Exploring teachers’ beliefs, values and attitudes towards radicalisation, extremism and the implementation of anti-radicalisation strategies

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Contents

List of Figures ......................................................................................................................... 4
List of Tables .............................................................................................................................. 4
Abstract ................................................................................................................................. 4
The author .............................................................................................................................. 5
Acknowledgements ............................................................................................................... 6

Chapter 1: Literature Review ............................................................................................... 8
  1.1 Introduction ...................................................................................................................... 8
    1.1.1 Radicalisation and extremism in schools ................................................................. 8
    1.1.2 Contextualising radicalisation in the United Kingdom ................................................. 9
  1.2 Radicalisation – A broader picture ................................................................................ 12
  1.3 Prevent ........................................................................................................................... 13
  1.4 Anti-radicalisation – A contentious issue ...................................................................... 17
  1.5 Implementation matters ................................................................................................. 19

Chapter 2: Method .................................................................................................................. 22
  2.1 Introduction ...................................................................................................................... 22
  2.2 Epistemology and pragmatism ....................................................................................... 23
    2.2.1 Paradigms and epistemological considerations ........................................................ 23
    2.2.2 Pragmatism ............................................................................................................... 24
    2.2.3 Pragmatic mixed-methods research ......................................................................... 26
    2.2.4 Quality matters in mixed methods research .............................................................. 29
  2.3 Design ............................................................................................................................ 33
    2.3.1 Overall study design ................................................................................................. 33
    2.3.2 Quantitative approach ............................................................................................. 33
    2.3.3 Qualitative approach ............................................................................................... 34
  2.4 Participants ....................................................................................................................... 35
    2.4.1 Initial participant selection ....................................................................................... 35
    2.4.2 Quantitative strand ................................................................................................... 37
    2.4.3 Qualitative strand .................................................................................................... 37
  2.5 Materials ........................................................................................................................ 39
    2.5.1 Quantitative strand .................................................................................................. 39
    2.5.2 Qualitative strand .................................................................................................... 40
  2.6 Procedure ......................................................................................................................... 41
    2.6.1 Quantitative strand .................................................................................................. 41
    2.6.2 Qualitative strand .................................................................................................... 42
  2.7 Analytical strategy .......................................................................................................... 43
    2.7.1 Quantitative strand .................................................................................................. 43
    2.7.2 Qualitative strand .................................................................................................... 43
  2.8 Ethical considerations ..................................................................................................... 46
    2.9 Summary statements ..................................................................................................... 48

Chapter 3: Quantitative Results ............................................................................................. 49
3.1 Introduction

3.2 Quantitative results
  3.2.1 Descriptive statistics: part 1
  3.2.2 Descriptive statistics: part 2
  3.2.2 Conclusion

3.3 Summary statements

Chapter 4: Qualitative Results

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Knowledge and understanding

4.3 Dosage

4.4 Perceptions of and attitudes towards Prevent

4.5 Factors affecting implementation

4.6 Cultural validity

4.7 Role of the EP

4.8 Conclusion

4.9 Summary statements

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Restatement of the results

5.3 Research Question 1: Values, beliefs and attitudes

5.4 Research Question 2: Role of the Educational Psychologist

5.5 Summary statements

5.6 Integration of findings
  5.6.1 Confluence of approaches
  5.6.2 Distinctive contribution of the qualitative data
  5.6.3 Value in the integration of findings and summary

5.7 Limitations
  5.7.1 Generalisation
  5.7.2 Methodological issues

5.8 Implications
  5.8.1 Implications for research and practice

5.9 Conclusion

References

Appendices
  Appendix 1: Information sheet for Head Teachers / SLT
  Appendix 2: Information sheet for teachers
  Appendix 3: Teacher Survey
  Appendix 4: Consent form
  Appendix 5: Interview Schedule
  Appendix 6: Braun and Clarke’s (2013) 15-point checklist
  Appendix 7: Ethics approval letter
  Appendix 8: Example interview transcript (Participant 3)
List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The ACPO tiered model of intervention to address Prevent</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Perceived value of Prevent in school</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Importance of anti-radicalisation training</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ease of delivery of Prevent</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sufficient level of training</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Level of teacher comfort in implementing Prevent</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Thematic map with primary themes</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Full thematic map with sub-themes</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>McCauley and Moskalenko’s (2008) mechanisms of radicalisation</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>A typology for mixing methods</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Criteria for judging quality in quantitative, qualitative and MMR</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4(a)</td>
<td>Demographic information of teachers’ schools</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4(b)</td>
<td>Teachers and sampling characteristics</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Variables from teacher self-report survey, with description and source</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Outline of Thematic Analysis</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Gender distribution of participants in the study</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Number of years qualified as a teacher</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ethnicity of participants in the study</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Qualification level of participants in the study</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Teachers’ experience of implementing Prevent</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Teachers’ additional responsibilities in school</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Descriptive statistics for part 2 of teacher survey</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Abstract

Exploring teachers’ beliefs, values and attitudes towards radicalisation, extremism and the implementation of anti-radicalisation strategies

The issue of radicalisation and extremism is not necessarily a ‘new’ occurrence but is one that is increasingly prevalent in both political and social agendas (Sewell & Hulusi, 2016). Research indicates a worrying rise in the prevalence of radicalised children and young people over the past few decades (e.g. Home Office, 2011a; Kundani, 2012). Given the adverse negative outcomes that are associated with such forms of radicalisation, researchers and policy makers have been keen to focus on identifying causal routes and find ways of implementing preventative anti-radicalisation measures. School-based anti-radicalisation training (Prevent) has been identified as one potentially effective means of preventing the above problems (e.g. Home Office, 2011a). Whilst there is seemingly more research available on the ‘factors’ that influence the radicalisation process in children and young people (e.g. Bartlett & Miller, 2012) there is very little research available on the role of teachers in attempting to address this. As part of the government’s Prevent programme, teachers are now expected to play a central role in highlighting children and young people that are at risk of being radicalised. How this is achieved, however, is something of a contentious issue.

The aim of the current study was to explore teachers’ values and beliefs towards radicalisation and extremism, as well as their perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation strategies (Prevent). The role of the Educational Psychologist in supporting teachers was also addressed. A sequential explanatory mixed methods design was used to explore the issue of radicalisation and extremism in as rich a sample as possible through maximum variation sampling. A total of 38 teachers were included in the analyses. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics. There were ten focus teachers in the qualitative strand with teachers’ interview data analysed thematically. There were a number of implications for researchers, practitioners, and programme developers as a result of the findings from the study. Specifically, the need for the core components of the Prevent programme to be far clearer and for teachers to be better supported in their efforts to implement anti-radicalisation strategies, both in training and with the ongoing support they receive. There were also some significant implications for how Prevent is being disseminated in schools, with teachers reporting that they felt it is important that children, young people, and their families are included in the process.

The University of Sheffield 2018

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The author

The author of this thesis initially trained as an English teacher, practising in both Scotland and England. A keen interest in the role of teachers in delivering support for the mental health and wellbeing of children and young people, whilst working within an increasingly challenging profession led to him completing an MEd in the Psychology of Education at the University of Manchester. This was followed by an awarded studentship PhD in the Psychology of Education.

