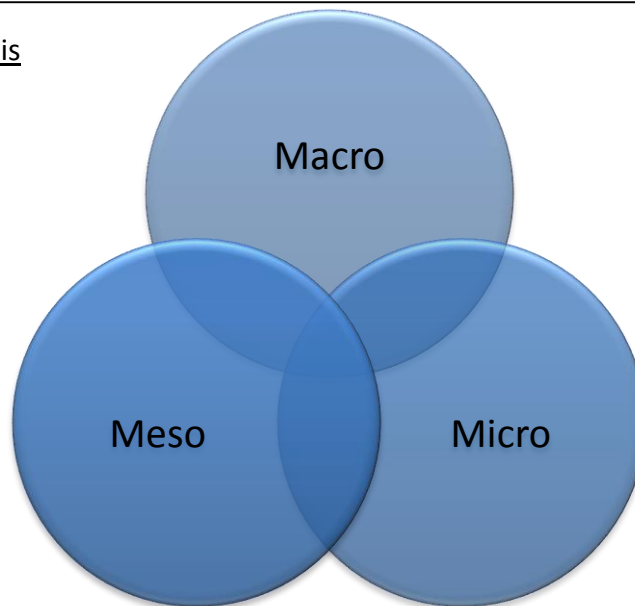
Table 4.1 – Micro, Meso and Macro Analysis	
Micro	**To examine the outcomes and impact of custody on young people accommodated in STCs with focus on the factors contributing to resettlement.**
	The micro-analysis formed the main body of the research project. The researcher will track the distance travelled for participants by evaluating information from the case file analysis with questionnaire and interview responses. It seeks to establish the following: - What aspect(s) of life in the STC do children and young people value? - How does time spent in the STC shape outcomes for the children and young people? - What are the outcomes for children and young people on transition from the STC?

Table 4.1 – Micro, Meso and Macro Analysis	
Meso	**To support the organisation to embed monitoring practices that promote the delivery of effective practice**
	This research project is based in an STC in England. The researcher will adopt a mixed method approach to collect information on the support, interventions and programs delivered in STCs. Information collected will be analysed to identify the organisation's impact on educational achievement, employment, emotional development and relationship development. To establish impact at the organisational level, a scope of the organisations mission statement and objectives will be conducted. Furthermore, the research will examine the current monitoring framework used by the organisation to identify areas for development.
Macro	**To examine the evidence base for effective approaches in youth justice (specifically custody) and in the transitions from custody.**
	This research project will examine the history of youth justice alongside the government responses and research into effective services for young people involved in the criminal justice system. Following the examination of existing literature, key areas for development will be explored. The researcher will examine the expectations of stakeholders (Youth Justice Board) by exploring the principles, values and purpose of STCs.

Table 4.2 illustrates the research questions underpinning the project.

Table 4.2 – Research Questions	
Research Question One	How, if at all, have the organisation's values, aims, objectives and structure influenced the services offered to young people?
Research Question Two	How, if at all, have young people's experiences in the STCs supported their transition to adulthood and desistance?
Research Question Three	How, if at all, does the social impact measurement approach, developed by the researcher, contribute to ensuring the intended outcomes for children and young people in the STC?
Research Question Four	How, if at all, can the social impact measurement approach developed contribute to the development of a 'theory of change' that can be used to explain (and refine) the delivery of youth interventions nationally and the continued developments of an evidence base for effective approaches?

4.5 – Mixed Methods

Traditionally, research on youth offending has focused on establishing the conviction and re-conviction rates of children and young people. Collecting large-scale data on convictions and re-convictions is primarily designed around quantitative methods, allowing for comparison and generalisations. However, the subjective and socially constructed nature of social impact and youth offending (discussed in Section 4.1) presents problems, if quantitative methods are selected in isolation. From this perspective, a mixed methodological approach was adopted which combines different methods (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2007). This will combine the use of primary (collected by the researcher) and secondary (collected and collated by someone else) qualitative and quantitative data (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007). Acknowledging the difficulties in establishing a mixed method approach are pertinent to ensuring the research methods selected are appropriate. Bazeley (2004) emphases the critical issues surrounding the analytical process for combining two separate paradigms. From this

perspective, Bazeley (2004) explored the important of acknowledging: the limitations of traditional methods adopted in mixed methods research, the methods used for coding and quantising qualitative data and generalisation. Bryman (2012) reinforced the critical issues highlighted by Bazeley (2004), suggesting that qualitative and quantitative approaches represent separate paradigms with separate epistemological positions. Adopting a critical realist approach allow researcher's to overcome the complexities highlighted by Bazeley (2004) and Bryman (2012), creating an opportunity to combine qualitative and quantitative approaches. Selecting mixed method approaches establishes a third methodological movement, complimenting qualitative and quantitative traditions (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). To overcome the analytical issues identified by Bazeley (2004), the researcher considered the idea of *quantitising and qualitising*. The terms were coined by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998:126), with *quantitising* describing *"the process of transforming coded qualitative data into quantitative data"* and *qualitising* describing *"the process of converting quantitative data to qualitative data".* The transformed data allows the researcher to check for validity and reliability (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Driscoll, Appiah-Yeboah, Salib and Rupert (2007) suggest two distinct transformative designs in mixed method research – concurrent and sequential. The former describes mixed method data collection strategies used to transform information from one form of data to the other form of data for the purpose of comparison and validation (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). The latter describes mixed method data collection strategies that adopt an iterative process, with the initial data collected contributing to the data collected in later stages (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007:121). Analysing the quantitative data collected in the first phase of the sequential mixed method design supports an iterative research process that helps focus the next phase of data collection (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). This approach strengthens the philosophical foundations underpinning the research project, with quantitative data supporting and informing the data collected in the qualitative phase (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Adopting a sequential mixed method design enables the researcher to review questionnaire data and tailor subsequent interview questions to the key themes emerging from the questionnaire. Figure 4.4 illustrates the sequential mixed method approach.

Figure 4.4 – Sequential mixed method approach
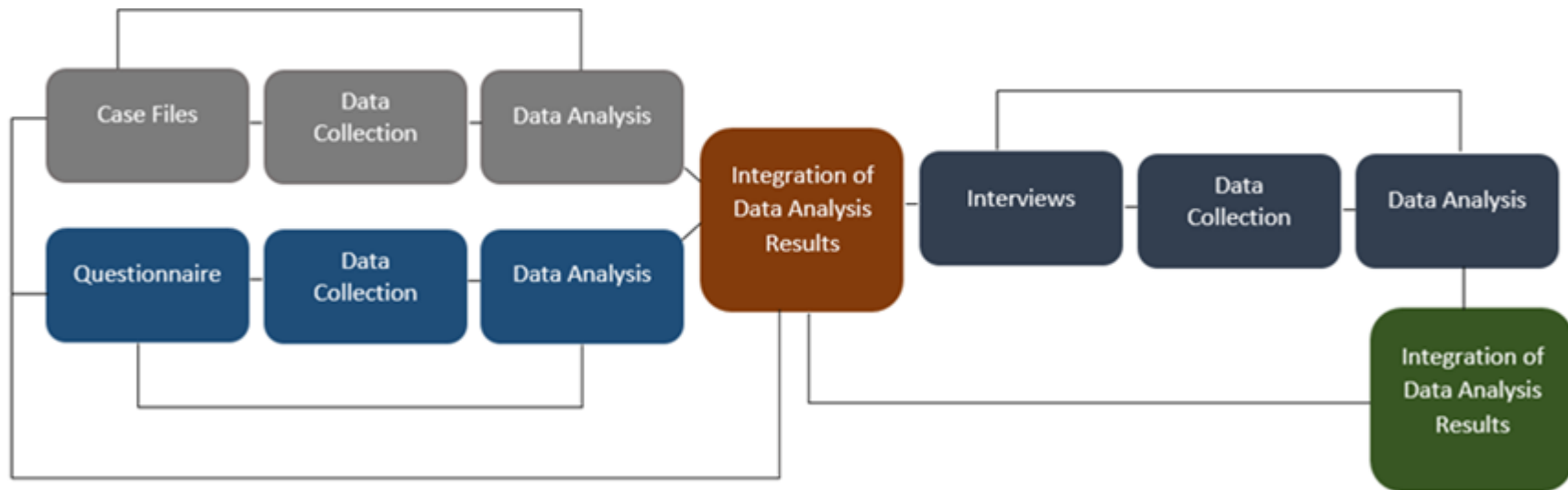
Driscoll et al. (2007) explored complications with sequential design in terms of comparing structured and unstructured responses. To overcome such complications, rigorous and the meticulous design of data collection methods and data analysis techniques is paramount. This improves the accuracy and reliability of each phase of data collection, allowing for the triangulation of qualitative and quantitative data (Bryman, 2012). Acknowledging the issues associated with mixed method approaches, allows the researcher to address any potential issues. Although mixed method approaches to research have drawbacks, it offers pragmatic benefits in exploring SIM as a form of organisation performance management for youth offending interventions. Adopting a sequential mixed method research design allows the research to introduce a questionnaire for participants, and use the questionnaire results to augment the semi-structured interview questions. Establishing this approach provides an opportunity for the introduction of qualitative and quantitative techniques for data collection and capitalise on the strengths of different methods (Bryman, 2012). Furthermore, in the SIM methodologies explored for the literature review, the principal approaches adopted are mixed method in nature. From examining available tools and resources for assessing social impact (TRASI) references by The Foundation Centre (2016), mixed methods approaches were evident in the tools and resources available. Table 4.3 illustrated the data gathering methods identified by The Foundation Centre (2016).

Table 4.3 – Data gathering methods used in tools and resources	
Method	**Number**
Interviews	74
Focus Groups	48
Direct Observations	63
Participant Survey	104
Mixed Method	141

(The Foundation Centre, 2016)

Stevenson et al. (2010) support the idea of combining quantitative and qualitative methods in effective SIM. Therefore, adopting a mixed method approach allows the researcher to measure impact holistically across a number of domains (e.g. education, relationships). Exploring the specific methods (procedures and techniques) adopted under the mixed method umbrella are key to completing this research project.

4.6 – Research Methods

Research methodology and research methods often appear interchangeable in research, which creates confusion in the research design process. Methodology is informed by the nature of reality (the ontological position) and the nature of knowledge (epistemological position) which influence the methods used (McGregor and Murnane, 2010). This direction of travel from the philosophical positions to methodology and methods was illustrated in Figure 4.1. The researcher explored the ontological, epistemological and methodological ideas informing the research, concluding with the selection of a mixed-method approach to research. The next section will explore the techniques and procedures selected in conducting this research, influenced by the research methodology.

4.6.1 – Quantitative Research Methods

Quantitative approaches to data collection involve a process of counting, ranking and ordering data systematically (Davies, Francis and Jupp, 2011). Aliaga and Gunderson (2000) describe quantitative research as the collection and analysis of numerical data to explain and determine social phenomena. The definition of quantitative research methods naturally directs the researcher to specific questions. For example, how many children and young people are accommodated in STCs? How many children and young people achieve qualifications in the STC? The information collected from this question exists in a naturally quantitative form (number of children or young people); however, other information may be non-quantitative in nature. The researcher has the opportunity to overcome potential limitations of collecting various types of information by designing instruments to collect and analyse any data (for example, designing scaled tools that collect information by coding values to perceptions). To collect quantitative data, a questionnaire was designed with the aim of

collecting information on the impact of STCs in terms of health care, education, relationships and interventions.

Exploring the core elements in human development and the potential impact resulting from youth offending interventions was central to designing a questionnaire for the children and young people (and staff) in STCs. Research conducted by Hornsby (2012) examined the core elements in human development and introduced a matrix categorising these areas (See Table 2.3). The matrix identified by Hornsby (2012) supports the areas identified by Vanclay (2003) and Big Capital Society (2013). Identifying core elements is central to the research project; however, identifying scales for measuring such elements is essential. For the purpose of identifying effective scales in measuring impact, the research has explored a tested scale for measuring the perceptions of children and young people on life satisfaction, which covers some of the areas identified by Hornsby (2012).

Research on life satisfaction for children and young people by Huebner (1991), Suldo and Huebner (2004) and Seligson, Huebner and Valois (2003) resulted in the creation of The Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (SLSS) and the Brief Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (BMSLSS). Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith (1999) describe life satisfaction as the individuals' views of their life overall or within specific domains (for example, family life, friendship, educational experience). The SLSS was developed by Huebner (1991), offering a six-item self-reported measure of life satisfaction for children and young people aged 8 to 18 years-old. Huebner (1991) designed the measure to elicit responses from participants on domain-free items. For example, my *life* is better than most children and young people. Developments in early SLSS have suggested the use of six-point frequency scales (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = mildly disagree, 4 = mildly agree, 5 = moderately agree, 6 = strongly agree) over 4-point frequency scales (1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = always). Suldo and Huebner (2004) conducted a study analysing SLSS scores, classifying children and young people based on mean SLSS scores. This study found low life satisfaction for participants with mean scores below 3.9 and high life satisfaction for participants with mean scores above 4.0. Suldo and Huebner (2004) conducted research with 1188 children

and young people, identifying a mean SLSS score of 4.21 (standard deviation of 1.14). Research results found that the distribution of responses (1188 participants) generated a -0.61 negative skew, with -0.26 platykurtic[5]. These values were considered within acceptable range (between -1.0 and +1.0) and acceptable levels of skewness and kurtosis[6]. SLSS reliability was explored by Huebner (1991) finding coefficient (Pearson correlation coefficient) alphas in the range of .70-.80. The SLSS scores represent appropriate correlations with the Perceived Life Satisfaction Scale (r-.58), the Piers-Harris Happiness Subscale (r=.53), Andrews and Withey one-item scale (r=.62), and DOTS-R Mood scale (r=.34) (Heubner, 1991). SLSS measures satisfaction with life overall; however, assessing satisfaction with multiple domains has the opportunity to offer an overall picture of the perceived quality of life.

The BMSLSS was developed by Seligson, Huebner and Valois (2003), expanding on the SLSS by offering a five-item self-reported measure of satisfaction for children and young people. This scale instructs participants to rate satisfaction on family life, friendships, school experiences, self, and living environment. These domains were identified by Hornsby (2012), as important elements for children and young people's development. Developing a scale for measuring satisfaction is complex, with Huebner (1991) suggesting the use of seven-point frequency scales ranging from 1 = terrible to 7 = delighted. On examining the BMSLSS, Huebner, Drane and Valois (2000) found a mean score was 4.97 with a standard deviation of 1.25. The skew (-0.98) and kurtosis (0.88) values were reported in acceptable limits, demonstrating a relatively normal distributions (with a slight negative skew). BMSLSS reliability was explored by Zullig, Valois, Huebner, Oeltmann and Drane (2001) finding a coefficient alphas in the range of .80-.85. The BMSLSS scores represent appropriate correlations with the SLSS (r=62).

The measurement tools proposed by Huebner (1991) and Seligson et al. (2003) focus on life satisfaction on multiple-levels; however, considering the wider impact is equally important.

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[5] Platykurtic is a type of statistical distribution with a high dispersion of points on the X-axis, resulting in a lower kurtosis,

[6] Kurtosis describes the measure of the tail's distribution. The values for kurtosis between -2 and +2 are considered acceptable (George & Mallery, 2010).

Section 2.2.2 explored the measurement tools proposed by Vanclay (2003), Hornsby (2012) and the Big Social Capital (2013). These expand on tools developed by Huebner (1991) and Seligson et al. (2003) to consider the direct and indirect impact on areas including: employment, training and education; housing and local facilities; income and financial inclusion; physical health; mental health and well-being; family, friends and relationships; and citizenship and community. Each field is assigned a number-value score to demonstrate the wider impact resulting from activities. Hornsby (2012) explored number-value increments, suggesting a minimum half-point increment scale, with low represented by 0, 0.5 or 1 and high represented by 2.5 or 3 (Hornsby, 2012). Increasing the increment points offers an opportunity to enhance the validity and reliability of results, for example, the seven-point frequency scale proposed by Huebner (1991) ranges from 1 = terrible to 7 = delighted. Research and analysis on the measurement practices proposed by Vanclay (2003), Hornsby (2012) and the Big Social Capital (2013) are limited; therefore, adapting valid and reliable measurement techniques to include additional areas was essential.

Quantitative (and some qualitative) information was systematically collected from participants by administering a questionnaire to a sample of the targeted population (Davies, Francis and Jupp, 2011). Administering a questionnaire allowed the researcher to obtain information on the specific characteristics and variables from the population (Davies, Francis and Jupp, 2011). According to Tisdall, Davis and Gallagher (2009) this method increases anonymity for children and young people (and staff) by allowing information and opinions to be shared confidentially. Tisdal, Davis and Gallagher (2009) recommended developing short, simple and straightforward questionnaires for children and young people. To create the questionnaire for children and young people, the researcher considered the literacy and numeracy ages of the population and designed a questionnaire for children and young people in the centre. Research conducted by Holt and Pamment (2011) found that creating questionnaires with scaled responses were useful for children and young people. For example, Likert-scale questionnaires have been successful in research with children and research with young people and adults with low literacy levels. Introducing a Likert-scale simplifies questionnaires; however, Holt and Pamment (2011) recommend the use of open responses in addition to Likert-scales. This enables participants to record responses

independently of the researcher which returns control to the participant (Holt and Pamment, 2011). Due to the effectiveness of Likert-scales for collecting information, this method was also selected for designing the staff questionnaire.

Acknowledging the criticisms of questionnaire research is important, with Davie, Francis and Jupp (2011) exploring criticism including:

1) The complexities of social data cannot reasonably be measured or recorded using an intrinsically positivist method,

2) That the survey method assumes respondents all understand and interpret the world around them in the same way, as if one were measuring natural, unthinking phenomena,

3) That the meanings and definitions people assign to their experiences are ignored through the use of a structured method - creating a 'static' image of social experience,

4) That they present an obstacle to open discussion and prevent flexibility and spontaneity.

The criticisms explored by Davies et al. (2011) highlight the value of the design and implementation stage for questionnaires. In designing and implementing questionnaires with children and young people in STCs, consultation with the Head of Education was important to ensure the questionnaire (and associated participant information sheets) were appropriately designed. Although the questionnaire approach has limitations, it allows for the examination of the social impact of STCs on children and young people accommodated in STCs by exploring views of education, relationships, interventions and overall experiences.

4.6.2 – Qualitative Research Methods

Qualitative research approaches have foundations in the ideas proposed by Immanuel Kant (1781) in the *Critique of Pure Reason*. Kant (1781) proposed that knowledge is generated by reflecting on participants experiences (cited in Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls and Ormaston, 2014). This type of research is focused on obtaining the attitudes, motives and behaviours of individuals. One important approach to qualitative research, commonly associated with the

interpretive tradition, is Grounded Theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Grounded Theory is considered the process of iteratively analysing data on participant's experiences to establish theories for explaining social process or social actions (Ritchie et al. 2014). Although, Grounded Theory offers the researcher the opportunity to establish theories for explaining social process and/or social action; the nature of the research requires implementation of the 'Straussian' Grounded Theory approach. The 'Straussian' grounded theory approach allows the researcher to consult with the literature in order to identify research focus and knowledge (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Adopting this approach allows for the simultaneous collection and analysis of data, creating analytical themes and codes from data rather than by pre-existing conceptualisations (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). For this research, qualitative data was collected by conducting semi-structured interviews, and gathering information from open-response questions in questionnaires.

This research project utilised semi-structured interviews to elicit information from participants for addressing the research aims and objectives. Semi-structured interviews *"consist of predetermined questions related to domains of interest, administered to a representative sample of respondents to confirm study domains, and identify factor, variables, and items or attributes of variables for analysis"* (Schensul, Schensul and LeCompte, 1999:149). Adopting this technique allows the researcher to converse with research participants on a human level, which allows for the detailed exchange of information (Noaks and Wincup, 2004). The benefits of semi-structured interviews, as discussed by Lincoln and Guba (1985:273) surround the researcher's opportunity to support *respondents "…to move back and forth in time – to reconstruct the past, interpret the present, and predict the future".* For research with children, young people and staff in STCs, semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to develop a series of questions, while, promoting active participation in research (Alderson and Morrow, 2004). Adopting this approach was beneficial for this study as the researcher has the opportunity to support the participants to explore past experiences and the influence of such experiences on the present. Equally, this approach allowed for higher levels of uniformity and comparability than unstructured interviews. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews provide scope for exploring the role and impact of STCs on children and young people in the criminal justice system.

Ensuring semi-structured interview questions were grounded in literature was important for addressing the aims and objectives of this research. However, considering the language and context of questions was equally important for ensuring participants in the STC understood the interview questions. Research conducted by Bryan (2004) with young people aged between 18 and 21 years-old in YOI found a high proportion of language difficulties. Results from research found 37 percent of young people reporting literacy problems and 50 percent of young people reported poor memory, with a number of participants attributing this difficult to illegal drug use. Bryan (2004) completed tests with young people finding difficulties with vocabulary (43 percent, grammatical competency (73 percent), comprehension (23 percent) and picture description (47 percent). These findings demonstrate the value in developing research tools appropriate for children and young people, which recognise skill level (Bryan, 2004). This research highlighted the use of innovative techniques for children and young people, such as diaries and pictures, drawing and a combination of drawing and writing. The statistical information from the STC on the literacy and numeracy ages of young people in comparison with actual ages between January 2016 and December 2016 (n=96) illustrated complexities in selecting adequate data collection methods. Between January 2016 and December 2016, 14.5 percent had a reading age between 1 and 5 years lower than expected and 24.0 percent had a reading age between 6 and 8 years lower than expected. The distance between the numeracy age and actual age of young people was higher, with a numeracy age 5 years lower than expected in 50.0 percent of young people and a numeracy age between 6 and 8 years lower than expected in 35.4 percent of young people. Considering innovative and adapted techniques for research with children and young people was important for conducting interviews in the STC. Research conducted by Holt and Pamment (2011:126) with young offenders, found that young people interpreted the term "research interview" differently from the researcher. For young people involved in the criminal justice system, the term "interview" is linked to experiences of repeated interviews with professionals in the criminal justice and social care setting. Holt and Pamment (2011) found that young people were cautious of interviews and viewed the researcher with suspicion. Selecting innovative research methods allows the researcher to create a different experience of the term "interview" for young people. However, rather than assuming the requirement of

such techniques, the researcher has explored this with the Head of Education at the STC, allowing for the development of appropriate techniques. Opting for this approach allows the researcher to further examine the advantages and disadvantages of the methods selected in terms of practicality and analysis.

Semi-structured interviews were also completed with staff in the STC, following the completion of interviews with children and young people. Examination of prior literature and information obtained from interviews with children and young people in the STC influenced the semi-structured interview questions created for participating staff. From adopting this sequential mixed methods approach the researcher had the opportunity to develop areas identified from the interviews with children and young people and build on literature, with focus on:

- The mission and values of the organization;
- The structure of the organization;
- The perceived impact of activities;
- The desired impact of activities;
- The most important impact from activities; and
- The areas for development.

The researcher digitally recorded interviews to increase opportunities for the observation of body language, facial expression, and tone while the interviewee answers the questions (Noaks and Wincup, 2004). The use of digital recording allowed for a more natural exchange, reducing any discomfort in participants. By adopting this method, the researcher could observe the participants, minimising any distress or discomfort that may arise. The use of digital recordings is essential for ensuring records are accurate; however, Holt and Pamment (2011) highlight the issues in using digital recorders with young offenders. In research, Holt and Pamment (2011) found that young offenders were interviewed by the police and digital recordings from interviews were later used for evidential purposes. This negative experience with digital recorded interviews resulted in young people refusing to participate in research. Holt and Pamment (2011:127) reported that one young person stated: *"If you record this then I cannot deny anything I have said and I am not doing it. You could use it against me"*. Ensuring

participants receive clear and concise information on the research, as well as providing an opportunity for participants to ask questions, is important for reducing the issues highlighted by Holt and Pamment (2011). Following the recording of information the researcher was able to transcribe, code and analyse information by adopting a critical discourse analysis technique (Fairclough, Mulderrig and Wodak, 2011). This technique allowed the researcher to address social problems, power relations and social practices (Fairclough, Mulderrig and Wodak, 2011). Despite the benefits of recording research interviews, the organisation initially declined the use of recording equipment with children and young people. This position was reviewed and recording equipment was allowed on the premises providing the recording equipment remained in a locked drawer within the STC. Given the benefits of recording research interviews, this condition was met and all interviews with children and young people were transcribed in the STC.

Existing research and literature on the limitations of interview methods was explored to enhance the reliability and validity of research. The following areas were considered prior to selecting the interview approach: response sets; problems of meaning and understanding; and power imbalance. Acknowledging the potential influence of response sets such as acquiescence and social desirability is pivotal in selecting the interview method (Bryman, 2012) Acquiescence refers to participants consistently responding to questions by agreeing or disagreeing (Bryman, 2012). By employing acquiescence, Bryman (2012) suggested that participants may respond to particular questions with answers contradictory to previous question. For example, if participant's responses imply 'low level commitment to work' and other responses imply 'high level commitment to work'. To reduce the issues resulting from acquiescence, interview questions were created methodically in consultation with the Head of Education at the STC. Social desirability refers to participant responses relating to perceptions of social desirability to answers (Bryman, 2012). Bryman (2012) suggests that participants may perceive particular answers as socially desirable or acceptable. Acknowledging the issues with response sets is important in research with children and young people in STCs. The accurate design of participant information sheets and ensuring children and young people understand confidentiality and anonymity is central to overcoming this issue. Researcher's and participants will assign different meanings to particular social

phenomenon. Completing research interviews with children and young people offer particular challenges in establishing an understanding of the meaning of particular questions. Harden, Scott, Backett-Milburn and Jackson (2000) promote the use of structured questioning to support participants in understanding questions. Acknowledging this issue and designing data collection tools with the language and communication levels of children and young people in STCs is important. The researcher accounted for such issues and consulted with the Head of Education and education staff at the STC to minimise any difficulties. Consultation with the Head of Education and education staff allowed the researcher to understand the language and communication levels of children and young people, and effective communication methods currently used by the STC. Connolly (2008) recommends considering the unequal power dynamic between the researcher and research participants, particularly socially excluded research participants. Examining the power balance is particularly important for research with children and young people in STCs. Tisdall, Davis and Gallagher (2009) suggested methods for mitigating the inequality of the interviewer-interviewee power dynamic, with focus on providing children and young people with methods for controlling the interview. For example, red 'stop' cards can provide non-verbal ways to stop uncomfortable questions (Tisdall, Davis and Gallagher, 2009). Acknowledging the potential issues resulting from semi-structured interviews for the researcher were equally pertinent. To minimise the issues of health, safety and safeguarding issues, the researcher was vigilant to potentially unsafe situations. Furthermore, the researcher acknowledged the fact research participants may disclose difficult or upsetting personal experiences that may impact on the psychological or emotional welfare of the researcher. Following collaboration with social care practitioners, Tehrani (2011) found that professionals may experience physiological, psychological and emotional consequences in working with traumatised children and families. The researcher identified appropriate strategies for these situations including discussing situations with supervisors or an impartial professional. In the event of any aggressive or threatening behaviour from participants, the researcher was prepared to follow the STC policies and procedures to de-escalate and minimise the situation. Identifying the potential issues for participants and the researcher early in the research process allowed the researcher to design the research to minimise any impact on the participants and the research.

4.7 – Sampling

Selecting a subset of the population for the qualitative and quantitative phase of research differed for the recruitment of children and young people and the recruitment of staff members. Considering the sample scheme (method of capturing data from the sample) and sample size in developing mixed method research is central to the research process. Initially, a random sample scheme was considered for selecting children and young people serving a custodial sentence and staff employed in the STC. This approach was reconsidered for children and young people due to the requirements for selecting participants with a sentenced status. Despite opting for a different approach for selecting children and young people, discussed later, this approach was utilised for selecting staff participants. With simple random sampling techniques the researcher had the opportunity to reduce the chances of human bias and subjectivity (Bryman, 2012). Random samples of staff were invited to participate in the qualitative and quantitative elements of research. Following completion of the questionnaire, staff members were able to leave contact details for follow-up interviews. This information was extracted prior to questionnaire analysis to ensure anonymity in questionnaire responses. In order to recruit additional staff members for interviews, emails and letters were sent to all staff members inviting them to participate. Although random sampling techniques reduce human bias and subjectivity, alternative sampling techniques were considered to ensure selection of an appropriate subset of children and young people. Sandelowski (1995) recommended purposeful sampling in selecting participants for research. This sampling method allowed the researcher to establish inclusion and exclusion criteria, acknowledging the sentencing status of children and young people in the centre (i.e. remand and sentenced). Within the purposeful framework suggested by Sandelowski (1995), the researcher established a purposive sample to increase the opportunity for variance.

Selecting an appropriate sample-size with mixed methods research is complex, with emphasis on selecting a sample size appropriate for achieving data saturation or theoretical saturation (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Identifying an acceptable sample size in quantitative research has resulted in considerable debate. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004) explored appropriate research samples, indicating the validity of sample sized ranging from 21 participants to 82 participants. This idea was supported by Field (2009) indicating a minimum

and medium size for quantitative analysis, with minimum effect-size identified at 28 participants and the medium effect-size identified at 85 participants. For this research project, the sample size selected for quantitative methods ranges from 50 and 100 participants. This reflects the number of children and young people placed in STCs, and the number of staff members employed, with support from the recommendations of Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004). The sample-size adopted for the qualitative element of research was grounded in existing literature, with Mason (2010) identifying research samples ranging from 5 to 350 in grounded theory based research. Such a range in sample size reflects the orientation and purpose of research. Establishing an appropriate sample size is equally important for achieving saturation, which, is important for ensuring the quality and adequacy of data collected (Bryman, 2012). There is no consensus on the sample size required for saturation, with Green and Thorogood (2009:120) suggesting that *"the experience of most qualitative researchers is that in interview studies [nothing] new comes out of transcripts after you have interviewed 20 or so people*." While no consensus exists, researcher's have offered guidelines for qualitative sample size. Charmaz (2006) suggested that 25 participants are adequate for small projects and Creswell (1998) recommended samples of 5-25. Acknowledging the number of staff, children and young people in STCs and existing literature, the researcher has selected a sample size between 50 and 80 for the quantitative phase and 5 and 20 for the qualitative phase (Creswell, 1998).

4.8 – Data Analysis

Data analysis incorporates several elements, concerned with reducing the information obtained by the researcher for the purpose of examining the research questions. For the data analysis stages, the researcher can analyse primary and secondary data (Bryman, 2012). Analysing information collected from administering a questionnaire is central to examining the use of SIM as a form of organisational performance management.

4.8.1 – Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data was collected by conducting a case file analysis and administering a questionnaire. Data was checked for accuracy to ensure the information analysed was valid

and reliable. The researcher used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 22) to analyse results from the questionnaire, with use of the following tests:

1. Sample distribution normality test,
2. Univariate and multivariate outlier test – test for extreme values in comparison with the significant data,
3. Chi-square test,
4. Descriptive Statistics - mean and standard deviation,
5. Cronbach alpha – measure of internal consistency with measurement scales (reliability).
6. Independent sample *t*-tests – comparison of changes.
7. Correlation and regression analysis.

4.8.2 – Qualitative Data Analysis

Driscoll et al. (2007) explored several strategies for analysing qualitative data, with one strategy focused on counting the occurrence of qualitative codes and another strategy focused on the frequency of themes. The researcher will digitally record and transcribe all semi-structured interviews to allow for the textual analysis of information from the interviews. Quantitising information allows for a statistical comparison of the data collected which allows for comparison of demographic information across the quantitative and qualitative phase. Qualitative data analysis is supported by software such as NVivo, allowing the researcher to transform qualitative data into quantified binary codes for creating demographic comparisons.

Data from the interview were analysed using Constant Comparative Method (CCM), underpinned by a Straussian grounded theory approach, which allowed the researcher to engage in an iterative process, with the initial data collected contributing to the data collected in later stages (Creswell, 1998). This 'Straussian' grounded theory approach allowed the researcher to consult with the literature and data collected in quantitative and qualitative stages to focus the research (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Adopting this approach allowed the researcher to simultaneously collect and analyse data, creating analytical themes and codes

from data rather than by pre-existing conceptualisations (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). CCM contains five stages of analysis – 'immersion', 'categorisation', 'phenomenological reduction', 'triangulation' and 'interpretation' (McLeod, 1994). During the 'immersion' stage, transcribed information was analysed to identify units of analysis. Information from the 'immersion' stage was analysed further in the 'categorisation' stage, with the units for analysis condensed into categories. The categories identified were further explored and interpreted by the research through a process of 'phenomenological reduction' in order to identify themes. To enhance the validity and reliability of data, the 'triangulation' and 'interpretation' stages allows the researcher to explore additional data (from the quantitative stage) and literature to identify commonalities. Overall, CCM promotes an iterative process that supports the 'Straussian' grounded theory approach applied in the research whilst improving the internal reliability and validity of qualitative research (Boeije, 2002).

4.9 – Data Gathering Plans

Prior to administering the questionnaires and conducting interviews the researcher distributed an introductory letter to children, young people and staff in the STC. The letter described the research and the process for opting out (Appendix F – Participant Information Sheet). Both questionnaires were administered to participants after this introductory letter (Appendix G and M). Following completion of the questionnaires, participants were invited to participate in semi-structured interviews. To refine the data gathering process, a pilot-test was administered with 10 volunteers to establish if changes were required before starting the research project. Only minor changes were required at this stage including changes to the font size and colour on the questionnaires.

4.10 – Research with Children

Before the 1990's, researchers were criticised for failing to consider the perceptions of young people involved in research or for viewing young people as mere objects for study (Barker and Weller, 2003). Researchers' perceptions of children and young people as objects of social research have developed, with increasing focus on the important of recognising children and young people as social actors in the research process (Punch, 2001). This development

recognises the ability of children and young people to actively participate in research by voicing their views and perceptions of the world. Developments in the 1990s resulted in criticism over the exclusion of children and young people from research due to power dynamics (Barker and Weller, 2003). One method of addressing this power dynamic is by implementing child centred research methods based on the preferred communication methods of young people. Child-centred research methods may include the use of photographs, activities, diaries and worksheets (Barker and Weller, 2003). Considering child-centred research methods is important, however, recognising the age and position of young people participating in research are equally important. For this research project, the researcher used traditional research methods (questionnaires and interviews) with adjustments recognising the age and position of young people. The use of traditional research methods with adjustments allowed the researcher to accurately capture the narratives of children and young people in STCs. Furthermore, traditional research methods form the foundation in SIM, thus, the use of traditional research methods in designing a SIM approach for application in youth offending interventions nationally and internationally is key.

4.11 – Ethical Considerations

Ethical questions are integral to any research, with particular importance in the current research project since the participants were vulnerable children and young people in custody. The central considerations in ethical research surround confidentiality and anonymity; voluntary informed consent; data protection and storage; the safeguarding of participants. Before entering the field, the researcher completed a submission to the University of Northampton's ethics committee and an updated Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS) was obtained.

Participants involved in the research process were informed of the confidentiality and anonymity procedure for research. In accordance with the Children Act (1989) the research will ensure full confidentiality for participants, with exceptions in circumstances that the

welfare of children and young people overrides confidentiality. This includes the following circumstances:

- Safeguarding or child protection concerns.
- Threats to the safety of any other person.
- Threats to the safety of themselves.
- Admissions of criminal activity.

Participants were provided with information, verbally, and an accompanying information sheet before consent was obtained. Due to the vulnerabilities of research participants (age and accommodation in the STC) the researcher obtained consent from children and young people, in addition to consent from guardians. Williams (2006) highlighted issues with seeking consent for children and young people in secure accommodation, particular in situations that children and young people are estranged from guardians. However, in the STC environment, guardianship of children and young people sits with the Director of Children's Services. By obtaining informed consent, the researcher considered the risk to participants, privacy and protection, safety and potential harm, trust and responsibility (Miller and Boulton, 2007). Before conducting any research, the research participants were provided with detailed information of the research purpose in conjunction with detailed information on what was required of the participant and what would happen with the data obtained. Research participants received information on the following aspects of the research:

- The aims and nature of the research.
- Who is undertaking it?
- Who is funding it?
- The likely duration.
- Why it is being undertaken.
- The possible consequences of the research, and
- How the results are to be disseminated.

Exploring the correct procedure for storing information was important in ensuring anonymity and confidentiality. In research conducted by Holmes (2004), recommendations on protecting confidentiality and data protection were implemented:

- Avoid storing participants' names and addresses or letters of correspondence on hard drives.

- Use identifier codes on data files and store the participant list and identifiers separately in a locked cabinet.

- Ensure transcripts do not include participant's names.

- Keep transcript copies in a locked cabinet (or password protected on encrypted hard drive).

Considering the recommendations offered by Holmes (2004), the research data (interviews, digital recording, transcripts and questionnaires) were stored in locked secure cabinets at the University of Northampton and on password protected encrypted hard drives. For data stored electronically, the researcher will ensure documents are password protected and stored securely. Any personal details were stored separately to research data to ensure the subjects anonymity is protected in the event of any security issues. This data storage will comply with the Data Protection Act (1998) which highlights the following eight principles for managing personal information:

- Fair and lawful processing

- Processed for limited purposes

- Adequate, relevant and not excessive

- Accurate and up to date

- Not kept for longer than necessary

- Processed in line with individuals rights

- Secure

Recognising the potential for safeguarding concerns was central to this research, with importance placed on the researcher completing further safeguarding and child protection training. As this research involved interacting with vulnerable individuals from difficult backgrounds, the research participant's physical, social and psychological welfare were of paramount importance to the researcher. France (2004) suggested ensuring the research participants have access to support following their participation in research. To ensure participants had access to support, the researcher identified a process for supporting participants to access organisations such as the Samaritans, Barnardos and Victim Support.

Ethical considerations in relation to the researcher's welfare and safety were also considered. The physical safety of the researcher was important in conducting this research, with the researcher remaining vigilant to any circumstances or situations that could jeopardise this safety. For the purpose of ensuring physical safety, the researcher completed the organisation's health and safety course, in addition to completing training on emergency protocols in the STC. The psychological welfare of the researcher was equally important and similar precautions were implemented including acknowledgement of the fact that research participants may disclose difficult or upsetting personal experiences. Following collaboration with social care practitioners, Tehrani (2011) found that professionals may experience physiological, psychological and emotional consequences in working with traumatised children and families. The researcher identified appropriate strategies for these situations. In the event any situation arose the researcher would discuss this with either a supervisor or an impartial professional. In the event of any aggressive or threatening behaviour from participants, the researcher agreed to follow the STC policies and procedures to de-escalate and minimise any negative impact.

4.12 – Access

For the collection of data the researcher required access to a STC that is run by a private organisation. The organisation is defined by eight values: safety first, customer focus, care, expertise, integrity, best people, team working and collaboration, and performance. The researcher attended the organisations induction to develop an understanding of the organisation's mission, values, policies and procedures. This allowed the researcher to understand the culture, processes and procedures in the organisation. Another important area considered was the researcher's suitability to access to the STC. In order to adhere with the organisations policies and procedures the researcher was required to undergo a stringent security vetting process and obtain a DBS. This process involved a ten year employment review in conjunction with professional and personal reference checks.

4.13 – Reflections on the research

Despite studying criminology and working with children and young people for 10 years, the experience of researching in a custodial environment was eye opening. Although the STC attempts to distance itself from a traditional adult prison, on entering, the similarities with a traditional adult prison are striking. From the moment you enter the STC, you are faced with security checks, metal detectors and compulsory searches, a daunting experience for anyone. My experience working with children and young people was primarily in the community or secure establishments in Scotland, which closely resemble Children's Homes rather than prisons. Thus, I expected to find a holistic environment centred on children and young people's welfare, rather, than an environment underpinned by notions of punishment and control. During the initial three months, when a BBC Panorama documentary on the abuse suffered by children and young people at an STC in England and Wales aired, the reality of the experiences of children and young people in such environments and the scope of the research project really hit home.

Children, young people and staff in the STC are essentially isolated from the outside world so I spent 24 months regularly visiting to build relationships and familiarise myself with the STC model. Spending this much time in the STC was beneficial for the research but observing the stress, violence, frustration and general lack of services was difficult. In particular, it was difficult to hear children and young people speak about 'not knowing' what was happening or where they would end up. You would hope these experiences were isolated but over the 24 months that I visited, these experiences were all too common. The STC model aims to provide accommodation for vulnerable children and young people. And, despite stories of violent youth in the media, the children and young people in STCs are vulnerable with stories of physical, sexual, emotional abuse and neglect evident from information in case files and my conversations with children, young people and staff. Reading and hearing children and young people speak about experiencing past abuse was an emotional experience. In particular, hearing about past physical abuse, especially in an environment in which restraint was regularly used. It was equally difficult to hear staff members share stories of their experiences with verbal and physical abuse from children and young people in the STCs, particularly given the fact that these experiences rarely resulted in support from

management. The emotions I encountered were only a fraction of the emotions the children, young people and staff encounter on a daily basis within, what can only be described as a broken system.

Negotiating access to the STC was initially straightforward; however, changes in management and staff turnover resulted in me dedicating considerable time to building and re-building relationships. Due to changes in management and staff turnover, challenges arose during the data collection period with original agreement around audio-recording revisited, causing delays. Once this challenge was resolved, another arose – this time with accessing children and young people for interviews. Despite the fact I was given, essentially, open-access to the STC environment, I was required to have a member of staff with me, except during the individual interviews, at which time the staff member would wait outside. Staff shortages, resulting from staff turnover, meant that the STC was regularly understaffed resulting in no staff members being available to facilitate interviews. Despite the best efforts of my main point of contact, interviews were rescheduled regularly which often frustrated the children and young people agreeing to participate.

For me, this research was focused on facilitating the active participation of children, young people and staff. In an environment focused on ensuring methodological rigour, it is pivotal to strike a balance between the processes and dedicating the right amount of time to the people that make the research matter. We must acknowledging the relationships that we build with participants was equally an important aspect of this research. Before conducting this research, I asked myself – what if someone asked me to share information on traumatic experiences or criminal behaviours then left? I remember that a researcher once interviewed a young victim of child sexual exploitation and, once the researcher had left, the young person told me she felt used, again. In sharing their stories with me, children, young people and staff allowed me to share in their experiences, experiences that matter. Although in research, you have to leave eventually I wanted to minimise any potential harm to the children, young people and staff participating in my research.

Rather than simply declaring the end of the research study, a final date for entering the research environment was identified and communicated to all participants. This date was extended over the course of the project due to the interview phase lasting longer than expected. I visited the STC for around 6 weeks after completing the questionnaire and interview phases to reduce any potential negative impact from my departure. During the exit period, I gradually reduced the time I spent on the units with children and young people. I would encourage researchers, conducting this type of research, to develop an exit strategy to try and ensure participants do not feel used. It is important to remember that the people participating in research are sharing a part of themselves.

4.14 – Summary

This chapter explored the interrelationship between the researcher's view of the world (the ontological position), the criteria in which knowledge is generated and communicated (the epistemological position) and the methods utilised to acquire knowledge (the methodological approach). Exploring this interrelationship resulted in an argument for adopting a mixed-methods approach to research, founded on critical realist philosophy. Determining the philosophical and methodological positions for research allowed the researcher to examine valid and reliable research methods for conducting research on the use of SIM as a form of performance management on youth offending interventions. The qualitative and quantitative methods selected for data collection were explored alongside the data analysis techniques. Sampling was explored rigorously resulting in the selection of a sample size and sample scheme that was appropriate for achieving data or theoretical saturation (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). The sample size selected for the quantitative phase of research was between 50 participants and 80 participants, as supported by Field (2009). For the qualitative phase of research, the sample size selected was between 5 and 20 participants, as supported by Creswell (1998) and Mason (2010) and. The researcher explored the sampling scheme, establishing a random sample and purposive sample to increase the opportunity for variance. Exploring the ethical considerations in completing research with children and young people was central to research. This chapter outlined the ethical considerations, detailing efforts to

minimise any risks associated with research including: a submission to the University of Northampton's ethics committee and the acquisition of an updated Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS). Table 4.4 outlines the philosophical and methodological approach to this research.

Table 4.4 – Philosophical & Methodological Overview	
Methodological Aspect	**Approach**
Philosophy	Critical Realism
Methodology	Mixed-method
Research Approach	Comparative
Research Aims	1. To examine the outcomes and social impact of custody on children and young people accommodated in STCs with focus on the factors contributing to positive resettlement. 2. To support the organisation to embed monitoring practices that promotes the delivery of effective practice. 3. To examine the evidence base for effective approaches in youth justice (specifically detention) and in the transitions to home communities or the adult estate.
Quantitative Research	• Questionnaire (Likert scale)
Qualitative Research	• Semi-structured Interviews
Sample	• Random and Purposive • Time = Concurrent and Nested • Quantitative Size = 50-80 • Qualitative Size = 5-20
Achieved Sample	• Quantitative Size (Children and Young People) = 68 • Quantitative Size (Staff) = 74 • Qualitative Size (Children and Young People) = 15 • Qualitative Size (Staff) = 15

Chapter Five – Children and Young People in Custody (Part 1)

Developing a plausible theory of change that explores the perceptions of young people in STCs is crucial for developing a relevant SIM framework (Clifford et al., 2014). Theory of change models are grounded in plausible evidence, experiences, and literature, enabling a wider understanding of the strategies to generate intended results (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). Developing a theory of change is predicated upon understanding the factors that influence recidivism and desistance, which allow organisations and governments to design effective interventions (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). Exploring the between-individual and within-individual theories of youth crime and offending was central to developing a theory of change. ICAP theory assumes *"…that the translation from antisocial potential to antisocial behaviour depends on cognitive (thinking and decision-making) processes that take account of opportunities and victims"* (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014:28). By combining Farrington's (2005) ICAP theory with the developing SIM framework, this chapter will explore the experiences of children and young people in STCs. Furthermore, this chapter will explore the perceptions of children and young people on the impact of interventions offered in STCs.

5.1 – Quantitative Research

Quantitative research was utilised to address 'how young people's experiences in the STCs supported their transition to adulthood and desistance?' In this section, the quantitative research phase is explored in terms of the sample size, demographics and instrument reliability. The quantitative phase incorporated a Likert-scale questionnaire (Appendix G) and case file analysis. As discussed in section 4.7, selecting a sample size appropriate for achieving data or theoretical saturation has received considerable debate in the academic sphere (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). For this research a sample size between 50 and 80 was deemed appropriate as supported by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004) and Field (2009). According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004) quantitative research benefits from a sample ranging from 21 participants to 82 participants for detecting effect-size. Data from the quantitative phase of research was explored and analysed using a variety of tests available from the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The tests utilised for exploring the quantitative data were discussed in Chapter 4.8.1 (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 – SPSS tests utilised for the quantitative analysis	
Sample distribution normality test	Cronbach's α
Univariate and multivariate outlier test	Independent sample *t*-tests
Chi-square test	Mann-Whitney U
Descriptive Statistics	Correlation and regression analysis.

On completing an analysis of case file information, a subset of the population (n=95) was selected between October 2016 and July 2017. This reflects the number of children and young people sentenced to custody in the centre (with case files for young people on remand excluded). The questionnaire data collection period was shorter than the case file analysis period, with questionnaires completed between October 2016 and March 2017. The subset of the population selected was 75 participants, accounting for the number of children and young people sentenced to custody, reflecting the reduced numbers resulting from an accommodation number cap from October 2016 and January 2017. Children and young people were invited to complete the questionnaire, with 68 agreeing to participate between October 2016 and March 2017. The participants were selected through a purposive sampling method to ensure children and young people met the inclusion criteria (sentenced to custody). Overall, 8 children and young people refused to participate in the study as the questionnaire was viewed as "boring" or "additional work". Tests of normality (Shapiro-Wilks[7]) were conducted on the demographics for non-participant and participant groups, finding a normal distribution for non-participant groups (p>0.05) and abnormal distribution for participant groups (p<0.05), with the exception of ethnicity and offence which were abnormally distributed for both groups (Appendix H). For children and young people invited to participate in the research, various factors were explored such as age, ethnicity, time served, offence and length of sentence. The researcher utilised a Mann-Whitney U[8] tests to determine if there were differences in time served and length of sentence for young people

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[7] A significance *higher* than p=.05 is normally distributed.
[8] The Mann-Whitney U tests are nonparametric tests are used to determine the differences between two groups (Field, 2009).

participating in the questionnaire and young people refusing to participate in the questionnaire (Table 5.2). This test was selected as the participant group was abnormal in distribution.

Table 5.2 – Differences participants and non-participants in the questionnaire (n=76)				
	Mean (Participants)	Mean (Non-participants)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
Age	15.9	15.6	224.50	0.399
Time served	58 (days)	95 (days)	251.50	0.728
Sentence Length	8.4 (months)	7.5 (months)	205.50	0.242

Results from the Mann-Whitney U indicates that no significant difference (*p*<0.05) in age, time served and length of sentence between participating and non-participating children and young people. A Fisher's Exact[9] test was utilised to explore information relating to ethnicity and offences for participants and non-participants, findings no statistically significant associations (*p*<0.05) (Table 5.3). Before completing the tests, ethnicity and offence data were recoded into two categories - white and non-white for ethnicity and violent and non-violent for offences (Field, 2009). This allowed the researcher to maximise the validity by ensuring each category had a minimum frequency of 3.

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[9] Fisher's Exact tests are suitable for determining f associations exist between variables with small sample sizes (Field, 2009),

Table 5.3 – Other differences for questionnaire participants and non-participants (n=76)			
	Participation		
Ethnicity	**No (%)**	**Yes (%)**	**X²**
White	50.0	47.1	0.583
Non-White	52.9	50.0	
Offence	**No (%)**	**Yes (%)**	**X²**
Violent	37.5	42.6	0.546
Non-Violent	62.5	57.4	

From exploring this information, no significant difference between the participant and non-participant group, in terms of demographics information, were detected. Therefore, the researcher can conclude that the sample participating in the research was representative of young people in custody over this period. The questionnaire responses were positioned on a Likert scales as illustrated in Table 5.4 and Table 5.5.

Table 5.4 – Questionnaire Likert scale (Statements 1-24 and 28-37)							
Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Associated Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Table 5.5 – Questionnaire Likert scale (Statements 25-27)					
Scale	None of the Time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time
Associated Number	1	2	3	4	5

An alternative Likert scale was utilised for statement 25-27 to align with The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale (Tennant, Hiller, Fishwick, Platt, Joseph, Weich, Parkinson, Secker and Stewart-Brown, 2007). Before exploring the data, understanding the demographics of children and young people participating in the research is critical. Participants were aged 13-18 years-old, and the sample was representative of the STC population. The ethnicity of the participants was recorded by the researcher, with 45 percent identifying as White British, 33 percent identifying as Black, 13 percent identifying as mixed and the remainder identifying as White Other. In terms of sentence length, short sentences between 6 and 12 months were the most common sentence for children and young people in custody. The impact of short sentences in terms of education, interventions and rehabilitation will be explored in each chapter. Another important factor considered was the offence type, with crimes of dishonesty (burglary and robbery) and violence against the person [Grievous Bodily Harm (GBH) and assault] recorded as the most common crimes. The full breakdown of demographic data for young people from the questionnaire and case file analysis are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 – Sample data breakdown for young people (quantitative phase) (%)		Questionnaire (n=68)	Case Information (n=95)
Mean Age	Years	15.9	15.6
Ethnicity	White	31 (45.6)	43 (45.3)
	Black	23 (33.8)	32 (33.7)
	Mixed	9 (13.2)	13 (13.7)
	Other White	5 (7.4)	7 (7.4)
NEET	No	11 (16.2)	30 (31.6)
	<6 months	5 (7.4)	12 (12.6)
	6-12 months	27 (39.7)	33 (34.7)
	13-18 months	11 (16.2)	12 (12.6)
	19+ months	14 (20.6)	9 (9.5)
Sentence	<6 months	9 (13.2)	16 (16.8)
	6-12 months	23 (33.8)	31 (32.6)
	13-24 months	17 (25.0)	23 (24.2)
	25+ months	19 (27.9)	19 (20.0)
Offence	Burglary/Robbery	31 (45.6)	35 (36.8)
	Assault/GBH	28 (41.2)	19 (20.0)
	Possession of Weapon	5 (7.4)	17 (17.9)
	Possession of Drugs	2 (2.9)	6 (6.3)
	Murder	1 (1.5)	4 (4.2)
	Sexual	0 (0)	4 (4.2)
	Other (Breach, Arson)	1 (1.5)	10 (10.5)

5.1.1 – Instrument Reliability

Exploring instrument (questionnaire) consistency allows researcher's to determine the reliability and stability of their research tools under a variety of conditions (Bollen, 1989; Nunnally, 1978). In research exploring the behaviours and attitudes of participants, determining reliability and stability is critical. For the purpose of examining reliability, the data obtained from the young person were subjected to Cronbach's α test. The Cronbach's α test measures the internal consistency within the questionnaire by measuring the average inter-correlations for all items (Loo, 2001). The young person questionnaire achieved an overall Cronbach's α of .899, exceeding the recommended values of .70 and .80 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Kline, 1999; and Loo, 2001). For the Cronbach's α based on standardised items the value was .857, again exceeding the recommended value. Moreover, this test was performed on all elements in the questionnaire; with no individual questions significantly altering the overall score (Table 5.7) (see Appendix I).

Table 5.7 – Reliability Statistics			
Questionnaire	Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α Based on Standardised Items	Number of Items
Young Person Questionnaire	.899	.857	49

5.2 – Qualitative Research

Qualitative research (semi-structured interview – Appendix J), in combination with quantitative research, sought to explore 'how young people's experiences in the STCs supported their transition to adulthood and desistance?' In this section the qualitative research phase is explored in terms of the sample size and demographics. As discussed in section 4.7, a purposive sample of young people was selected to participate in semi-structured interviews with acknowledgement of the exclusion criteria (see section 4.7 for further information). The sample size selected ranged from between 5 and 25 participants from each group (children and young people), as supported by Creswell (1998) and Mason (2010). Overall, 25 young people were invited to participate in interviews with 60 percent agreeing to participate (n=15). The reasons young people refused to participate in interviews

were similar to the questionnaire refusal reasons, with young people viewing the interviews as "additional work" or "boring". Tests of normality (Shapiro-Wilks) were conducted for non-participant and participant groups, finding an abnormal distribution for non-participant groups and participant groups ($p<0.05$), with the exception of length of time in STC and length of sentence ($p>0.05$) (Appendix K). The researcher performed a Mann-Whitney U test to determine if there was a difference in age for children and young people participating and those refusing to participate (Table 5.8).

Table 5.8 – Differences for participants and non-participants in the interviews (n=25)			
	Mean (Participants)	Mean (Non-participants)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
Age	16.3	16.47	57.50	0.338

In order to determine the difference in sentence served and length of sentence for participants and non-participants, the researcher conducted an Independent sample t-test[10] (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9 – Differences for participants and non-participants in the interviews (n=25)					
	Mean (Participants)	Mean (Non-participants)	t	Df	*p*-value
Sentence Served	3.1 (months)	3.2 (months)	0.170	23	0.867
Length of Sentence	9.3 (months)	8.8 (months)	-0.349	23	0.730

Results from the Mann-Whitney U and Independent t-test indicated that no significant difference in age, time served and length of sentence between participating and non-participating children and young people. A Fisher's Exact test was utilised to explore

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[10] The independent-samples t-test is a parametric test that compares the means for two groups.

information relating to ethnicity and offences for participants and non-participants ($p<0.05$), suggesting that no statistically significant association existed (Table 5.10). Before completed the tests, ethnicity and offence data were recoded to maximise validity (Field, 2009). As explained above, ethnicity was recoded into white and non-white while offence data was recoded into violent and non-violent. This allowed the researcher to maximise the validity by ensuring each category had a minimum value of 3.

Table 5.10 – Other differences for interview participants and non-participants (n=25)			
Ethnicity	**No (%)**	**Yes (%)**	**Fisher's Exact**
White	40.0	46.7	1.000
Non-White	60.0	53.3	
Offence	**No (%)**	**Yes (%)**	**Fisher's Exact**
Violent (including Sexual)	40.0	60.0	0.428
Non-Violent	60.0	40.0	

The research participants were aged 14-18 years-old, and the sample was representative of the STC population. The ethnicity of the participants was recorded by the researcher, with 46 percent identifying as White British, 33.3 percent identifying as Black, 13.3 percent identifying as mixed and the remainder identifying as White Other. In terms of sentence length, short sentences between 6 and 12 months were the most common sentence for children and young people in custody. The offence types reported by participants were similar to the offence types reported in questionnaires and case file analysis, with crimes of dishonesty (burglary and robbery) and violence against the person (Grievous Bodily Harm (GBH) and assault) recorded as the most common crimes. The full breakdown for demographic data for young people from the interviews are presented in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 – Sample breakdown for CYP (interview and questionnaire)			
		Interviews (%) (n=15)	Questionnaire (%) (n=68)
Mean Age	Years	16.3	15.9
Ethnicity	White	7 (46.7)	31 (45.6)
	Black	5 (33.3)	23 (33.8)
	Mixed	2 (13.3)	9 (13.2)
	Other White	1 (6.7)	5 (7.4)
NEET	No	2 (13.3)	11 (16.2)
	<6 months	3 (20.0)	5 (7.4)
	6-12 months	6 (40.0)	27 (39.7)
	13-18 months	2 (13.3)	11 (16.2)
	19+ months	2 (13.3)	14 (20.6)
Sentence	<6 months	2 (13.3)	9 (13.2)
	6-12 months	6 (40.0)	23 (33.8)
	13-24 months	4 (26.7)	17 (25.0)
	25+ months	3 (20.0)	19 (27.9)
Offence	Burglary/Robbery	5 (33.3)	31 (45.6)
	Assault/GBH	6 (40.0)	28 (41.2)
	Sexual	3 (20.0)	0 (0)
	Possession of Drugs	0 (0)	2 (2.9)
	Murder	0 (0)	1 (1.5)
	Possession of Weapons	0 (0)	5 (7.4)
	Other (Breach, Arson)	1 (6.7)	1 (1.5)

Data from the interview was analysed using Constant Comparative Method (CCM), underpinned by a Straussian grounded theory approach, which allowed the researcher to engage in an iterative process (See section 4.6.2). Adopting this approach allowed the researcher to simultaneously collect and analyse data, creating analytical themes and codes from data rather than by pre-existing conceptualisations (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). During the 'immersion' stage, the researcher established 47 units for analysis from interview data, including 'low self-esteem', 'lack of consistency', 'hopelessness', and 'victim blaming' (Appendix L). Information from the 'immersion' stage was analysed further during the 'categorisation' stage, with the units for analysis condensed into 15 categories. The categories identified were further explored through a process of 'phenomenological reduction', with five key themes emerging – 'health and wellbeing', 'relationships', 'education', 'independence', 'and 'attitudes to offending'. Figure 5.1 illustrates the qualitative analysis process undertaken, with the numbers in the categories boxes corresponding with the relevant units for analysis and the numbers in the theme boxes corresponding with the relevant categories. This chapter will explore the initial two themes emerging from the data – health and wellbeing and relationships. The remaining themes will be explored in Chapter Six.

Figure 5.1 – Qualitative Analysis

47 units of analysis

1. Family

12, 13, 22, 35, 37, 38

2. Friends/Partners

23, 29, 34, 36

3. Staff

14, 17, 19, 24, 30, 39

4. Past Education

14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 39

5. Education

14, 19, 26, 27

6. Boredom

15, 20, 31, 46

7. Wellbeing

26, 23, 25, 27, 38, 40 42

8. Emotions

1, 7, 10, 34, 38, 45

9. Criminality

2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 11, 35, 36

10. Independence

12, 22, 23, 25, 28

11. Future

3, 6, 9, 11, 20, 21, 24

12. Trust

12, 13, 25, 30, 39

13. Consistency

19, 32, 24

14. Services

4, 17, 19, 33, 41, 44

15. Health

10, 47, 13, 19

A. Health and Wellbeing

7, 15

B. Relationships

1, 2, 3, 12, 13

C. Education

4, 5

D. Independence

14, 8, 10, 11

E. Attitudes

6, 9

5.3 – Health and Wellbeing

Research shows that children and young people in custodial settings experience significant health inequalities and poor mental ill-health (Khan, 2010; Murray, 2012; and Hughes, William, Chitsabesan, Davies and Mounce, 2012). Sentencing vulnerable children and young people with mental ill-health should be avoided as *"…literature suggests that gains made in these settings are rarely sustained after release often due to poor transitional care"* (Khan, 2010:2). Indeed, Beal (2014) stated that children and young people in custody may experience adverse life outcomes including poor education, mental health, social exclusion and unemployment. Research conducted by McAra and McVie (2010:202) showed that children and young people involved in the criminal justice system *"are among the most victimised and vulnerable group of people in our society".* Rather than focusing on statistical information available, obtaining the views of children and young people on the experience of custody and the impact on health and wellbeing is central to measuring the impact of custody.

5.3.1 – Health and Wellbeing prior to entering the STC

Lader, Singleton and Meltzer (1997) conducted a study on the health and wellbeing of young people in prison in England and Wales, finding higher rates of mental ill-health, such as psychosis, neurosis and personality disorders, than in the general population. More recent studies (Murray, 2012 and Hughes, William, Chitsabesan, Davies and Mounce, 2012) exploring mental ill-health for young people in custody found that 27 percent of young males reported mental ill-health or emotional regulation problems. For young people participating in the Lader, Singleton and Meltzer (1997) study, the reported incidences of suicidal thoughts and attempted suicides were higher than the general population. Although this study was conducted in 1997, a more recent study conducted by Jacobson, Bhardwa, Gyateng, Hunter and Hough (2010) found that around 20 percent of young people sentenced to custody had reportedly self-harmed in comparison with 7 percent of the general population. On exploring case files, the researcher identified a significant proportion of children and young people presenting with self-harm or suicide concerns (54.7 percent). Despite research and information on the mental ill-health amongst children and young people in custody, research on experiences of trauma for this cohort remains under-developed. A number of children and young people in custody have experienced child abuse, bereavement and exposure to

domestic violence, which suggests the existence of trauma. The *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM-5) defines "traumatic" events as situations in which children directly experience, learn or witness actual of threatened violence or serious injury (American Psychiatry Association, 2013:271). Children and young people participating in interviews mentioned these experiences:

"I don't have a dad though, well, I have a dad. He left years ago, before my little bro was born. He was a joke, he used to smack my mum up and stuff. He's lucky I never done him, if he came around now I would do him" (P02).

"Dads been in prison and mum has a ton of mental problems. When she was angry she would take her issues out on me" (P03)

"I lost my mum years ago, I don't remember her much... I didn't really have a chance. I went to foster care and stuff, my brother stayed with my aunt but I was too much to handle. It's been a hard time but even my girl says I'm a strong person and I can get over it" (P11)

The trauma resulting from experiencing child abuse, domestic abuse and bereavement can hinder the development of children and young people (Kitzmann, Gaylord, Holt and Kenny, 2003; Holt, Buckley and Whelan, 2006; Cohen, Mannarino and Deblinger, 2017). Some children and young people experience only limited and/or brief trauma symptoms as a result of development level, resilience and external support; however, children and young people experiencing prolonged exposure of abuse and/or bereavement could experience enduring trauma (Cohen, Mannarino and Deblinger, 2017). One question arising is whether children and young people are experiencing mental ill-health or manifestations of trauma. Rather than labelling children and young people with disorders such as personality disorders or psychosis, qualified professionals should support children and young people to address their traumatic experiences. The negative impact of labelling has received significant exploration in terms of criminogenic labels (Lemert, 1951; Becker, 1963; Matza, 1969 and McAra and McVie, 2007); however, labelling is equally important in other areas. For children and young people a

significant number of other vulnerability factors exist such as substance misuse, poor educational attainment and pro-criminal relationships.

Research conducted by Layard (2005) found that mental ill-health contributes to poor life satisfaction, educational attainment and physical health. Given the potential impact of adverse health and wellbeing on life satisfaction, the researcher introduced statements to measure children and young people's views on life satisfaction. Life satisfaction is *"a reflective appraisal, a judgment, of how well things are going, and have been going"* (Argyle, 2001:39). For the current research, seven items from Huebner's (1991) SLSS were implemented, offering self-reported measures of life satisfaction for children and young people aged 8 to 18 years-old. For example, *my life is just right and my life is going well*. Negatively worded SLSS items were reverse-keyed in SPSS, allowing the researcher to test the internal consistency and score student satisfaction. For this study, the internal consistency was 0.818 (Cronbach's α), exceeding the recommended value of .80 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Kline, 1999; and Loo, 2001). The mean of the overall satisfaction for children and young people in custody was 1.96 (7-point Likert scale) indicating a low life satisfaction for children and young people in STCs (Gilman and Huebner, 2006; and Suldo and Huebner, 2004). A study conducted by Suldo and Huebner (2004) found mean SLSS scored of 4.21 on a sample of 1188 adolescents. This study explored the role of life satisfaction for children and young people presenting with 'problem behaviour' with focus on relationship factors. Despite the selection of children and young people presenting with 'problem behaviour', the mean life satisfaction score was higher than for children and young people in custody. Table 5.12 illustrated a breakdown of responses to life satisfaction statement.

Table 5.12 – Descriptive Statistics on Life Satisfaction (n=68)					
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
My life is just right	1	6	2.21	.121	1.001
I would like to change many things in my life	1	6	1.85	.111	.919
I wish I had a different kind of life	1	6	1.90	.117	.964
I have a good life	1	6	2.06	.115	.944
I have what I want in life	1	4	1.85	.097	.797
My life is better than most kids	1	5	1.94	.113	.929
My life is going well	1	5	1.88	.099	.820

Low life satisfaction is influenced by several internal and external factors such as positive relationships and social networks, secure accommodation, education or employment, good mental and physical health (Argyle, 2001; and Laylard, 2005). Given the adverse experiences of those in custody and low life satisfaction levels, custodial environments have a significant role in promoting health and wellbeing as well as supporting children and young people to achieve positive outcomes that will contribute to life satisfaction.

The researcher created statements to measure other factors associated with mental health and wellbeing. Figure 5.2 illustrates the responses from children and young people on feelings of optimism, usefulness and problem management.

Figure 5.2 – Responses to factors associated with mental well-being
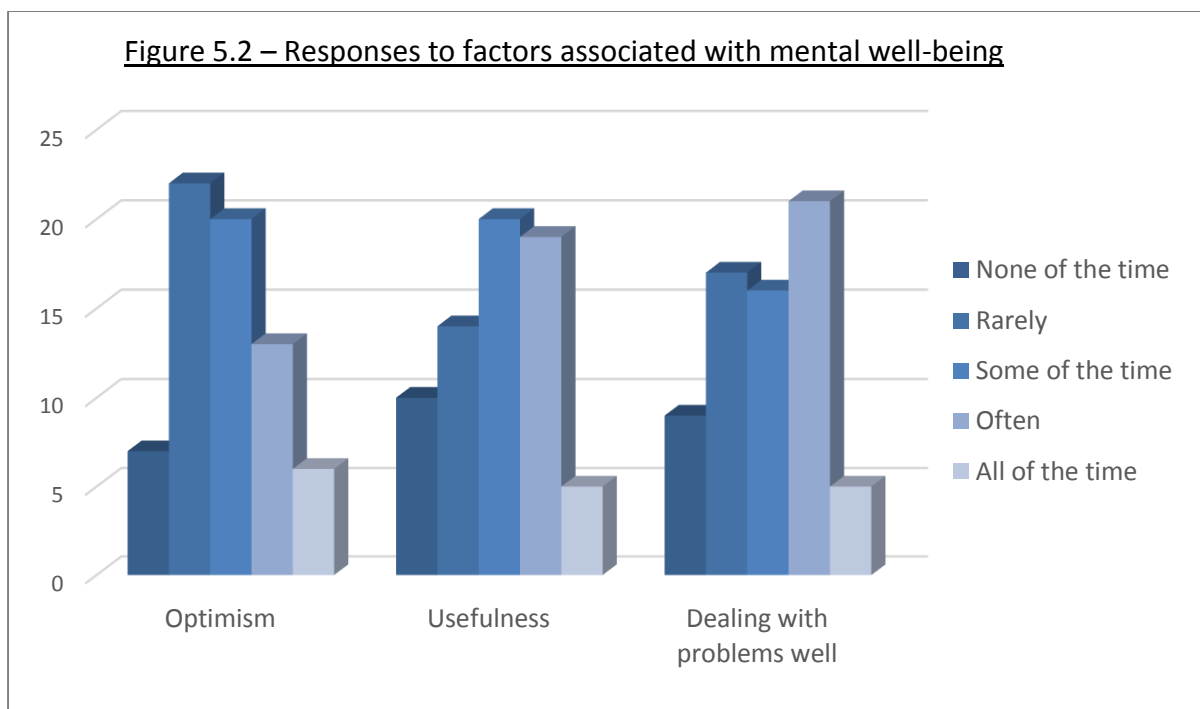
Research exploring the associations between optimism and health found that higher levels of optimism are associated with fewer health problems (Aspinwall and Taylor, 1992; Brissette, Scheier and Carver, 2002; Peterson and Bossio, 2001). Given the health inequalities for children and young people in custody, lowers levels of optimism will have a significant impact. The responses for children and young people in relation to optimism were primarily *rarely* (32.4 percent). In contrast to optimism, the responses in relation to usefulness were primarily *some of the time* (29.4 percent) and dealing with problems well (32.3 percent) were primarily *often* (Table 5.13).

Table 5.13 – Descriptive Statistics on optimism, usefulness and problem solving (n=68)					
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (Std. Error)		Std. Deviation
I've been feeling optimistic about the future.	1	5	2.84	.137	1.128
I've been feeling useful.	1	5	2.93	.143	1.176
I've been dealing with problems well.	1	5	2.94	.143	1.183

A Kendall's tau_b correlation was completed to determine the relationships between feelings of optimism and the views of family life for participants. There was a significant

positive correlation (*p*<0.01) between family life and feelings of optimism, with children and young people with a positive family life reporting higher feelings of optimism. The result was equally significant for feelings of usefulness and views of family life, with a significant correlation (*p*<0.01) for participants reporting a positive family life and feelings of usefulness (Table 5.14a and Table 5.14b).

Table 5.14a – Feelings of optimism for young people related to family (n=68)						
	I've been feeling optimistic about the future.					
I like my family life	None of the time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time	**T^b (*p*-value)**
Moderately Disagree	1	2	0	0	0	2.768 (0.006)
Mildly Disagree	0	1	9	4	0	
Neither	0	2	2	0	0	
Mildly Agree	6	13	0	0	1	
Moderately Agree	0	2	6	0	0	
Strongly Agree	0	2	3	9	5	

Table 5.14b – Feelings of usefulness for young people related to family (n=68)						
	I've been feeling useful.					
I like my family life	None of the time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time	**T[b] (*p*-value)**
Moderately Disagree	3	0	0	0	0	2.760 (0.006)
Mildly Disagree	0	1	9	4	0	
Neither	0	0	4	0	0	
Mildly Agree	7	5	2	6	0	
Moderately Agree	0	6	2	0	0	
Strongly Agree	0	2	3	9	5	

Similarly, a significant positive correlation (*p*<0.01) was noted for optimism and usefulness in relation to satisfaction and desire to continue with education (Table 5.15a and Table 5.15b). For children and young people expressing positive attitudes to education experiences and future education prospects, feelings of usefulness and optimism were significantly higher (*p*<0.01).

Table 5.15a – Feelings of optimism for young people related to education (n=68)

I want to continue with my education or training once I leave the STC.	I've been feeling optimistic about the future.					T^b (*p*-value)
	None of the time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time	
Strongly Disagree	3	2	3	0	0	
Moderately Disagree	2	2	2	0	0	
Mildly Disagree	0	8	2	0	0	
Neither	0	1	0	2	0	4.700 (0.000)
Mildly Agree	0	6	8	5	2	
Moderately Agree	2	3	4	1	0	
Strongly Agree	0	0	1	5	4	

Table 5.15b – Feelings of usefulness for young people related to education (n=68)

I want to continue with my education or training once I leave the STC.	I've been feeling useful.					T^b (*p*-value)
	None of the time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time	
Strongly Disagree	5	0	3	0	0	
Moderately Disagree	3	2	1	0	0	
Mildly Disagree	0	4	3	3	0	
Neither	0	0	1	2	0	3.716 (0.000)
Mildly Agree	0	4	8	8	1	
Moderately Agree	2	2	3	2	1	
Strongly Agree	0	2	1	4	3	

From completing the case files analysis, the researcher found that the majority of children and young people were categorised as experiencing emotional regulation difficulties (68.4 percent). Emotional regulation is influenced by personal experience and the "enactment of

social structure" (Planalp, 1999:146). Research conducted by Laws and Crewe (2016) in a medium security prison, found that emotional regulation is hindered by the prison environment, specifically the intense confinement and rules. Laws and Crew (2016:544) suggested exploring the entire *"spectrum of emotion management in prison, including the management of 'positive' emotions"* by introducing an emotional regulation framework, adapted from research conducted by Gross and Thompson (2007). This proves pertinent for this research project in developing a SIM framework that incorporates the range of emotional management in prisons. Children and young people participating in interviews presented with negative views of self, including usefulness and optimism:

"I'm not confident though, I'm not good at stuff. I struggle to speak right and people judge me. I mean, people say I'm rotten" (P01)

"..I'll probably end up in jail again so no point really thinking about what I might have in the future. I mean, I'm not really good at anything so if I did have something I wanted, I wouldn't get it cause I ain't so lucky right" (P05)

"When I am angry, I just go for it. I won't stand down. I think it's because of my mental health issues though. It tells me what to do so I do it…" (P06)

"I don't really have many friends, except my online friends. People don't like me, they think I'm weird. I have stuff, its makes me angry and I punch stuff sometimes" (P09)

These quotes illustrate methods children and young people use to regulate emotions, with some children and young people resorting to violence and other citing recreational substance use as a coping mechanism. In terms of substance misuse, this research suggests substance misuse among children and young people was perceived as *recreational* rather than *problematic.* Information from the case file analysis suggests that 87.4 percent of participants had recognised substance misuse problems, with 100 percent of these participants reporting cannabis use and 36.8 percent reporting poly-drug use[11]. Parker,

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[11] Poly-drug use refers to the use of more than one drug at the same time or different times.