The author’s PhD thesis focused on the influence of teacher characteristics on implementation variability in universal preventative mental health programmes. A keen interest in implementation has continued since commencing the Doctorate in Educational and Child Psychology, as well as a desire to contribute to developing research within the field of implementation science. The author has an ongoing interest in how best to address issues of implementation in preventative interventions, at both the targeted and universal level, and has presented on this subject at four national and international conferences.

Publications:


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On a personal note, the author would like to thank his father and sister, Anthony Joyce and Rebecca Shanahan for their warm and unconditional encouragement throughout the course. Finally, the author would like to thank his partner, John, for the love and support that he has provided over the past several years, and for always believing that it was possible.
Chapter 1: Literature Review

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Radicalisation and extremism in schools

The issue of radicalisation is not necessarily a new occurrence but is one that frequently pervades both political and social agendas. Whilst the term radicalisation is applicable to a number of different phenomena (e.g. environmental or political radicalism), the term is most commonly applied in a contemporary context to address the issue of extremist violence, or terrorism. Research indicates a worrying rise in the prevalence of radicalised children and young people over the past few decades (Home Office, 2011a; Kundani, 2012; Marret, Feddes, Mann, Doosje, & Griffioen-Young, 2013). There is a view that radicalisation and extremism in young people presents similar risk factors to drugs, gang membership, sexual exploitation, and online bullying (NSPCC, 2018). Given the adverse negative outcomes that are associated with these risk factors, which can include serious anti-social behaviour and violence (Horgan, 2008), psychopathologies (Dalgaard-Nielsen, 2010; Hofstra, Van der Ende, & Verhulst, 2002), lack of productive education (Colman et al., 2009), and in the worst instances, suicide (Padilla, Gelfand, Mirahmadi, Farooq, & Egmond, 2015), researchers and policy makers have been keen to focus on identifying causal routes and find ways of implementing preventative anti-radicalisation measures.

School-based anti-radicalisation training has been identified as one potentially effective means of preventing the above problems (e.g. Home Office, 2011a). Yet, it is important to note from the outset that there is no universally agreed definition of radicalisation (e.g. Bartlett & Miller, 2012), nor is there incontrovertible evidence that radicalisation results in violent actions. There is a small body of research to suggest that numerous radicalised individuals have remained non-violent (e.g. Francis, 2016). Nevertheless, the Home Office (2011a) has offered its own interpretation of both radicalisation and extremism. In the first instance, radicalisation is described as “the process by which a person comes to support terrorism and extremist ideologies associated with terrorist groups” (p.107). In the second, extremism is defined by the UK government as “vocal or active opposition to fundamental British values, including democracy, the rule of law, individual liberty and
mutual respect and tolerance of different faiths and beliefs. We also include in our definition of extremism calls for the death of members of our armed forces” (p.107). Thus, in this context, the terms ‘radicalisation’ and ‘extremism’ are interconnected; there is a view that radicalisation may subsequently lead to extremism. The key difference, however, is that whilst radicalisation refers to the process by which individuals are introduced to extreme views and ideological messages (e.g. through social, political, or economic inequality), extremism is the manifestation of these views into action, often with violent ends.

1.1.2 Contextualising radicalisation in the United Kingdom

In light of this, schools are increasingly seen as being a key element in the battle to prevent both radicalisation and extremism, with school-based anti-radicalisation training for teachers having been identified as a potentially effective means of preventing the above problems (e.g. Home Office, 2011a). The overarching Counter Terrorism Strategy in the United Kingdom (UK) is known as CONTEST (Home Office, 2011b; Sewell & Hulusi, 2016). This strategy is organised around four predominant outputs:

1. Pursue: to stop terrorist attacks
2. Prevent: to stop people becoming terrorists or supporting terrorism
3. Protect: to strengthen protection against a terrorist attack
4. Prepare: to mitigate the impact of a terrorist attack

As such, the goals of the CONTEST strategy are vast and require the inclusion of a multitude of agencies to help fulfill its purpose. Since the early part of the 21st century the government has passed several anti-terrorism laws, which have been revised over a period of time. In light of the recent terrorist attacks in Europe, the government produced an updated Counter Terrorism and Security Act (2015) referred to as the CT&S Act. Whilst the CT&S Act encompasses numerous aspects of domestic security (e.g. new guidelines for the police) that are not particularly applicable to the role of the education system or the Educational Psychologist (EP), there are, nevertheless, some guidelines in the Act that place a specific obligation on Local Authorities (LAs), all schools (both state funded and private), as well as all early years childcare providers. Indeed, Section 26 of the 2015 Counter-Terrorism and Security Act, which is now in effect, requires that
schools have “due regard to the need to prevent people from being drawn into terrorism” (p.1). The duties, which are related to the Act, are discussed within the government’s ‘Prevent Duty Guidance for England and Wales’ (Home Office, 2011), stating:

“All the terrorist groups who pose a threat to us seek to radicalise and recruit people to their cause. But the percentage of people who are prepared to support violent extremism in this country is very small. It is significantly greater amongst young people... [schools] are subject to the duty to have due regard to the need to prevent people from being drawn into terrorism. Being drawn into terrorism includes not just violent extremism but also non-violent extremism, which can create an atmosphere conducive to terrorism and can popularise views which terrorists exploit” (p.7)

Schools are required to evidence their adherence to this duty, in line with the ‘radicalisation risk’ of their institution. The Act sets out four key actions that educational settings and the Local Authority are expected to undertake (Sewell and Hulusi, 2016). These are as follows:

1. Identify children who may be vulnerable to radicalisation
2. Know what to do when they are identified
3. Build resilience to radicalisation through promoting British values and enable them to challenge extremist views
4. Manage concerns via setting-based Safeguarding Policies

Within these broad actions there are three significant areas that schools in particular must focus on: leadership, partnership, and capabilities. Within leadership, individuals in leadership positions have a responsibility to ensure that their school staff are aware of radicalisation, have the capacity to handle it, are conscious of the significant importance of this duty and can successfully implement it. Within partnership, schools are required to produce evidence of meaningful co-operation with local Prevent staff, the police service, and other appropriate local agencies. Finally, and perhaps most pertinently, within capabilities school staff must understand what radicalisation means and why children and young people may be drawn towards extremism through it. In particular, school staff must be aware of the specific type of extremism that the government is most concerned with and what measures are available to prevent individuals from being drawn
into terrorism. Thus, central to the duties listed above are that teachers are expected to have a clear understanding of what radicalisation and extremism are and how they may be associated with terrorism. The government’s definition of both radicalisation and extremism inevitably creates significant challenges for schools. Values and ideologies, which may be regarded by the government as ‘legal’, could still place individuals on a pathway to illegal, violent extremist views (Francis, 2016). This puts schools and teachers in the uncomfortable position of having to observe and surveil their pupils to fundamentally prevent the proliferation of legally-held viewpoints, in addition to referring children, young people, and their families to the government’s ‘Channel’ programme, designed to target potential radicals and violent extremists.