Aldridge and Measham (1998) conducted research on substance misuse for children and young people in England and Wales, finding a cultural "normalisation" to substance misuse. In exploring the literature on health and wellbeing, substance misuse was a reoccurring factor in research (Lader, Singleton and Meltzer, 1997; Galahad, 2004; User Voice, 2011). Studies by Lader, Singleton and Meltzer (1997) and Galahad (2004) also found disproportionately higher rates of substance misuse amongst young people in custody. Health and wellbeing only emerged as a unit for analysis in exploring interview responses, with children and young people reluctant to discuss such issues. However, several participants mentioned substance misuse as a coping mechanism:

"Smoking calms me, I have smokes since I was.. I don't know.. young like. It helps me cope with stuff, like I have ADHD, it helps me cope with it. I can't have weed in here so I have meds... but... that makes me want to sleep all the time" (P03)

"You know I smoke drugs, not like the drugs you are thinking off though, just weed. It's the only things I have ever done and I won't stop doing that ever. It helps me cope with all the bad in life. It keeps me cool" (P06)

"Well, mostly weed but I have smoked other stuff too. I like weed, it relaxes me but they don't let you have it here. I think it should be legal cause some people need it, like me" (P15)

The responses from children and young people participating in this research support and advance the ideas proposed by Parker, Aldridge and Measham (1998). Although Parker, Aldridge and Measham (1998) identified the "normalisation" culture surrounding substance use; however, children and young people in custody view substances, particular cannabis or "weed", as a coping mechanism. Furthermore, one young person (P03) viewed smoking "weed" as a positive alternative to ADHD medication. For children and young people indicating substance use as a coping mechanism, experiences of domestic abuse, bereavement and pro-criminal family members were present. Research conducted by Lawson, Back, Hartwell, Moran-Santa and Brady (2013) found that the prevalence of substance use was higher in groups experiencing traumatic events or adverse childhood

experiences. Despite the prevalence of substance use for children and young people experiencing trauma, substance misuse services continue to operate in isolation with a focus on reducing substance abuse rather than exploring the underlying trauma leading to substance use.

5.3.2 – Health and Wellbeing in STCs

Given concerns over the health and wellbeing of children and young people entering prison in England and Wales, STCs have an obligation to ensure appropriate health and wellbeing services are offered in custody. During the induction to the centre, children and young people engage in a Comprehensive Health Assessment Tool (CHAT) which covers physical health, mental health, neuro-disability and substance misuse. Each section of the assessment is completed by qualified health care and substance misuse professionals. To further assess children and young people's health and wellbeing at arrival, medical records are reviewed and appointments with the General Practitioner (GP) and dentist are arranged. In addressing health and wellbeing needs identified during the CHAT, the centre employs a locum psychiatrist who attends the centre on a regular basis, supported by two registered mental health nurses in the healthcare department (Ofsted, 2017). During the research period, the centre also employed two part-time assistant psychologists, which appeared inadequate in terms of the position (Assistance Psychologists) and the part-time nature of the position, for addressing the needs of children and young people entering custody. A recent Ofsted (2017) report commented on the delays children and young people experienced in accessing psychology services, with four children and young people on the waiting list during Ofsted's visit. Given concerns over the mental ill-health of children and young people in custody and the impact of mental ill-health on life satisfaction and desistance, providing adequate service provision is critical (Lader, Singleton and Meltzer, 1997; Jacobson et al., 2010; Murray, 2012 and Hughes, William, Chitsabesan, Davies and Mounce, 2012). Although current provisions are inadequate for managing the complexities and vulnerabilities of those entering custody, the STC have plans to increase the provisions with additional psychologists to fulfil the growing demand.

As discussed above, a high proportion of children and young people had recognised substance misuse problems before entering custody. On entering custody, a substance misuse element of the CHAT is completed by staff from the substance misuse service. This allows them to identify substance misuse issues and offer appropriate support to children and young people. Although, all children and young people are assessed by the substance misuse services on arrival, engagement with the service is optional, resulting in children and young people refusing to engage. Despite the fact that all children and young people engage with substance misuse professionals on arrival, 20.6 percent of children and young people responded with *strongly disagree or disagree* to the statement "I have had the opportunity to access alcohol and substance misuse services in the STC", with a further 19.1 responding *neither*. The responses indicate that children and young people are confused with regards the availability of substance misuse services, evidently available in the STC, which may be the result of receiving too much *information*[12] on arrival. To overcome this issue, substance misuse services could routinely revisit children and young people to offer appropriate services.

Another area explored in the questionnaire surrounded children and young people's recognition of substance misuse problems. Despite the results from the case file analysis and statistical reports from the STC, the majority of children and young people (63.2 percent) *disagree* with the statement "I think I have alcohol or substance misuse problems", with 19.1 percent responding with *neither.* This supports the idea proposed by Parker, Aldridge and Measham (1998) that children and young people view substance misuse as a recreational norm that requires no intervention. To further explore children and children and young people's ability to access substance misuse services, the researcher explored the statement "I know how to access alcohol and substance misuse services once I leave the STC". The majority of children and young people (41.2 percent) *disagree* with this statement, with 16.9 percent responding with *neither.* Bennett, Holloway and Farrington (2008) completed a systemic review and analysis of the relationships between substance misuse and crime, finding that offending was three to four times higher for individuals with substance use (Bennett, Holloway and Farrington, 2008). Given the combination of substance use and

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[12] Children and young people engage in assessments and receive substantial information on arrival.

normalisation, children and young people require significant support to acknowledge substance use problems and access services both in custody and in the community.

Overall, children and young people view the healthcare provisions offered in the STC positively with 66.2 percent reporting that they *liked* the provisions offered. This figure was similar to the recent Ofsted (2017) report that 64 percent of children and young people stated the healthcare services were good. Overall, the health and wellbeing provisions in the STC are good, with improvements required with psychology and substance misuse services. Despite the availability of healthcare services in the centre, supporting children and young people to access provisions on release is critical. The researcher explored children and young people's understanding of accessing services on release, finding that 72.1 percent had knowledge of the process for accessing services. In order to compare the differences for children and young people with knowledge and those without knowledge the sample was categorised further, with responses categorised by *disagree*, *neither or agree* (Field, 2009). The data was analysed using a Mann-Whitney U test allowing for examination of the differences in knowledge of accessing services for children and young people with and without pro-criminal family members. Statistically significant differences were identified, with children and young people with pro-criminal family members less likely to understand the process for accessing services ($p<0.05$) (Table 5.16).

Table 5.16 – Knowledge of accessing services based on family background (n=68)			
Mean(Pro-criminal)	Mean (Non-criminal)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
2.82	4.83	262.0	.000

Analysis revealed that children and young people with pro-criminal family members were significantly more likely to have no knowledge of accessing services, compared with children and young people with no pro-criminal family members. On calculating an odds ratio from the results, data suggested that children and young people with pro-criminal family members were two times less likely to know how to access services. This suggests that children and young people with pro-criminal family members receive less support or

experience less absorption of information on how to access health services. For this reasons, children and young people with pro-criminal family members in STCs may benefit from more intensive support in terms of accessing services.

5.3.3 – Summary

Developing a SIM framework that measures the health and wellbeing factors contributing to recidivism and desistance is critical for identifying effective and sustainable services. As discussed previously, addressing health and wellbeing issues, as well as safety, are critical for developing an environment that motivates and encourages the development of positive relationships, participation in education training or employment, and the promotion of independence. The health inequalities for children and young people entering custody, such as mental ill-health and substance misuse problems, are evident from international literature as well as this research (Vreugdenhil, Doreleijers and Vermeiren, 2004; Golzari, Hunt and Anoshiravani, 2006; Fazel, Doll and Langstrom, 2008; Kinner, Degenhardt and Coffey, 2014). To measure the impact of custody on the health and wellbeing factors contributing to recidivism and desistance, developing interval level measurement is critical. For example, measuring children and young people views of substance misuse from arrival to post-release (6 month – 24 month follow-up) would allow professionals to identify changes in attitudes to cessation of substance use which is important for desistance (Bennett et al., 2008). By implementing an interval measurement throughout the young person journey, the STC, YJB and professionals can assess improvements or challenges at the relationship stage.

5.4 – Relationships

Relationships are central to motivating and supporting individuals desist from offending, develop and maintain healthy relationships in the future and access services for support upon release (Clancy, Hudson, Maguire, Peake, Raynor, Vanstone and Kynch, 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006; and Bateman and Hazel, 2013). Indeed, Hall (2003) highlighted the fact that inconsistent and short-lived mentoring relationships are damaging to children and young people who have no positive role models in their lives. Research focusing on the experiences of children in care found that children and young people want professionals who show genuine interest and concern, listen, have open and honest dialogue and spend quality time with them (Fletcher, 1993; Baldry and Kemmis, 1998; Bell, 2002; Morgan, 2006 and McLeod,

2008). From analysing the quantitative and qualitative findings, the researcher identified relationships and trust as a key theme. This supports findings from the review of the SIM literature (see Chapter Three) with the identification of relationships as one of the individual, community and societal factors that promote positive outcomes for children and young people (Big Capital Society, 2013). This includes the existence of positive social networks that provide love, belonging, emotional and practical support in conjunctions with supportive and encouraging families and/or good personal relationships. Hazel, Goodfellow, Wright, Lockwood, McAteer, Francis and Wilkinson (2016) found that family relationships are central to resettlement and requires inclusion in children and young people's plans transitions to the community. Beyond this, families[13] can be pivotal in supporting children and young people in custodial environment. As relationships and trust are pivotal for promoting positive outcomes for each other stage in the pyramid, the researcher will explore this theme in relation to children and young people's relationships prior to entering STCs and children and young people's relationships within STCs.

5.4.1 – Relationships prior to entering STCs

Traditional theories on youth crime and offending advocate the development of positive relationships in shaping the behaviours of children and young people. Research shows that strong and supportive relationships aid desistance from offending (Sampson and Laub, 1993), highlighting that offending behaviour is influenced by poor family relationships, negative school experiences and delinquent influences (Sampson and Laub, 1993; Farrington, 2005; Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). As discussed above, experiences and relationships for children and young people prior to entering STCs vary, with a significant number of young people exposed to parental separation (68.4 percent), pro-criminal family members (68.4 percent), domestic abuse (50.6 percent), bereavement (25 percent) and/or experiences in the care system (42.7 percent). Children and young people reflected on some of these issues within interviews:

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[13] The terms 'family' refers to the unique and constantly changing family model.

"Well my mum and dad don't talk to me anymore because of the offending and other stuff. Mum just wanted to disown me anyway, she hated me. It's difficult at times cause my family hate me. I was in Foster care for 2 years (or nearly 2 years) before I came here" (P03)

"I live with my maw and little bro/sis…I hate my dad and his bitch man. She hates me too. My dad acts like he knows me but he doesn't know me…I don't want to end up like my dad man, he's scum" (P07)

"The place I lived was alright. I lived in a caravan for 14 years, because I am a traveller. And then our caravan got burnt down and then we lived in a hostel for only like 2 or 3 months" (P12)

Despite the central role family play in supporting children and young people in custody and transitioning from custody, some children and young people have fractured relationships with family members. Hazel et al. (2016:2) acknowledged this stating that *"it may not always be appropriate to involve particular or all members of the young person's family…"* Given the prior relationships experienced by many young people in custody, developing positive and trusting relationships is important for promoting positive attitudes and outcomes (Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006). ICAP theory highlights the negative impact of criminal parents, poor child rearing, disrupted families and negative life events on antisocial potential (Farrington, 2005; Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). This encapsulates the ideas proposed by Differential Association Theory that criminal behaviour results from learning *"definitions favourable to law violations over definitions unfavourable to law violations"* (Matsueda, 1988:6). Differential association theory proposed that higher rates of criminal and offending behaviour will be present for children and young people socialised in families or communities supporting pro-criminal norms. Research by Osborne and West (1982) supports this idea, finding that 40 percent of young men with fathers convicted of criminal behaviour acquired a conviction before the age of 18 years-old. Data analysis supports the work of Matsueda (1988), Sampson and Laub (1993), Farrington (2005) and Farrington and Ttofi (2014) finding that a high proportion of children and young people in the STC were exposed to pro-criminal family members and/or peers (Figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3 – Exposure to pro-criminal attitudes
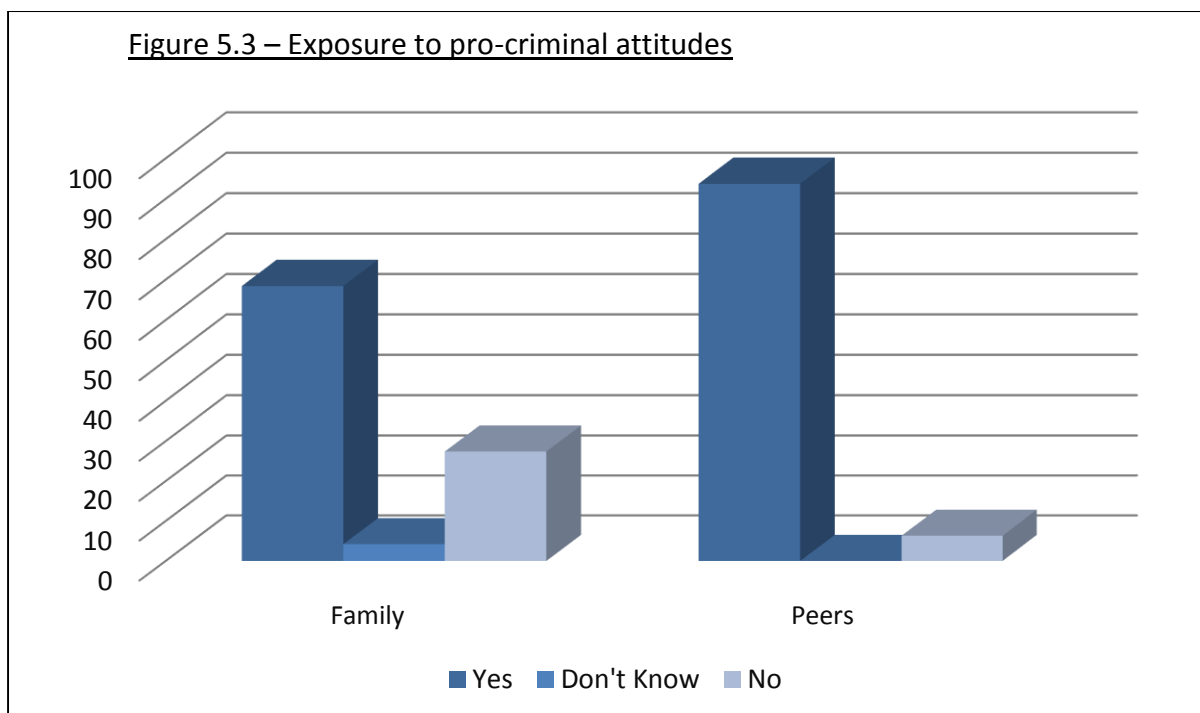
Figure 5.3 illustrates that children and young people in the STC have high exposure to pro-criminal attitudes from both family members (68.4 percent) and peers (93.7 percent). In order to compare the influence of pro-criminal family members on the desire to apologise, responses were re-coded and categorised by *disagree*, *neither or agree* (Field, 2009). The data was analysed using the cross-tabulation test to examine the relationship for children and young people with pro-criminal family members. Statistically significant relationships were identified, with children and young people with pro-criminal family members less likely to show a desire to apologise for crimes committed ($p<.05$) (Table 5.17).

Table 5.17 – Desire to apologise for offences based on family background (n=68)			
Mean (Pro-criminal)	**Mean (Non-criminal)**	**Mann-Whitney U**	***p*-value**
2.11	4.17	270.0	.000

Analysis revealed that children and young people with pro-criminal family members were significantly less inclined to say sorry for crimes committed in comparison with children and young people with no pro-criminal family members. On calculating an odds ratio from the results, data suggested that children and young people with no pro-criminal family members were four times more likely to have a desire to say sorry. Interestingly, this result differed in

terms of pro-criminal peers with no significant difference for children and young people with/without pro-criminal peers. Two interview participants discussed the influence of parental involvement in criminal activity on their own involvement:

"I have had a few offences – I dealt drugs and stuff. It was for my dad though so hardly my fault. Its fucking shit man, they disowned me, but for different reasons... He had too much influence on my life and he didn't like it" (P03)

"I don't think she really cares. She's always telling me that she doesn't wanna see me end up like my dad, she hates him. He's alright though, he's in prison for robbing and other shit. He showed me the trade like" (P05)

Another factor to consider in relation to family relationships was exposure to domestic violence, as 41.5 percent of research participants had witnessed and/or experienced domestic violence in their family home. Research by Kitzmann, Gaylord, Holt and Kenny (2003) found that exposure to parental aggression hinders the development of the psychosocial functioning of young people. In their literature review Holt, Buckley and Whelan (2006:807) concluded the effect of domestic violence on young people *"may resonate inter-generationally with their own involvement in adult violence".* Information from a recent Ofsted (2017) report of the STC suggested that 37 percent (n=47) of young people had reported physical restraint since arriving and a significantly higher number will have witnessed this restraint. For young people with historical experiences of domestic violence, witnessing or experiencing a physical restraint in custody serves to mirror historical experiences, resulting in further trauma.

Given the impact of domestic violence on children and young people entering custody and the value of family relationships, the researcher also examined the associations between mental wellbeing and relationships. As demonstrated in section 5.3.1 (Table 5.13), data showed that young people with positive family lives had significantly higher feelings of optimism and usefulness ($p<0.01$). For this group of children and young people, the

satisfaction with education and the desire to continue were also significantly higher ($p<0.01$) (Table 5.14). These findings support research by Umberson and Montez (2011) that social relationships impact on the mental health and wellbeing of individuals. For children and young people in STCs, supporting the development of positive and pro-social relationships is central to achieve positive outcomes.

5.4.2 – Relationships in STCs

As discussed above, developing positive and trustful relationships is central in motivating and supporting individuals to desist from offending, develop and maintain positive healthy relationships and access services for support upon release (Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006). Farrington and Ttofi (2014) discuss the value of positive relationships and positive role models in reducing offending behaviour. Partridge (2004) explored trust, highlighting that young people do not want to share information with a succession of people. Supporting children and young people to maintain and develop links with family outside the custodial environment is pivotal for transition and effective resettlement (Hazel et al., 2016). Hazel et al. 92016) outlined the family role in supporting children and young people with emphasis on: identifying strengths and goals, providing stable foundation, promoting personal identity, emotional support, and relapse recovery. Despite research illustrating the role of family members in supporting children and young people on transition from custody, 45.6 per cent of children and young people disagreed with the statement "I have visits from my family and friends regularly". A Kendall tau_b was completed to determine the relationship between feelings of optimism and visits from family and friends. There was a significant positive correlation ($p<0.05$) between the variables, with children and young people receiving regular visits from family and friends reporting higher feelings of optimism (Table 5.18).

Table 5.18 – Feelings of optimism and visits from family and friends (n=68)						
I have visits from my family or friends regularly	**I've been feeling optimistic about the future.**					**T^b (p-value)**
	None of the time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time	
Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	5	0	2.073 (0.038)
Moderately Disagree	1	2	0	0	0	
Mildly Disagree	0	12	11	0	0	
Neither	6	0	0	0	0	
Mildly Agree	0	4	2	1	2	
Moderately Agree	0	3	4	3	0	
Strongly Agree	0	1	3	4	4	

This illustrates the importance of visits from family and friends for children and young people's optimism for the future. The reasons children and young people have limited/or no visits from family and friends will vary; however, children and young people participating in interviews reported the following:

"They come and visit me every 2 weeks but they can't come all the time. I don't want my younger brother to know I'm here so he never visits, he doesn't know what happened" (P04)

"Alright, mum visits me but it's hard cause of the kids and stuff. She tries. I don't really have anyone else in my life now. I wish I had people visiting all the times but life is life. It difficult in here" (P07)

"Mum visits me but it's hard cause she works hard. It's hard, I don't see my brother though. I wish I saw my brother cause we are close like, never apart. Now I never see my bro" (P08)

"I see them sometimes. I do want to see them more but it's hard in here. Mum only has

some money and can't visit all the time. She tried to get help, money help, to visit but it didn't work out" (P10)

The high number of children and young people receiving limited and/or no visits in conjunction with the impact visits on feeling of optimism, staff supporting children and young people have a pivotal role in delivering this 'family' support. Research exploring the role staff relationships play in developing positive outcomes for children and young people is limited. Data analysis suggests that a significant number of young people (95.6 percent) had positive relationships with staff. The STC has a multitude of departments for supporting young people, with staff offering support in different areas (for example, substance misuse). Despite questionnaire responses regarding positive relationships, interview responses varied in terms of relationships with staff:

"…if they restrain me then I will hold a grudge…The staff are alright but you hurt me and I won't forgive you like, that's how it goes." (P01)

"Staff I get on with. They aren't fucked, they are good people. I see them as my parents. I mean they are my parents, they look after me in here." (P03)

"My relationship with the staff here is standard. We talk, no need to argue with them or anything. It's not like I'm going to trust them though, be honest like, they are here to do a job. It's only a job to them here and we all know it." (P05)

"I get on with some staff here, like staff on the unit. Some I get along with and some I don't. If they get along with me then they will have a good shift, if they don't then I will make it hell for them." (P06)

"Here, I do what I want like – the staff try and tell me what to do but I do what I want. Some staff are cool like, but most are rubbish." (P07)

Despite the positive relationships reported by young people, the case files analysis shows that children and young people have case management and intervention from an average of 4.1 members of staff (excluding unit staff members[14]). Case Managers are assigned to beds rather than children and young people. In the event children and young people are relocated to another unit in the STC, a new Case Manager is assigned. This change results in children and young people having to build significant relationships with a revolving door of professionals. This cohort will have experienced negative interactions with the criminal justice system (for example, police and social care), impacting on attitudes and relationships. Therefore, the expectation that young people develop significant trusting relationships with several staff members may be/is arguably unrealistic and reduces the impact of interventions (Hart, 2015). Hart (2015) recommended the creation of small living units, allowing staff and children to develop significant and trusting relationships. Before introducing small living units, organisations should consider the rates of turnover in order to minimise the impact on young people. Given the high turnover rates in STCs, training staff on managing change effectively is important in reducing the disruption caused to other staff members, young people and family members (Whitebook and Sakai, 2003). Ofsted (2017) reported that staff turnover impacts on the delivery of services, with concerns over the lack of cohesion, scrutiny and oversight.

Research conducted by Clancy et al. (2006), Maguire and Raynor (2006) and Lewis et al. (2007) highlighted the importance of continuity and trust in motivating and supporting desistance from offending. Young people in the STC report positive relationships with staff members on the units; however, the majority of interventions and key work sessions are delivered by different members of staff. One young person highlighted the negative impact of high staff turnover on children and young people:

"It's like, we have different staff here every day. We see someone and one week later the dudes left. It's like, 'fresh off the boat' one day and gone the next. It just pisses me

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[14] Numbers on units are variable.

off. I mean, I'm used to it like but I told all these idiots stuff about me and they left… It's probably me like, I'm scum." (P12)

This revolving door of professionals serves to disrupt the continuity of trust between young people and staff, reducing the impact of interventions. As evident from the quote above, this young person attaches negative labels to himself ("I'm scum") that are compounded by staff leaving. If children and young people in custody develop bonds with staff members, leaving will serve to disrupt such bonds, leaving children and young people to deal with "abandonment". According to Kagan (2014:270) children and young people will bond with care staff resulting in *"…another loss and reaffirmation of the transience of attachments"* following the loss of staff members. Whilst acknowledging that 'handover' and change is inevitable in challenging environments, retaining the confidence and trust of young people relies on a sensitive transition process.

Exploring the destinations for children and young people on release from custody was critical in promoting desistence. Researcher's argue that stable accommodation influence (directly and indirectly) desistance on release from prison (May, 1999; Lewis, Vennard, Maguire, Vanstone, Raybould and Rix, 2003; and Niven and Stewart, 2005). Stable accommodation has a central role in *"ensuring that gains achieved in prison are maintained after release and in reducing the likelihood of re-offending"* (Harper and Chitty, 2005:79). Given the significance of secure accommodation in reducing re-convictions, the researcher explored children and young people's views by exploring the statement "I know where I will be living once I leave the STC". The majority of children and young people disagree with the statement (63.2 percent). The benefit of identifying a stable environment was explored by Schofield, Thoburn, Howell and Dicken's (2007) study with looked after children. Interview data supported the findings from the quantitative data, with children and young people discussing uncertainty over future accommodation:

"To be honest with you, I don't really have hopes and fears. I just don't care. It's hard, I had plans but then I came here and my foster placements closed. I don't know where they will send me after I leave here so I can't really make plans for the future" (P03)

"I used to live with my mum, I have three brothers and three sisters. There are a lot of us. But my mum has moved to a new area, the house is smaller so she told the social worker to find some other place" (P10)

"I lived in a hostel; I think I should be going back there. I hope they haven't closed my hostel down. I should be going back to there. Yesterday I spoke to my social worker and she told me the hostel was closing, I told her I ain't moving" (P11)

On the day P11 participated in the interview he received confirmation of release from custody. He invited the researcher to follow the release journey which ended with P11 discovering his hostel placement was closed. From the moment P11 realised the hostel placement was closed, his positive attitude was replaced with anger. Schofield et al. (2007:639) found that children and young people require stable and secure accommodation, to reduce the emotional turmoil resulting from *"raised expectations and potential serial losses".* Knowledge of future stable and secure accommodation is central to reducing emotional turmoil, particularly for children and young people presenting emotional management difficulties. Considering the fact 68.4 percent of children and young people participating in the research have presented with difficulties regulating emotions, the knowledge of future accommodation is vital.

5.4.3 – Summary

Developing a SIM framework that measures the relationship factors contributing to recidivism and desistance is critical for identifying effective and sustainable services. As discussed previously, developing and maintaining trusting relationships is critical for motivating and supporting young people to desist from offending, attain positive outcomes and effectively transition from custody (Partridge, 2004; Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006; and Hart, 2015). Developing trustful relationships is influenced by the development of pro-social relationships, addressing early childhood experiences such as exposure to domestic abuse, staff continuity and consistency and the identification of stable accommodation on release. Research shows that strong and supportive relationships aid desistance from offending

(Sampson and Laub, 1993), highlighting that offending behaviour is influenced by poor family relationships, negative school experiences and delinquent influences (Sampson and Laub, 1993). Given the experiences of children and young people in custody, developing positive and trusting relationships is critical for promoting positive attitudes and outcomes. Developing positive and trustful relationships is also central in motivating and supporting individuals to desist from offending, develop positive relationships and access services for support upon release (Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006). In order to measure the impact of custody on the relationship factors contributing to recidivism and desistance, developing interval level measurement is critical. For example, measuring children and young people views of trust from arrival to post-release (6 month – 24 month follow-up) would allow professionals to identify the existence of trusting relationships which are critical for desistance. As mentioned in relation to measuring factors associated with health and wellbeing, implementation of interval measurement throughout the young person journey, allows the STC, YJB and professionals to assess improvements or challenges at the relationship stage.

5.5 – Summary

This chapter explored and analysed the quantitative and qualitative research collected for this research project. Results confirmed the reliability of the questionnaire, developed for this research; in measuring the impact of STCs. The demographic data confirmed that children and young people participating in the research were representative of the population in STCs. Information suggests that children and young people in STCs had adverse life experiences such as familial problems, abuse, pro-criminal relationships, inconsistent education and employment, low self-esteem and trauma. This data support prior research findings on the experiences and background of children and young people involved in criminal activity (Sampson and Laub, 1993; Farrington, 2005; Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006; Bennet, Holloway and Farrington, 2008; and Farrington and Ttofi, 2014).

Developing a plausible theory of change by exploring the perceptions of children and young people in STCs was crucial for developing a SIM framework (Clifford et al., 2014). The

qualitative and quantitative results presented in this chapter, offer insight into children and young people experiences of STCs. By exploring the themes (health and wellbeing; and relationships) emerging from the data analysis, this chapter demonstrates the importance of measuring the factors associated with health and wellbeing as well as relationships and trust. As discussed previously, addressing health and wellbeing issues, as well as safety, are critical for developing an environment that motivates and encourages the development of positive relationships, participation in education training or employment, and the promotion of independence. The health inequalities for children and young people entering STCs are evident from this research and the prior literature (Vreugdenhil, Doreleijers and Vermeiren, 2004; Golzari, Hunt and Anoshiravani, 2006; Fazel, Doll and Langstrom, 2008; Kinner, Degenhardt and Coffey, 2014).

Similarly, this chapter has demonstrated the importance of measuring the factors associated with relationships and trust in reducing recidivism and promoting desistance. As discussed previously, developing and maintaining trusting relationships is critical for motivating and supporting young people to desist from offending, attain positive outcomes and effectively transition from custody (Partridge, 2004; Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006; and Hart, 2015). Developing trustful relationships is influenced by the development of pro-social relationships, addressing early childhood experiences such as exposure to domestic abuse, staff continuity and consistency and the identification of stable accommodation on release. This research illustrated that strong and supportive relationships aid desistance from offending, therefore, developing such relationships are pivotal for promoting successful outcomes for children and young people. This chapter has identified the crucial health and wellbeing as well as relationship and trust factors that contribute to recidivism and desistance, summarised in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19 – Social impact measurement factors for children and young people in STCs	
Health and Wellbeing	**Relationships**
Substance use	Trust
Trauma	Pro-social relationships
Life satisfaction	Consistency
Accessing services	Attachment (managing loss)
Feelings of optimism and usefulness	Knowledge of future accommodation
Emotional regulation and management	Re-building relationships

Introducing an interval measurement approach to monitor and review each factor, STCs have the opportunity to measure the outcomes for each factor. If satisfactory outcomes are not achieved, it hinders children and young people's opportunity to develop positive outcomes.

Chapter Six – Children and Young People in Custody (Part 2)

This chapter explores the additional three themes identified in the qualitative data analysis stage – *education*, *independence* and *attitudes to offending*. The themes are discussed with supporting data from the quantitative phase of research, and in relation to the prior literature outlined in Chapters Two and Three. As discussed in Section 4.8 and Section 5.1., the qualitative data was analysed using CCM and the quantitative data was analysed using SPSS. In order to explore the themes in relation to children and young people's experiences in STCs, this discussion combines Farrington's (2005) ICAP theory with the developing SIM framework. As discussed previously, ICAP theory allows an exploration of the between-individual and within-individual theories of youth crime and offending which are essential for developing a theory of change (Farrington, 2003; Farrington, 2007a; Farrington and Ttofi, 2014:28). Theory of change models are essential in developing a SIM framework as they are grounded in plausible evidence, experiences and literature, establishing a wider understanding of the strategies to generate intended results (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). Developing a plausible theory of change that explores the perceptions of young people in STCs is crucial for developing a relevant SIM framework (Clifford et al., 2014).

6.1 – Education

Despite reductions in offending by children and young people in England and Wales, the Government continues to develop special strategies and initiatives designed to reduce offending by children and young people. For example, the Home Office (2016) introduced the "Modern Crime Prevention Strategy" focused on key drivers for crime (opportunities, character, the effectiveness of the criminal justice system to reduce offending, profit, drugs and alcohol). In reducing crime and offending, Morgan (2006: xiii) argued that *"effective crime prevention has arguably more to do with education than sentencing policy".* In 2004, the Home Office released a report stating that education *"plays a central role in measures to prevent actual or potential offending amongst their pupils as well as improve their 'life chances'"* (Home Office, 2004:5). Introducing educational provisions for children and young people involved in the criminal justice system is central in England and Wales, with research suggesting that the combination of low academic ability and poor academic achievement

indicate the potential for anti-social behaviour (Rutter, Giller and Hagel, 1998). Research exploring educational factors associated with offending and criminal activity can combine theories exploring between-individual and within-individual theories. ICAP theory explores young people's transitions from antisocial potential to antisocial behaviours, with emphasis on cognitive processes (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). For example, findings from the Cambridge study suggested several core risk factors influencing offending behaviour including education related factors such as low academic ability, poor school attainment and attention deficit (Farrington, 2003 and 2007). This section will explore the educational factors for children and young people in STCs in order to understand the educational backgrounds of young people and the experiences of education in the STC.

6.1.1 – Educational Background of young people entering STCs

Criminological and sociological attention on youth crime and offending has resulted in a body of literature focused on desistance and recidivism; with a relatively small proportion of literature focused on explaining the impact of educational backgrounds on crime (Lochner and Moretti, 2004; Machin, Marie and Vuljic, 2011). With the increased emphasis on the crime reducing potential of education, understanding the background of young people in the criminal justice system is pivotal. Exploring the educational background of children and young people allows for educational providers and policy-makers to identify the educational factors existing for those involved in criminal activity. In examining educational backgrounds, the researcher can identify changes in young people's views of educational provision in different environments (both positive and/or negative). This provides an opportunity to understand the education provisions for young people involved in criminal activity. Furthermore, it provides the information required for educational providers and policy-makers to improve and/or develop educational provision before young people enter custody.

Analysis of case file information showed that a high proportion of children and young people participating in the research had stopped attending education prior to arriving in custody (83.8 percent), with 36.8 percent ceasing education over 12 months before arriving in

custody. This raises questions over the effectiveness of education policies and initiatives for this cohort of children and young people and, in particular, the lack of legitimate means available to achieve goals. Equally, it raises questions over the Governments approach to improving education, given the fact it has a statutory obligation to provide education. Traditional Strain Theory argues that young people experience strain resulting from a failure to attain goals through legitimate means and may resort to illegitimate means to achieve goals (Merton, 1938; Agnew, 1985; 1992). Information collected from the case file analysis and questionnaire on children and young people in custody supports the idea proposed by Merton (1938) and Agnew (1985; 1992) on strain, with 83.8 percent of children and young people leaving education with no qualifications, training or employment opportunities. National statistics on the proportion of children and young people 'not in education employment or training' (NEET) ranges from 15-19 years-old, with national averages varying across counties. For children and young people entering STCs, under 15 years-old, 33.9 percent were categorised as NEET, which is significantly higher than the national statistics (8.7 percent) for NEET children and young people in England and Wales in 2015 (Mirza-Davies and Brown, 2016). For the children and young people that attended education prior to arrival at the STC, 33.7 percent attended full-time education and 66.3 percent attended part-time. Successive governments have focused on children and young people categorised as NEET, linking this group to larger social issues such as poverty, teenage pregnancy, crime, and substance misuse (Simmons, 2008). Coles, Godfrey, Keung, Parrott and Bradshaw (2010) conducted research on the estimated a financial life-time cost for NEETs, based on figures for 2008, of £11,721,588,000. This represented an average individual cost of £56,000. These conservative estimates demonstrate the importance of supporting children and young people to pursue education, training and employment. Yates and Payne (2006) explored the term NEET and created three distinct categories or types of NEET young people: transitional (temporarily disengaged), young parents (disengaged in order to raise children) and complicated (exhibiting additional risks). NEET young people entering custody experience a number of risks associated with Yates and Payne's (2006) complicated category such as criminal behaviour, homelessness and behavioural problems. As discussed previously, attaching negative labels to children and young people can have a detrimental impact on children and young people (Lemert, 1951; Becker, 1963; Matza, 1969 and McAra and McVie,

2007). This is particularly important for children and young people involved in criminal activity as the additional of another negative label can be particularly damaging.

In addition to children and young people being categorised as NEET on entering the STC, 42.6 percent of children and young people in custody had documented Special Educational Needs (SEN) [statements or Education, Health and Care (EHC) plans]. The number of young people in custody with SEN was significantly higher than the national average for males of 14.7 percent (Department of Education, 2016a). Special Educational Needs provision receives considerable attention from the Government; however, this level of support ceases for those categorised as NEET. Research on early cessation from education in the Netherlands, suggests that 27 percent of early school leavers were involved in criminal activity in comparison with 7 percent for non-school leavers (Hawley, Murphy and Souto-Otero, 2013). Data on SEND and NEET from the STC was explored using a Mann-Whitney U test allowing for examination of the differences in NEET length for children and young people experiencing SEN (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 – Time young people have been NEET based on experiencing SEN (n=68)			
Mean Absence (SEN)	**Mean Absence (non-SEN)**	**Mann-Whitney U**	**p-value**
14.6 (months)	8.6 (months)	217.50	.000

Statistically significant differences were identified, for children and young people experiencing SEN and the length of absences from education, employment and training. The Department of Education (2016b) indicated that children and young people with SEN are less likely to participate in education than peers. This report places emphasis on organisations preparing children and young people with SEN for adult life. Given later discussions in this chapter around the limited support offered to children and young people in learning independence skills, there is a requirement for additional support for children and young people with and without SEN to prepare for adult life including education and employment. The majority of children and young people in custody failed to complete basic education before attendance ceased, with the average age for cessation being 14.2 years-old. Interview

responses supported this information, with children and young people discussing their early cessation from education:

"I have been out of education for about 2 years, I was permanently excluded when I was 14 years. I have been excluded from education, college and the PRU. The PRU is like a college thing with lots of idiots. I think education is boring, I don't like education at all" (P01)

"I haven't been in education for years, since I was in year 7, so I must have been like 11-12, not sure but I was young" (P05)

"I hate education like. I don't get it and people push me to go to education. I never went to education, mum used to try and force me to go but I would just leave. I think education is pointless man, I tried but the teachers are stupid" (P08)

Interestingly, the majority of young people entering the STCs had prior engagement with Youth Offending Services (YOS), which considered education in exploring the children and young people's risk of offending. Once the assessment is completed, the YOS case worker is expected to ensure the young person enters education, training or employment. However, for the young people entering STCs with previous YOS involvement, the number not engaged in education, training or employment was significant (69.5 percent). Information from the case file analysis supported the views that *"responsibility for [young people detached from education] is passed like a baton between the various authorities, and frequently dropped…"* (Morgan, 2009:xiv). To improve services for children and young people, Taylor's (2016) placed emphasis on closer partnership working between the YOS, schools and colleges in order to identify appropriate education for children and young people. On exploring the reasons children and young people had stopped attending education, the reasons reported were boredom (33 percent) and exclusion (53 percent). For young people reporting cessation due to boredom, 50 percent also reported exclusions. In exploring responses to interviews, the researcher noted that children and young people found boredom as a main reason for leaving education.

"I was excluded from school, a few schools. I hated it, its fucking tired man. If I went, I barely went….I get bored easy and that shit is boring, sorry" (P02)

"I have had no education for like 3 years, I chose to leave cause I was bored with it but (before leaving) I was kicked out of 4 different schools and the PRU and stuff" (P06)

"I went to a special school with all these stupid kids, I ain't stupid, I just don't like school. So I left. I mean, my gran wanted me to keep going to school so I did try but then I got fed up" (P15)

Another area explored in the research related to literacy and numeracy ages for children and young people entering custody. Research studies have explored the influence of children and young people's reading and numeracy ability on offending behaviour (Sampson and Laub, 1993; Moffit, 1997; Rutter, Giller and Hagell, 1998 and Lahey and Waldman, 2005). The information on the literacy and numeracy ages of young people support the ideas proposed by traditional criminological, developmental and life-course theories around the importance of educational attainment on education. Table 6.2 illustrates the reading and numeracy ages for children and young people in the STC between January 2016 and December 2016.

Table 6.2 – Reading and numeracy ages from STC (2016) (n=96)		
	Reading Age (%)	Numeracy Age (%)
1-5 years lower than expected	14.5	50.0
6-8 years lower than expected	24.0	35.4
Total	34.5	85.4

Research by Rutter, Giller and Hagell (1998) suggested that low academic ability and poor academic achievement are associated with anti-social behaviour with children and young people involved in antisocial behaviour showing poorer examination success and higher levels of early education cessation. Farrington and Ttofi (2014) explored the influence of short-term

factors such as intelligence, cognitive ability and motivation on young people's involvement in criminal activity. The presence of these factors, in addition to impulsivity, family criminality, poverty, attention deficits and ineffective parenting, influence future offending (Farrington, 2003 and 2007; Van Der Laan et al., 2009). Given the high proportion of young people with low academic abilities, and the presence of risk factors for children and young people in custody, meaningful education plays a central role in reducing offending and promoting desistance.

6.1.2 – Educational Provision in STCs

Education was placed at the heart of STCs, with a key aim to *"provide a positive regime offering high standards of education and training"* (STC, 1998 – Appendix B). On entering STCs, children and young people are enrolled in education (core curriculum and vocational subjects) for 25 hours per week, with the ratio weighted in favour of core curriculum subjects during the data collection period. The core curriculum subjects offered include English, Maths, Art, ICT and Home Economics while the vocational subjects offered include Painting and Decorating, Catering and Hospitality and Hair and Beauty. Future plans for the STC include introducing additional vocational subjects focused on developing Motorbike Mechanics, Horticulture, Music Technology and Fitness Instructing. In 2015, the government released the *English Apprenticeships: Our 2020 Vision* documents, outlining the significant benefits of apprenticeships for individuals (HM Government, 2015). This report outlines the financial benefits for individuals and the wider public, with a return for taxpayers estimated at £27 for every £1 invested (higher than the average for further education qualifications) (HM Government, 2015). Given the importance placed on apprenticeships, STCs have an opportunity to develop skills based programs that help children and young people to gain employment on release.

As discussed above, the literacy and numeracy ages for young people entering custody were significantly lower than expected. For children and young people discharged from custody in 2017, the average literacy and numeracy ages for young people increased, with data from the STCs education department showing an average increase of 4 months for reading accuracy, 5

months for reading comprehension, 9 months for spelling and 5 months for numeracy. Figure 6.1 illustrated the change in literacy and numeracy ages for children and young people released from custody in 2017.

Figure 6.1 – Average change in literacy and numeracy age for in 2017 (n=53)
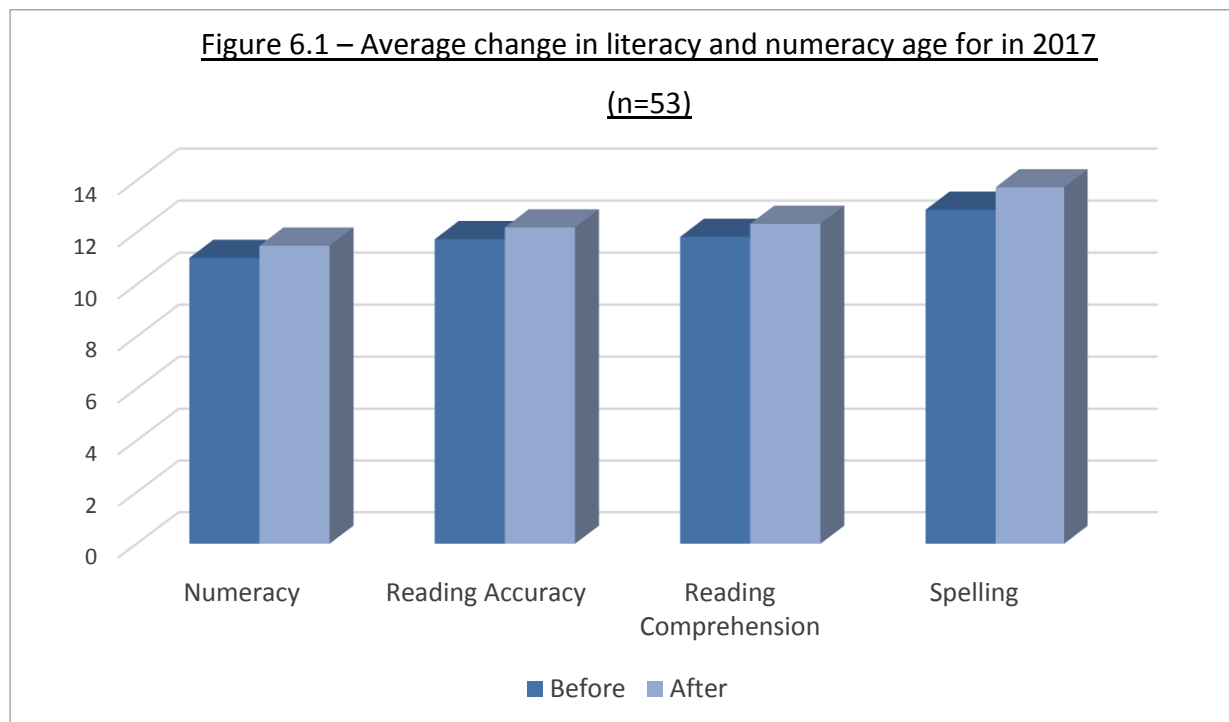
The average increase in literacy and numeracy ages may be explained by the length of sentences imposed, with 47.7 percent of young people sentences to Detention and Training Orders (DTOs) less than 12 months). Interestingly, for the young people receiving a DTO of less than 12 months, 13.8 percent received a sentence of less than 6 months. The imposition of short custodial sentences on young people limits the overall impact of services in the centre. Despite the short sentence lengths, a Kendall tau_b cross-tabulation showed that there was no significant difference in improvements in literacy and numeracy levels for children and young people serving shorter sentences in comparison with those serving longer sentences ($p<0.05$) (Table 6.3 and Table 6.4)[15].

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[15] Tables exclude children and young people performing to highest level in literacy and numeracy on arrival.

Table 6.3 – Change in reading accuracy based on sentence duration (n=23)					
	Sentence Duration				
Reading Accuracy	**<6**	**6-12**	**13-18**	**19+**	**T^b (*p*-value)**
No change	10	0	0	1	1.510 (0.131)
<6	0	0	0	0	
6-12	2	0	0	0	
13-18	0	0	1	0	
19-24	2	2	0	0	
25+	3	1	1	0	

Table 6.4 – Change in number accuracy based on sentence duration (n=49)					
	Sentence Duration				
Reading Accuracy	**<6**	**6-12**	**13-18**	**19+**	**T^b (*p*-value)**
No change	23	5	2	1	-1.154 (0.248)
<6	4	0	0	0	
6-12	2	0	0	0	
13-18	4	1	0	0	
19-24	3	0	0	0	
25+	3	1	0	0	

Despite sentence length, the improvements in literacy and numeracy levels appear dependent on the individual. For children and young people experiencing improvements in literacy and numeracy levels, increased opportunities are available on release from the centre. Although no significant difference was evident in terms of custodial sentences, the majority of children and young people were sentenced to short sentences which will have impacted on opportunities for improvement. With short custodial sentence, the opportunity for increasing educational skills is limited which may result in continued neuropsychological behaviours and reduced desistance.

Considering the high number of young people classified as NEET prior to arriving in the centre, a comparison of the views of children and young people categorised as NEET and non-NEET was conducted. The data was analysed using a Mann-Whitney U test allowing for examination of the differences in attitudes to education for children and young people NEET and non-NEET prior to arrival in the STC. Statistically significant differences were identified, with children and young people NEET prior to arrival in the STC less likely to view education positively ($p<0.05$) (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5 – Responses to education for NEET and non-NEET participants (n=65)			
Mean (NEET)	**Mean (non-NEET)**	**Mann-Whitney U**	***p*-value**
3.82	5.33	161.00	.004

Data in Table 6.5 shows that children and young people categorised as NEET have lower satisfactions with education than children and young people not categorised as NEET. Information from the interviews supported these findings, with young people in education prior to arriving in the STC reporting positive views of educations. Children and young people's views of education varied in interviews, with 46.7 percent of young people reporting negative views of education, 26.7 percent reporting positive and negative views (depending on the lesson and teacher), and 26.7 percent reporting positive views of education. The positive views of education primarily related to feelings of achievement, with young people participating in interviews expressing the following views:

"Some of the teachers are good, they give us proper education work to do. Like they give us sheets of paper with… with… I don't know what they are called really… but they have things on it that help me learn" (P02)

"Education is good in here, I am doing my exams at the moment. They are going ok like, I hate exams though" (P03)

"I go to education here, it's good cause it gives you a break from the units. I like hair and beauty, I'm no gay man, I just like it. We learn stuff and it's not all about maths and shit. I want more vocation stuff, I like practical stuff…I have done good since being here, I have passed exams and have maths and food qualifications like" (P08)

"I do the vocational stuff like wallpapering and hair and beauty. I like those; they are more practical and stuff" (P10)

"And getting back into education, it's shown me how much I missed education. As soon as I get out of here, I'm getting back to my college course, I'm getting back in" (P11)

Providing children and young people with the means to complete qualifications increases the availability of meaningful opportunities on release (Merton, 1938, Farrington, 2005). As previously mentioned, obtaining qualifications reduces the barriers to meaningful opportunities for children and young people (Merton, 1938, Farrington, 2005). Obtaining qualifications enhances opportunities on release and the STC must ensure children and young people are receiving appropriate education. Despite the positive commentary, the negative views expressed by children and young people overshadowed the positive. The negative views of education were primarily related to boredom and/or views of the provisions as inadequate in terms of learning:

"Some teachers are lazy though and give us word searchers and cross words. Sometimes that alright like, if you have a long day, but it's not really education. I don't learn anything from word searchers, I like to learn things" (P02)

"Some don't teach you the stuff that's in the exam, so you can't do it. It's too hard. I get on with most of the teachers here, sometimes you do nothing though. You don't get consistency. Not like mainstream school… you don't learn stuff" (P04)

"(Education) Shit, they just give us the answers. I would rather stay on the unit. You do more work on the unit that you do in education. You don't do anything here, you colour man, what's the point in that, I don't learn nothing doing that, nothing at all" (P05)

"Even in educations, we just have to write down what they say and copy answers from a sheet. We don't learn how to do nothing. I mean, we just mess around and then sometimes they restrain us, but we don't care, they don't control us. It's like a big party here, without the weed" (P06)

"Sometimes we don't do stuff in education, we have cross search words and worksheets but I don't really learn that much new stuff. I want to do stuff with computers more but the computer lessons are easy, I don't learn new stuff" (P09)

"I think it's boring. Obviously you don't really learn that much. Like, from when I come here last year, I've done some work that I already done before I come here. I already done the stuff so it's boring" (P10)

"…the education here isn't very good. Because it's just, I wouldn't even count it as education really, it's like, you go to a lesson and the teacher will turn up like 20 minutes late and you're just there colouring. I am expecting to go into A-levels now and I'm sitting here colouring in, I'm not even revising" (P13)

The quotes above illustrate children and young people's frustration with the education provisions available, specifically in relation to boredom and lesson activities. Several children and young people expressed dissatisfaction with the use of "colouring", "cross search words" and "worksheets". Despite the low literacy and numeracy levels for a number of children and young people accommodated in STCs, the interview responses illustrates children and young people's desire for more challenging education. Indeed, Taylor (2016) found that teaching methods in custodial environments failed to evolve on par with schools in the community. Children and young people's perceptions of education support findings in section 7.3 and 7.6 that some of the education provisions available reflect the age profile of children and young people originally accommodate in STC rather than those accommodated today. For young

people reporting both positive and negative views of education, the positive factors were primarily related to the subject and the teacher. The subject mentioned most often in relation to young people's positive views was Hair and Beauty, with 33 percent of young people mentioning Hair and Beauty (56 percent of those with positive views of education). Although Hair and Beauty was the only subject mentioned by a significant number of young people, young people did report a preference for "vocational" and "practical" subjects. As mentioned previously, the subjects available for young people in education during the research period were weighted in favour of National Curriculum rather than vocational subjects. With the changing cohort of young people accommodated in custody, an increase in vocational qualifications is desirable. During the research period, a high proportion of children and young people accommodated were aged between 15 and 17 years-old (88.7 percent); however, the educational provision have remained relatively unchanged since the creation of STCs for young people aged 12-14 years-old. With STCs now accommodating 12-18 year-olds, the effectiveness of current educational activities (particularly for the older age groups) requires consideration. Research by Holden, Allen, Gray and Thomas (2016) suggests that vocational qualifications are important for children and young people aged 16-17 years-old. A study in Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Sweden and Norway found that people in custody were motivated to participate in educational activities if time was spent "…doing something sensible and useful" (Eikeland, 2009: 183). This relates to the previous discussion in relation to introducing apprenticeships in STCs.

In addition to qualification and opportunities on release, children and young people require support in acknowledging the barriers that exist for young people with criminal convictions. Young people participating in interviews expressed concerns over obtaining employment in the future:

"No one will give me a job man… I don't want to be a waster man, I want to do something" (P05).

"Because of what I did, I don't think I can go to college though. I can't go to certain places. It will mess with me getting a job - I don't really know what to do" (P09)

"But I might not go to college, I want to, we all say we want to go to college and find a job but we can't. We are the "unjobable"- no one will hire us.... No one wants to hire offenders. They send us here to rehabil... you know, rehab us but they can't really" (P15)

Satisfaction with education in the centre influenced young people's desire to continue with education, with those satisfied with education in the centre significantly more likely to show a desire to continue with education or training on leaving the centre ($p<0.01$) (Table 6.6). Furthermore, a Kendall tau_b chi-square showed that there was a significant correlation ($p<0.01$) for young people *agreeing* with the statement "I want to continue with my educations or training once I leave the STCs" and the length of absence from education, with a higher proportion of recent education leavers agreeing with the statement (Table 6.7).

Table 6.6 – Chi-Square Satisfaction with education and desire to continue (n=65)								
	I want to continue with my education or training once I leave the STC.							
I like being in education	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree	T^b (*p*-value)
Strongly Disagree	5	0	0	0	1	0	2	
Moderately Disagree	0	4	3	0	0	2	0	
Mildly Disagree	0	2	7	0	1	0	1	
Neither	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5.020 (0.001)
Mildly Agree	2	0	0	2	17	2	2	
Moderately Agree	0	0	0	1	2	4	1	
Strongly Agree	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	

Table 6.7 – Chi-Square length of absence from education and desire to continue (n=65)								
	I want to continue with my education or training once I leave the STC.							T^b (*p*-value)
Months NEET	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree	
None	0	0	1	0	3	3	4	-4.558 (0.001)
<6 months	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	
<12 months	2	1	1	0	14	3	6	
12-18 months	0	2	4	2	1	2	0	
>18 months	5	2	3	1	2	1	0	

This data suggests that young people with positive attitudes to education have a higher probability of continuing with education. A Kendall tau_b was performed to compare the age and length of sentence served with desire to return to education, with no significant different detected. On exploring expectations for the future in interviews with young people, responses were influenced by their satisfaction with education. For young people reporting positive views of education, the desire to continue with education (college) or find employment was higher than those reporting negative views (57 percent).

Given the importance of education for reducing recidivism and promoting desistance, providing effective educational provisions in custody is key. The current educational component in the centre has existed since the initial conception of STCs for 12-14 year-olds in 1998. As mentioned previously, with STCs now accommodating 12-18 year-olds, the effectiveness of current educational activities (particularly for the older age groups) requires significant overhaul. This supports findings from Taylor (2016) that education in custody requires overhaul in terms of teaching methods, provisions for higher-ability children and young people and discipline. Given the changes in the cohort of young people sent to custody, reviewing the educational provisions is essential to improving motivation and supporting positive transitions post-release. Since commencing the research project in September 2015, the researcher has produced regular update reports that highlight key findings from the initial research. The findings on children and young people's views of education have led to the STC revising their education strategy with plans to introduce additional vocational qualifications. Other countries have introduced unique programs to motivate those in prison. For example, Austria introduced an intensive skilled worker program that offers people the chance to participate in an intensive one-year training program covering eight professions that allows prisoners to acquire an acknowledged "Skilled Worker" certificate which can improve their chances of employability on release (Hawley, Murphy and Souto-Otero, 2013). It can be argued from this data that STCs could also follow this route, and that indeed, vocational qualifications learned in custody could be fundamental to securing positive transitions and outcomes for young people into education, employment and training when leaving the STC.

Given the isolation in STC environments from the wider community, coupled with the role of education in promoting desistance, providing effective education provisions plays a significant role in children and young people's development. As explored previously, STCs were initially introduced in England and Wales to accommodate 12 – 14 year-olds, despite the age range extending to 17 years-old (with scope for accommodating 18 year-olds with complex needs) the policies and principles for centres have remained largely static rather than changing to accommodate the differing needs of an older age group. As well as age, the impact of educational provisions on children and young people is affected by the length of sentence, with evidence suggesting that although the literacy and numeracy levels for children and young people increased following their time in the STCs, the shorter the sentence the reduced opportunity for increasing educational skills for the majority of children and young people. To measure the impact of custody on the education factors contributing to recidivism and desistance, developing interval measurement is crucial. For example, measuring children and young people's literacy and numeracy levels from arrival to post-release (6 month to 24 month follow-up) would allow professionals to, not only measure the short-term outcome of custody, but also the longer-term impact. By implementing an interval measurement throughout the young person's journey, the STC, YJB and professionals can assess improvements or challenges at the educational level. This would be an essential element in developing positive outcomes for young people upon release and reducing recidivism.

6.2 – Independence

Independence refers to the development of personal and social skills that allows individuals to transition into adulthood (Montgomery, Donkoh and Underhill, 2006). Montgomery, Donkoh and Underhill (2006) explored the independence skills individuals require for progression to adulthood such as communication, decision making, anger management, job skills, budgeting, financial management, accessing services and securing appropriate accommodation. The short-term and long-term factors influencing recidivism are rooted in socialisation, modelling, motivation, situation, intelligence and cognitive ability (Farrington,

2005). The development of independence skills enables children and young people to overcome the factors influencing recidivism. For example, a young person aged 17 years-old transitioning from custody to an independent living placement has a number of situational barriers that may be reduced by understanding basic independent living skills. Despite the importance such skills play in the transition to adulthood, limited information was available on the independence skills children and young people have on entering custody. Given the fact most of the children and young people in STCs have experienced social care, social exclusion, poverty, challenges with family and health and wellbeing inequalities which influence anti-social potential (Farrington, 2002; 2005 and 2007), learning personal and social skills is pivotal in the transition to adulthood (Montgomery, Donkoh and Underhill, 2006).

Whist the STC encourages active participation in education; there is limited evidence that the operational practices support the development of independence or resilience. Studies exploring independent living for children and young people leaving care have highlighted several difficulties, in comparison with the general population, such as: homelessness, unemployment, dependence on public assistance, mental ill-health, engagement in risky behaviours and involvement in the criminal justice system (Barth, 1990; Cook, Fleishman and Grimes, 1991; Courtney, Piliavin, Grogan-Kaylor and Nesmith, 2001). One of the main concerns for children and young people leaving a care environment is the expectation of early-transition with limited or no support in terms of emotional, social and financial factors (Cashmore and Paxman, 1996; Morrow and Richards, 1996; Montgomery, Donkoh and Underhill, 2006). Experiencing such issues will decrease available opportunities and may increase ones anti-social behaviour (Farrington, 2002; 2005 and 2007). Given the lack of information available on children and young people's independence skills on entering custody, this section will focus on the STCs role in supporting children and young people to develop independence.

6.2.1 – Independence and Resilience

Children and young people in custody experience isolation from society, impacting on the development of the independence skills crucial for release. An important element of the STC

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statement of purpose, relates to identifying stable living environments for children and young people (Dickens, Howell, Thoburn and Schofield, 2007). Dickens et al. (2007:639) found that children and young people require stable and secure accommodation, to reduce the emotional turmoil resulting from the *"raised expectations and potential serial losses"*. Knowledge of future stable and secure accommodation is central to reducing emotional turmoil, particularly for young people presenting emotional regulation difficulties (67.7 percent of participants presented with difficulties regulating emotions[16]). Despite the STCs statement of purpose, results suggest that 63.2 percent of young people have limited or no knowledge of future accommodation plans, which could be seen to create insecurity and impact negatively on their emotional wellbeing and motivation for the future (Paterson-Young et al., 2017). A Mann-Whitney U test was completed to compare differences in accommodation knowledge for children with pro-criminal family members and children and young people with non-criminal family members, with a significant difference identified ($p<0.05$) (Table 6.8).

Table 6.8 – Knowledge of accommodation on release based on family background (n=65)			
Mean (pro-criminal)	**Mean (Non-criminal)**	**Mann-Whitney U**	***p*-value**
3.09	4.46	244.0	.000

Analysis showed that children and young people with pro-criminal family members had less knowledge of future accommodation than children and young people with non-criminal family members. This was illustrated by the mean, with children and young people with pro-criminal family members reporting a lower mean than children and young people without pro-criminal family members. Exploring the destinations for children and young people on release from custody was critical in promoting desistence. Researcher's argue that stable accommodation influence (directly and indirectly) desistance on release from prison (Niven and Stewart, 2005; Lewis, Maguire and Raynor, 2007; Schofield, Thoburn, Howell and Dicken,

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[16] Emotional regulation is assessed by observing the responses to emotional situations. Information in ASSET and ASSET Plus reports contain details on children and young people's abilities to manage emotions.

2007). Stable accommodation has a central role in *"ensuring that gains achieved in prison are maintained after release and in reducing the likelihood of re-offending"* (Harper and Chitty, 2005:79). Given the importance of accommodation in reducing re-convictions, the researcher explored children and young people's views through the statement "I know where I will be living once I leave the STC". The majority of children and young people disagree with the statement (63.2 percent). Interview data supported the findings from the quantitative data, with children and young people discussing uncertainty over future accommodation:

"Mum and dad are moving to a new area, its rubbish. I can live on my own but might stay with my parents. I don't know though. I want to go back to my area. My hearts there" (P01)

"To be honest with you, I don't really have hopes and fears. I just don't care. It's hard, I had plans but then I came here and my foster placements closed. I don't know where they will send me after I leave here so I can't really make plans for the future" (P03)

"I used to live with my mum, I have three brothers and three sisters. There are a lot of us. But my mum has moved to a new area, the house is smaller so she told the social worker to find some other place" (P10)

"I lived in a hostel; I think I should be going back there. I hope they haven't closed my hostel down. I should be going back to there. Yesterday I spoke to my social worker and she told me the hostel was closing, I told her I ain't moving" (P11)

With such uncertainty, the involvement of social workers and a lack of hope from some, it is perhaps unsurprising the recidivism rate for children and young people leaving custody was 41.8 percent between October 2015 and December 2015 (Ministry of Justice, 2017[1]). Knowledge of future stable and secure accommodation is central to reducing emotional turmoil, particularly for children and young people presenting emotional management difficulties (Schofield et al., 2007). In addition to knowledge of future stable and secure

accommodation, children and young people require information regarding resources on release. According to Lewis et al. (2007) identifying links to resources upon release, as well as addressing attitudes to offending, are central to developing and sustaining motivation to change, and result in lower levels of recidivism.

Supporting children and young people to develop personal and social skills promotes safety, security and resilience which are central to promoting positive transitions. Masten (2001) explored the notion of resilience, focusing on the importance of the environment in fostering or hindering the individual's ability to thrive, as a dynamic process with the interactions between the environment and individuals central to developing positive outcomes. The removal of adequate connected arrangements of support upon release creates a dislocation for children and young people at a time when they enter a difficult period compounded by a greater risk of involvement in criminal behaviour. This reduces the available protective factors for children and young people are critical for promoting positive outcomes and desistance (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). Developing independence skills is equally important for promoting resilience in children and young people transitioning from custody, with children and young people receiving support to complete daily activities (e.g. cleaning, cooking), support that ceases upon release. Data analysis showed that over 58.8 percent of children and young people believed that no support was provided in learning independence skills or securing survival needs such as *"a place to live, a place to work and people to love"* (Taxman, 2004:34). On performing a Mann-Whitney U exploring the differences in learned independence skills, children and young people with pro-criminal family members were significantly less likely to have basic independent living skills (such as cooking, cleaning and maintenance) than children and young people with non-criminal family members ($p<0.05$) (Table 6.9).

Table 6.9 – Independent living skills based on family background (n=65)			
Mean (pro-criminal)	**Mean (Non-criminal)**	**Mann-Whitney U**	***p*-value**
2.98	5.00	283.0	.001

The results show that a high proportion of children and young people report having no opportunity to learn independence skills at home or in the STC. Interview data supported findings from the quantitative phase with that children and young people reporting limited understanding of independence skills:

"I learned how to cook here actually. Nothing else though. I don't know anything about finance etc. They don't teach use that here. It's pointless here, we don't learn the stuff we need to know" (P01)

"Ummm…I don't know really. I learned how to do a plat in Hair and Beauty. So I can do my own hair and stuff. But nothing else. That's why I need foster care, I need parents to help me" (P03)

"No, don't learn anything like that in here. Like no budgeting. They are supposed to be changing the incentives and stuff, so maybe we will learn this stuff. Like they will make you budget and buy your own stuff, like shower gel and soap. We don't do that now, they buy it for us" (P04)

"I don't think I learned anything about independent living but that's cool because I will just live with mum" (P06)

"I don't think so, we learn maths but that's like sums and shit. We don't learn anything else. I don't know about paying bills, except that they are fucking expensive. I want to help my mum with that but I don't know how much bills are like" (P07)

"I know how to cook and stuff but I will get to do other stuff here. I know we have to cook and clean but I know this already. Don't think I will learn anything else here to be honest" (P14)

Information from the interviews showed that children and young people have learned limited independence skills, which are invaluable for release, in the STC. Overall, children and young

people appear confident with general household chores such as cooking and cleaning; however, financial management and budgeting remain elusive. In exploring questionnaire responses further, the information suggests that the majority of children and young people disclose limited knowledge of independence skills (Table 6.10).

Table 6.10 – Young people's understanding of factors for independence (n=65)			
	Disagree (%)	Neither (%)	Agree (%)
Knowledge of applying for education, training and employment opportunities	69.1	2.9	28
Confidence filling out forms (for example bank and job application)	73.5	1.5	25
Knowledge of accessing alcohol and substance misuse services	41.2	16.2	42.6
Knowledge of accessing housing benefit and job seekers allowance	75.0	5.9	19.1
Knowledge of accommodation on leaving custody	54.4	14.7	30.9

Understanding the reasons for the lack of priority afforded to developing independence skills is important in establishing a change. Speaking in relation to custodial environments, Morris and Morris (1963) found that staff members focus primarily on the custodial sentence, with limited emphasis on release preparations. Over 50 years later, despite the apparent focus on education and resettlement, punishment appears to remain the priority in STCs. This illustrates a conceptual clash between the welfare approach (support) and punitive approach (punishment) explored in section 2.1. Despite the majority of children and young people reporting learning no independence skills, one interview participant identified learning routine and structure:

"You know what I learn, the structure. The structure was brilliant for me. So the wake up, the shower, because I used to skip some things - I would wake up, skip brushing my teeth and the shower and just go out with my mates. Now, I wake up, brush my teeth, have a shower, do push ups.....I love that structure....What I really like about it, is the structure, its brilliant" (P11)

Learning routine and structure creates an opportunity for children and young people to learn the personal and independence skills for transition to adulthood. Although, structure and routine exists in the STC, for children and young people this level of support reduces or ceases completely. Bortner and William (1997) explored the issues with structure, explaining that children, young people and families receive no support to introduce a structured environment on release. For many children and young people, the pressure on the transitions from custody to the community is insurmountable, which may discourage participating in positive activities.

6.2.2 – Summary

Developing a SIM framework that measures independence factors contributing to recidivism and desistance is crucial to developing effective and sustainable services. As discussed previously, developing personal and social independence skills allow children and young people to transition to adulthood. The expectation of early-transition with limited support for children and young people leaving custody presents barriers to positive outcomes (Cashmore and Paxman, 1996; Morrow and Richards, 1996; Montgomery, Donkoh and Underhill, 2006). Given the fact young people receive limited opportunities to learn independence skills and develop resilience in custody, central elements to reducing recidivism, the social impact for a significant number of young people is minimal. To measure the impact of custody on the development of independence, developing an impact measurement approach is crucial. For example, measuring children and young people's understanding of financial management from arrival to post-release (6 month to 24 month follow-up) would allow professionals to identify changes in understanding of financial management. This approach acknowledges the key questions proposed by Nevill and Lumley (2011) (see section 3.2) underpinned by theory of change foundations discussed in section 3.3. By introducing this approach, the organisation has the opportunity to identify the resources and activities required for supporting children

and young people (for example, restorative justice interventions) and the outputs, outcomes and impact achieved from such interventions. This implementation of interval measurement throughout the young person's journey, allows the STC, YJB and professionals to assess improvements or challenges to developing pro-social attitudes.

6.3 – Attitudes to offending and desistence

Personal narrative plays a crucial role in understanding recidivism and desistance (Maruna, 2001). Maruna (2001) suggested that recidivists viewed their personal circumstances and background as uncontrollable variables, while desisters acknowledged their responsibility for decisions and their control over life. Lewis et al. (2007) found that projects addressing attitudes to offending, with links to resources upon release, are central to developing and sustaining motivation to change and result in lower rates of recidivism. Research, with focus on ICAP theory, highlights the influence of peer and familial relationships on children and young people's attitudes to offending (West and Farrington, 1973; Reiss and Farrington, 1991; Farrington et al., 2002; and Hemphill, Toumbourou, Herrenkohl, McMorris and Catalano, 2006). The influence of relationships on children and young people was explored further in Section 5.4; however, the impact on attitudes to offending is equally important. From analysing the quantitative and qualitative findings, the researcher identified attitudes to offending as a key theme. This supports findings from the review of the SIM literature (see Chapter Three) with the identification of citizenship and community as one of the individual, community and societal factors that promote positive outcomes for children and young people (Big Capital Society, 2013). As personal narratives to offending are pivotal for promoting positive outcomes, this section will explore children and young people's attitudes to the offences committed and their attitudes to future offending. Information available on children and young people's attitudes to offending on entering custody are limited, therefore, this section will focus on the STCs role in developing pro-social attitudes.

6.3.1 – Attitudes to offending

Exploring children and young people's attitudes to the previous support services provided in terms of reducing offending is important for accessing the impact of current services.

Interventions and services prior to arriving in custody were discussed by children and young people at interview, with the majority mentioning YOS. On exploring children and young people's perceptions of YOS interventions, the researcher found predominantly negative attitudes:

"I went to knife crime awareness stuff before, obviously that didn't work right because I'm here like. I have also had YOT a few times, probation and unpaid work. But again, they don't work, because I'm here now. I just did those things because it's easier than coming here like. I could have just come here, but those things keep you out of prison. I really didn't care, they taught me nothing, except how to play the game. If I have to do it again, then I will do it but it won't help – I still came here didn't I" (P01)

"With the YOT, you have to attend every week. They do nothing with you. They just talk and talk crap at you and then you end up breaching because you don't go. No wonder people breach and end up on recall, you don't even do nothing" (P03)

"I did have a YOT worker and substance misuse. They don't work, they are calm though. I never attended YOT though and I got breached. But they don't really have any impact on your life, you end up here, it's just a waste of time as they don't do anything with you. They don't listen to you or help you with anything. Don't matter if you go or not, they get paid, you end up in jail. All the wins for them" (P05)

"I did attend some YOT, it was for an attempted stabbing, but it was boring so I just never went. It's a waste of time, YOT worker talks a bunch of shit, sorry for my language, rubbish. They don't listen to you, just talk at you. You just go and pretend to listen and after half an hour you say "can I go now" and they are like yeah leave" (P06)

"(YOS) I don't think it helped me, not the one I was on before I come here. The one before custody was the most intense one they had and I used to breach it a lot. It didn't really have any impact on my life" (P10)

"Me and my YOT worker never got on so I didn't go. It's just a job to them like. It was pointless. I don't think YOT helped me stop offending like, never did nothing there. It's not like they really get you, they sit and pretend to listen then tell you to sign a form or some shit. Pointless." (P14)

"Yeah, I had YOT and stuff. It was boring, you just go visit them for a minute and then they like chat to you to stop you reoffending but it don't work. Because no one listens and no one gives a fuck what they say" (P15)

The children and young people participating in interviews viewed the YOS process negatively in terms of services offered and the impact on recidivism. Several reported that YOS workers "talk at you" and "don't listen", which impact on the levels of engagement. For many, YOS was viewed as a means of avoiding a custodial sentence rather than support for reducing offending. One participant (P01) mentioned completing a knife-crime awareness program and stated *"obviously that didn't work right because I'm here like"*. Despite completing this knife-crime awareness program and engaging in community disposals following knife related convictions, P01 was accommodated for a knife-related GBH. Such programs have limited impact on some children and young people, especially for those that view the process as 'play(ing) the game'. Descriptions of community services as a 'game', 'waste of time' and 'pointless', resulted from children and young people's views that it failed to prevent future offending. A study conducted by Phoenix and Kelly (2013) found that children and young people distinguished 'good' and 'bad' YOS workers based on the relationships developed. For children and young people to engage in the process, believing that YOS workers "care" was a central factor (Phoenix and Kelly, 2013). For Phoenix and Kelly (2003:429) children and young people viewed YOS as *"… (yet) another relationship with an adult who 'didn't care', 'was in it for the money', 'didn't listen' and 'didn't understand'"*. These findings are supported by this research, with children and young people mentioning 'no one listens', 'they get paid' and 'not like they really get you'. Findings from this research move beyond a focus on care, with an important factor surrounding views of YOS as ineffective. Several children and young people participating in interviews viewed YOS as 'pointless', 'rubbish' and 'boring', with one young person stating: '…they don't work, because I'm here now'.

Phoenix and Kelly (2003) found that children and young people viewed their understanding of the factors influencing offending behaviour as higher than the professional tasked with supporting their desistance. This idea of 'responsibilization' is crucial for children and young people in STCs; given their experiences with poverty, social exclusion, health inequalities negative family backgrounds, abuse, poor educational attainment and gang involvement. According to Phoenix and Kelly (2003:434) *"An analysis of young offenders situated knowledge and subjective experiences of youth justice offer insights into how young people then position themselves relative to the limited support offered"*. Findings from this support the relationship factors explored in Section 5.4 in terms of the importance developing positive relationships and trust have, in promoting positive outcomes.

As previously discussed, personal narrative plays a crucial role in understanding desistance and recidivist behaviour. Given the fact individuals sentenced to custody face several obstacles on release (for example, finding secure accommodation, reconnecting with friends and family, and securing education or employment), supporting the development of pro-social attitudes is critical (Lewis et al., 2007). Zamble and Quinsey (1997) explored the impact of obstacles for adult's leaving custody, finding that recidivists tended to respond with anger and despair, resulting in a decrease in motivation. As discussed in section 6.2.1, one of the young people participating in the interview phase (P11) was informed his hostel placement was closed which resulted feelings of anger and despair. The loss of secure accommodation and distance from family and friends resulted in a decreased motivation for desistance, as expressed in the statement *"… I will end up back here in a few weeks anyway, no point in being good, you get fucked anyway"* (P11).