Channel is officiated by the Local Authority and the panel includes members of the police service, social services, as well as health and education where appropriate. Referrals to Channel can be made by anyone who deems an individual ‘vulnerable’ to radicalisation. The police service then designates one of its officers, known as a Channel Police Practitioner (CPP) to assess the validity of the case and its suitability to be raised at the panel. Three elements of vulnerability are assessed by the multi-agency panel, which is chaired by the CCP. These elements are as follows: engagement, intent, and ability. Once the panel has decided whether the individual in question is at a high risk of radicalisation a support plan is produced, in addition to a number of interventions (HM Government, 2015); education skills, careers counselling, constructive pursuits, mentoring support, therapeutic services (predominantly cognitive-behavioural therapy), drugs and alcohol support, and religious support (from approved services and organisations). It is worth pointing out at this juncture that there are several fundamentalist views held by both political and religious organisations in the UK, which appear to starkly contrast with the government’s notion of ‘British values’, for example the acceptability of LGBT marriage or the role of women (Francis, 2016). The degree to which these groups might be regarded as being on the same continuum as violent extremists, however, remains open to question.

Sewell and Hulusi (2016) note that the radicalisation of children and young people to extremist positions is a matter of safeguarding and, therefore, is a burgeoning area of research for educational psychologists (EPs). The psychological knowledge and skills that EPs possess are arguably of great benefit in supporting teachers, schools, and other professionals in this domain as well as potentially critically challenging the efficacy of
certain anti-radicalisation approaches. Whilst there is seemingly more research available on the ‘factors’ that influence the radicalisation process, there is very little research available on the role of teachers or their attitudes, beliefs, or values in attempting to address this.

1.2 Radicalisation – A broader picture

As suggested by its definitions, radicalisation is a highly complex phenomenon, which is perhaps best viewed as a process of change, a transformation that affects the individual at both a personal and political level. The term ‘radicalisation’ is used to signify different meanings that are dependent on the context; the differing terminology, which is deployed by researchers and policy makers alike, creates its own set of challenges, with definitions frequently being misleading, speculative, or incongruous (Kundnani, 2012; Silke, 2001). In light of these ambiguities the definitions of the various conceptualisations of the terms will be evaluated, as well as the conceptual definition for the present study clarified. Recent research suggests that the process of radicalisation is not rapid, but rather one that tends to develop gradually. The change process is slow and one that has been conceptualised, by many researchers, as one that traverses through several distinct ‘stages’ (e.g. Hofmann & Dawson, 2014; Sibler & Bhatt, 2007). Thus, an individual does not become radicalised overnight, although there are thought to be certain precedents that can expedite the process (e.g. an experience of discrimination or marginalisation, or the death of a loved one). For example, Al-Lami (2009) notes that individuals who are driven to drastic acts of violence, such as the shooting of police officers by African American activists in Chicago in the summer of 2016, was triggered by the unlawful shooting of young black African Americans across the United States. When we draw on the social psychological principles of realistic conflict theory (e.g. Sherif, 1954, 1958; Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961), recourses of violence are possibly explicated as acts of vengeance.

The suicide attacks of New York in September 2001, Madrid in March 2004, London in July 2005, and Manchester 2017 have led, according to Sedgwick (2010), to a qualitatively different form of ‘new terrorism’ that remained largely absent from the press and the public eye until this time. From a psychological research perspective, radicalisation has been defined and conceptualised through a plethora of ontological
stances with definitions ranging from the realist and ‘absolute’, to those who accept that it can only be appreciated in relativist terms. For example, Klein and Kruglanski (2013) indicated that radicalism could be defined, in simple terms, as a deviation from the ideological norm co-occurring with an externalised, devoted enthusiasm for this ‘deviation’. Similarly, Wiktorowicz (2004) stresses the socialisation aspect of radicalisation in deviating from societal norms, with four key stages (cognitive opening, [religious] seeking, frame alignment, socialisation) that intensify the probability of an individual being drawn to a radical group and subsequently being influenced through socialisation to become an active participant. In a similar linear fashion to Klein and Kruglanski (2013), the first three processes of the model must take place before socialisation and the adoption of the group’s norm is accepted.

1.3 Prevent

‘Prevent’ is the name given to the government’s strategy to prevent terrorism and deter children and young people from becoming radicalised to extremist positions or ideologies (Home Office, 2011b). The government initially defined radicalisation through a ‘pyramid’ perspective (Figure 1); radicalisation is the gradient differentiating the ‘active’ terrorist from the wider base of passive radical advocates. This is the current conceptual model that is used and developed by the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO), in response to the previous Labour government’s Prevent Strategy, which debuted in 2007. At the summit of the pyramid are active terrorists (where radicalisation has evolved in violent extremism) who remain comparatively few in number, when compared in relation to a much larger group who may passively sympathise with their beliefs and attitudes. The next tier down on the pyramid (Tier 3 – moving towards extremism) pertains to a group of individuals who are not actively involving themselves in any violence, but nevertheless support those who are sitting at the apex of the pyramid and who seek to inspire those on the level below (Tier 2). Situated on this lower level, there are a far larger number of individuals that are regarded as ‘vulnerable’ to these ideologies – this is the group that is most frequently targeted by the Channel service and CPP. One such group is children and young people and those that may be part of the criminal youth justice system. At the very base of the pyramid is the category known as the ‘wider community’, although it is ambiguous from the ACPO tiered model of intervention to address Prevent, just how extensive this group of individuals actually is. ‘Community’ may function as an
innocuous analogue for ‘society’ as a whole, or a more pointed classification of individuals stratified by denomination (e.g. the ‘Muslim community’). Yet, the model infers an implied and undeviating relationship between one stage of radicalisation and the next, leaving a great deal of conjecture regarding how an individual progresses from the base of the pyramid to its apex (Christmann, 2012).

Figure 1: The ACPO tiered model of intervention to address Prevent

From the Audit Commission (2008)

This assumption of a linear relationship has been the subject of criticism by Bartlett, Birdwell and King (2010a) as well as McCauley and Moskalenko (2008) who advocate that the phenomenon of becoming radicalised is far more ‘unpredictable and complicated’ than the linear trajectory assumed by Prevent. McCauley and Moskalenko (2008) establish 12 different ‘mechanisms’ that relate to radicalisation (Table 1), functioning broadly across three different levels: the individual level, the group level, and the mass community level. A conflated account of these 12 mechanisms are as follows: (individual levels) personal victimization, political grievance, joining a radical group – the slippery slope, joining a radical group – the power of love, extremity shift in like-minded groups, (group levels) extreme cohesion under isolation and threat, competition for the same base of support, competition with state power, within group competition – fissioning, (mass
levels) jujitsu politics, hate, martyrdom. These mechanisms do not specifically attempt to create an overarching conceptual framework, or an exhaustive list that incorporates all factors involved in radicalisation, but rather the authors seek to identify some of the more subtle psychological processes that may be at play in how individuals become radicalised. Sedgwick (2010) also contests the notion of ‘absolute’ definitions. Extremist points of view are relative depending on the individual’s established juncture of ‘normality’; these junctures or starting points therefore vary from person to person, as well as political groups. As Sewell and Hulusi (2016) note, it is perhaps more appropriate to understand radicalism as occurring on an increasing continuum, rather than a fixed set of stages.