In exploring attitudes to offending for participants in this research, data shows that the majority (61.5 percent) felt no remorse for the crimes they had committed, with no desire to make amends. A Kendall tau_b exploring children and young people's desire to apologise and make amends was conducted, finding a statistically significant correlation ($p<0.05$) (Table 6.11).

Table 6.11 – Young people's desire to make amends and apologise (n=65)			
Desire to make amends (numbers)	Desire to apologise (numbers)		T^b (*p*-value)
	Strongly Disagree	Mildly Agree	
Strongly Disagree	24	7	
Moderately Disagree	20	1	
Mildly Disagree	2	0	
Neither	0	2	7.715 (.000)
Mildly Agree	1	5	
Moderately Agree	0	2	
Strongly Agree	0	10	

Results show that children and young people expressing no desire to apologise are significant more likely to have no desire to make amends. Given the high proportion of children and young people with pro-criminal relationships, children and young people learn definitions favourable to law violations, rather than definitions unfavourable to law violations (Sutherland, 1947). Research by Jolliffe and Farrington (2004) explored the importance of empathy in understanding recidivism and desistance, findings a strong relationship between low cognitive empathy and offending. By supporting children and young people to understand the impact on victims and the value of restorative thinking, there is an opportunity to increase levels of empathy. On exploring views of offending in interviews, children and young people express limited understanding of the impact on victims:

"Yeah, it affected the victim. Well actually, I'm just saying that cause that's what people want us to say. That we are sorry for the victim. I don't actually feel emotions like that really" (P03)

"I don't really care about what happened, but I suppose it has affected some people" (P04)

"It doesn't bother me being in here really. This isn't a prison, it's just low man. It's a joke…I suppose what I did might have caused problems for the victims like, they might feel bad about what happened. Don't really know, but they might. I don't really care though" (P05)

"I don't care…why should I? I mean no one cares about me so why would I care what happens to them. No one was hurt because I was robbing, hardly like it hurts them" (P07)

"He deserved it like, I told you, he run his mouth. He won't do that again. I suppose he was hurt, but he deserved it so" (P08)

"You probably want me to say the victim but I won't lie and shit. I don't really care about them, just my girl man and the fam" (P11)

Several children and young people participating in the interview expressed no remorse for the victim of offences, expressing views that the victim was 'deserving' or expressing a lack of empathy – 'I don't care'. This idea of the 'deserving' victim was rooted in children and young people's perception of the victim's behaviour. Interestingly, P07 expresses views himself as a victim as *"no one cares about me so why would I care what happens to them"*. This young person was previously placed on the child protection register under the category of neglect and physical abuse. Given such childhood experiences, this young person believed that involvement in criminal activity was justified due to experiencing a lack of care from other. Ideas on expected attitudes and behaviours were also demonstrated in the quotes, with two participants acknowledged societal expectations on remorse stating: *"you probably want me to say the victim…"* and *"I'm just saying that cause that's what people want us to say"*. This shows that those children and young people have understand societal norms and expectation; however, choose to reject these. On exploring historical information, both of the young people expressing such views have pro-criminal family members. The lack of remorse expressed at interview supports findings from the questionnaire, with 69.1 percent of children and young people in STCs showing no desire to apologise and 70.6 percent showing no desire to make amends. Hosser, Windzio and Greves (2008) longitudinal analysis of event-

history found that expressing guilt and remorse was associated with lower rates of recidivism. Similar research conducted by Tangney, Stuewig and Martinez (2014) found that guilt-proneness was negatively related to offending and re-conviction rates. From analysing qualitative and quantitative data, expressions of remorse and restorative attitudes were rarely present for children and young people in STCs. This reinforces the fact the STC have a crucial role in supporting children and young people to understand remorse and restorative attitudes. Despite the importance of developing restorative attitudes, children and young people rarely participate in meaningful restorative interventions, with existing restorative interventions delivered by untrained staff[17].

In exploring children and young people's views of offending in the future, 48.5 percent believed they would not offend in the future, with 23.5 percent unsure. By conducting Mann-Whitney U test exploring the differences in views of future offending for children and young people's acceptance of criminal responsibility, a statistically significant result was found ($p<0.05$) (Table 6.12).

Table 6.12 – Future offending based on acceptance of responsibility for offence (n=65)			
Mean (Acceptance)	Mean (Non-acceptance)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
2.12	4.02	131.50	.000

The results show that children and young people accepting responsibility for crimes committed indicate a desire to stop offending in the future. Despite the STC's statement of purpose (no.5) highlighting the centre's aim of *"preventing re-offending and preparing young people for their return to the community"*, a significant number of staff (73 percent) felt that young people would offend in the future (further analysis in Chapter Seven). The misalignment between staff members views (a key stakeholder group) and the strategic goals of STCs create questions over the effectiveness of STCs (Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny,

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[17] Staff members delivering restorative practices, mediation services and offence based work require appropriate training (for example, staff require restorative practices training before facilitating restorative justice conferences, restorative meetings or victim awareness packages).

2014). On exploring the views of children and young people participating in interviews, there was uncertainty around future offending:

"I want to stop, but I don't want to stop. It's hard like. I have nothing except for my parents outside here. I don't want to come back in here though. I have goals but I don't know if I can make it" (P01)

"Maybe, I don't really know. Sometimes I think I might stop but other times I'm like "who cares". I can't be bothered being in here though so I won't get caught if I do offend again. Would only be like little things really, I wouldn't stab anyone. Well I might if they deserved it but mostly I just do stupid stuff with my friends, like drugs and stuff. It doesn't hurt anyone though" (P02)

"I really don't know it depends on my frame of mind at the time. There are loads of gangs in my area and I'm part of a gang, you can't just leave. If you need to do something then you need to do it like" (P04)

"Probably not, but hopefully I can. I am part of a gang and have gang related issues that come up. I will probably get pulled back in cause you can't just walk away from it" (P06)

"I don't know, mostly no. I don't want to come here again but I won't get caught. I have nothing outside here except my mum and my littles bro/sis. Why would I stop offending? It's hardly like I hurt people man. All I do is take the stuff I want, loads of people take stuff they want. I don't have money to pay for it so I take it from the people that have money. Like Robin Hood man" (P07)

"I don't think I will offend again. I don't want my mum to have to deal with this shit again, so I'll stop. If something happens like, I might end up doing something. I don't know really" (P08)

"Yeah, I might not stop offending when I leave here though, I want to but I don't know"
(P15)

The quotes illustrate children and young people's uncertainty over future offending due to finance, gang involvement and situational factors. Although children and young people express a desire to stop offending, self-esteem, confidence and gang participation appear as barriers. For two young people, gang related issues were expressly mentioned as a factor of uncertainty, with one young person stating 'I'm part of a gang, you can't just leave'. This response illustrates the impact of social coercion which contributes to children and young people's desire to maintain status among peers, a factor that influences anti-social potential (Farrington, 1995; 2002; 2005). Some young people express belief that they have 'no-one' except for close family, leading them to view offending as a means of gaining something. These gains range from financial to belonging, with criminal peers and gangs viewed as place of 'belonging' and 'family'. The features of 'belonging, 'identity' and financial security can be achieved from employment; however, the high prevalence of NEET amongst children and young people in STCs can explain the reasons these elements are missing. Gang participation allows children and young people fill the void missing from education, employment and secure family attachments (Pitts, 2007). For children and young people, the Criminological literature places the responsibility of reducing re-convictions on children and young people rather than exploring the wider issues such as neighbourhood, gang involvement, social deprivation, health inequalities and challenging family situations (Case and Haines, 2015). You will note from the overall data that the majority of children and young people in custody have experienced adverse circumstances, which contribute to involvement in offending behaviour.

Another factor emerging from the research was related to concentration and impulsivity. ICAP theory highlights the impact of impulsivity on antisocial and offending behaviour. Studies conducted have supported such ideas (Defoe, Farrington, and Loeber, 2013; Farrington, 1990, 1992; Higgins, Kirchner, Ricketts, and Marcum, 2013). Children and young people participating in interviews expressed issues with impulsivity:

"I was angry then, I swung at some of the staff and the grabbed me. I just kept swinging and swinging but I never hit anyone. Well, I might have hit someone in the chest but I

don't actually know if I did or not. I'm allowed to be angry you know, I'm human and I can be angry if I want" (P03)

"The staff here are alright, some annoy me and I can't control my anger. I can be really calm but if you annoy me or dis me then I get angry.." (P04)

It's hard. I think about stopping offending but it's difficult. I mean, sometimes stuff happens and I just go crazy. I don't care who I hurt. It's like I can't control something inside me and I go crazy (P07)

"…in here if someone gave me a look then I would smash em. That's the thing; in here we learn that we have to fight to survive or become punks that grass" (P15)

Responses from children and young people in interviews illustrated the impact of impulsivity on offending behaviour, particularly in relation to violence. Jolliffe and Farrington (2004) explored the importance of concentration and impulsivity in relation to offending behaviours, finding that early impulsiveness was related to later measures of violence. Given the emotional regulation difficulties reported for children and young people in STCs and the levels of impulsivity, the STC plays a vital role in supporting children and young people to regulate emotions and reduce impulsivity.

6.3.2 – Summary

As previously discussed, the overall data demonstrates that children and young people in custody have complicated backgrounds, compounded by pro-criminal family members, substance misuse, social exclusion, health inequalities, gang involvement, experiences of care and exposure to child abuse or domestic abuse. These circumstances impact on children and young people learning pro-social attitudes that promotes positive transitions to adulthood. From exploring children and young people's views on services, restorative attitudes and desistance, it is evident that the STC has a crucial role in supporting children and young people to understand and develop pro-social attitudes. To measure the impact of custody on the attitudes to offending of children and young people, developing interval measurement is

critical. For example, measuring children and young people's understanding of the impact of offending on victims from arrival to post-release (6 month to 24 month follow-up) would allow professionals to identify changes in pro-social attitudes which are important for desistance. This approach acknowledges the key questions proposed by Nevill and Lumley (2011) (see section 3.2) underpinned by theory of change foundations discussed in section 3.3. By introducing this approach, the organisation has the opportunity to identify the resources and activities required for supporting children and young people (for example, restorative justice interventions) and the outputs, outcomes and impact achieved from such interventions. This implementation of interval measurement throughout the young person's journey, allows the STC, YJB and professionals to assess improvements or challenges to developing pro-social attitudes.

6.4 – Summary - Social Impact Measurement

Creating effective interventions for supporting children and young people involved in offending benefits from individual (micro), organisation (meso) and community (macro) level understanding. In order to identify effective and sustainable interventions at this level, developing a SIM framework is critical (Clifford et al., 2014). Such evidence-based assessment of intervention performance, that incorporates multi-stakeholder viewpoints and outcomes, will, in the long-run, improve outcomes for young people and reduce the need for costly punitive justice interventions (Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny, 2014). In order to explore 'how the SIM approach, developed by the researcher, contribute to ensuring the intended outcomes for children and young people in the STC?' the researcher has designed a model for developing an environment that promotes positive outcomes and desistence was created by the researcher, underpinned by existing literature

As discussed, ICAP theory explores the between-individual and within-individual factors influencing children and young people's involvement in criminal activity (Farrington, 2005). In exploring the factors influencing involvement in criminal activity, Farrington (2005) distinguishes the long-term antisocial potential (between-individual differences) from the short-term antisocial potential (within-individual differences). For Farrington (2005) the long-

term factors are influenced by modelling, strain, socialisation and labelling while the short-term factors depend on motivation, situation, intelligence and cognitive ability (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). The factors explored by Farrington (2005) are reminiscent of factors the Social Exclusion Unit (2002) highlighted as priorities in reducing re-convictions. The Social Exclusion Unit (2002) report suggested that recidivism may occur if education and training, employment, substance misuse, mental and physical health, attitudes and self-control, life skills, housing, benefit and debt, and family relationships are inappropriately addressed.

This research project supports the research published by the Social Exclusion Unit (2002) and ICAP theory, with identical themes equivalent for children and young people in custody. From exploring the qualitative and quantitative data for children and young people, several important factors for measurement were identified (Table 6.13).

Table 6.13 – Social impact measurement factors for young people in STCs		
Health and Wellbeing	Health and wellbeing encompasses the state of physical, mental, social and spiritual wellbeing. This includes improving physical health; managing substance misuse; promoting good mental wellbeing and promoting a positive sense of self.	Physical Health
		Mental Wellbeing
		Substance use
		Sense of self and life satisfaction
Relationships	Relationships encompass the range of social, emotional and intimate needs of individuals. This includes promoting pro-social relationships; establishing trust and consistency; and the development of skills for re-building relationships.	Trust
		Pro-social relationships
		Consistency
		Attachment

Table 6.13 – Social impact measurement factors for young people in STCs		
Education, Training and/or Employment	Education encompasses the rights of access to education, training and/or employment. This includes promoting improvement in numeracy and literacy; qualification attainment; and promoting participation and engagement in meaningful activities.	Securing placement in education, training or employment
		Numeracy and Literacy level
		Qualifications
		Meaningful activities
Independence	Independence encompasses access to secure and stable accommodation in a positive environment. This includes promoting understanding of basic living skills such as cooking and hygiene as well as providing the knowledge of accessing benefits and services.	Basic living skills
		Knowledge to complete forms
		Safe and secure accommodation
		Accessing benefits and services
Attitudes to offending	Attitudes to offending encompasses the personal narrative associated with criminal activity. This includes developing restorative attitudes; promoting attitudes to desistance; reducing the need for gang participation; and improving the views of services as effective and sustainable.	Restorative attitudes
		Views of services
		Attitudes to desistance
		Gang related issues

Based on the themes and factors emerging from the quantitative and qualitative phases of research, a model for developing an environment that promotes positive outcomes and desistence was created by the researcher, underpinned by existing literature (Figure 6.2)

Figure 6.2 – Rehabilitative Environment

Figure 6.2 – Rehabilitative Environment
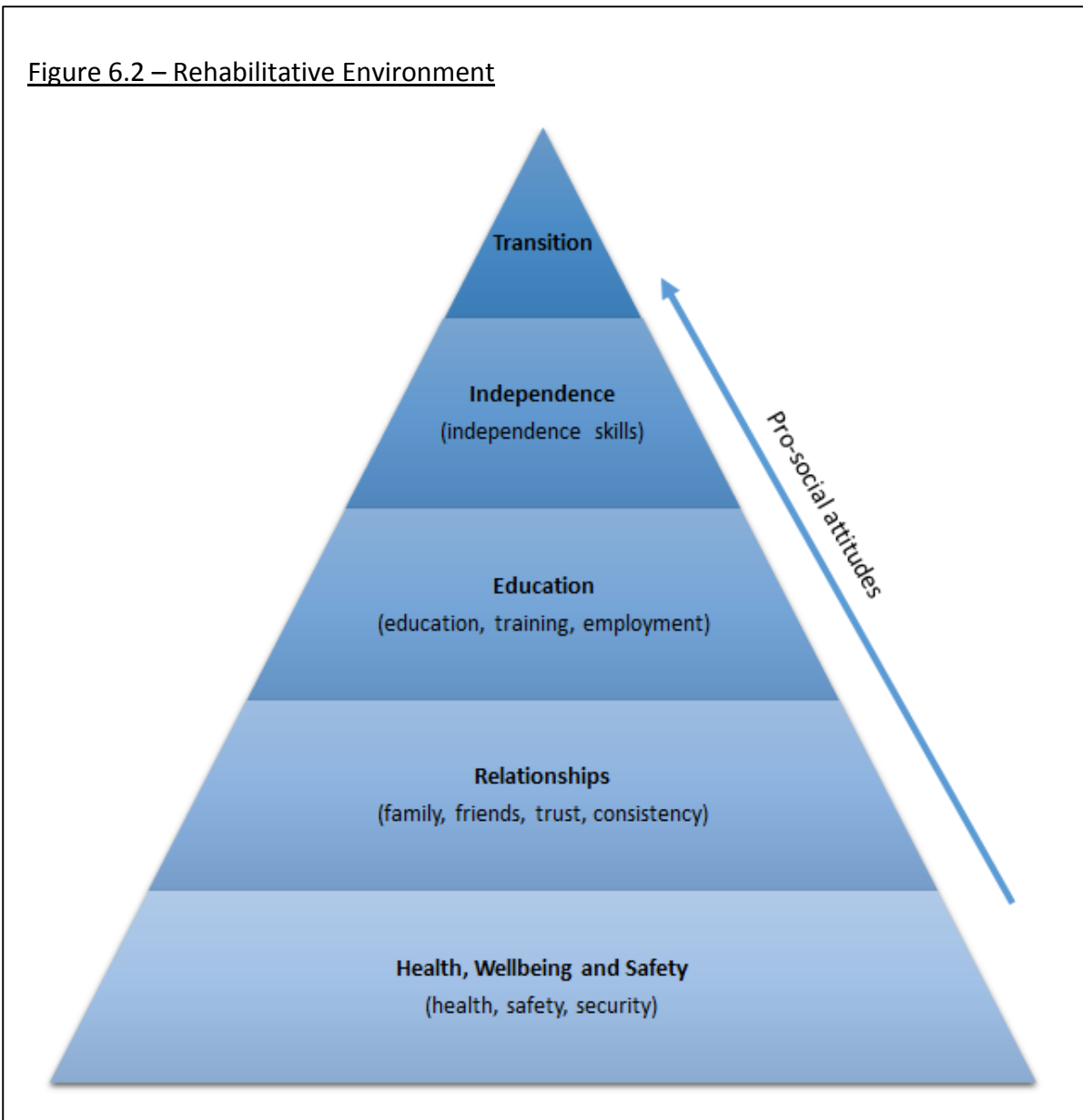
The Rehabilitative Environment Model contains five key phases for addressing attitudes to offending and developing resilience. Addressing health and wellbeing issues, as well as safety, are critical for developing an environment that motivates and encourages the development of positive relationships, participation in education training or employment, and the promotion of independence. This section of the pyramid is reminiscent of the 'basic needs' section in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs (Figure 6.3).

Figure 6.3 – Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Self-Actualisation
(achieving full potential)

Esteem needs
(prestidge, accomoplishment)

Belonging and Love Needs
(intimate relationships, friendships)

Safety Needs
(security, safety)

Physiological Needs
(sustanince, warmth)
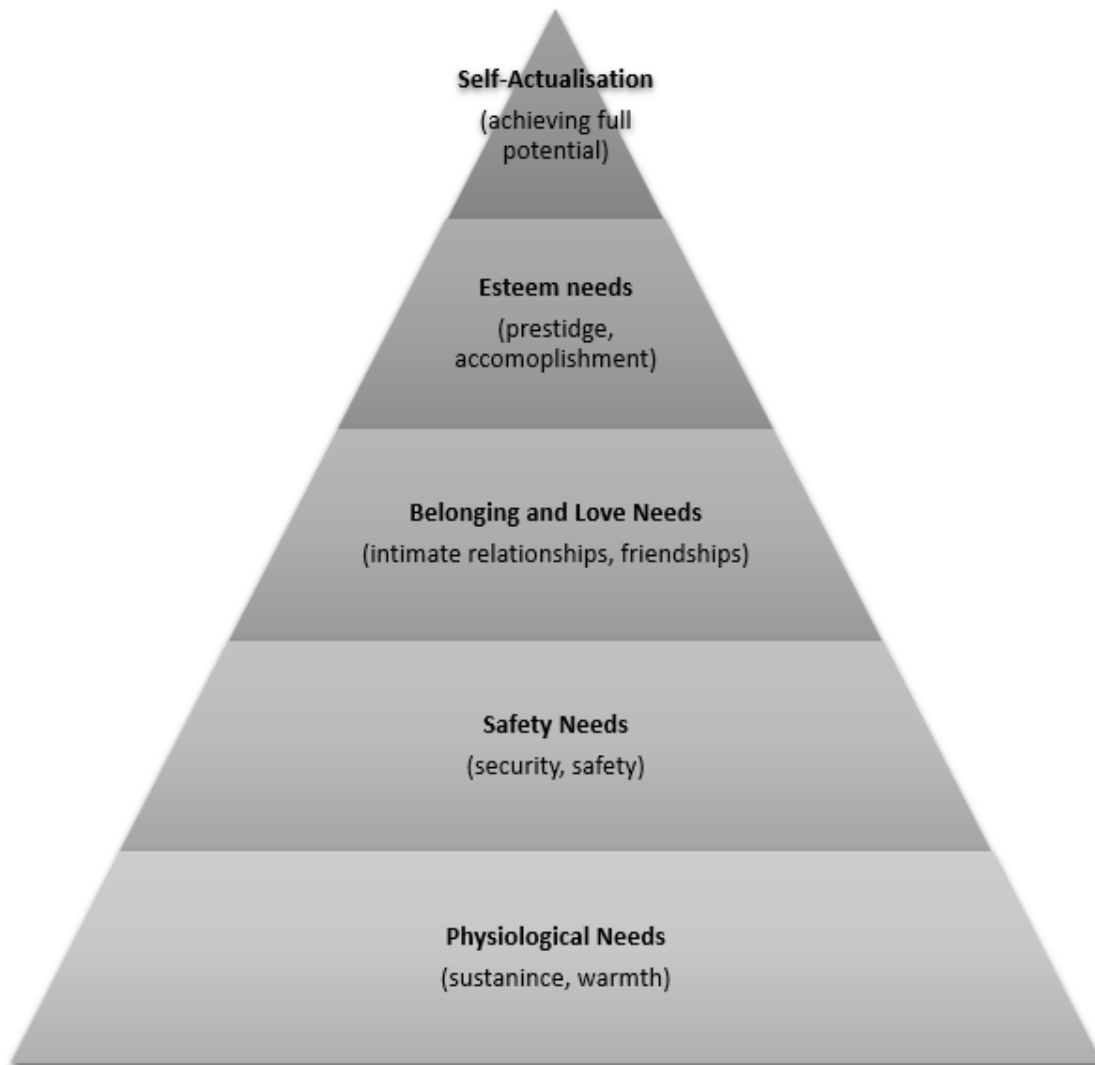
According to Maslow (1943) failure to satisfy ones 'basic needs' leads to dominance, which results in the relegation of other needs. In terms of the rehabilitative environment, failure to overcome challenges at the first stage in the pyramid may disrupt the results in proceeding stages of the pyramid. As with Maslow's (1987) revised version of the hierarchy, individuals may progress by overcoming an appropriate proportion of the earlier needs or challenges. Thus, it is critical to note that the satisfaction of needs or overcoming challenges is not an *all or nothing* scenario. The international research and evidence highlights health inequalities, with young people in custody experiencing a higher prevalence of poor physical health, mental ill-health and substance misuse problems than the general population (Vreugdenhil, Doreleijers and Vermeiren, 2004; Golzari, Hunt and Anoshiravani, 2006; Fazel, Doll and Langstrom, 2008; Kinner, Degenhardt and Coffey, 2014).

Addressing the health, wellbeing and safety needs of children and young people creates an environment that improves life chances for those experiencing social and health inequalities (Graham and Kelly, 2004). Data shows that children and young people entering custody have adverse childhood experiences affecting health, wellbeing, educational attainment, relationships, independence and attitudes to offending. Although children and young people view the healthcare provisions available positively, there are issues surrounding the psychology and substance misuse provisions available in STCs. Once this environment exists, developing and maintaining trusting relationships is central for motivating and supporting young people to desist from offending, attain positive outcomes and effectively transition from custody (Partridge, 2004; Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006; and Hart, 2015). Given the numbers of children and young people with exposure to pro-criminal family members (68.4 percent) and peers (93.7 percent), developing positive and trusting relationships is paramount. ICAP theory highlights the negative impact of criminal parents, poor child rearing, disrupted families and negative life events on antisocial potential (Farrington, 2005; Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). The development of trustful relationships is influenced by staff continuity and consistency, which is challenging in complex environments. Research shows that strong and supportive relationships aid desistance from offending, highlighting that offending behaviour is influenced by poor family relationships, negative school experiences and delinquent influences (Sampson and Laub, 1993). For young people in custody, experiences and relationships will vary; however, most young people will have been exposed to parental separation (68.4 percent), pro-criminal family members (68.4 percent), domestic abuse (50.6 percent), bereavement (25 percent) and/or experiences in the care system (42.7 percent). Given the experiences of children and young people in custody, developing positive and trusting relationships is critical for promoting positive attitudes and outcomes. Despite the positive relationships reported by children and young people (see section 5.4.2), the case files analysis shows that young people have significant relationships with an average of 4.1 members of staff (excluding unit staff members). Developing positive and trustful relationships is central in motivating and supporting individuals to desist from offending, develop positive relationships and access services for support upon release (Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006).

Fostering the right environment with positive and trusting relationships at the core, creates opportunities for young people to engage in education and training. Education environments have a central role in reinforcing the behaviours as well as attitudes learned within the family and promoting pro-social attitudes (Stephenson, 2006). Considering the average age of cessation (14.8 years-old) from education for young people in STCs, developing a positive environment that encourages participation in training, education and employment is critical. Research highlighting the role of education, for children and young people, in promoting desistance tends to focus on education as a protective factor. Indeed, ICAP theory argues that education, in addition to unconditionally supportive parents or carers, provide protective factors for children and young people by creating opportunities (Farrington, 2005; Farrington, Ttofi, Crago and Coid, 2014). Thus, participation in education training and employment is beneficial in promoting desistence and the achievement of positive outcomes (Merton, 1938; Van Der Laan, Blom and Kleemans, 2009; Machin et al., 2011).

Education plays a significant role in supporting children and young people to develop; however, children, young people and staff in STC environments are *"inevitably cut off to a significant degree from the outside world"* (Maguire and Raynor, 2017:141). This isolation from the outside world highlights the critical role the STC environment plays in supporting children and young people to develop independence and resilience for release. Taxman (2004) explored the importance of individual's active participation in reintegration, suggesting a five-step offender active participation model, including:

1) The *message to the offender* – personal responsibility and decision making.
2) Institutional treatment – reintegration goals, transitional planning and motivation.
3) Institutional pre-release – survival needs such as 'a place to live, a place to work, food on the table and people to love'
4) Post-release – learning to survive without offending and overcoming initial obstacles.
5) Integration – maintenance and crisis management.

The STC promotes active participation in education; children and young people express concerns over the teaching methods and levels of education available (see section 6.1.3). Similar concerns are reflected in section 7.5, with staff members commenting on the adequacy and effectiveness of current education provisions for the children and young people within the centre. Despite concerns, education remains a key element in supporting children and young people to desist from offending. Although the STC promotes active participation in education, other elements remain elusive such as the opportunities for learning independence skills.

Children and young people receive daily support to complete routine activities in the centre, support that ceases upon release. The removal of adequate connected arrangements of support for children and young people upon release creates a dislocation. On release children and young people enter a difficult period confounded by a greater risk of involvement in criminal behaviour. Morris and Morris (1963) found that staff in custodial environments focus primarily on the custodial sentence, with limited emphasis on release preparations. Information from this research supports this idea, with children and young people receiving significant daily support in cooking, cleaning, attending education, arranging healthcare, regulating emotions and developing relationships, with limited scope for learning and practicing independence skills. The level of support significantly reduces, and in the majority of circumstances ceases completely, upon leaving the centre. From this perspective, developing independence in children and young people is central to ensuring positive outcomes in the future. As young people in custody are isolated from society, creating an environment that promotes the development of independence skills and resilience is critical. By creating an environment supporting the initial stages of rehabilitation allows young people to explore attitudes to offending, promoting positive outcomes.

Through each stage in the rehabilitative environment, children and young people should have the opportunity to learn pro-social attitudes and develop resilience. By monitoring and reviewing each step in this rehabilitation pyramid, STCs and the YJB have the opportunity to measure the outcomes at each stage (Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny, 2014). If satisfactory

outcomes are not achieved, it is impossible to progress up the pyramid and new innovative approaches should be employed. Similarly, if children and young people progress up the pyramid, situational changes (for example, staff leaving or changes in environment) may result in a regression. Such regressions require appropriate management to ensure children and young people have the opportunity to reflect on the situation and progress.

The rehabilitative environment compliments the recent report published by Hazel et al. (2017) that propose five key characteristics for effective and sustainability resettlement support: constructive (focused on identify shift, strength-based approached and empowerment), co-created (focused on inclusion of children, young people and supporters), customised (focused on individual and diverse support), consistent (focused on designing a seamless process from admission) and co-ordinated (focus on widespread partnership). Combining these characteristics offers a theory of change for the resettlement of children and young people that compliments this research project which focuses on the social impact of STCs on children and young people. The elements proposed by Hazel et al. (2017) provide a framework for resettlement which aims to promote a shift in identify for children and young people in custody. As measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions is a nascent area academically, with current measurement approaches focused on output and outcome rather than social impact (Paterson-Young et al., 2017). Developing the rehabilitative model by positioning ICAP theory within a wider SIM framework, provides the vital steps for introducing a model for measuring the wider impact of custody on young people. The inclusion of sub-elements within the rehabilitative model (i.e. education and independence), provides professionals with an opportunity to monitor the impact of each stage on children and young people in custody. By introducing the SIM framework suggested in figure 3.12, the organisation can use the areas for identified in chapter Five, Six and Seven to measure the impact of services (with acknowledgement of the attribution, distribution, deadweight and drop-off).

Chapter Seven – Staff

Developing a relevant SIM framework for STCs requires consideration of the perceptions of children and young people as well as the perceptions of other stakeholders (most notably staff members employed in the STC). The quantitative and qualitative results presented in Chapters Five and Six offered an insight into children and young people's experiences of STCs. The themes emerging from the data analysis demonstrated that measuring health and wellbeing, relationships, education, independence and attitudes to offending are critical for developing a rehabilitative environment for children and young people. Although, exploring the perceptions of children and young people are critical for research, evaluation and measurement requires a multi-stakeholder approach (Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny, 2014). To accomplish a multi-stakeholder approach, exploring the perceptions of staff members employed in the STC is vital to developing an effective SIM framework. In developing a SIM framework, identifying the beliefs, assumptions and knowledge base for the interventions offered are critical (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). Achieving this relies on examining the perceptions of staff employed in STCs, thus this chapter will explore staff perceptions on the beliefs, assumptions, knowledge and delivery of interventions and services within the STC. Furthermore, this chapter will explore the perceptions of staff on the impact of STCs on children and young people.

7.1 – Quantitative Research

Collecting data through a questionnaire allowed for exploration of the perceptions of staff members employed in the STC over the research period (See Section 4.6.1 and Appendix M – Staff Questionnaire). The questionnaire responses sought to explore 'how young people's experiences in the Secure Training Centres supported their transition to adulthood and desistance?' and 'how the organisation's values, aims, objectives and structure influenced the services offered to young people'? In this section, the quantitative research phase is explored in terms of the sample size, demographics and instrument reliability. As discussed in Section 4.7, selecting a sample size appropriate for achieving data and theoretical saturation has received considerable debate in the academic sphere (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). For this research a sample size between 50 and 80 was deemed appropriate as supported by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004) and Field (2009). Onwuegbuzie

and Leech (2004) explored sample sizes for quantitative research, recommending a minimum sample ranging from 21 participants to 82 participants for detecting significance. The number of staff employed in STCs 284, with 177 residential officers and managers. These numbers include staff members in administrative roles (including HR) and staff members on sick leave[18]. Data from this quantitative phase of research was explored and analysed using a variety of tests available from the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The tests utilised for exploring the quantitative data were discussed in Chapter 4.8.1 (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1 – SPSS tests utilised for the quantitative analysis	
Sample distribution normality test	Descriptive Statistics
Univariate and multivariate outlier test	Correlation and regression analysis
Chi-square test	Mann Whitney-U

As with the children and young person questionnaire, the questionnaire responses were positioned on a Likert scale as illustrated in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2 – Questionnaire Likert scale (Statements 1-24 and 28-37)							
Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Associated Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Before exploring the data, understanding the demographic information for the staff members participating in the research is critical. Participants provided information on sex, ethnicity, length of service in the STC and their current role. The sex of participants was mixed, with 40.5 percent of participant's male and 58.1 percent of participants female (responses missing n=1). The ethnicity of participants was also varied, with the majority of participants identifying as White (73 percent), 16.2 percent identifying as Black, 4.1 percent identifying as Asian and the remaining participants identifying as White Other or Mixed (responses missing n=3). In

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[18] The STC would not provide a breakdown of staff numbers for security reasons.

terms of the current role within the STC and the length of service, the majority of participants described their role as Residential (43.2 percent) and the length of service varied from 1 month to 12 years. The full breakdown of demographic data for staff employed in the STC is presented in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3 – Sample data breakdown for staff (quantitative phase) (%)		
Variable		Questionnaire (%) (n=74)
Sex	Male	30 (40.5)
	Female	43 (58.1)
	Unknown	1 (1.4)
Ethnicity	White	54 (73.0)
	Black	12 (16.2)
	Mixed	1 (1.4)
	Other White	1 (1.4)
	Asian	3 (4.1)
	Unknown	3 (4.1)
Length of Service	<6 months	20 (27.0)
	6-12 months	9 (12.2)
	12-23 months	12 (16.2)
	2 – 8 years	14 (19.0)
	> 8 Years	19 (25.7)
Department	Resettlement	10 (13.5)
	Intervention	12 (16.2)
	Residential	32 (43.2)
	Management	10 (13.5)
	Education	10 (13.5)

Reflecting on the demographics information for staff in comparison with children and young people, clear differences are evident in relation to sex. The research was conducted in an STC which accommodates male children and young people. Although, the STC has accommodated females, on occasion, the majority of children and young people are male. The staff

participants are both male and female, with sex weighting in favour of females which reflects statistical information on the number of females pursuing careers in caring professions. Indeed, statistical information from 2013 demonstrated that a higher percentages of female graduates (27 per cent) and non-graduates (61 per cent) entered professions such as teaching assistants, care workers and home carers than male graduates (27 per cent) and non-graduate (30 per cent) (ONS, 2013). In terms of ethnicity, a high number of staff questionnaire respondents noted their ethnicity as White British (73 per cent) in comparison with 45.3 per cent of children and young people. There is a notable difference in the ethnicity of children and young people accommodated in the STC and the staff supporting children and young people. The Lammy Review (Ministry of Justice[2], 2017) explored the over-representation of BAME adults and young people in prison. This report highlighted issues relating to equality and diversity, scrutiny and accountability, rehabilitation and employment support and equality for all individuals accommodated in custodial environments (Ministry of Justice[2], 2017). A key recommendation from this report was increasing the diversity of custodial staff to address the poor experiences of BAME adults and young people (Ministry of Justice[2], 2017). Given the demographic information illustrated for staff, children and young people; the STC would benefit from considering this recommendation.

7.2 – Qualitative Research

Qualitative research (semi-structured interview – Appendix N) was also undertaken in combination with the quantitative research, to address 'how young people's experiences in the Secure Training Centres supported their transition to adulthood and recidivist behaviour?' and 'how have the organisation's values, aims, objectives and structure influenced the services offered to young people? In this section the qualitative research phase, conducted with staff, is explored in terms of the sample size and demographics. As discussed in Section 4.7, a random sample of staff members employed were selected to participate in semi-structured interviews. The expected sample size ranged from between 5 and 25 participant staff members, as supported by Creswell (1998) and Mason (2010). Following completion of the questionnaire, staff members were able to leave contact details for follow-up interviews. This information was extracted prior to questionnaire analysis to ensure anonymity in questionnaire responses. The number of questionnaire respondents interested in

participating in follow-up interviews was 21, with only 42.9 percent participating in interviews. This participation rate was influenced by staff sickness (14.3 percent of staff absent due to sickness) and staff turnover (42.9 percent of staff leaving prior to interviews commencing). In order to recruit additional participants, emails and letters were sent to participants inviting them to participate in interviews resulting in a further 6 participants (overall sample n=15). The research participants for the staff interviews varied in terms of sex length of service and department within the STC (Table 7.4).

Table 7.4 – Sample data comparison for staff interviews and staff questionnaire			
Variable		Interviews (%) (n=15)	Questionnaire (%) (n=74)
Sex	Male	4 (26.7)	30 (40.5)
	Female	11 (73.3)	43 (58.1)
	Unknown	0 (0)	1 (1.4)
Length of Service	<6 months	4 (26.7)	20 (27.0)
	6 - 11 months	2 (13.3)	9 (12.2)
	12 - 23 months	3 (20.0)	12 (16.2)
	2 – 8 years	2 (13.3)	14 19.0)
	> 8 Years	4 (26.7)	19 (25.7)
Department	Resettlement	4 (26.7)	10 (13.5)
	Intervention	3 (20.0)	12 (16.2)
	Residential	4 (26.7)	32 (43.2)
	Management	1 (6.7)	10 (13.5)
	Education	3 (20.0)	10 (13.5)

The interview and questionnaire sample differ in terms of sex, with a higher number of female staff members participating in interviews than males. Differences were noted with the department with higher numbers of residential staff participating in the questionnaire than the interviews. In terms of the length of service, information was similar for interviews and questionnaire was similar, peaking at less than 6 months and again at over 8 years.