Table 1: McCauley and Moskalenko’s (2008) mechanisms of political radicalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Radicalisation</th>
<th>Mechanism</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual level</td>
<td>Personal victimisation</td>
<td>This first mechanism refers to the role that personal grievance plays in the radicalisation process (e.g. Palestinian suicide bombings where revenge for loss of a loved one is the motive for self-sacrifice).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Political grievance</td>
<td>A political grievance from some political event or trend can also radicalise a person (although this can often prove difficult to disentangle from group grievances).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Joining a radical group – the slippery slope</td>
<td>Often joining a radical group is a slow and gradual process, starting with small tasks leading to greater responsibility and risk prior to becoming involved with important operations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joining a radical group – the power of love</td>
<td>This path to radicalisation is through personal connections where a person is recruited into a group through friends, family and lovers. Studies in small group psychology testify how commitment increases as group cohesion increases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extremity shift in like-minded groups</td>
<td>This pathway refers to the phenomenon of “risky shift” or “group polarisation”, where there is increased agreement about an issue.</td>
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along with a more extreme position being adopted in their views.

<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Group level</strong></th>
<th><strong>Extreme cohesion under isolation and threat</strong></th>
<th>Small groups under threat tend to show certain features, including very high levels of cohesion, itself increasing pressure for behavioural compliance and internalised value consensus.</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Competition for the same base of support</td>
<td>This pathway describes competition for a wider base of support and can drive more radical action to gain that support. The authors cite a range of examples of this phenomenon from the IRA and other nationalist groups.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Competition with state power</td>
<td>The “dynamic of condensation” refers to a cycle of reaction and counter reaction between a radical group and the counter posing state agencies, which see an increased commitment to violence by some members in an effort to retaliate to state violence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within group competition - fissioning</td>
<td>This pathway to radicalisation involves intra-group conflict and the role of threats from within the group for agreement.</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Mass level</strong></th>
<th><strong>Jujitsu politics</strong></th>
<th>Here <em>mass</em> radicalisation can occur where out-group threats lead reliably to greater group cohesion and respect for leaders and, in turn, to sanctions for those dissenters and deviators.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Hate</td>
<td>This pathway refers to the dehumanisation of the ‘enemy’ by group members, typically where prolonged violence becomes more extreme, resulting in opponents being perceived as less than human.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Martyrdom</td>
<td>The final mass radicalisation pathway is martyrdom, where radical groups keep salient the memory of their martyrs (or witnesses), although as the authors note, the impact of martyrs on mass audiences is under-theorised.</td>
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Adapted from McCauley and Moskalenko (2008) and Christmann (2012)
1.4 Anti-radicalisation – A contentious issue

As part of the government’s Prevent programme teachers are now expected to play a central role in highlighting children and young people that are at risk of being radicalisation. How this is achieved, however, is somewhat a contentious issue. Teachers are expected to undergo a training session, which is administered by the ACPO and through online materials. Teachers are expected to report ‘changes in their pupils’, as the government believes that teachers are ‘best placed’ to recognise when changes to a young persons’ behaviour seems out of character (Educate Against Hate, 2016). Teachers are informed that they should be aware of the following issues:

- **Attitudes and opinions**: Argumentativeness or aggression, or an unwillingness to listen; refusal to engage, or being abusive to peers who are different from themselves (e.g. race, religion, gender, sexuality); Susceptibility to conspiracy theories and a feeling of persecution.

- **Changes in behaviour and peer group**: Distancing themselves from friends and their peer groups; recent conversion to a new religion; a significant change in appearance; rejection of activities they used to enjoy.

- **Secrecy**: Excessive time spent on the Internet or mobile phones; changes in online identity (e.g. having two parallel online profiles).

- **Support for extremist ideologies**: Expressions of sympathies with extremist groups; expression of sympathy for young people who have supported these groups; accessing material online which may be violent with a social networking element; possessing extremist literature; being in contact with known extremist recruiters; joining or seeking to join extremist organisations.

As is demonstrated from the preceding list, many of the points that are raised (e.g. unwillingness to listen or distancing themselves from peer groups) can be normal developmental processes for children and young people, or indicative of other factors, such as problems in the home environment, bullying, stress, or depression (e.g. Maunder, Harrop, & Tattersall, 2010). Furthermore, if we are to accept, as McCauley and Moskalenko (2008, 2014) suggest, that the first stage of radicalisation occurs through ‘personal victimisation’, then it is arguable that the marginalisation of an individual plays a large part in this. The government’s Channel process, by which schools are expected to
report individual children and young people as ‘vulnerable’ to radicalisation could, arguably, be viewed as a form of marginalisation in itself. Whilst it is certainly arguable that teachers are well placed to identify problems and negative perceptions among children and young people (e.g. challenging stereotypes), teachers have been left feeling confused and fearful of how to best tackle the situation that they have been tasked with (Muslim Council of Britain, 2016). Under the new legislation released by the Home Office (2015) teachers now have a legal obligation to prevent their students from being pulled into terrorist activities. As such, teachers now have a binary responsibility of providing a safe, secure, and nurturing environment for their pupils, whilst also regarding them as potential terrorists. Whilst these tasks are not mutually exclusive, they do pose a significant number of problems. Trust remains a highly important part of teacher and student relationships and is considered a central part of healthy social and emotional development for children and young people (e.g. Humphrey, 2013). By increasing the amount of pressure that is placed on schools and teachers to adhere to this ‘duty’, the government inevitably runs the risk of creating an atmosphere of distrust, not only between teachers and their students, but also with schools and their community of families. It is also conceivable that by placing a great deal of emphasis on the important role of teachers in preventing radicalisation, parents are subsequently absolved of joint responsibility in the education of children and young people. As experts in their own children, parents are arguably best placed to detect the early signs of radicalisation or dissuading them from getting involved in extremist activities.

There is a significant extant base of research that suggests schools are already providing solid safeguarding procedures in schools to recognise and protect those that are vulnerable or at most risk of harm (e.g. Humphrey, Lendrum, Barlow, Wigelsworth, & Squires, 2012). Yet, since the implementation of the new anti-radicalisation strategies there have been numerous high-profile cases that have led to children and young people being inappropriately referred to the police as a result of comments that have been made during class discussions (Muslim Council of Britain, 2016). This would seem to infer that the process by which teachers are expected to report children and young people is problematic; this strategy is also being implemented against the backdrop of a series of increasing attacks on the Muslim community and potentially endangers young Muslims (Mythen, Walklate, & Khan, 2009). Indeed, an independent reviewer of radicalisation and extremism legislation, David Anderson QC, noted that:
“If the wrong decisions are taken, the new law risks provoking a backlash in affected communities, hardening perceptions of an illiberal or Islamophobic approach, alienating those whose integration into British society is already fragile, and playing into the hands of those who, by peddling a grievance agenda, seek to drive people further towards extremism and terrorism [...] the prevent strategy has become a significant source of grievance among British Muslims, encouraging mistrust to spread and fester.” (BBC, 2015)

Thus, it is clear that the materials, resources, support and training that teachers are receiving on what is certainly a sensitive issue is of critical importance. Yet, in spite of this, teachers have had little to no input into the development of current anti-radicalisation strategies, with very few psychological studies examining their attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of this programme.