Data from the interviews was analysed using Constant Comparative Method (CCM), underpinned by a Straussian grounded theory approach, allowing the researcher to engage in an iterative process (See Section 4.6.2). Adopting this approach allowed the researcher to simultaneously collect and analyse data, creating analytical themes and codes from data rather than pre-existing conceptualisations (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). During the 'immersion' stage for the staff interviews, the researcher established 72 units for analysis, including 'ownership', 'overhaul', 'support', 'training', 'broken system' and 'unsettled' (Appendix O). Information from the 'immersion' stage was analysed further during the 'categorisation' stage, with the units for analysis condensed into 16 categories. The categories identified were further explored through a process of 'phenomenological reduction', with four key themes emerging – 'challenges', 'young people', 'support' and 'services'. Figure 7.1 illustrates the qualitative analysis process undertaken for staff interviews, with the numbers in the category boxes corresponding with the relevant units for analysis and the numbers in the theme boxes corresponding with the relevant categories.

Figure 7.1 – Qualitative Analysis for Staff Interviews

72 units of analysis

1. Young People
52, 70, 71, 72, 68

2. Support
2, 3, 14, 39, 53, 54, 69

3. Training
4, 7, 41, 58, 60, 61, 62

4. Education
15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22

5. Interventions
26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32

6. Independence
4, 24,

7. Values and Principles
8, 33, 34, 35, 37, 38

8. Workload
49, 50

9. Cohesion
23, 56, 57

10. Relationships
27, 66, 67

11. Self
6, 46, 63, 64

12. Changes
40, 48,

13. Ownership
1, 65

14. Challenges
2, 9, 10, 11, 12, 36, 42

15. Desistance
43, 45, 47

16. Knowledge
5, 13, 55, 59

A. Challenges
7, 11, 12, 14

B. Young People
1, 10, 15

C. Support
2, 3, 8, 9, 16

D. Services
4, 5, 6, 13

7.3 – Challenges

Developing truly effective and sustainable services relies on identifying the social impact which allows for the constant refinement of interventions and the ability to undertake evidence-based organisational development (Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny, 2014). As discussed in Chapter Two, the central focus on punishment for behaviours and the perception of children and young people as '*threatening'* marked the building blocks and foundations of the current youth justice system. As society changed and perceptions of young people altered, welfare principles became the centre of the debate on supporting young people to cease offending. These conflicting approaches to youth justice remain prevalent in England and Wales today, with the introduction of child-centred approaches in conflict with the low age of criminal responsibility. The introduction and development of Secure Training Centre's from 1998, to the present day, add to the welfare versus justice debates by promoting child-centred approaches in a secure environment.

Establishing the beliefs, assumptions and knowledge underpinning STCs is paramount for understanding the services available for children and young people. Knowlton and Phillips (2013) argue that the services delivered are rooted in assumptions, which result from the knowledge acquired through research, practice, experience and theory (Knowlton and Phillips, 2013). Exploring the purpose of STCs allows the researcher to establish 'how the organisation's values, aims, objectives and structure influenced the services offered to young people?' Secure Training Centres were opened with the original purpose of *"accommodating trainees in a safe environment within secure conditions; and helping trainees prepare for their return to the outside community"* (Secure Training Centre, 1998). Developments in STCs resulted in the introduction of the statement of purpose which compliments and enhances the original STC (1998). For example, STC (1998) rule 3.1(a) on safety complements the STC (2015) statement of purpose number 2 (See Appendix B and C). Although the statement of purpose in 2015 expanded the 1998 rules, the founding principles of STCs remained consistent. This creates confusion for staff employed in STCs, with several staff members commenting that the current values and principles, underpinned by the statement of purpose and rules, are inappropriate for the centre today:

"It's absolutely lost its way and vision... I was there from when it opened. The party line that we were given... was that the STC was set up by the Government to provide a short sharp shock to persistent offenders who were stealing cars and burglary and that kind of level. And it was very, very, rare that we would have a 15-year-old in custody as they went, automatically, to a YOI. Whereas obviously now we have kids just short of 18 at the point they are sentenced even. And the way that STC, the purpose and function has not changed to reflect that change" (S02)

"I think some of the values need to change sometimes, especially with the older boys we have now. Seven years ago we mostly had 13 and 14 year olds but now we have 16 17 and 15 year olds and I think we need to change with the times. I think they are still there but it can be a bit of a grey area and we should change with the cliental of young people we have here now" (S05)

"I mean the values and principles are clearly displayed around the centre and we receive information on our training but I don't think they work in the centre at the moment. I haven't been here long but my understanding is that the kids we used to have here were much younger, like 13 and 14. Most of the kids, if you can call them kids that we have here now are like 16 and 17. The older kids are intense because they are set in their ways and don't want to listen to the rules... I think the need to change the values and principles to reflect our current kids" (S06)

"They are appropriate for the centre but not for our clientele, in terms of the young people. In terms of STC rules from 1998, so that's nearly 20 years now...We are still running around with the same rules but we are not the same we were 20 years ago. Things have moved forward but unfortunately they haven't moved it and changed enough to deal with the young people we are dealing with now" (S12)

One of the main areas of concern for staff members participating in interviews was the changing cohort of children and young people accommodated in STCs. Initially, STCs were

introduced to accommodate 12 to 14 years-old receiving Secure Training Orders (STO) (or Detention Training Orders (DTO)). The age of children and young people accommodated in STCs was reviewed in 2000, following the death of two children and young people in custody (Kevin Henson aged 17 years-old died in custody in 2000 and David Dennis aged 17-years-old in 2000) (YJBa, 2014). Resulting from welfare and safety concerns, the age of children and young people accommodated in STCs was extended to include 12 to 17 year-olds, with provision for the continued accommodation of young people aged 18 years-old with additional vulnerabilities (Pitts, 2001). Despite the changing cohort of children and young people accommodated in STCs, the policies and principles have remained largely static rather than changing to accommodate the differing needs of an older age group. The challenges evident from the changing cohort of children and young people are reflected in Section 6.1, as the current educational component in the centre has existed since the initial conception of STCs for 12-14 year-olds in 1998. As mentioned previously, with STCs now accommodating 12-18 year-olds, the effectiveness of current educational activities (particularly for the older age groups) requires significant overhaul. Recommendations in Section 6.1 focus on developing educational provisions to reflect the changing age profile of children and young people, with additional vocational qualifications and an introduction of apprenticeships. Furthermore, the limited emphasis on independence skills, as explored in section 6.2, illustrates a lack of understanding of the needs of the children and young people accommodated in STCs today.

The unchanging nature of policies and principles with a changing cohort of children and young people impact on staff members understanding of roles within the centre. Several staff members participating in the questionnaire reported receiving limited information on the changes to STC policies and/or procedures (45.9 percent) and limited information on changes to the STC structure and/or management team (59.5 percent). On performing a Mann-Whitney U, information suggests that staff member's role impacts on their understanding of the changes to STC policies and/or procedures. Staff members in residential roles were significantly less likely to report receiving information on the changes to policies and/or procedures in the STC ($p<0.05$) (Table 7.5).

Table 7.5 – Informed on changes to policies and/or procedures based on role (n=74)			
Mean (Residential)	Mean (Non-Residential)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
3.88	4.71	490.50	.043

Similarly, staff members in residential roles were less likely to report receiving information on changes to the STC structure and/or management, although this result was not statistically significant (Table 7.6)

Table 7.6 – Informed on changes to structure and/or management based on role (n=74)			
Mean (Residential)	Mean (Non-Residential)	Mann Whitney-U	*p*-value
3.34	4.02	516.00	.083

Research shows that unstable and unpredictable environments reduce job satisfaction and increase an employee's likelihood of leaving (Alexander, Bloom and Nichols, 1994; Magner, Welker, and Johnson, 1996; Labov, 1997 and Ongori, 2007). As discussed in section 5.3.2, high turnover rates for staff impact on the development of the positive and trustful relationships that are pivotal in promoting positive outcomes for children and young people (Clancy et al., 2006; Maguire and Raynor, 2006). Over the period of research, the changes in the strategic and operational staff were evident from the researcher's observations. Since starting the research in August 2015, the Managing Director of Children's Services and Director of Children's Service changed on three occasions, as with other staff members. From exploring questionnaire data, 27 percent of staff were in employment for less than 6 months, with a further 12.2 percent in employment for less than 12 months. On performing a Mann-Whitney U, the data suggests that the length of service for questionnaire participants was influenced by role, with staff in residential roles significantly more likely to have been employed for shorter periods (*p*<0.05) (Table 7.7).

Table 7.7 – Staff members length of service by role (n=74)			
Mean (Residential)	Mean (Non-Residential)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
2.13	4.36	238.00	.000

On further examining the information in relation to service length, a Mann-Whitney U was performed finding that staff members employed for less than 12 months reported higher levels of uncertainty in terms of understanding the principles/values and policies/procedures. Furthermore, those staff members reported significantly less satisfaction with the supervision and training offered in STCs (Table 7.8).

Table 7.8 – Service length and understanding among staff (n=74)			
	Mean (< 12 months)	Mean (12 months +)	Mann-Whitney U	p-value
Understanding the principles and values	5.10	5.64	487.50	.056
Understanding the policies and procedures	5.00	5.39	476.50	.040
Regular supervision	3.24	4.44	454.00	.026
Adequacy of training	4.00	5.00	447.00	.021

The uncertainty reported by staff members employed for less than 12 months could be explained in terms of experience within the STC; however, another explanation for the levels of uncertainty could be the changes in management and the levels of staff turnover. Such uncertainty hinders the experiences of children and young people and progression within the rehabilitative model. As discussed in section 5.4.2, experiencing a revolving door of professionals serves to disrupt the continuity of trust between young people and staff, reducing the impact of interventions. If children and young people in custody develop bonds with staff members, their leaving will disrupt such bonds, meaning children and young people must deal with "abandonment". According to Kagan (2014:270) children and young people

bond with care staff resulting in *"…another loss and reaffirmation of the transience of attachments"* when staff members leave. Whilst acknowledging that 'handover' and change is inevitable in challenging environments, retaining the confidence and trust of young people relies on a sensitive transition process.

Another challenge for staff participating in the research relates to the isolation of the STC from external agencies. Taylor's (2016) report on youth justice highlighted the importance of enhancing multi-agency approaches for children and young people involved in the criminal justice system. According to Taylor (2016) the rehabilitation and positive destinations of children and young people relies on coordinated action from multiple service. Despite the fact that STCs are designed to offer a multi-agency approach, with multiple services available within the centre, limited support is offered from external agencies. This was reflected in the interviews with staff:

"It's really difficult because, I think, to complete a good piece of work and an in-depth piece of work, it might not be in the kids best interest to start it here… There needs to be more work done with the local authority around them taking ownership [around] what needs to happen and will continue [on release]" (S02)

"But at the same time, for external, they can come in. I always say that to youth offending team workers that they can come in and do work with their young people. Some will agree in the plans but they don't come in and do any work. This is one thing I always say in meeting, is there any work that you can provide for the young people because they have built that relationships. So in an idea world, it would be good for them to come in and do work with them… but mostly of the time they say 'no'" (S09)

Children and young people in custody have assigned YOT case managers responsible for the *"overall case management of custodial orders, and joint accountability with the secure estate for sentence planning and delivery"* (YJB, 2014b:1). Despite this responsibility, YOT case managers only attend meetings to review process and discuss transition plans (YJB, 2014b).

This suggests that the responsibility for children and young people is passed from YOT to the secure estate with limited case continuity until release. As discussed in section 6.3.1, children and young people participating in interviews viewed previous YOT involvement negatively, reporting that YOT workers "talk at you" and "don't listen". This finding supports the research of Phoenix and Kelly (2013:429) which found that young people felt that YOT workers "did not *really* care". For children and young people in STCs, prior experiences with the YOT and the lack of YOT engagement within the STC, compounds feelings that the YOT do not care. In achieving positive outcomes and successful resettlement for children and young people leaving custody, relationships are paramount (Bateman and Hazel, 2013). This moves beyond simply focusing on children and young people's relationships with staff in custody to the development of positive relationships with professionals in the community. Research shows that *"the period immediately following release has been identified as a window of opportunity during which young people may be particularly motivated to give up offending and take up a new narrative"* (Hazel, Hagell, Liddle, Archer, Grimshaw and King, 2002; Bateman and Hazel, 2013:14). Findings from the Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions highlight the requirement for on-going support for children and young people involved in criminal activity. Services in the community such as youth groups and outreach services have a pivotal role in supporting children and young people which, in turn, aids a reduction in offending and criminal activity (McAra and McVie, 2010). To motivate children and young people to desist from offending, positive engagement with professionals in the community is paramount. As children and young people transitioning from custody will interact with professionals in the community rather than staff from the STC, this engagement is vital. If professionals supporting children and young people in the community seize the opportunity to develop relationships in custody, the opportunity to motivate children and young people to reach positive outcomes is maximised.

Developing effective interventions and services for children and young people relies on the strategic and operational staff employed by the organisation. The challenges evident from the unchanging organisational purpose and rules, increased age profile of children and young people accommodated and the limited engagement with community partners impact on the delivery of effective and sustainable services for children and young people. As discussed in Section 6.4, supporting children and young people to reach positive outcomes relies on the

development and delivery of effectives and sustainable services. For strategic and operational staff employed in STCs, the challenges mentioned impact on the development and delivery of services, which consequently impacts on the children and young people accommodated. In order to improve this, the STCs rules and purpose require significant overhaul to reflect the age profile and needs of the children and young people accommodated today. Furthermore, developing a detailed process for supporting children and young people transitioning to and from custody, with community involvement, is vital. Failing to overhaul and develop processes that reflect the current climate within STCs will hinder children and young people's progression through each stage of the rehabilitative environment. Redesigning the STC environment requires acknowledgement of the issues (explored in Chapter Five, Six and Seven), refocusing the purpose and vision, retraining and developing staff members, introducing support and supervision and focus on addressing the factors contributing to positive outcomes for children and young people as explored in the rehabilitative environment.

7.4 – Young People

The number of young people entering the youth justice system has reduced since 2008, with equally significant reductions evident in the use of custody. Between 2007 and 2016, the number of offences committed by young people decreased by 73% (Bateman, 2017). Despite the reduction in children and young people entering the youth justice system, STCs maintain a steady flow of children and young people. Despite the fact that STCs were created to accommodate children and young people, support transitions to the community and promote desistance; only 40.5 percent of staff believed that the services offered in the STC were effective in helping children and young people to stop offending. Interview responses from staff illustrate some of the issues in terms of supporting children and young people to desist:

"In terms of his offending, have we stopped his offending behaviour, probably not, but I don't know if that's our fault or the length of time he was here" (S02)

"Sometimes the young people don't actually want to change. We try as much as possible and I have worked with young people on a one to one basis and at the end they will say "I'm really sorry K, thanks for all your help, but I'm going back to what I know and where I have come from". As much as you have those conversations and as much as you do the consequences of behaviour work, you can't change everyone. I sort of learnt that after I started" (S05)

"No, we definitely don't. We don't provide offending intervention so the kids just leave with the same attitude. The only time we make a difference is with the kids that have only offended once, but honestly, I don't think those kids would offend again. For the ones that have multiple offences, they just laugh it off" (S06)

"I think we teach young people here the worst you behave, the more you get... We had one young person... he destroyed his room completely, I mean completely... and he lived on a corridor where the louder he shouted, the more he got" (S08)

"Ok, you can come here and put all the interventions into the world and they could reap the most amounts from this centre, but if this stuff isn't continued in the community then they haven't got a hope in hell. Because if they come here, for example, on a 12 do 6, they spend 6 months getting all this support and stuff then go out and they don't have anything, and the community aren't putting that in (social services, YOT services), then literally all the work that has been done can potentially be undone in half the amount of time. And then in a few months they are committing" (S12)

As evident from the quotes above, staff express concerns over the STCs ability to support desistance due to sentence length and environmental factors within the STC. During the research period, the most common sentence length was 12 months (with 6 months served in custody) which reduces the overall impact of interventions (Mews, Hillier, McHugh and Coxon, 2015). Mews et al. (2015) found that short term custodial sentences (less than 12 months) were associated with higher re-conviction rates. Their research also found that short sentences with requirements on release, such as supervision, had limited impact on desistance (Mews et al., 2015). For children and young people receiving short custodial

sentences, maximising engagement and support from professionals in the community is paramount.

Another issue, evident from the quotes above, surrounded children and young people's attitudes to offending. Children and young people's attitudes to offending were explored in section 6.3, with literature suggesting that personal narrative plays a crucial role in understanding recidivism and desistance (Maruna, 2001). Research, with a focus on ICAP theory, highlights the influence of relationships on children and young people's attitudes to offending (West and Farrington, 1973; Reiss and Farrington, 1991; and Hemphill, Toumbourou, Herrenkohl, McMorris and Catalano, 2006). From analysing the quantitative and qualitative findings for children and young people, the researcher identified attitudes to offending as a key theme. This supports findings from the review of the SIM literature (see Chapter Three) with the identification of citizenship and community as one of the individual, community and societal factors that promote positive outcomes for children and young people (Big Capital Society, 2013). As personal narratives to offending are pivotal for promoting positive outcomes, staff perceptions of children and young people offenders were explored.

Despite the STC's statement of purpose (no.5) highlighting the centre's aim of "preventing re-offending and preparing young people for their return to the community", a significant number of staff (73.0 percent) felt that young people would offend in the future. A Kendall's tau_b correlation was completed to determine the relationships between staff views on the centres impact on desistance and the future offending of children and young people. There was a significant negative correlation ($p<0.01$) between the variables, with staff members believing the centre has limited/no impact on desistance significantly more likely to believe children and young people will offend again in the future (Table 7.9).

Table 7.9 – Views of STC impact on desistance and future offending young people (n=74)			
Mean (Desistance)	**Mean (Future offending)**	**Tb**	***p*-value**
3.41	5.15	-8.195	.000

The conflict between the theoretical purpose of STCs and the perceptions of staff members creates questions over the effectiveness of STCs. This conflict is evident within desistance literature, with Farrall (1995:56) writing that *"…research suggests that desistance 'occurs' away from the criminal justice system. That is to say that very few people actually desist as a result of interventions on the part of the criminal justice system or its representatives"*. Research on the impact of prison on desistance remains elusive; however, research suggests that imprisonment has limited impact on criminal activity (Gendreau, Goggin and Cullen, 1999; Maruna and Toch, 2005). Despite the bleak picture painted by research and the view of staff employed within STCs, children and young people deserve an effective service that supports desistance and promotes positive outcomes. In providing effective services, the STC requires clear purpose and direction to ensure staff members can support and empower children and young people.

7.5 – Support

The challenges facing the staff employed to support children and young people in custody were explored in section 7.3. Such challenges impact on the daily operation of STCs which inevitably impact on the psychological and emotional wellbeing of staff, children and young people. As discussed in section 5.2 and 5.3, children and young people in custody may have experienced adverse life outcomes including poor education, mental ill-health, social exclusion and unemployment (Beal, 2014). On exploring the background of children and young people in STCs, a significant number of young people had been exposed to parental separation (68.4 percent), pro-criminal family members (68.4 percent), domestic abuse (50.6 percent), bereavement (25 percent) and/or experiences in the care system (42.7 percent). Given the experiences of children and young people, staff will be exposed to potentially emotionally distressing information that will be stored in children and young people's care case files.

In addition to exposure to emotionally distressing information, staff members employed in STCs experience high levels of threats and violence (Ofsted, 2017). An Ofsted (2017) report found an increase in the levels of violence within secure estates, with over 20 assaults on staff and young people recorded between July 2016 and December 2016. The violence perpetrated against staff has resulted in serious injuries, with a news report in March 2017 confirming that a 21 year-old custody officer was left in a critical condition following an assault by five children and young people in an STC (BBC, 2017). Research shows that exposure to physical, psychological and emotional situations can result in trauma for staff and professionals working with children and young people (Stanley and Goddard, 2002). Research by Ferguson (2005:792) found that completing basic tasks appear *"enormously elusive and difficult"* within such a highly distressing environment. Supporting staff in such a challenging and distressing environment is pivotal for ensuring staff members are able to deliver effective and sustainable services (Stanley and Goodard, 2002; Ferguson, 2005, Carpenter, Webb, Bostock and Coomber, 2012). Lambert, Hogan, Moore, Tucker, Henkins, Stevenson and Joang (2009) conducted research exploring the impact of support, supervision and training on staff members employed in custodial environments. This research found that support and supervision, as well as adequate training, decreases job stress while increasing job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Staff members reflected on the availability of support and supervision, explaining that:

"…I have worked with kids for a long time and I have had quality supervision. The understanding of supervision in the local authority is very different from here. People will write the supervision before they have even met the staff here and get them to sign it. That's not what supervision is. But again, everybody has got so much to do and it's like, it's tokenistic, it's a tick box rather than something that people feel is a benefit for them and to aid their development and to support them" (S02)

"I used to have regular support and supervision until the manger left, the new manager isn't as good. I think we need support in this role but all you hear is "we are short staffed; we have to cancel your support sessions". There is always an excuse because of staffing. Some people attend support and supervision and just sign the notes, half of the time the notes were written before the support and supervision. It's a joke like. We need to start supporting staff. After the situation with R, all the staff on shift were really shook, but we barely got any support. It was a case of: "are you ok? Good" (S06)

"No, I haven't had supervision for, I think I am going to say, 2 years… you don't know your weak area, you just might here it through the grapevine that you are bad at that and staff look at deployment and think "omg look what shit team I have to work with today". And if you had supervision, it could highlight the weak areas…" (S08)

"In the beginning yeah, I wouldn't say as much lately because it's constantly always changing. Somebody who was once your manager is now something else. And you don't always have the same managers so you don't have supervisions and you don't get kept up to date with a lot of the stuff so probably not, no" (S10)

"I don't think I get, nah…I think the supervision policy on paper sounds really good. If it was followed and practiced it would be very beneficial but a lot of reasons why it probably doesn't happen as it should" (S12)

"No, not all the time. No. It's a challenging environment so we need more support and supervision, more than we have now" (S15)

Staff members reporting poor experiences with supervision were primarily those employed within residential roles (staff engaging directly with children and young people). In contrast to residential staff members, the staff members from the Education, Health Care and Resettlement, reported to more positive experiences with support and supervision:

"Absolutely, yes...100 percent, my managers are fantastic. I have supervision every month and I am very much 'wear my heart on my sleeve'. They know if I am having a bad day, my manger will notice and invite me to talk to them" (S01)

"Yeah so my manager is really good and he does meet with us once a month. And we can just catch up regularly, if he can't catch up with me officially then he will come and check on the staff and see if we are alright. I'm quite good though, I will go and speak to him if I have any issues and he will sort it out. I feel education is good because we are a small team and there are only 30 of us, it's different from the rest of the site where there are over 100 staff" (S05)

"Healthcare, we get good support from our manager and my supervisor has just given me recent supervision, so yeah. We get regular supervision" (S14)

Such discrepancies in staff members experiences with support and supervision are also evident from the staff questionnaire, with residential staff members (and staff members employed less than 12 months) significantly more likely to report inadequate levels of support and supervision. Data was analysed using a Mann-Whitney U test allowing for examination of the differences in the levels of support and supervision for residential and non-residential staff. Statistically significant differences were identified, with residential staff less likely to receive adequate levels of support and supervision ($p<0.01$) (Table 7.10).

Table 7.10 – Support and supervision received by role (n=74)			
Mean (Residential)	Mean (Non-Residential)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
2.78	4.88	348.500	.000

Given the exposure of residential staff members to higher levels of distress and violence, the lack of support and supervision demonstrates bad practice within the STC. As mentioned previously, supporting staff in a challenging and distressing environment is pivotal for ensuring effective and sustainable services (Stanley and Goodard, 2002; Ferguson, 2005, Carpenter et al., 2012). Research conducted by Skills for Care (2013) found that violence and abuse was under-reported by staff members for the following reasons:

- Violence and abuse was viewed as part and parcel of the role;

- Staff members were unclear on the process for reporting violence and abuse;

- The paperwork for reporting incidents was viewed as onerous;

- Staff members sometimes viewed the reporting of experiences of violence and abuse as a negative reflection on competency.

The issues reported by Skills for Care (2013) highlight the importance of offering staff consistent and regular support, supervision and training. Information from the Skill for Care (2013) research suggests that staff members require supportive management, effective training, clear guidance, regular reviews, preventative approaches to managing violence and open organisational cultures in order to deliver effective and sustainable services. The information from staff members in STCs, both from the questionnaire and interview responses, suggests that the support and supervision offered in STCs requires significant review.

Given the limited support offered to staff members working within such a challenging and distressing environment, exploring the professional experience and training offered was important. Staff members reported varied experience working with children and young people prior to employment in the STC, with 41.9 percent of staff members reporting no experience working with children and young people prior to their current role. To analyse experience levels for different roles in the STC, a Mann-Whitney U test was performed, allowing for examination of the differences in experience levels for residential and non-residential staff. A statistically significant difference was identified, with significantly lower numbers of residential staff members reporting prior experience working with children and young people than non-residential staff members ($p<0.05$) (Table 7.11).

Table 7.11 – Experience working with young people by role (n=74)			
Mean (Residential)	**Mean (Non-Residential)**	**Mann-Whitney U**	***p*-value**
4.06	5.17	475.00	.027

On recruitment to the STC, staff members engage in a seven week YJB approved Initial Training Course (ITC) to learn the skills and techniques required for working in the STC. The course covers skills such as security, first aid, safeguarding, interpersonal skills, substance misuse and Managing and Minimising Physical Restraint (MMPR). Given the adverse experiences of children and young people entering custody, as discussed in Chapter Five and Chapter Six, and the limited experience of individuals employed within STCs, providing intensive training that adequately equips staff members for their role is paramount. Staff participating in interviews commented on experiences with the training offered by the STC:

"I think that you don't learn enough about being on the job. I think what they do is fantastic and they teach you some things. But it needs to be more practical… what the young people do from 7am – 9pm, you don't learn that on ICT or how to manage a shift… I managed to learn from someone that had 10 years' experience. You don't get that anymore. We don't have staff that long in service anymore. It makes it difficult. You have new staff training new staff" (S01)

"I want to say yes because we do have like 8 weeks of training at the beginning but, not really. The training we get is good but it doesn't really prepare you for what happens on the floor. You hear about the stuff that can go wrong in here but the training doesn't really prepare you" (S06)

"No, I think, when I came as an office it was really hard because I learnt all about the laws and yeah, the CNR training then no PCC when I first started (MMPR). We learned that and we learned first aid and the laws. But what they didn't actually tell you, is that when you go on the unit, we talk about when the young person gets up, they do this and they do that" (S08)

"….for mine personally, yes. I feel that when I came on board my managers helped me out a lot. They are just two brilliant managers. One has a lot of knowledge behind her, especially within residential and resettlement…" (S09)

"I think the new staff here are just dropped in the deep end. Yes they do the training out there and read stuff and that's fine but when you are actually out on the units doing this, it's completely different. I think they should have a good week or two where they should be shadowing someone that's been here. Rather than taking trainees to and from healthcare, I don't think they should be counted as a person and should just be given the chance to do shadowing" (S10)

"So legally, to be a custody officer here you have to fulfil 294 hours of training throughout the ITC... It's really hard to train in a classroom; they say "this is what you need to do" and then they are expected to do it 7 weeks later. It doesn't work. Training on the ground needs to happen a lot more... it's a really surreal environment and you can't really be trained as much on (S11)

The quotes demonstrate a disparity between theoretical knowledge and practical experience, with staff members commenting on the requirements for additional practical experience. The adequacy of training for staff members differs in terms of roles, with a significant number of residential staff members expressing negative views on the adequacy of training provided. A Mann-Whitney U test was performed, allowing for examination of the differences in views over the adequacy of training for residential and non-residential staff. A statistically significant difference was found, with residential staff members reporting negative views over the adequacy of training offered ($p<0.01$) (Table 7.12).

Table 7.12 – Views on adequacy of training by role (n=74)			
Mean (Residential)	Mean (Non-Residential)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
3.66	5.33	300.50	.001

As with many of the issues explored, staff employed in residential roles report negative experiences with training. According to Vroom (1964), the provision of adequate training can motivate employees to deliver effective services in addition to teaching the necessary skills for success. Research conducted by Griffin (2001) found that experiences of relevant and adequate training had a positive impact on job satisfaction among custodial officers. Similarly,

Lambert and Paoline (2005) found that perceptions on the adequacy of training impacted negatively on staff members experiences of stress and job satisfaction. The provision of adequate training enhances staff member's commitment to organisations and job satisfaction (Lambert et al., 2009). The study conducted by Lambert et al., (2009) showed that training and supervision had a negative impact on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The negative views of staff members (specifically residential staff members) on the adequacy of training and supervision in STCs offers an explanation for the high levels of staff turnover. This is critical as the residential staff support children and young people to complete daily tasks such as attending education and engaging with intervention staff.

As mentioned in section 7.3, developing effective interventions and services for children and young people relies on the strategic and operational staff employed by the organisation. If the staff members employed by the organisation receive inadequate support, supervision and training then the development and delivery of services is hindered. Organisations should empower staff to develop and deliver the effective and sustainable services those children and young people in custody require. Failure to provide adequate support, supervision and training hinders job satisfaction, organisational commitment and staff morale. This, in turn, hinders children and young people's progression through each stage of the rehabilitative environment (see Figure 6.2 and 7.4 and 7.5).

7.6 – Services

Developing effective and sustainable services is paramount in supporting children and young people to achieve positive outcomes. Despite declines in the number of young people involved in the criminal justice system, the Government's focus on developing effective strategies and intervention to reduce youth offending and recidivism continues (McNeil, Reeder and Rich, 2012). STCs were designed to deliver multiple services to children and young people such as health care (including psychology and substance misuse) and education. Furthermore, as STCs aim to support children and young people to transition from custody to the community, providing opportunities for children and young people to learn independence skills is paramount.

As discussed in section 5.3.2, the health care provisions in STCs are generally adequate, with the exception of resources in psychology and substance misuse. Given concerns over the health and wellbeing of children and young people entering prison in England and Wales, STCs have an obligation to ensure appropriate health and wellbeing services are offered in custody. A recent Ofsted (2017) report commented on the delays children and young people experienced in accessing psychology services, with four children and young people on the waiting list during Ofsted's visit. Given concerns over the adverse experiences, mental health and substance misuse of children and young people in custody, as discussed in section 5.3.1, and the impact of this on life satisfaction and desistance, providing adequate service provision is critical (Lader et al., 1997; Jacobson et al., 2010; Murray, 2012 and Hughes, William, Chitsabesan, Davies and Mounce, 2012). Staff members commented on the provisions available for children and young people:

"There aren't enough staff offering psychology interventions and I don't think there is enough time. Because contractually, (children and young people) have to do 25 hours of education. Yes, education is a priority but how can a young person that doesn't understand themselves learn anything else. I find it really difficult when some of these young people have witnessed so much, intervention is way more important than sitting them in a classroom colouring for an hour" (S01)

"This is a profit making organisation and I mean things like (for years and years) it's always been that the kids must do 25 hours' education. We have had numerous criticisms from the YJB because we can't take kids out of school to do psychology work. We have one full time psychologist (who looks about 12) and a part-time psychology trying to see 80 potentially, I mean they all should be seen, really vulnerable kids and really damaged kids outside the school day. It's physically impossible "(S02)

"I think we could do more around offending work. I will probably say that about most things, because if we can't, we will never have it 100 percent correct. There is always stuff we can learn, stuff we can do and external provisions we can pull in. I think the level of intervention around that could be higher" (S07).

"…we are really tight on resources for psychology... I think if we had more people on the team then there would be a lot more that we could do with the young people. I mean I had a young person that was getting psychology support and it wasn't frequent support. And that's one thing, because we have to cut things and we have young people that are on shorter sentences, we have to prioritise them and he missed out" (S09)

"I don't think our service is big enough for the young people that require it, in short. I mean we have 80 young people and we have 1.2 psychologist or assistant psychologists if you like. And they are expected to do everything for everyone and their waiting list is as long as their bloody arm. So unfortunately for a lot of our young people who require interventions, our most complex kids that require the most in depth intervention can't get it" (S11)

"I don't feel like we have enough in terms of resources in terms of staff. Because I think the psychology and substance misuse team is quite a small team in terms of the substance misuse issues and the psychology, kind of issues if you like, that we have in the centre" (S12)

The quotes above illustrate staff members concerns with the interventions and resources available for children and young people. The psychology and substance misuse provisions available in STCs are limited, which reduces opportunities for children and young people to access services. From examining the interviews, staff members acknowledge the opportunities available for supporting the needs of children and young people accommodated; however, in practice, this support remains elusive. Two staff members commented on this issue, supporting previous discussion on the challenges between theory, purpose and practice:

"…That's what these centres were set up for, the focus was on education. I mean if you have a young person who has horrendous drug issues, no amount of education, whether they are engaging here or not, will tick the boxes for them when they are outside because they still have the same issues, in the same environment with the same people

tempting them with drugs. That's the problem, it's still focused on that education being the priority. And that's, I think, all of that, is why the STCs are completely failing" (S02)

"We have like 80 or 90 kids in here and there is no way that the workers can see them all outside education. I think we need to give intervention staff the opportunity to take them out of education and do work with them. For some of these kids, interventions are more important than education – especially for the young people that have substance misuse issues or psychological issues" (S06)

Given the complexities and vulnerabilities of children and young people in custody, as acknowledged by staff members interviewed, the limited provisions available are inadequate. Although current provisions are inadequate for managing the complexities and vulnerabilities of those entering custody, the STC has plans to increase the provisions with additional psychologists to fulfil the growing demand. This includes provisions for a qualified psychologist three days per week, a trainee psychologist and two assistant psychologists. This improves the current provisions; however, given the complexities and vulnerabilities of children and young people in custody, increasing the number of qualified psychologists would be beneficial.

Education, as discussed in section 6.1.3, was placed at the heart of STCs, with a key aim to *"provide a positive regime offering high standards of education and training"* (Secure Training Centre, 1998). Research exploring educational factors associated with offending and criminal activity can combine theories exploring between-individual and within-individual theories. ICAP theory explores young people's transitions from antisocial potential to antisocial behaviours, with emphasis on cognitive processes (Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). For example, findings from the Cambridge study suggested several core risk factors influencing offending behaviour, including education related factors such as: low academic ability, poor school attainment and attention deficit (Farrington, 2003 and 2007). On entering STCs, children and young people are enrolled in education (core curriculum and vocational subjects) for 25 hours per week, with the ratio weighted in favour of core curriculum subjects during the data

collection period. Interview responses, from staff members, on the educational opportunities available to children and young people were mixed:

"I don't think that they learn enough, if I'm perfectly honest. I don't think that they learn what they need to be learning. I mean you got young people doing GCSEs but these young people aren't being pushed. You have young people that could do so much more and they just don't have the facilities to push those 8 individuals (one classroom) to their limits. I feel that sometimes, you walk into a classroom and they are just colouring for an hour or 45 minutes. It's just, I think there needs to be more of a structure in a lesson because actually, you can't have 8 young people and no structure because that's when incidents happen" (S01)

"I mean the young people do receive 25 hours of education in here but it's not great. Well that might not be fair; I mean some of the young people do benefit from the education here, especially the young people with low reading and math skills. Sometimes you are in education, in classrooms, and the young people are just painting or completing word searches. I don't think that is appropriate education at all. I have been in classrooms were the young people are just sitting doing nothing for half an hour or copying answers from a sheet of paper" (S06)

"…some lessons are shocking… I used to go into education and the young people would be colouring in, making a poster, [playing] stop the bus or cards. And I thought, I can easily be a teacher cause I can play cards, I can play stop the bus, I can do all this." (S08)

"I think there are certain classes that the young people actually work in and there are certain classes that they do not work in at all. Erm, so for instance, the last three days, I raised issues that kids keep raising with me… We have had a few more kids that are refusing [education] to staff this week. And that's because they feel they are not learning anything" (S11)

"I was asked by an Ofsted inspector: "if I had a magic wand what would I change?" and I said that I would re-define education. I think that the notion that we should be delivering 25 hours of national curriculum is lovely but doesn't fit our client group… We do need to help them with their core skills and that we need to put them through their GCSEs because that is important… But I think there needs to be a lot more emphasis on the pastoral care and actually, the irony is, in the community, that's what we are seeing. Yet we can't access our kids during education because they have to do 25 hours of national curriculum" (S13)

The education provisions offered to children and young people within STCs have received positive feedback in Ofsted inspections (Ofsted, 2016 and Ofsted, 2017). However, many staff members employed within the STC have different opinions on the adequacy of education provisions. The primary concern, with the education provision, surrounds the notion that 25 hours of education is appropriate for the current cohort of children and young people accommodated. As explored in Chapters Five and Six, the children and young people accommodated within STCs have complex needs ranging from adverse childhood experiences to substance misuse and mental health problems. With 25 hours of compulsory education, children and young people receive limited support in other areas which hinders progression within the rehabilitative environment. For example, a young person sentenced to 6 months in custody for possession of drugs and violence against the person will receive 25 hours compulsory education per week with no focus on completing offence based work (as discussed above in relation to interventions) Understanding the needs of young people is essential to developing appropriate services. Do young people require offence-based work? Do young people require vocational education? By exploring the needs of children and young people entering STCs, appropriate wraparound services and interventions can be introduced (rather than fitting children and young people into pre-existing moulds).