1.5 Implementation matters

Of cause for concern is the fact that Prevent training is being carried out in schools and colleges by a large number of different organisations, including local police services, as well as a number of private training companies and unregulated non-governmental organisations, rendering the implementation of the Prevent programme varied and inconsistent in both its content and practice (National Union of Teachers, 2016). Thus, it becomes clear that the study of implementation is important in determining the effectiveness of a given programme, intervention, or piece of training. The study of implementation is, quite simply, “the process by which an intervention is put into practice” (Humphrey, 2013, p86). Focusing on programme or research outcomes may allow insight into ‘what’ is going on within a preventative programme, such as Prevent, but cannot tell us the ‘how’ or the ‘why’. Until recent years a large number of government initiatives, training programmes, and preventative programmes have been delivered without reporting implementation information of any kind. Understanding implementation is critical for a number of reasons, most significantly because implementation variability can influence programme outcomes (Durlak & DuPre, 2008; Joyce, 2016). For example, research by Dusenbury, Brannigan, Falco and Hansen (2003), in an evaluation of drug abuse prevention programmes, found that there was a significant
positive relationship between the quality of implementation on pupils’ drug prevention usage, as well as the way in which teachers perceived the programme effectiveness. Implementation studies attempt to canvas a wide range of information on how programmes or interventions are delivered, including (but not exclusive to):

- **Fidelity**: (e.g. to what degree does the teaching practitioner adhere to the training materials they have been given, or adhere to the programme content?)
- **Dosage**: (e.g. how often were the training sessions delivered? What is the frequency the programme content delivered? Is this in line with the programme developer’s expectations?)
- **Quality**: (e.g. how well was the content of the programme delivered? How well does the practitioner continue to deliver the programme?)
- **Participant responsiveness**: (e.g. how well did the individuals receiving the training respond to it? Did it have cultural validity?)
- **Reach**: (e.g. what proportion of individuals received the training?)

By closely examining the implementation process researchers are better able to explain both the *anticipated* and *unanticipated* ramifications of an intervention. An emphasis on implementation, as specified by Domitrovich (2015) and Durlak (2015) allows us to know exactly what has emerged during an intervention, particularly when we consider that many programmes are often implemented differently to the developer’s intentions (e.g. Ringwalt et al., 2003; Raudenbush, 2008). In the context of the present study, examining teachers’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation strategies will allow for a fuller picture of what is transpiring, as well as aiding the understanding of how numerous characteristics of the intervention interface together (e.g. teachers and their students). Furthermore, addressing implementation information in this way will allow for formative feedback as to how the current strategies can be changed and adapted to better fit the need in context of their schools, or enhance cultural validity.

As has been established, the current anti-radicalisation strategies that are in place are not without criticism, described by some as deeply divisive (Coppock & Mcgovern, 2014). It stands to reason that teacher beliefs, values, perceptions, and attitudes towards this
programme will likely impact on the way in which they act on its advice and the training materials they have received. In the early stages of development, research in this field seems to sustain such postulation. For example, in the alcohol prevention literature, Rorbach et al. (1993) reported that if teachers were involved in the development of interventions (through consultation) this was a strong predictor of implementation quality. Attitudinal associations with high quality implementation were reported by Dusenbury et al., (2003) as well as Rogers (2003), with teaching professionals rejecting interventions that require intensive training by professionals who were not already established as part of their school culture. There is also a burgeoning evidence base in the literature to suggests that teachers deliver programmes and interventions with far higher fidelity when they are satisfied with the level of training they have received (e.g. Domitrovich et al., 2008). It is possible that a collaborative approach between several different parties (e.g. teachers, parents, EPs, health professionals, policy makers) is needed for implementing a strategy aimed at preventing and countering radicalisation.

There is a danger that implementation of the government’s current anti-radicalisation strategies could worsen relationships between teachers and their students, effectively diminishing the arena for unimpeded discourse in a secure, low-risk setting and suffocate the lawful assertion of political freedom and opinion (National Union of Teachers, 2016). It is therefore imperative that research continues to better understand how teachers feel towards the significant role that has been placed upon them and for EPs to better understand how to support them.

In light of the preceding literature review, the research questions of this thesis are as follows:

1. a) What are teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism?
   b) What are teachers’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation strategies (Prevent) in schools?
   c) How might such attitudes affect the implementation of anti-radicalisation programme delivery?

2. How can the role of the Educational Psychologist help support teachers in addressing radicalisation and extremism in schools?
Chapter 2: Method

2.1 Introduction

The intention of the following chapter is to provide an overview of the present study and to detail how the study was conducted in light of the research questions presented. Research is one way that information may be gathered and obtained. How the research is gathered and defined, however, depends on the researcher’s guiding theoretical framework. Traditional conceptualisations of research advocate that decisions pertaining to method are underpinned by philosophical beliefs. Thus, an understanding of epistemology, the theory or study of knowledge, is crucial when considering not only the type of questions that should be asked, but also how a suitable sample is selected, as well as the methods used to precipitate, scrutinise, and explain data. An understanding of epistemology is also essential when the researcher is making decisions regarding the way in which the findings, or results, of the research should be propagated. For a long time, researchers have argued over the way in which ‘truth’, or knowledge, should be understood or deciphered and, therefore, often have divergent viewpoints on how research should be managed and conducted.

The present study, however, aligns to a pragmatic approach, arguing that in applied psychological research methodological decisions should be handled by deliberations made on the functionality of specific methods in responding to research questions, rather than traditional paradigmatic concerns. The next section includes a discussion and rationale for using this approach, as well as an evaluation of possible limitations and how to establish both quality and rigour. The design of the study is explained in detail, including sections on both the quantitative and qualitative elements. Information is also included on the selection of participants, sample attributes and characteristics, tools, and procedures. In the context of sequential mixed-methods research the analytical strategy used for the quantitative strain is reported first, followed by the strategy and approach used to analyse the qualitative data. Finally, ethical issues relating to the involvement of human participants in psychological research will be explored in detail.
2.2 Epistemology and pragmatism

2.2.1 Paradigms and epistemological considerations

The term ‘paradigm’ was originally conceived by Kuhn (1970) to designate the template, or ‘first principles’ for scientific discovery. Fundamentally, paradigms represent a specific worldview that defines, for the individual researcher, the inherent qualities of the ‘world’ or reality. Paradigms are innately philosophical in nature and have a pivotal influence over the practices and procedures required to gather data, with accompanying principles as to how research questions should be put forward, or how data and results are elucidated. The debate surrounding paradigms is vast (for more information see Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Typically, four main paradigms dominate the psychological and educational research terrain: constructivist, post positivism, transformative, and pragmatic (Mertens, 2014).

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) note that paradigms have an acute influence over how research is conducted and, therefore, must be acknowledged accordingly when addressing the choice of methods. With this influence in mind, certain paradigms will accept the use of certain methodologies whilst rejecting others (House and Howe, 1999). In light of the fact that methodology is informed by epistemological considerations, it would be difficult for a researcher to utilise, for example, qualitative methods without first acknowledging the assumptions that are implicit to a constructivist paradigm. In the same vein, it would also be difficult to utilise quantitative methods without acknowledging the suppositions that are intrinsic to a positivist, or post positivist paradigm.

Thus, ardent debate has raged between traditionalists regarding the superiority of their favoured method (e.g. Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). To such an extent that Howe (1988), writes against an ‘incompatibility thesis’, the belief that mixed methods are impossible due to the incompatibility of the paradigms that underpin the methods (Mertens, 2014), and argues that there is no justifiable reason for making progress with, what is commonly coined as, a ‘what works’ approach. Indeed, Buchanan and Bryman (2007) add to this debate, and conclude that:
“The paradigm wars of the 1980s have thus turned to paradigm soup, and organisational research today reflects the paradigm diversity of the social sciences in general. It is not surprising that this epistemological eclecticism has involved the development of novel terminology; innovative research methods; non-traditional forms of evidence; and fresh approaches to conceptualization, analysis, and theory building” (p.486).

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) advocate the development of the ‘third way’, which welcomes the use of a pragmatic framework; indeed, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) argue that pragmatism offers an ideal platform for the use of mixed methods research (MMR). It is arguable that both quantitative and qualitative methodologies offer something that the other cannot and, therefore, both should be considered when deciding on an appropriate method of data analysis. Whilst the debate surrounding the pursuit of pragmatism as a possible paradigm for psychological research is not altogether ‘new’ (e.g. Patton, 2015), its recurrent association with mixed methods research has elevated the use of pragmatism in the field (e.g. Pearce, 2012; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010;). In simple terms, research questions that are posed by pragmatic researchers hold greater sway than the methods that they use, or the world-view that is intended to accompany said methods. Philosophical pragmatism is the perspective adopted by the researcher for use in this study and the section that follows will explicate and justify the grounds for its use.

2.2.2 Pragmatism

The virtue of pragmatism lies in the beauty of its utility; pragmatism allows for a combination of approaches that might be traditionally opposed within, for example, the constructivist or post-positivist camps. Pragmatism is not tied to a sole philosophy or world view. Yet, simply reducing pragmatism to a ‘what works’ approach is, perhaps, somewhat crude and is a perpetual problem that pragmatic researchers feel they need to justify (e.g. Dewey, 2008). Whilst it is true, as Creswell (2003) notes, that pragmatic researchers search for both the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ within a given research problem, the approach has more to offer beyond simplistic interpretation. Clarifying the role of pragmatism as an appropriate philosophy for psychological research requires transcending the belief that the approach is based merely on practicality (Morgan, 2014). In the early stages of its development pragmatic researchers noted that “truth is
whatever assists us to take action that produces the desired results” (Kvale, 1996, p.248). In essence, pragmatism sought to free itself of the notion that the ‘truth’ of the world could only be sought via a single method of enquiry (e.g. Mertens, 2014). As such, pragmatism is often aligned to MMR, although some mixed-methods researchers prefer to alternatively align themselves to the transformative paradigm.

In using a pragmatic approach, researchers are better able to address problems that do not fit easily within either a quantitative or qualitative approach. In accepting a pragmatic framework, the way in which knowledge is acquired is more important than the actual process of doing so (i.e. aligning to methods that underline a particular world view or philosophy). This means that decisions that are made pertaining to design, methodology, and the use of subsequent methods are both practical and contextually responsive. Indeed, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) note that in applied research, decisions around method are often made based on which methods are fit for purpose. Whilst it is not unusual for pragmatic studies to utilise a single method of enquiry, the approach is pluralistic and lends itself well to mixed-methods (Creswell, 2003). The forced polarity between frameworks such as constructivism or post positivism are relinquished, as are the philosophical arguments as to what the ‘reality’ or ‘truth’ may denote in disparate paradigms, in preference of a practical and applied research philosophy. Pragmatism is not without its own criticism, however, in spite of its practical and flexible nature. Johnson and Onwueguzie (2004) in an overview of pragmatic research highlight some of the potential weaknesses (Box 1).
Nevertheless, is possible that some of the criticisms levied at pragmatists could also be considered as strengths – when researchers are attempting to conduct applied research that informs practice, abstract debate is, on the face of it, perhaps not that useful. In relation to the criticism that pragmatism could be seen as being excessively influenced by practical concerns is a matter of making certain that data is transparent, reliable, and addressed with both quality and rigour. The way in which this is addressed in the current study is detailed in the sections that follow.

2.2.3 Pragmatic mixed-methods research

As noted in the previous section, pragmatism provides a viable underlying philosophical framework for mixed methods research. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) advocate that mixed methods have distinctive merit when a researcher is trying to address a problem that exists within either a social or educational context. Due to the fact that mixed methods research draws on both quantitative and qualitative conventions it can be used to answer research questions that would be difficult to address by other means. Indeed, Burnham

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**Box 1: Criticisms of pragmatism**

- Pragmatism, by some, is considered to be a ‘mindless mantra’ (Freshwater, 2007), due to its ambiguous nature. ‘Flexibility’ can be interpreted as ‘vague’ unless explicitly attended by the researcher.
- Pragmatism may be seen as a shortcut past traditional philosophies and ethical disputes. Pragmatism is rejected by some on the grounds that it fails to act as a solution to certain philosophical debates.
- Pragmatic notions regarding ‘truth’ may struggle to address more complex cases (e.g. non-useful but true propositions).
- The change that one might expect to see as a result of using a pragmatic framework is gradual, rather than large-scale.
- An appropriate rationale for whom the research is best suited to is sometimes a criticism aimed at pragmatic researchers.
- The notion of ‘correspondence truth’ (the assertion that ‘true’ beliefs or statements correspond to actual events), is entirely rejected by postmodernists and neo-pragmatists.

 Adapted from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004)
(2013) notes that Educational Psychologists often adopt a pragmatic mixed-methods approach naturally as their ‘characteristic stance’ (p.30) when addressing their cases, due to the intrinsic flexibility of approach in creative problem solving.

Morse (2003) details the advantages of using a mixed methods approach:

“By combining and increasing the number of research strategies used within a particular project, we are able to broaden the dimensions and hence the scope of our project. By using more than one method within a research study, we are able to obtain a more complete picture of human behaviour and experience. Thus, we are better able to hasten our understanding and achieve our research goals more quickly.” (p.189)

As such, it becomes apparent that there are several positive benefits in choosing to analyse data in this manner; several advocates for mixed methods research provide their own examples of how a mixed methods study could be delivered. For example, in a review of mixed methods in social research, Greene and Caracelli (2003) provide a detailed inspection of researchers’ rationale behind using mixed methods. This work has been augmented and extended by Bryman (2006), as illustrated in Table 2 below.