Despite the fact children and young people attend 25 hours of education each week, 17.6 percent of staff members disagreed with the statement "The young people I work with have the opportunity to access suitable education and training provisions". This may relate to concerns from interview participants in relation to the learning offered to children and young people in STCs. As mentioned in section 6.1.4, given the isolation of STC environments from

the wider community coupled with the role of education in desistance, offering effective education provisions is pivotal for children and young people's development. Although education provides an opportunity for children and young people on release, the failure to empower young people to develop pro-social attitudes will hinder development. According to Goodfellow, Wilkinson, Hazel, Bateman, Liddle, Wright and Factor (2015) positive outcomes rely on acknowledgement of criminogenic background as well development of pro-social attitudes, social inclusion, creation of positive and health relationships and engagement in activities that promote wellbeing. The focus on education, with limited focus on other factors, hinders children and young people chances of achieving positive outcomes.

Another key area discussed with staff members related to the opportunities for children and young people to learn independence skills. As explored in Section 6.2, developing independence in children and young people is critical for promoting positive transitions (Masten, 2001). To explore the development of independence skills, the researcher considered the role independence plays for children and young people transitioning from the secure estate. For example, in STCs children and young people receive daily support in cooking, cleaning, attending education, arranging healthcare, regulating emotions and developing relationships; however, this level of support significantly reduces upon leaving the STCs. The STCs statement of purpose (2015) No.12 states "Centre staff are committed to helping sentenced young persons as they move into the community, supporting them to have appropriate accommodation and education and training on release". This statement illustrated the commitment to support children and young people in terms of accommodation and education/training; however, discrepancies in practice are evident from the limited provisions exist for supporting the development of independence:

"…they don't learn anything, like you wouldn't expect a young person to have a set amount of money to go and do a food shop. To make that last them for a week. For them to know that this has to last them a whole week. You don't get that here… Not ever should a young person be able to manage being homeless and not manage to live independently… I had a young person say 'I'll manage being homeless but if I have a

home, I don't know what bills to pay, I don't know that I have to make this money last for this long'" (S01)

"I feel that officers on the units kind of do a lot for the young people and I think the young people could be given a little bit more responsibility so their independence skills can improve" (S03)

"But I think the biggest thing about being independent is actually the level of independence. Here, they know they are safe and fed and clean but I'm not sure that continues when they are on their own. It must be scary when they go to semi-independent living and stuff… we spend a huge amount of money replacing expensive clothing that the boys shrink in the washing machine or damage play fighting – we are not teaching them anything when we do this… I don't think they learn skills to manage money and finances" (S04)

"No. I will tell the kids do their own laundry and then five minutes a member of staff is collecting it all up and doing it. We are supposed to support the young people to do laundry not do it for them. But we do it for them. I mean we give young people food, money, soap, TV and we take them to and from appointments and education. We spoon feed the boys here and then we wonder why they can't survive in the community. I think we need to teach them about money, shopping, rent, bills, arranging appointments, attending appointments etc. not just how to cook" (S06)

"But unfortunately, there is not enough of focus on independent learning skills given to them. I think there should be a role created in which people should work with young people prior to release where they can go and deliver independent learning. Like how to go to a bank to get some money out, know how to do simply things like putting a duvet sheet on. Normal things like that" (S09)

"I remember I had a young person that was so frustrated going to education, kicking doors, saying "I don't want to go to school. I don't want to go to school". I said come and tell me why it is that you don't want to go to school. And after a while I managed to

get it out of him, he didn't know how to tie his shoelace. Something as simple as that. He was with us for quite a long time, he was a very complex young person, by the end he learned to tie his shoe laces. It took about a week for him to do, but then he knows how to do it. So we literally don't think of it, just an everyday thing to us. But for him, it was a massive thing and then he didn't want to wear shoes because they were loose because he couldn't tie the shoe laces" (S09)

"You know we have platinum rooms that should be made into cooking rooms. We have a cooking room over on Maple that is just not used how it should be… We can get a lot better. I think some aspects we do in the daily routine, for instance, clean your room, and make your bed... I think we do teach them minimal stuff, but not again, not as effectively" (S10)

The frustration evident from the quotes above reflects the uncertainty and instability experienced within the STC. Staff members desire to teach children and young people independence skills are hindered by the inconsistent approach from other staff members. Several staff members reflected on the fact that other staff members contradict the decision of others, which results in children and young people being 'spoon fed'. Another area of frustration surrounds the inadequate use of resources, with platinum rooms[19] used to accommodate difficult children and young people rather than teaching independence skills.

Information from the staff questionnaire supports responses from interview participants, with 43.2 percent of staff disagreeing with the statement "The young people I work with have the opportunity to learn independence skills". Information on children and young people's understanding of independence skills was explored in section 6.2, with children and young people indicating a limited understanding of independence skills. A Mann-Whitney U test was performed to examine the differences in views of independence learning for staff members in residential and non-residential roles. A statistically significant difference was found, with residential staff members reporting primarily negative views of the opportunities available for learning independence ($p<0.01$) (Table 7.13).

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[19] Platinum rooms offer children and young people the opportunity to spend time in a separate area with cooking facilities attached.

Table 7.13 – Views on the opportunity for learning independence skills by role (n=74)			
Mean (Residential)	Mean (Non-Residential)	Mann-Whitney U	*p*-value
3.50	4.86	369.50	.001

On exploring staff member's perception on independence skills, 86.7 percent agreed that children and young people should have the opportunity to learn *more* independence skills. Given the fact most of the children and young people in STCs have experienced social care, social exclusion, poverty, challenges with family and health and wellbeing inequalities, learning personal and social skills is pivotal in the transition to adulthood (Montgomery, Donkoh and Underhill, 2006).

As mentioned above, developing effective and sustainable services is central in supporting children and young people to achieve positive outcomes. The rehabilitative environment, explored in Section 6.4, offers a model for developing an environment that promotes positive outcomes and desistence (Figure 6.1). The model contains five key phases for addressing attitudes to offending and developing resilience (health and wellbeing, relationships, education, independence and resettlement. Through each stage in the rehabilitative environment, children and young people should have the opportunity to learn pro-social attitudes and develop resilience. Providing effective and sustainable services that address the five key stages is vital for ensuring children and young people achieve positive outcomes. Given staff members views on the opportunities for children and young people to engage in adequate intervention, access suitable education and learn independence skills (key stages in the rehabilitative model), the current STC services require significant overhaul.

7.7 – Summary

Developments in approaches to youth justice resulted in changes in the ages of children and young people (high proportion of 15 and 16 years-old) accommodated in Secure Training Centres and the sentence lengths (high proportion of sentences less than 12 months). Secure Training Centres were opened with the original purpose of *"accommodating trainees in a safe environment within secure conditions; and helping trainees prepare for their return to the*

outside community" (Secure Training Centre, 1998). Developments in STCs resulted in the introduction of the statement of purpose which compliments and enhances the original Secure Training Centre (1998) rules. For example, STC (1998) rule 3.1(a) on safety complements the STC (2015) statement of purpose number 2 (See Appendix B and C). Although the statement of purpose in 2015 expanded the 1998 rules, the foundation of STCs remained consistent. This creates confusion for staff employed in STCs, with several staff members commenting that the current values and principles, underpinned by the statement of purpose and rules, are inappropriate for the centre today.

Exploring the perceptions of children and young people accommodated in STCs allowed for the creation of the rehabilitative environment, explored in Section 6.4. The rehabilitative environment offers a model for developing an environment that promotes positive outcomes and desistence (Figure 7.2). The model contains five key phases for addressing attitudes to offending and developing resilience. Providing effective and sustainable services that address the five key stages is vital for ensuring children and young people achieve positive outcomes. Given staff members views on children and young people's opportunities to access suitable education and learn independence skills (key stages in the rehabilitative model), the current STC services require significant overhaul. To ensure children and young people progress through the rehabilitative environment, STCs require a clear direction that is supported by updated rules, principles and values.

Figure 7.2 – Rehabilitative Environment (Foundations)
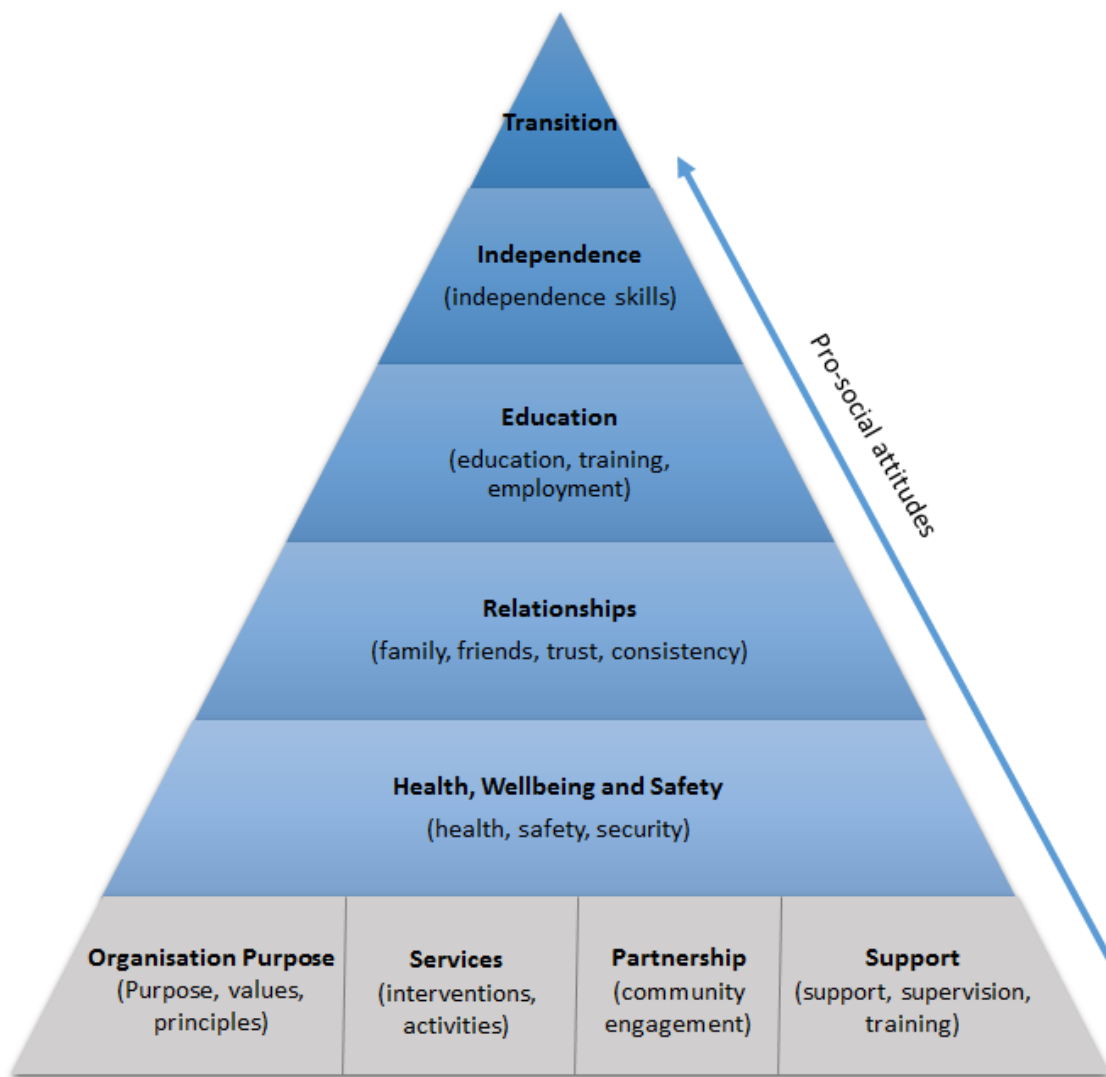
Transition

Independence
(independence skills)

Education
(education, training, employment)

Relationships
(family, friends, trust, consistency)

Health, Wellbeing and Safety
(health, safety, security)

Organisation Purpose
(Purpose, values, principles)

Services
(interventions, activities)

Partnership
(community engagement)

Support
(support, supervision, training)

Pro-social attitudes

Developing effective interventions and services for children and young people relies on the strategic and operational staff employed by the organisation. The challenges evident from the: unchanging organisational purpose and rules; increase in the age profile of children and young people accommodated; the limited engagement with community partners; the limited support and supervision of staff; the adequacy of training; and the available provisions all impact on the delivery of effective and sustainable services for children and young people. To support children and young people to reach positive outcomes, organisations should empower staff to develop and deliver the effective and sustainable services those children and young people in custody require. Failure to empower staff hinders job satisfaction, organisational commitment and staff morale which, in turn, hinder children and young people progression through each stage of the rehabilitative environment. Results illustrate that STCs

operate with limited strategic direction, underpinned by outdated rules and principles which inevitable hinder the children and young people outcomes and transitions. Current STC models lack the multi-stakeholder approach recommended by Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny (2014) that promotes stakeholder engagement, individual focused interventions, evidence based approaches and service redesign. Failure to develop this approach limits the STCs ability to measure the social impact of services which, inevitably, reduces opportunities for developing effective and sustainable services.

Chapter Eight - Conclusion

8.1 – Research Overview

The number of children and young people entering the youth justice system reduced between 2007 and 2016, with similar reductions evident in the use of custody. Between 2007 and 2017, an 81 percent decrease was noted in the number of cautions or convictions received by children and young people (YJB, 2018). Despite reductions in the number of first time entrants to the youth justice system and the number of children and young people cautioned or convicted, the re-conviction rates for children and young people has increased by 4 percentage points over the past 10 years (YJB, 2018). Recent statistics illustrate that the average population in custody (year ending March 2017) was 868, with an average custodial sentence length of 16 months (YJB, 2018). The current financial situation in England and Wales, as well as the moral imperative, has driven the renewed emphasis on developing effective and sustainable youth justice services that maintains and improves reduction in offending and reoffending. With processes for developing effective and sustainable interventions existing in a wider context of austerity measures, the availability of funding is scarce (UK Children's Commissioner, 2015). Current measures for establishing the effectiveness of interventions rely on output data with limited emphasis on understanding the social impact (e.g. relationships, education and independence) of such interventions.

The focus on establishing sustainable youth services has resulted in the development of frameworks for measuring, managing and reporting on social impact (Maas, 2014). As discussed in Chapter Three, existing research on SIM is limited, with literature on this topic predominantly from collaborative networks, government agencies and consulting firms (Ebrahim and Rangan, 2014). Applying SIM frameworks to youth justice services is under-theorised in existing social impact literature. The limited literature on SIM for youth justice services and the implications for measuring the performance of youth offending interventions is directly linked to the aims and objectives of the research thesis. Measuring impact for services is essential for developing effective and sustainable services. Despite the important role SIM plays in developing effective and sustainable services, it remains virtually non-existent in the youth justice system. This demonstrates the importance of establishing an

approach to SIM and illustrates the opportunity for this research to make an original contribution to knowledge.

This research project was fuelled by a desire to facilitate the active participation of young people in STCs. Research suggests that active participation in research develops a critical approach to managing challenging situations (Barry, 1996; Pini, 2004), promotes engagement in wider community issues and initiatives (Badham and Wade, 2010) and supports children and young people to explore experiences (and the influence of experiences) on situations (Fetterman, 1989; Alderson and Morrow, 2004). Research shows that promoting the active participation of children and young people provides a greater understanding of their views and experiences (Fetterman, 1989; Cosser et al., 2011). Promoting the active participation of children and young people in research allowed the researcher to gain valuable insights into the past and present experiences of children and young people in STCs. By adopting this approach, the research examined the social impact of STCs on children and young people with a focus on identifying the factors contributing to positive outcomes and resettlement. The identification of core factors supported the creation of a SIM framework for monitoring practice. To facilitate active participation in research, a sequential mixed-method design was utilised, which promoted participation in quantitative and/or qualitative phases of research.

A sequential mixed-method design was adopted by combining quantitative and qualitative methods to explore the perceptions of children, young people and staff in STCs. The combination of approaches enabled the researcher to utilise questionnaire data and to use the key themes emerging from the questionnaire to tailor the subsequent interview questions to. Approaching the research from this direction supported a 'Straussian' Grounded Theory. The 'Straussian' grounded theory approach allowed for the simultaneous collection and analysis of data, and the creation of analytical themes and codes from data rather than by pre-existing conceptualisations (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The quantitative research phase with children and young people, used a Likert-scale questionnaire, underpinned by specific measurement literature including Vanclay (2003), Suldo and Huebner (2004), Hornsby (2012) and Big Society Capital (2013). The combination of measurement criteria, underpinned by

youth justice literature, allowed for the exploration of constructs on health and wellbeing, relationships, education, and attitudes to offending with children and young people. Interrogation of data from the children and young person's questionnaire allowed for the development of the staff questionnaire, with additional areas explored on the meso level (organisation specific). Information from the quantitative phases was analysed to develop the interview questions for the semi-structured interviews with children and young people, and separately for staff.

The data collection and analysis promoted understanding at the micro and meso levels, contributing to the macro level understanding of SIM for youth custody. This research produced interesting results across the micro, meso and macro level which contributes to debates on the effectiveness of youth justice interventions, the use of SIM and the wider debates on punishment for children and young people. This thesis contains eight chapters, with the literature underpinning the research explored in Chapters Two and Three and the philosophical foundations and research methodology outlined in Chapter Four. Results from the research have been presented and explored at the micro and meso levels in Chapters Five and Six and the macro level in Chapter Seven. This chapter summarises the findings from the results chapters with reference to the research questions, the analytical framework, the prior literature and the results explored earlier. The chapter ends with an exploration of the limitations of the research project and areas for future research.

8.2 – Research Conclusions

8.2.1 – Social Impact Measurement Framework

Measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions is a nascent area academically, adding to 'what works' literature by considering the outputs, outcomes and wider impact of programmes on children and young people (Paterson-Young et al., 2017). Creating effective interventions for supporting children and young people involved in offending benefits from individual (micro), organisation (meso) and community (macro) level understanding. In order to identify effective and sustainable interventions across all three levels, developing a SIM

framework is paramount (Clifford et al., 2014). Definitions for social impact and social value contain subtle differences, with the definitions offered by Vanclay (2003) and Clifford et al. (2014) covering the intended and unintended consequences alongside the positive and negative consequences. For example, the potential to prevent harm relies on robust measurement to identify negative consequences of interventions. Furthermore, the definitions offered by Vanclay (2003) and Clifford et al. (2014) consider the importance of identifying adjustments for alternative attribution, deadweight and drop-off. Enhancing the programme logic model and adopting elements from the approaches and frameworks proposed by McLoughlin et al. (2009), Hornsby (2012), Nicholls et al. (2012) and Clifford et al. (2014) resulted in the development of a SIM framework focusing on individuals (supporting children and young people to develop communication skills, team working and overcome setbacks), communities (attitudes to offending and victim empathy) and on institutions, government and funders (identify effective approaches to reduce the financial burden).

This research demonstrates that adopting the Clifford et al. (2014) framework benefits organisations by ensuring a *"balance is achieved and maintained between the overriding need to deliver measurable social impact as against the need for a profitable operation that can meet investor expectations"* (Clifford et al., 2014:3). The process recommended by Clifford et al. (2014) was outlined in Section 3.4 and provides organisations with a structured framework for developing a SIM framework. By adopting the five stage approach recommended by Clifford et al. (2014) in conjunction with McLoughlin et al. (2009), Hornsby (2012), Nicholls et al. (2012) the researcher has the opportunity to explore, enhance and combine different methods for measuring social impact. To establish a consistent SIM framework that measures the impact of custody on children and young people, establishing consistent and common practices are essential. Clifford et al. (2014) recommended seven common practices for measurement that promote effective reporting:

1) Clear explanation for the measurement process applied,
2) Clear explanation for the interventions outcomes and effects including explanations for deadweight, displacement, attribution and drop-off,

3) Explanations of how activities achieve outcomes and impacts (theory of change, or hypothesis),

4) Identification of any contributions from third parties (alternative attribution),

5) Recognition of the stakeholders with interests in the organisation SIM.

6) Clearly explained and proportional indicators for the identification of impacts.

7) Explanations of the financial and social risk, if necessary, with information on the expected impact.

Following these seven recommendations outlined by Clifford et al. (2014) allows organisations to clearly outline the impact of activities, interventions and services; however, to compliment these recommendations, this research has created an original SIM framework based on theory of change logic models and grounded in the academic literature. This framework is designed to address the issues and limitations explored in Chapter Three by considering the foundations for measuring impact (assumptions, mission, external and internal drivers), the intended and unintended outcomes, deadweight, drop-off and alternative attribution (Figure 8.1). This framework accounts for the five fundamental questions highlighted by Nevill and Lumley (2011) in measuring the social impact of youth offending interventions:

(1) What is the outcome to be measured? Do organisations in the sector agree on a single outcome or set of outcome measurements?

(2) How is that outcome defined? Has it been defined by a measurement tool or set of criteria?

(3) How should the outcome be captured? Are the right systems in place for capturing information?

(4) How can outcome be attributed to an intervention? Can organisations explain what would have happened without interventions?

(5) How can outcomes be valued?

Figure 8.1 – Social Impact Measurement Framework
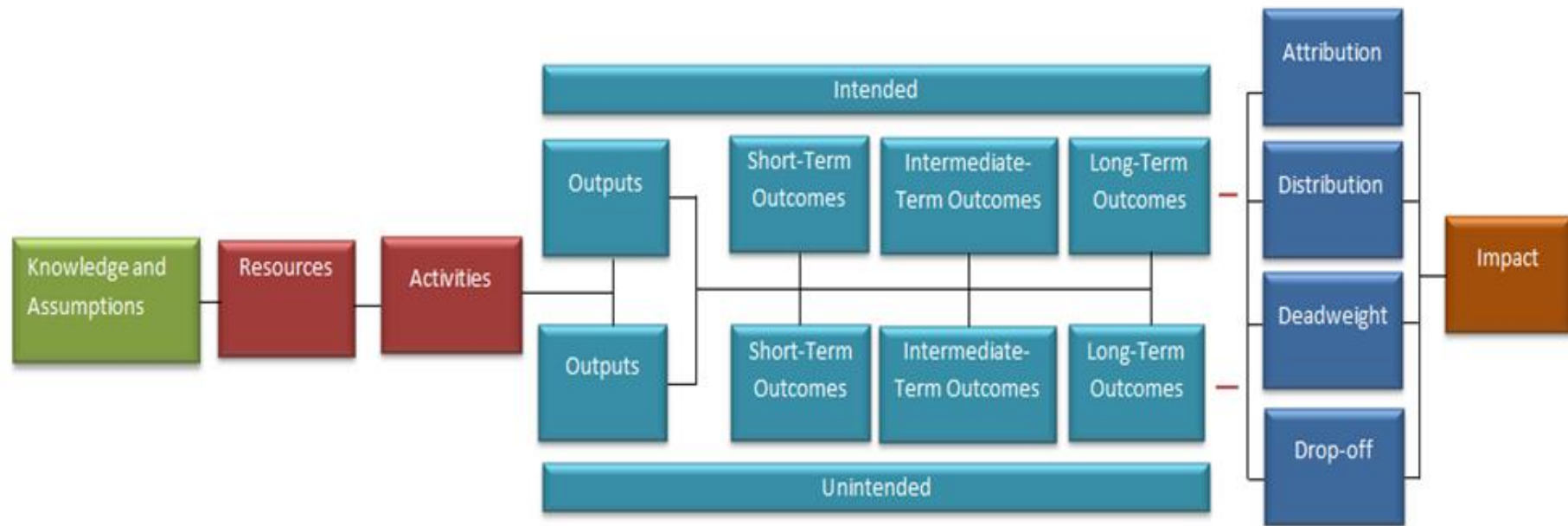
The SIM framework designed by the researcher, underpinned by existing literature, demonstrates a clear pathway for measuring the social impact of interventions. To measure the impact of custody on children and young people, developing interval measurement is pivotal. For example, measuring children and young people's understanding of the impact of offending on victims at arrival (short-term and intermediate-term outcomes), release (intermediate-term and long-term outcomes) and at post-release follow-up (long-term outcomes and impact) would allow professionals to identify changes in pro-social attitudes which are key for desistance. This approach acknowledges the key questions proposed by Nevill and Lumley (2011) (see Section 3.2) underpinned by theory of change foundations discussed in Section 3.3. By introducing this approach, the organisation has the opportunity to identify the resources and activities required for supporting children and young people (for example, restorative justice interventions) and the outputs, outcomes and impact achieved from such interventions. This implementation of interval measurement throughout the young person's journey, allows the STC, YJB and professionals to assess improvements or challenges to developing pro-social attitudes. In order to calculate the overall impact, Nicholls et al. (2012) approach proves beneficial:

1. Financial proxy multiplied by the quantity of the outcome equals total value.
2. Deduct the percentages for deadweight or attribution from the total value.
3. Repeat the step for each outcome.
4. Calculate the total to establish the overall impact.

To contextualise this, figure 8.2 illustrates an example of the SIM process in relation to educational provisions.

Figure 8.2 – Social Impact Measurement for Education (Example)

STCs provide effective education → **Teachers, Subjects, Classrooms** → **Education Provision**

Intended
- Number attending education
- Improved basic education
- Obtain qualifications and trade skill
- Secure EET

Unintended
- Number refusing to attend
- Decline in basic education
- Decline in motivation
- Difficulty securing EET

- Other intervention
- General population comparison
- (-) Change in 6-months

Resettlement

If young people are influenced by negative unintended outcomes with limited positive engagement with other services then continued offending is likely.

Developing a framework for measuring the social impact of custody addresses the main aim of the research; however, embedding this approach within the organisation is equally important. Embedding this approach requires acknowledgement across the youth justice system of the benefits of SIM, significant overhaul of existing measurement practices, development of robust training packages and understanding of the process for establishing effective monitoring and reporting standards. Furthermore, significant changes in policy-making are required, with focus on developing appropriate monitoring of youth justice contracts from procurement through to commissioning and delivery. McLoughlin et al. (2012) recommended introducing the following approach:

- Foster desire to support and participate in the change
- Show knowledge of how to change.
- Provide ability to implement new skills and behaviours.
- Undertake reinforcement to sustain change.

Furthermore, educating the training staff, board members, and/or volunteers on the reasons for measuring impact and impact measurement practices is important for ensuring sustainability. The initial stage for embedding the SIM framework requires identification of the organisation's 'Knowledge and Assumptions'. Findings from this research illustrate that STCs operate with limited strategic direction, underpinned by outdated rules and principles, which inevitably hinder the children's and young people's outcomes and transitions. The current STC model lacks the multi-stakeholder approach recommended by Hazenberg, Seddon and Denny (2014) that promotes stakeholder engagement, individual focused interventions, evidence-based approaches and service redesign. Failure to develop this approach limits the STCs ability to measure the social impact of services, which inevitably reduces opportunities for developing effective and sustainable services. Before embedding the SIM framework developed, the STC's purpose and values require significant overhaul in order to develop a clear direction. On identifying a clear direction, the organisation can identify the resources available and the activities (services and interventions) offered based on available resources. These activities should have a solid basis in the rehabilitative environment developed from the findings of this research. This supports the recommendation proposed by Holden et al. (2016:27) on the development of a new Vision

for STCs *"…that clearly articulates the purpose of these establishments, their focus on education and rehabilitation, and cultural values that promote a nurturing and safe environment."*

8.2.2 – Rehabilitative Environment

Developing a SIM framework formed one aspect of this research, with the other aspect focused on understanding the social impact of STCs on children and young people. Exploring the perceptions of the children and young people accommodated in the STC resulted in emerging themes, which led to the creation of the rehabilitative environment model, explored in Section 6.4. This model demonstrates an environment that promotes positive outcomes for children and young people in custody by addressing factors such as health and wellbeing, relationships, education, independence and resettlement (Figure 6.2). Delivering services to address the factors identified in the rehabilitative environment require solid foundations. Findings from Chapter 7 allowed the researcher to enhance the rehabilitative environment by identifying the foundations required. The figure developed in Chapters Five and Six was enhanced to acknowledge the strategic direction based upon the theoretical underpinnings of STCs (Figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3 – Rehabilitative Environment (Foundations)

Transition

Independence
(independence skills)

Education
(education, training, employment)

Relationships
(family, friends, trust, consistency)

Health, Wellbeing and Safety
(health, safety, security)

| **Organisation Purpose** (Purpose, values, principles) | **Services** (interventions, activities) | **Partnership** (community engagement) | **Support** (support, supervision, training) |

Pro-social attitudes
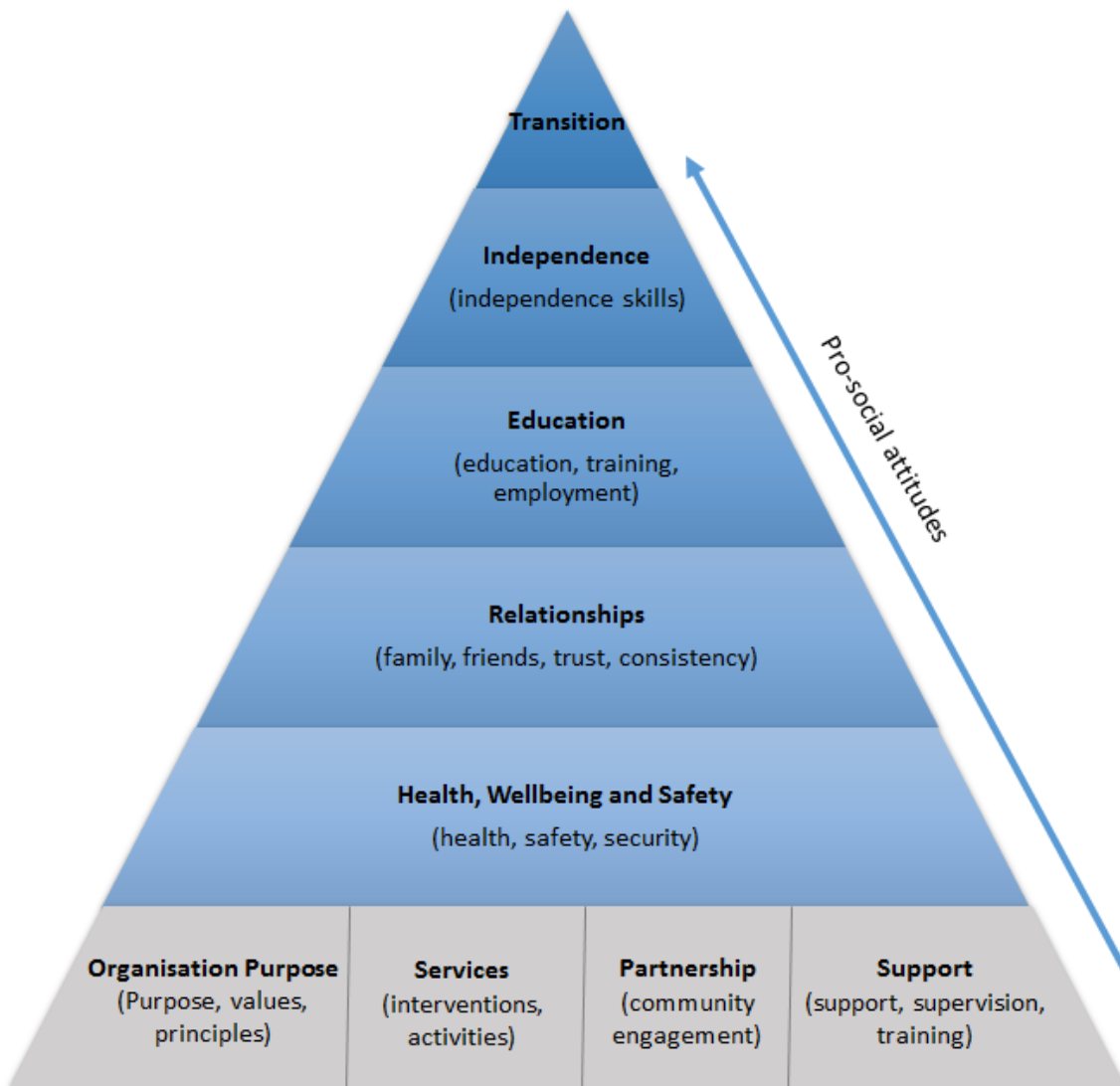
Developing effective interventions and services for children and young people are underpinned by the strategic direction of the organisation underpinned by the core principles and values. As discussed in Section 8.2.1, the STC requires a clearer strategic direction to ensure staff members understand the purpose, values and principles of STCs, which is essential for promoting positive outcomes for children and young people. The challenges presented by the unchanging organisational purpose and rules; increases in the age profile of the children and young people accommodated; the limited engagement with community partners; the limited support and supervision of staff; the adequacy of training; and the available provisions all impact on the delivery of effective and sustainable services for children

and young people. As discussed in Section 8.2.1, before embedding the SIM framework developed, the STC purpose and values require significant overhaul in order to develop a clear direction. The requirement for significant overhaul has clear policy implication for the Government and YJB.

Despite the rehabilitative environment appearing as a linear process, progression is not an *all or nothing* scenario. By monitoring and reviewing each step in this rehabilitation environment, STCs and the YJB have the opportunity to measure the outcomes at each stage (Hazenberg et al., 2014). If satisfactory outcomes are not achieved, it is impossible to progress up the pyramid and new innovative approaches should be employed. Similarly, if children and young people progress up the pyramid, situational changes (for example, staff leaving or changes in environment) may result in a regression. Such regressions require appropriate management to ensure children and young people have the opportunity to reflect on the situation and progress. Empowering children, young people and staff creates an environment that promotes the development of children and young people which, in turn, supports the development of effective interventions and services. This research shows that the current STC model fails to empower children and young people by offering inadequate and/or limited service provisions (e.g. limited development of independence and inadequate provisions for psychological support) and also fails to empower staff by providing inadequate direction, support and training.

Developing the rehabilitative model provides the vital steps for introducing a model for measuring the wider impact of custody on young people. The inclusion of sub-elements within the rehabilitative model (i.e. education and independence), provides professionals with an opportunity to monitor the impact of each stage on children and young people in custody. The rehabilitative environment model explored above, positions ICAP and desistance theories within a wider measurement framework allowing for the creation of the SIM framework (Figure 8.1). Embedding this SIM framework requires a cultural, strategic and operational overhaul in the current STC model. This overhaul requires acknowledgement of the issues, explored in Sections 5.3.2, 5.4.2, 6.1.3, 6.2.1, 6.3.1, 7.3, 7.4, 7.5 and 7.6, refocusing the

purpose and vision, retraining and developing staff members, introducing support and supervision and focus on addressing the factors contributing to positive outcomes for children and young people as explored in the rehabilitative environment. Prior to embedding the SIM framework designed in the research, the STC requires significant overhaul with focus on the areas illustrated in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 – Areas for development	
1	Explore the needs of children and young people with acknowledgement of factors outlined in the rehabilitative environment.
2	Explore the purpose, values and principles of Secure Training Centres that establish services targets, outcomes, activities and theory of change.
3	Redesign the statement of purpose, values and principles centres around children and young people's needs.
4	Develop interventions and services based on the individual needs of children and young people entering Secure Training Centres.
5	Increase psychology, substance misuse and trauma-informed mental health services for children and young people
6	Introduce appropriate support, supervision, training and development for staff members employed in Secure Training Centres.
7	Empower staff members with a view of increasing job satisfaction and reducing staff turnover
8	Increase psychology, substance misuse and trauma-informed mental health services for children and young people
9	Develop a process that promotes cohesive partnership working and community engagement.

8.3 – Policy recommendations

The research conclusions and recommendations outlines in Table 8.1 have implications for policy and practice within the wider youth justice system. Outlines of the recommendations are presented in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2 – Policy Recommendations		
Recommendation		**Outline**
1	Replace or overhaul Secure Training Centres with a system focused on children and young people needs.	This research illustrated that the current values and principles, underpinned by the statement of purpose and rules, are inappropriate for STCs today. Therefore, STCs require a significant overhaul to address the needs of the children and young people accommodated today. This includes provisions for age appropriate education which captures the individual needs of those entering custody, as discussed in Section 6.1.3. Furthermore, the development of provisions for teaching independence skills, which research showed current models lack, is key to empowering children and young people. Other areas that require significant overhaul, as identified within the rehabilitative environment relate to the organisations purpose, provisions, partnership working and support for staff members.
2	Focus on inclusive principles for children and young people entering Secure Training Centres	This research illustrated the adverse experiences of children and young people in custody. Government policy should focus on identifying and assisting children and young people at the earliest point by adopting an inclusive approach (rather than the exclusive approach evident in the current system). From this perspective, children and young people require individualised approaches on arrival, transition and resettlement. Although, STCs currently complete initial assessments, these assessments fail to direct services. Introducing a new approach would allow organisations to provide children and young people with the correct level of education and tailored support packages that acknowledge each individuals background. For example, developing a therapeutic programme that acknowledges traumatic experiences rather than a one-size fits all approach.