Table 2: A typology of reasons for mixing methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Functionality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Triangulation or greater validity</td>
<td>This refers to the traditional view that quantitative and qualitative research might be combined to triangulate findings in order that they may be mutually corroborated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offset</td>
<td>Refers to the suggestion that the research methods associated with both quantitative and qualitative research have their own strengths and weaknesses so that combining them allows the researcher to offset their weaknesses to draw on the strengths of both.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completeness</td>
<td>Refers to the notion that the researcher can bring together a more comprehensive account of the area of inquiry in which he or she is interested if both quantitative and qualitative research are employed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Refers to when quantitative research provides an account of structures in social life but qualitative research provides sense of process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different research questions</td>
<td>Refers to the argument that quantitative and qualitative research can each answer different research questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>Refers to when one is used to help explain findings generated by the other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unexpected results</td>
<td>Refers to the suggestion that quantitative and qualitative research can be fruitfully combined when one generates surprising results that can be understood by employing the other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument development</td>
<td>Refers to contexts in which qualitative research is employed to develop questionnaire and scale items—for example, so that better wording or more comprehensive closed answers can be generated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sampling

Refers to situations in which one approach is used to facilitate the sampling of respondents or cases.

Credibility

Refers to suggestions that employing both approaches enhances the integrity of findings.

Context

Refers to cases in which the combination is rationalised in terms of qualitative research providing contextual understanding coupled with either generalizable, externally valid findings or broad relationships among variables uncovered through a survey.

Illustration

Refers to the use of qualitative data to illustrate quantitative findings, often referred to as putting “meat on the bones” of “dry” quantitative findings.

Utility of improving the usefulness of findings

Refers to a suggestion, which is more likely to be prominent among articles with an applied focus that combining the two approaches will be more useful to practitioners and others.

Confirm and discover

Refers to using qualitative data to generate hypotheses and using quantitative research to test them within a single project.

Diversity of views

Includes two slightly different rationales—namely, combining researchers’ and participants’ perspectives through quantitative and qualitative research respectively and uncovering relationships between variables through quantitative research while also revealing meanings among research participants through qualitative research.

Enhancement or building upon quantitative and qualitative findings

Entails a reference to making more of or augmenting either quantitative or qualitative findings by gathering data using a qualitative or quantitative research approach.

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From Bryman (2006, p. 105-107)

When properly applied, Feuer, Towne, and Shavelson (2002) note that “quantitative and qualitative research tools can both be employed rigorously and together often can support stronger scientific inferences than when either is employed in isolation” (p.8). This would seem to infer that mixed methods also have the capacity to reduce researcher bias. As is evident from Bryman’s (2006) work, there is strong rationale for marrying methods, where it becomes evident that the weaknesses of one approach may be balanced by the strengths of the other. In order for a study to be regarded as truly mixed methods, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) suggest that a piece of research must:

- Incorporate multiple approaches towards data collection in all aspects of a study, including identification of the problem, data collection, analysis, and evaluation.
- Be ‘transformed’ through the analysis of another approach (e.g. qualitative data analysis, followed by quantitative analysis of the same data).
- Seek to triangulate the data in order to create a common understanding.
However, Greene and Caracelli (2003) note that many researchers do not subscribe, fully, to the guidelines of Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003), accepting that researchers may mix methods at varying points throughout a study and still consider it to be mixed methods research. As such, researchers can choose where they feel that mixed methods are best utilised (e.g. choosing quantitative data to select a sample, followed by a qualitative investigation of respondent data), rather than ‘forcing’ the process. Inevitably, with the level of resources, effort, and researcher skill required, mixed methods research is considered by some to be expensive, overly time consuming and complex (Denzin, 2010). Nonetheless, these criticisms are not unconquerable, nor are they without context. In the view of conducting high quality research, these criticisms are worth attending to. Indeed, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggest that the pragmatic researcher approaches research in the following way:

“Pragmatists decide what they want to study based on what is important within their personal value systems. They then study the topic in a way that is congruent with their value system, including units of analysis and variables that they feel are most likely to yield an interesting response [...] This description of pragmatists’ behaviours is consistent with the way that many researchers actually conduct their studies, especially research that has important social consequences” (p. 90-91).

In the context of the present study, philosophical pragmatism and pragmatic mixed methods were selected as the preferred accompanying foundation to respond to the research questions pertaining to: exploring teachers’ beliefs, values and attitudes towards radicalisation and extremism; perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation and extremism strategies (Prevent); and the role of the Educational Psychologist in addressing radicalisation and extremism in schools. Using mixed methods, in this instance, allows for a richer and more diverse participant sample. Thus, it is the researcher’s decision that mixed methods research in the present study is the most effective way to examine the research questions presented.

2.2.4 Quality matters in mixed methods research

In light of the earlier criticisms levied at pragmatism (see 2.2.1), as detailed by Johnson and Onwuegubuzie (2004), it is of the utmost concern that researchers address pragmatic
mixed methods research in a way that pays close attention to both quality and rigour. Given that mixed methods research does not fit comfortably within the traditional constructivist or post-positivist camps, it makes sense that advocates of mixed methods research seek an integrative ‘third way’ of judging the quality of their work. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggest that there is distinctive spirit to mixed methods that goes beyond a superficial, or oversimplified amalgamation of methods. As such, a number of different frameworks now exist that attempt to address the issue of ensuring quality in mixed methods research (e.g. Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Greene, Benjamin & Goodyear, 2001; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003).

Mertens (2014) succinctly draws together a framework, based on extant research, to ascertain quality in mixed methods (Table 3). Whereas quantitative research is judged by ‘internal validity’ and qualitative research by its ‘trustworthiness’, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggest that the term ‘inference quality’ is most appropriate for MMR. According to Greene (2007) inference quality refers to:

- What kind of data is available to support inferences, using diverse data from different sources;
- The criteria that are utilised in various methodological stances;
- The persuasive argument generated by the data as well as fulfilling established criteria;
- The extent to which understanding of a given topic is furthered by using a mixed methods design.
Table 3: Rigour: Criteria for judging quality in quantitative, qualitative and MMR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantitative</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
<th>Mixed Method Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal Validity</td>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td>Purpose and justification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Validity</td>
<td>Transferability</td>
<td>Matching of purpose to appropriate method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>Dependability</td>
<td>Adherence criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectivity</td>
<td>Confirmability</td>
<td>Addressing of tension between conflicting demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Authenticity</td>
<td>Acknowledgment of limitations associated with data collected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Transformative</td>
<td>Method of integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Evidence of practicality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Mertens (2014, p. 304)

Crucially, when examining the data generated in a mixed methods design it is possible that a confluence of data may or may not exist (Creswell, 2009; Mertens, 2014). For example, the quantitative data may diverge from the qualitative at which point the researcher must attempt to ascertain why this might be (e.g. changes emerging in data over time). Equally, it is possible that both methods might concur with one another and, therefore, validate the conclusions that are drawn. In the present study, issues of quality are attended to in the later sections in this chapter.

In an attempt to bring together the relatively emergent research on quality criteria in mixed methods, Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2012) propose a series of ‘legitimation criteria’ that are aimed at helping researchers to ensure both quality and rigour. Given that mixed methods research is, arguably, still in the developing stages, Collins et al’s (2012) legitimation criteria provides a framework that is both comprehensive and appealing. This framework contains a series of nine items that are designed to be addressed in stages when conducting a mixed methods study. These criteria, drawn from Collins et al. (2012) are as follows:
• **Sample integration**
The extent to which the relationship between the quantitative and qualitative sampling designs yields quality meta-inferences.

• **Inside – outside**
The extent to which the researcher details and utilises the participant’s and observer’s views for purposes such as explanation or description.