Table 8.2 – Policy Recommendations		
Recommendation		**Outline**
3	Focus on developing accessible mental health services for children and young people underpinned by trauma informed practices.	This research illustrated the lack of mental health support available for children and young people in the STC. Children and young people entering custody have adverse life experiences that result in trauma. Government policy should introduce additional mental health services for these children and young people with a focus on trauma informed practices. Rather than labelling children and young people with disorders, qualified professionals should support children and young people to address their traumatic experiences.
4	Introduce a social impact measurement framework across youth justice services to capture the impact on children and young people	This research demonstrated the benefits of social impact measurement approaches within the youth justice field. Creating effective interventions for supporting children and young people involved in offending benefits from individual (micro), organisation (meso) and community (macro) level understanding. In order to identify effective and sustainable interventions at this level – consistent and effective social impact measurement approaches are required. The rehabilitative environment outlines key areas (health and wellbeing, relationships, education, independence and attitudes to offending) which require dedicated measurement to ensure each area is operating effectively. For example, in learning independence skills, this research showed that children and young people learn to cook with ingredients purchased by the STC which does not allow them to learn budgeting skills. By increasing shopping mobilities[20] or introducing shopping facilities, would allow children and young people to develop essential skills such as budgeting.

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[20] Motilities involve staff supporting young people on a visit to the community.

Table 8.2 – Policy Recommendations		
Recommendation		**Outline**
5	Introduce requirements for organisations to provide clinical supervision for staff members working in challenging and complex environments.	This research demonstrated that staff members employed in STCs are exposed to distressing information, threats and experiences of violence. Research shows that exposure to physical, psychological and emotional situations can result in trauma for staff and professionals working with children and young people (Stanley and Goddard, 2002). If staff members suffer trauma then the support available for children and young people will reduce. Given the fact that staff members experience limited/no support and supervision, the government should introduce requirements for organisations to provide effective support and supervision to staff members. These requirements should aim to ensure staff members receive support, supervision and training with the implementation a Performance Development Record (PDR) style process. This process should include details on staff training and development, progression and support and supervision records which can be accessed by the YJB to allow for effective monitoring.

8.4 – Research Limitations and Areas for Further Research

The research conclusions and recommendations outline the validity and reliability of this research project. However, there are a number of limitations that require acknowledgement. One such limitation surrounds the relatively small sample-size of children, young people and staff participating in the research. Given the complexities presented within a custodial environment, the researcher aimed to recruit 80 participants for the quantitative phases and 20 participants for the qualitative phases. Despite attempts to recruit participants, participation was lower than anticipated (Table 8.3).

Table 8.3 – Sample-size for quantitative and qualitative research phases		
	Quantitative Phase	**Qualitative Phase**
Children and young people	65	15
Staff	74	15

Expected participation for staff was higher in the quantitative and qualitative phase; however, staff turnover resulted in those agreeing to participate in interviews leaving prior to interviews commencing. Although, the quantitative samples were higher than that recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004) and Field (2009) and the qualitative samples were higher than that recommended by Creswell (1998) and Mason (2010); further research exploring perceptions of children, young people and staff would enhance the validity of the conclusions.

Another limitation, relating to the quantitative element of research, relates to the lack of follow-up data. Ideally, data would have been collected from participants on arrival, mid-sentence and release with a view to following up with participants for a period of 6 months to 24 months. Collecting this data would have allowed the researcher to test changes in outcomes for children and young people on release. Assessing the success of any service and/or interventions offered by organisations relies on evaluation over time (McAra and McVie, 2010). There are several reasons for the exclusion of follow-up data. Firstly, the resources (both from a financial and time perspective) required to follow this cohort on

release from custody are extensive, specifically with the uncertainty over accommodation status. Secondly, due to children and young people's experiences in the community, the ethical issues in relation to visiting children and young people at home would require significant consideration, including the researcher's safety. Finally, the research project aimed to explore how the use of SIM can enhance outcomes for young people involved in the criminal justice system; therefore, information on experiences of custody and the development of a SIM framework was the central concern.

Another limitation to the research relates to the demographics of participants in the research. Criticisms of sociological and criminological literature surround the absence of girls in research (McRobbie and Garber, 1976; Daly, 2010). Initially, the researcher sought to explore the perceptions of children and young people, both male and female, on the impact of custody. Despite this intention, problems were encountered in accessing STCs that accommodate girls and young women. Research conducted by McAra and McVie (2010) found differences in aspects of vulnerability and social adversity for males and females committing violent offences. This research showed that male and female participants shared a multitude of factors influencing future behaviour; however, certain factors differed for males and female, particularly around sexual intercourse and pro-criminal peers. For this reason, the research findings and conclusions will require further exploration if applied to girls and young women.

Despite the limitations outlined above, this research has made original contributions to knowledge in relation to methodology, theory and measurement approaches. One area for further research relates to exploring and testing the SIM framework and rehabilitative environment model developed in this research project. The factors contributing to positive resettlement would benefit from further exploration by adopting a longitudinal mixed method approach, which places active participation at the core. The suggested research project could track children and young people's journey in custody and the community over a significant period of time. Rather than focusing on reoffending, this study could focus on the wider factors associated with the rehabilitative environment. This allows for the

development and enhancement of the factors underpinning the rehabilitative environment. By introducing a new type of commissioning arrangement such as Outcome Based Commissioning, would ensure the resources are available to complete this type of monitoring. Indeed, this ensures that organisations and investors were developing effective services to achieve the desired impact.

Another area for further research relates to exploring the findings and conclusions in relation to girls and young women. The Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime explored the transitions and personal transformations of children and young people from adolescence through early adulthood, with exploration of gender differences (McAra and McVie, 2010). By exploring gender differences in the factors influencing involvement in criminal activity, there are opportunities to test the validity of the rehabilitative environment model for females. Despite the broad categories (with sub-categories) presented in the model, the factors influencing males and females differ to some extent (McAra and McVie, 2010). Despite the research outlining the differences between males and females, there exists an opportunity to explore this in relation to experiences and outcomes in custody. A recent report by the Children's Commissioner (2018) outlined the experiences of girls in STCs which provides the foundations for exploring the social impact of custody on girls and the difference in outcomes, if any, for males and females in custody.

8.5 – Summary

Findings from the research study have wider national and international relevance for the youth justice system, specifically in addressing the lack of effective measurement frameworks. This research has contributed to knowledge in relation to the methodology, theoretical approach and social impact measurement framework. It demonstrates the validity of a sequential mixed-method approach for measuring the social impact of custody on children and young people, as well as allowing for the measurement of inter-organisational outcome performance. By positioning ICAP and desistance theories within a SIM framework, the researcher developed the rehabilitative environment which introduces a theoretical approach to measuring the positive outcomes for children and young people in custody. The

rehabilitative environment offers organisations, funders and policy makers an opportunity to measure impact on the micro and meso level which contributes to macro level understanding. This model demonstrates an environment that promotes positive outcomes for children and young people in custody by addressing factors such as health and wellbeing, relationships, education, independence and resettlement. By monitoring and reviewing each step in this rehabilitation environment, STCs and the YJB have the opportunity to measure the outcomes at each stage (Hazenberg et al., 2014). Empowering children and young people, as well as and staff creates an environment that promotes the development of children and young people which, in turn, supports the development of effective interventions and services.

The research findings support prior research linking health, wellbeing, relationships and educational performance to offending (Sampson and Laub, 1993; Lochner and Moretti, 2004; Farrington, 2005; Kitzmann et al., 2003; Holt, Buckley and Whelan, 2006; Machin, Marie and Vuljic, 2011; Murray, 2012; Hughes et al., 2012 and Farrington and Ttofi, 2014). The findings also add to this body of research by identifying the role independence skills play in promoting positive outcomes for children and young people. Furthermore, these findings place emphasis on the Government to introduce policy initiatives and strategies that aim to support children and young people to deal with traumatic experiences, establish meaningful activities and develop independence skills. Such initiatives and strategies should be offered at the earliest opportunity in order to promote positive outcomes. Finally, the research resulted in the development of a SIM framework which proposes a multi-stakeholder approach to measuring impact, with the perceptions of children and young people at the centre.

Overall, the research shows that the current STC model lacks direction, purpose and overall social impact. This results in confusions for the staff members employed in the STC environment that, in turn, impacts on the outcomes for children and young people. Overhauling the STC requires acknowledgement of the issues previously explored with emphasis on refocusing the purpose and vision, retraining and developing staff members, introducing support and supervision and focus on addressing the factors contributing to positive outcomes for children and young people as explored in the rehabilitative

environment. The research findings show that the current STC model fails to empower children and young people by offering inadequate and/or limited service provisions and also fails to empower staff by providing inadequate direction, support and training. Findings from the research have resulted in conclusions and recommendation which have implications for policy and practice within the wider youth justice system.

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Appendix A – Cost Exclusions (Parliament, 2016)

1. These prices do not include YJB funding to NOMS Prisoner Escort Management (PEM) for the provision of Prison Escort and Custodial Services (PECS) for young people.

2. These prices do not include YJB funding for Serco Escorts, who undertake movements for sentenced young people between courts and STCs and SCHs and for transfers between these sectors.

3. Since 1 April 2011, the YJB has not been responsible for commissioning or funding young people's Substance Misuse Services (SMS). The YJB does, however, still pay a SMS contribution for young people's places at HMP&YOI Parc.

4. Ministry of Justice (MoJ) funding for education and education support services in young people's public sector YOIs is included.

5. Business rates are included for Secure Training Centres (STCs) (business rates are charged on non-domestic property).

6. These prices do not include VAT where it would be applicable (STC and private young offender institution (YOI) places).

7. Advocacy Services funded by the YJB are included in STC and YOI prices, based upon a full year's budget allocation at 1 April prices. Advocacy services required to be provided by Local Authorities for secure children's homes (SCHs) are part-funded through YJB contracts for these places. The advocacy service is an independent service that supports young people within the secure estate.

Statement of Purpose

3.—(1) The aims of a centre shall be—

(a)to accommodate trainees in a safe environment within secure conditions; and

(b)to help trainees prepare for their return to the outside community.

(2) The aim mentioned in paragraph (1)(b) above shall be achieved, in particular, by—

(a)providing a positive regime offering high standards of education and training;

(b)establishing a programme designed to tackle the offending behaviour of each trainee and to assist in his development;

(c)fostering links between the trainee and the outside community; and

(d)co-operating with the services responsible for the trainee's supervision after release.

(3) A statement of the aims mentioned in paragraph (1) above and how they are to be achieved shall be prepared and displayed in each centre and shall be made available on request—

(a)to trainees;

(b)to any person visiting the centre; and

(c)to any person inspecting the centre.

Appendix C – Secure Training Centre

Statement of Purpose (October 2015)

1. (…) Secure Training Centre works with young people aged 12 - 17 years who are either sentenced or remanded. Sentenced young persons (trainees) are detained either under Section 100 of the Powers of the Criminal Court (Sentencing) Act 2000 to a Detention and Training Order or, for more serious offences, under Sections 90, 91, 228 or 226 of the same Act. Remanded young persons are remanded to Youth Detention Accommodation as nominated by the Secretary of State under Sections 90-107 of the Legal Aid Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act 2012.

2. The Centre is committed to looking after and accommodating all sentenced and remanded young persons in safe and secure conditions. The Centre provides high quality standards of care for all young persons, by providing well-maintained living conditions and positive staff relationships, as well as helping to promote social, emotional and physical needs, based on the principles of dignity, privacy and respect.

3. Every member of staff at the Secure Training Centre is committed to maintaining the highest standards of care, control, good order and discipline, protecting vulnerable or disruptive young persons from themselves and/or others.

4. The Centre will treat all young persons as individuals and award them dignity and respect by promoting their cultural and religious needs, respecting gender, disability and diversity, ensuring the Centre promotes anti-discriminatory and anti-racist behaviour.

5. The Centre is committed to providing every young person with a positive regime offering high standards of education, healthcare, anti-offending programmes aimed at preventing re-offending and preparing young people for their return to the community.

6. All sentenced young persons will be presented with challenging programmes to tackle offending behaviour, confront them with the effects of their actions, making them realise the consequences for themselves and society.

7. All remanded young persons will be provided with education, regime activities and citizenship programmes which will not compromise their inherent right to innocence.

8. The Centre is committed to having a comprehensive complaints and representations procedure where complaints are taken seriously and responded to within agreed timescales. The Centre works proactively with the Youth Justice Board Monitor and

Barnardos in promoting children's rights linked to their responsibilities to act in an appropriate way.

9. The Centre will work positively in partnership with Youth Offending Teams and other external agencies to support and enhance the transition for all the young people into the community on their release.

10. All young persons' Planning Meetings will involve the young persons, their parents and/or carers. Programmes will be based on initial and ongoing assessment to ensure that the programmes fully meet the needs of the young person when in custody or on remand and promote ongoing work in the community.

11. The Centre is committed to supporting all young persons, their families and/or carers, to maintain contact and to help them work in partnership with the Centre's staff team. Help in supporting families and carers, offering advice and assistance is essential to the Centre's work.

12. Centre staff are committed to helping sentenced young persons as they move into the community, supporting them to have appropriate accommodation and education and training on release. The Centre staff are committed to the continued work with the Youth Offending Team , education establishments, parents and carers, while offering post release advice and support,   by contributing to the community review and follow up communication.

Appendix D – Recommendations from Independent Improvement Board

	Recommendations from the Independent Improvement Board
1	The Board recommends that a new Vision is developed for STCs, or any arrangement that replaces STCs, that clearly articulates the purpose of these establishments, their focus on education and rehabilitation, and cultural values that promote a nurturing and safe environment. The operationalisation of this vision must be set out in a strategic plan.
2	The Board recommends that MoJ commissions an independent governing body, similar to the Board of Governors in a school, to provide oversight and scrutiny for safeguarding for all STCs. The GB should be appointed on a basis similar to the Improvement Board, with authorisation to visit all parts of the institutions and speak to staff and young people, and should consist of individuals with varied background and expertise. They should not be bound by the inspecting and monitoring frameworks of other inspecting bodies. They should act as a point of reference for other bodies involved with the STC, and their regular reports to the Secretary of State should include any recommendations for change or improvement that they feel should be made for any of the organisations involved with safeguarding children at the STCs. The GB should have a budget to commission research or analysis if they feel it is necessary to improve safeguarding.
3	The Board recommends that a new leadership and governance structure is developed for STCs with unambiguous lines of accountability and a strong leader who is held to account for delivering the vision and strategic plan.
4	The new governance structure should redefine lines of responsibility for all managers and include: - formal mechanisms to improve day to day communication between those involved in security, education and pastoral functions; - stronger appraisal and supervision arrangements so that the work of all staff members is rigorously supervised, particularly those in middle management positions (i.e. those currently in DOM, RSM and Team Leader positions) and

	that these staff members benefit from relevant ongoing training and continued professional development in childcare, behavioural management and supervision.
5	The person responsible for leading the new structure (the 'Director' in the current structure) must report regularly to the Governing Body, who can hold them to account for safeguarding of children at the STC.
6	The Board recommends that, as part of the wider review of youth justice, a cross-departmental working group is set up to address inconsistencies the Board has identified around the treatment and placement of children across YOIs/STCs and SCHs. As part of its terms of reference, this group should consider: - the place of the secure estate within the broader spectrum of provision for vulnerable children and how to ensure that vulnerable children sent to STCs, or their equivalent, receive protection and care comparable to those in other types of care; - Whether current legislative and policy provision is sufficient to make sure children who are sentenced to custody are adequately protected under the umbrella of the Special Education Needs and Disability (SEND) framework, or whether additional measures need to be put in place to facilitate regular multi-disciplinary reviews for these children and young people, with regard to their education, health and care needs.
7	In order to improve the balance of security, rehabilitation and education, focus must be moved from the number of hours spent in Education to identifying and delivering individual educational needs of each child.
8	The Board recommends that the terms of STC contracts that refer to Suicide and self-harm (SASH) policies are reviewed to make sure that they support the overall safety of young people rather than focus on imposing penalties on the contractor (e.g. a penalty for allowing the young person to have something that could cause self-harm but not for actual self-harm) that distract from the safety and wellbeing of the child.

9	Formal mechanisms needs to be set up to enable the young person's voice to be heard, both within the STC (e.g. a council) and by outside agencies (e.g. via the governing body). A charter needs to set out how these mechanisms operate and what protections are to be put in place to ensure that children are supported to speak out when needed.
10	Policy for whistle-blowing and acting on information received from whistle-blowers needs to be redeveloped in both YJB and within the STC and it must ensure that whistle-blowers feel supported and listened to.
11	All whistle-blowing communication must be made available to the Governing Board on a monthly basis.
12	The role of Barnardos advocate needs to be re-examined as the Board feels it is currently not fit for purpose.
13	The Board recommends that MoJ commissions a cross-departmental review of behaviour management policy and practice in STCs, across the wider youth justice system and beyond to other sectors. The purpose of the review should be to produce a coherent policy on risk, restraint and behaviour management across government that proactively drives the best interest of the child and promote interventions that are proportionate to the risks presented by the behaviour rather than the setting in which the behaviour occurs.
14	There needs to be a formal separation of the often conflicting YJB monitoring functions of ensuring contractual compliance and monitoring safeguarding. For there to be a qualitative impact, both functions need to be carried out on a daily basis by separate individuals who have the necessary experience and expertise for the roles, and have enough seniority to challenge senior staff at the STC and other organisations involved with the institution.
15	The Safeguarding function needs to report to the Governing Body on a regular basis and must be accountable to them for providing assurance of safeguarding in STCs.

16	The STC must clarify to MoJ their timeframe for implementation of the improvement plan, particularly if the contract is to be transferred. This clarification should set out what the plan is seeking to achieve, what outcomes it is intended to deliver and who is responsible for overseeing implementation of the plan.
17	The Improvement Plan should include information on who in the STC is responsible for ensuring effective handover of the document to the new management of the STC and a timetable for handover if new management takes over running the centre.
18	Any new management that takes over the running of the STC over the twelve months following the submission of this report must continue to deliver the improvements set out in the Improvement Plan so that the actions it contains are delivered and the safety of young people at the STC is improved.
19	The Improvement Plan should include the STCs analysis of what went wrong with organisational culture at Medway to enable staff to feel they could act as they did towards children and how they propose to address this.
20	Although it is acknowledged that the current emphasis may be because of the wording of the Improvement Notice, the Board recommends that the Vision (as set out on page 6 of the document) needs to be developed and amended so that the emphasis is more on trainees than the staff.
21	The plan must clarify what staff the training described is geared towards and must set out specifically how they intend to address the Improvement Board's concern about safeguarding training for DOMs rather than 'middle managers and senior managers'.
22	Action on appraisal, as set out on page 12, needs to be strengthened to make sure there is ongoing oversight of performance management to ensure compliance with performance objectives and that staff receive reflective supervision.
23	Feedback from focus groups that the STC has already completed must be incorporated into the Improvement Plan.

24	Under the heading 'Continuous Staff Development', the section on improving supervision needs to be clarified, particularly on whether it refers specifically to the context of clinical supervision and how many staff are being trained to provide this.
25	The STC must clarify their recommendation to YJB that STC rules need to be revisited around Good Order and Discipline (GOAD) as the Board did not come across any evidence on this being a particular issue when they visited Medway SCT and spoke to staff.
	Holden, Allen, Gray and Thomas (2016)

Appendix E – Figure 3 Acronyms

AIA – Appreciative Inquiry Approach

AII – Assessment and Improvement Indicators

AOAS – Apricot Outcomes Achievement Software

AP – Assessing Type and Number of Policies

APR – Application Perception Report

BCR – Benefit-Cost Ratio

BPR – Beneficiary Perception Report

CBA – Cost-benefit Analysis

CCAT – Core Capacity Assessment Tool

EFQM – European Foundation for Quality Management (Excellence Model)

FCAT – The FINCA Client Assessment Tool

GRI – Global Reporting Initiative Guidelines

HIP – Human Impact and Profit Scorecard

IRIS – Impact Reporting and Investment Standards

LFF – Listen First Framework

LM3 – Local Multiplier 3

OBR – Operational Benchmarking Report

OIF – Outcomes and Impact Frameworks

PCV – PCV Social Impact Assessment

MIAA – Methodology for Impact Analysis and Assessment

SEBS - Social Enterprise Balanced Scorecard

SIA – Social Impact Assessment

SIMPLE – Social Impact Measurement for Local Economies

SIRA – Social investment Risk Assessment

SOT – Social Outcome Tracking

SPI – Social Performance Indicators

SROI – Social Return on Investment

STAR – Stakeholder Assessment Report

WAT – Wallace Assessment Tool

Appendix F – Participant Information Sheet for Research

NATURE OF THIS STUDY

I am a Higher Research Student at the University of Northampton and I am completing a research study on the use of social impact measurement in secure training centres. This means that I will be looking at the outcomes of the education, interventions and activities in the secure training centre. This study is based on the idea that your experiences should be placed at the centre of research. The project is funded by a studentship from the University of Northampton.

WHAT WILL THE RESEARCH INVOLVE?

This study will involve completing a questionnaire and taking part in a one-to-one interview, lasting between 30 minutes to 1 hour. If you feel this is too long then you can tell me and I will be able to make another date and time to finish the interview. The interview will be recorded with audio equipment. It aims to gather information about the education, interventions and activities you participate in within the Centre. The interview does not involve any tests and there can be no right or wrong answers. I only want you to share your opinions and what you feel is important to you. Your interview will be typed up by me and will be analysed to find themes.

WILL OTHER PEOPLE KNOW ABOUT WHAT I SAY IN THE INTERVIEW?

The interview will be audio-recorded but all the information will only be available to my research supervisors and me. All audio recordings will be stored under lock and key. When the interview is typed up, your real name will not be used in the final written copy of the study, although some of the things you tell me may be used anonymously and appear in the final report. In place of your own name, I will make up another name to disguise your personal details.

WHAT IF I DON'T WANT TO ANSWER A QUESTION OR TAKE PART ANYMORE?

You have the right to stop the interview at any time and you do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to. I will not ask for the reasons why you do not want to answer any question. This interview is your chance to say what you want or do not want to say – I am only here to ask questions. If you do not want your interview information in the final write up then let me or a member of staff know before the (DATE).

WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO THIS RESEARCH?

This research is the property of the University but it is hoped that the findings will be submitted for publication to bodies such as conferences, academic and clinical journals. Any submissions will add to the body of research that seeks to inform future research directions, as well as the advice and guidance it provides regarding the relevant issues for young people in secure training centres.

Thank you for your help, it is much appreciated.

Appendix G – CYP Social Impact Measurement – Questionnaire

My name is Claire and I am a researcher from the University of Northampton. You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before deciding if you want to take part, it is important for you to understand the reasons for this research and what it will involve. Please take time to read the information carefully. The aim of the study is to find out what you think about your time in the Secure Training Centre. Your help in completing this questionnaire will allow us to understand the impact of the secure training centre on young people. It should take approximately fifteen minutes to complete.

If you decide not to take part, this will not affect any grades in education or rewards in the Centre. All the information you provide in the questionnaire will be treated with strict confidence and securely stored at the University of Northampton. You have the right to remove your questionnaire from the research before 31 May 2017.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Personal Details

First Name: _____   Ethnicity: _____

Age: _____   Male / Female (Please circle)

Date: _____

The details below will help us understand your individual background and circumstances. All details given are treated with strict confidence and stored securely. Your name and details will be removed from the final research report.

a. How long have you been in the Secure Training Centre? _____ Months

b. Why were you placed in the Secure Training Centre?

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┌──────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                              │
│                                              │
│                                              │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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c. How long was your sentence? _____ Months

Questionnaire for young people

This questionnaire was designed to help us understand the impact the Secure Training Centre has on young people. Your answers will allows us to understand the impact of the Secure Training Centre and allow us to identify areas to improve. All the answers you provide will be treated with strict confidence and stored securely.

Education, Training and Employment

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

1. **I like being in education**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. **I want to continue with my education or training once I leave the STC**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. **I have support to access education, training and employment once I leave the STC**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. **I am satisfied with my experiences in education**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. **In the STC I have improved my literacy and numeracy skills.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. **In the STC I have gained qualifications and skills for what I want to do.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. **I now understand how to search and apply for education, training and employment opportunities.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Personal

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

8. **My life is just right**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. **I would like to change many things in my life**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. I wish I had a different kind of life

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. I have a good life

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. I have what I want in life

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. My life is better than most kids

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. My life is going well

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Housing and Local Community

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

15. I know where I will be living once I leave the STC.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. I have had the opportunity to learn independent living skills in the STC (e.g. cooking, cleaning and maintenance).

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. I have had the opportunity to learn budgeting and financial management skills.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. I know how to access benefits (e.g. housing, job seekers).

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. I feel confident filling out forms (e.g. forms to open a bank account and apply for jobs).

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Physical Health

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

20. I like the healthcare and support services in the STC.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. I know how to access health services once I leave the STC.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. I think I have alcohol or substance misuse problems.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23. I have had the opportunity to access alcohol and substance misuse services in the STC.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. I know how to access alcohol and substance misuses services once I leave the STC.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Mental Health and Wellbeing

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

25. I've been feeling optimistic about the future.

Scale	None of the time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time
	1	2	3	4	5

26. I've been feeling useful.

Scale	None of the time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time
	1	2	3	4	5

27. I've been dealing with problems well.

Scale	None of the time	Rarely	Some of the time	Often	All of the time
	1	2	3	4	5

Relationships

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

28. I have visits from my family or friends regularly.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29. I have family members who get into trouble with the law.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

30. I have friends who do not get into trouble with the law.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

31. I have a good relationship with staff in the STC.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

32. I know how to communicate with friends and family using technology (e.g. mobile phones, internet).

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Citizenship and community

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

33. I understand the importance of rules and the law.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

34. I think I will offend in the future.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

35. I know others who will help me to stop getting into trouble.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

36. I am sorry for the harm I have caused.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

37. I would like to make amends for the harm I have caused.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

38. Do you have anything else you would like to share about your time at the secure training centre?

Thank You

Appendix H – Test of normality for questionnaire participants and non-participants (CYP)

Test of normality for questionnaire participants and non-participants (n=76)		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Participation	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Age	No	.222	8	.200*	.912	8	.366
	Yes	.201	68	.000	.905	68	.000
Sentence served	No	.167	8	.200*	.929	8	.505
	Yes	.209	68	.000	.738	68	.000
Length of sentence	No	.196	8	.200*	.858	8	.114
	Yes	.225	68	.000	.860	68	.000
Ethnicity	No	.325	8	.013	.665	8	.001
	Yes	.355	68	.000	.635	68	.000
Offence	No	.391	8	.001	.641	8	.000
	Yes	.378	68	.000	.629	68	.000
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.							
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction							

Appendix I – Reliability Statistics (CYP Questionnaire)

Reliability Statistics for Children and Young Person Questionnaire – Cronbach's α for individual items			
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	If Item Deleted
Offence	147.6471	936.978	-.234	.903
Length of Sentence	147.0735	911.472	.143	.899
Accepting responsibility	148.3676	908.833	.422	.898
SEND	148.3382	924.824	-.111	.900
Substance Misuse	147.8382	924.347	-.162	.899
NEET	147.8971	925.676	-.195	.900
Months NEET	147.5588	947.385	-.345	.904
Family members involved with CJS	148.0882	930.947	-.332	.900
Peers involved with CJS	147.7941	920.584	.054	.899
Witness or subject of Domestic Violence	148.3235	920.789	.013	.899
Emotional Issues	148.0588	922.474	-.045	.899
ADHD	148.4265	921.741	-.019	.899
I like being in education.	145.6471	889.844	.255	.899
Desire to continue with education	145.3676	863.340	.481	.895
Support to access opportunities on release	145.6471	830.859	.798	.890
Satisfaction with education in STC	145.5147	860.970	.508	.895
Improved my literacy and numeracy skills	145.4118	867.201	.449	.896
Qualifications and skills gained in STC	145.9118	835.932	.714	.891
Knowledge searching/applying for opportunities	146.5294	829.178	.721	.891
My life is just right	147.5294	908.432	.199	.898
I would like to change many things in my life	147.8824	923.598	-.054	.900
I wish I had a different kind of life	147.8382	913.570	.119	.899
I have a good life	147.6765	902.401	.319	.897
I have what I want in life	147.8824	917.240	.073	.899
My life is better than most kids	147.7941	907.270	.238	.898

Reliability Statistics for Children and Young Person Questionnaire – Cronbach's α for individual items				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	If Item Deleted
My life is going well	147.8529	904.366	.332	.897
Knowledge of living arrangement on release	146.4265	901.711	.126	.901
Opportunity to learn independent living skills	146.1618	813.391	.857	.888
Learning budgeting and financial management	146.5294	835.447	.787	.890
Knowledge of accessing benefits	146.8824	844.941	.697	.892
Confidence filling out forms	146.8971	835.079	.776	.891
Healthcare and support services in the STC.	144.9559	868.938	.436	.896
Access health services on release.	146.2059	854.345	.557	.894
Substance misuse problems.	147.0294	921.432	-.029	.902
Access to substance misuse services in the STC.	144.9706	877.044	.311	.898
Access substance misuses services on release.	145.6618	840.466	.724	.891
I've been feeling optimistic about the future.	146.8971	871.795	.726	.893
I've been feeling useful.	146.8088	872.635	.682	.894
I've been dealing with problems well.	146.7941	871.211	.699	.894
I have visits from my family or friends regularly.	145.4265	870.308	.436	.896
I like my family life.	144.6618	865.153	.572	.894
Friends who do not get into trouble.	145.6912	866.217	.476	.895
Good relationship with staff in the STC.	143.3824	915.374	.093	.899
Knowledge of communicate with friends and family using technology	144.0147	896.642	.285	.898
Understanding the importance of rules and law.	145.7794	822.383	.827	.889
Offending in future.	146.2500	949.205	-.313	.905
Knowledge of people to support desistance.	145.5735	835.472	.688	.892
Desire to apologise for the harm caused.	147.5000	877.537	.366	.897
Desire to make amends for the harm.	146.8971	860.183	.438	.896

Appendix J – Interview questions for children and young people

1. Can you just tell me a bit about yourself?

2. How and why did you come to be accommodated at the Centre?

3. Do you think your offending caused you problems? If so, what?

4. Do you think about how your offending has affected others?

5. Would you like to stop offending? What are the main reasons for this?

6. What was your home life like before you arrived at the Centre? (Who did you live with?)

7. Can you tell me a little about your family background? (prompt – peers)

8. Can you describe some of the relationships that you had with people in your life before arriving here?

9. What are those relationships like now?

10. Can you tell me a little about your time in education before arriving at the Centre?

11. What education and training have you started or completed here?

12. Do you have any education, training or employment plans for once you leave here?

13. What other skills have you learned in the Centre (communication, independent living)? How will you use these skills once you leave the Centre?

14. Did you receive support services before arriving at the STC? If so what services?

15. What impact did the support you received have?

16. Would you mind telling me a little about your goals in life? What motivates you (pushes or inspires) you to achieve these goals?

17. Have you learnt anything at the Centre that might help you achieve your goals?

18. What are your expectations once you leave the Centre (hope/fears etc.)?

19. Do you have any questions you would like to ask me before we end this interview?

Appendix K – Test of normality for interview participants and non-participants (CYP)

Test of normality for interview participants and non-participants (n=25)		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Participation	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Age	No	.276	10	.030	.727	10	.002
	Yes	.331	15	.000	.744	15	.001
Sentence Served	No	.181	10	.200[*]	.895	10	.191
	Yes	.225	15	0.40	.881	15	.0.50
Length of Sentence	No	.282	10	.023	.890	10	.172
	Yes	.238	15	.022	.887	15	.061
Ethnicity	No	.381	10	.000	.640	10	.000
	Yes	.350	15	.000	.643	15	.000
Offence	No	.381	10	.000	.640	10	.000
	Yes	.385	15	.000	.630	15	.000
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.							
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction							

Appendix L – Units of Analysis (CYP Interview)

1. Mistake
2. Lack of remorse
3. Challenges of desistance
4. Consequences
5. Victim blaming
6. Offending in future
7. Anger Issues
8. Deserving person
9. Getting caught
10. Mental Health
11. Targeted by CJS
12. Care
13. Trauma
14. Negative Education experiences
15. School experiences
16. PRU
17. Exclusion
18. NEET
19. Drug use
20. Lack of consistency
21. Never-ending cycle
22. Goals
23. Poor parental support
24. Belonging
25. Making a chance
26. Uncertainty
27. Low self-esteem
28. Lack of confidence
29. Poor understanding of independence skills
30. Gang involvement
31. Lack of safety
32. Nothing to do
33. Unfair s
34. Playing the system
35. Missing family, friends and partners
36. Pro-criminal family
37. Pro-criminal peers
38. Visits
39. Longing
40. Lack of trust in some staff
41. Lack of agency
42. Want to escape
43. Poor self-image
44. Poor experiences with services
45. Regrets
46. Hopelessness
47. Medication

Appendix M – Staff Social Impact Measurement – Questionnaire

My name is Claire Paterson-Young and I am a researcher from the University of Northampton. You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before deciding if you want to take part, it is important for you to understand the reasons for this research and what it will involve. Please take time to read the information carefully.

The aim of the study is to find how the staff and young people view the Secure Training Centre. Your help in completing this questionnaire will allow us to understand the impact of the secure training centre for young people. It should take approximately fifteen minutes to complete.

If you decide not to take part, this will not affect you in any way.

All the information you provide in the questionnaire will be treated with strict confidence and securely stored at the University of Northampton. You have the right to remove your questionnaire from the research before 31 May 2017.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Personal Details

Name: _____   Ethnicity: _____

Male / Female (Please circle)   Date: _____

The details below will help us understand your individual background and circumstances. All details given are treated with strict confidence and stored securely. Your name and details will be removed from the final research report.

a. How long have you worked at the Secure Training Centre?

_____ Years _____ Months

b. What is your current role at the Secure Training Centre?

Questionnaire for staff

This questionnaire was designed to help us understand the impact the Secure Training Centre has on young people. Your answers will allows us to understand the impact of the Secure Training Centre and allow us to identify areas to improve. All the answers you provide will be treated with strict confidence and stored securely.

Organisation

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

1. **I understand the principles and values in the Secure Training Centre.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. **I understand the policies and procedures in the Secure Training Centre.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. **I understand the structure of the STC (e.g. management, operations)**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. **I receive timely information on any changes to STC policies and procedures.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. **I receive timely information on any changes to the STC structure.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Training, Knowledge and Skills

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

6. **I have received training for my current role.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. **I have received training for working with young people.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. **I have received training in delivering keywork session with young people.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. **I have received training in delivering workshops with young people.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. **I have had the opportunity to develop the knowledge and skills for my role.**

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Supervision and Support

Please read the statements below carefully and rate how well each statement applied to you by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

11. I receive support and supervision regular.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. I have adequate support to complete my role.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. I would like more support and supervision.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Young People

14. The young people I work with are *motivated* to change

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. The young people I work with have the opportunity to gain qualifications.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. The young people I work with have the opportunity to learn independence skills.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. The young people I work with have the opportunity to complete interventions.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. I have had the opportunity to hear about how young people are doing once they leave the STC.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. I think the STC helps young people desist from offending.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. I think the young people I work with will offend again in the future.

Scale	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. Do you have anything else you would like to share about your role at the Secure Training Centre?

Thank You!

Appendix N – Interview questions for staff

1. Can you tell me a bit about yourself and your role at the Centre?

2. How long have you been working in the Centre?

3. Do you feel the current principles and values are appropriate at the Centre?

4. Do you feel you have adequate training to complete your role? (including training on engaging with children and young people).

5. Do you have adequate support and supervision to complete your role? Do you feel supported?

6. What are views of the education provisions offered to children and young people at the Centre?

7. What are views of the interventions offered to children and young people at the Centre?

8. Do you think the Centre supports children and young people to learn independence skills?

9. Do you think the Centre supports children and young people to desist from offending?

10. What would you suggest for developing or improving the services offered at the Centre?

11. Do you have any questions or further comments before we end this interview?

Appendix O – Units of analysis for Staff Interview

1. External support – ownership
2. Experienced staff
3. Specialised knowledge
4. Information on accommodation
5. Understanding of safeguarding
6. Managing emotions
7. Moves
8. Short sentences
9. Difficulty
10. Unsettled
11. Workload
12. Staff Turnover
13. Changing roles
14. Additional support
15. Challenges in education
16. Differences in abilities
17. Education environment
18. Positive education offers
19. Improvements for education
20. Inconsistency in education
21. Lack of learning in education
22. Opportunities for learning in education
23. Staff inconsistency (independence)
24. Lack of independence skills
25. Opportunities for learning independence
26. Outdated resources
27. Staff enabling (rather than supporting)
28. Availability of interventions
29. Inadequate resources for interventions
30. Lack of offending work
31. Lack of staff for interventions
32. Opportunities for developing interventions
33. Appropriateness of principles and values
34. Broken system
35. Challenge understanding
36. Differences in cohort accommodated
37. Issues with operational process
38. Lack of understanding
39. Need for more support from YJB
40. Overhaul
41. Service length
42. Budget and funding
43. Challenges of supporting desistance
44. Desistance
45. Improvements
46. Job satisfaction
47. Pro-criminal
48. Changes
49. Staff case allocation
50. Staffing
51. Structure
52. Impact
53. Adequacy of support and supervision
54. Support and supervision structure
55. Lack of understanding of roles
56. Teamwork
57. Cohesion
58. Inadequate training
59. Experience
60. Lack of preparation
61. Regular training
62. Requirements for additional training
63. Self-learning
64. Accepting negative outcomes
65. Other services
66. Building relationships
67. Trust
68. Expectations
69. Lack of support
70. No desire to change
71. Returning to home environment
72. Struggle with routine