• **Weakness minimization:**
The degree to which the weaknesses of one approach are augmented by the strengths of the other.

• **Sequential:**
The extent to which the researcher has minimised the potential problem wherein the meta-inferences could be affected by reversing the sequence of the quantitative and qualitative phases.

• **Conversion:**
The extent to which the quantitising or qualitising yields quality meta-inferences.

• **Paradigmatic mixing:**
The extent to which the researcher’s epistemological, ontological, axiological, methodological, and rhetorical beliefs that underlie the quantitative and qualitative approaches are successfully (a) combined or (b) blended into a usable package.

• **Commensurability:**
The extent to which the meta-inferences made reflect a mixed worldview based on the cognitive process of Gestalt switching and integration.

• **Multiple validities:** The extent to which addressing legitimation of the quantitative and qualitative components of the study result from the use of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed validity types, yielding high quality meta-inferences.
• Political:
The extent to which the consumers of mixed methods research value the meta-
inferences stemming from both the quantitative and qualitative components of a
study.

Despite the relative complexity of the criteria listed above, the level of detail afforded to
each aspect means that it is both an effective and functional means to assess quality in
mixed methods research. As such, the legitimation criteria provided by Collins,
Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2012) as well as the overarching criteria for quality and
rigour (Table 3) are deemed suitable for use in the present study.

2.3 Design

2.3.1 Overall study design

The design of the current study is a ‘pragmatic sequential mixed methods design’
(Mertens, 2014), also known as a ‘sequential explanatory mixed methods design’
(Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In simple terms, both definitions are used to describe a
design where there are two distinct phases: quantitative, followed by qualitative. In this
design, the researcher first collects and analyses the quantitative data. The second stage
involves the researcher collecting qualitative data that helps build, or elaborate on, the
quantitative results gathered in the initial phase (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). The
rationale to this approach is based upon the premise that initial collection of the
quantitative data and its subsequent analysis provides a greater scope and understanding
of the research problem. The qualitative phase and its analysis refines and adds depth to
the initial statistical results by exploring participants’ experience (e.g. their beliefs,
values, or attitudes) in greater depth (Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).
Thus, in the present study the qualitative elements were given the greatest level of
influence (quant → QUAL).

2.3.2 Quantitative approach

Descriptive statistics are thought to be useful when researchers are attempting to describe
the particular characteristics, or attributes, that are unique to a given sample. In the present
study, given that the overall sample size is small, the aim is not to generalise the findings
but rather to provide some elementary summaries about the sample and the measures. Descriptive statistics are used to present quantitative data in an ‘accessible’ form, this is useful when there are several participants in a study and the data needs to be reduced into a simpler summary (Field, 2009). It does not, however, attempt to answer questions about how, when, or why the characteristics occurred. Thus, the data obtained from the teacher questionnaire, at the quantitative stage, shall be analysed and presented using descriptive statistics. This stage of data collection also includes scaled data on teacher’s attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent. The data garnered from this level of data collection shall be subsequently used to purposively sample the participants used in the qualitative phase.

2.3.3 Qualitative approach

A qualitative approach was chosen to explore teachers’ beliefs, values and attitudes towards radicalisation and extremism, as well as their attitudes of and perceptions towards the implementation of Prevent. Semi-structured interviews were utilised in order to precipitate data that could be analysed in a thematic manner. The purpose of the qualitative data is to add ‘flesh’ to the ‘dry bones’ (Bryman, 2006, p.106) of the quantitative findings. In essence, the quantitative data may suggest what teacher attitudes are towards Prevent (e.g. how easy has it been to deliver) but does not explain why. It is possible that data generated in the quantitative phase may not converge with the data elicited in the qualitative. Indeed, Humphrey et al. (2008) note that quantitative findings, or impact, may not always be indicated in the qualitative discussions. A confluence (or divergence) of data may allow for examination of unanticipated elements. This, according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), is one of the benefits of using a mixed methods approach.
2.4 Participants

2.4.1 Initial participant selection

Teachers’ desire to be included in the present study was initially identified through termly planning meetings and by talking to individual head teachers when I visited schools in my usual practice as a Trainee Educational Psychologist in June 2017. My allocation of schools in West Yorkshire comprised of 10 primary schools and 2 high schools spread across the district. The initial recruitment phase consisted of giving schools an information sheet for head teachers (Appendix 1) in which head teachers and senior management teams decided whether it would be acceptable for me to approach teachers in their schools to participate. All head teachers agreed for me to approach their staff. Following this the author attended staff meetings and distributed information sheets for teachers (Appendix 2) which detailed the nature of the study and was accompanied by a questionnaire (Appendix 3) and consent form (Appendix 4) which included an envelope that was marked with an anonymous teacher code. These were collected, for teachers that were willing to participate, over several visits to the schools in question and from the school SENCOs. It is possible that a level of bias existed in the fact that many of the teachers that were willing to participate were teachers in schools that the author already had established a working relationship with for approximately 18 months. It is also possible that bias existed in the fact that teachers who were willing to talk about radicalisation and extremism may have had strong views towards the topic already and, therefore, would be more willing to be involved as a result. Selection of teachers from schools using an entirely random selection procedure would have been very difficult, particularly when working under time constraints.

Between June and November 2017, 38 teachers were recruited to the study. This included two high schools and ten primary schools. A final 10 teachers being selected for interview via a maximum variation sample in order to aid sample diversity. Further sampling details are provided in the next section. The demographic characteristics of the schools are included in Table 4(a), with information drawn from respective Ofsted reports.
Table 4(a): Demographic information of teachers’ schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Number</th>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>On Roll</th>
<th>Ethnic diversity – Ofsted comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1235</td>
<td>Most pupils are of White British heritage. Few pupils speak English as an additional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1185</td>
<td>The proportion of students from minority-ethnic backgrounds is four times the national average, with students of Pakistani heritage comprising 86% of the school roll. The proportion of students who speak English as an additional language is more than six times the national average and these students make up around three quarters of each year group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>A large proportion of pupils are from a White British heritage and a smaller than average number are from minority-ethnic groups; very few speak English as an additional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>The vast majority of pupils are White British. Few pupils speak English as an additional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>Most pupils are of White British heritage. Few pupils speak English as an additional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>The majority of pupils are White British. Few pupils speak English as an additional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>The proportion of pupils from minority ethnic groups is below the national average; a small proportion speaks English as an additional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>The majority of pupils are White British. The proportion of pupils from minority ethnic groups is below the national average and few pupils speak English as an additional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>The large majority if pupils are of White British heritage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>591</td>
<td>The vast majority of pupils are of Asian Pakistani heritage, almost all of whom speak English as an additional language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>The vast majority of pupils are White British.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>Most pupils are White British.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.4.2 Quantitative strand

Data were collected via paper-based surveys between June and November 2017 from KS2 – KS5 teachers across 12 urban and suburban primary and secondary schools. In total 38 teachers completed surveys, which included information on their sociodemographic and professional characteristics as well as their attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent. Teachers in this sample were 71% female and 29% male and they had worked in schools for an average of 13 years. 55.3% of the sample had both an undergraduate and postgraduate (PGCE) degree, with just over 26% of the sample having obtained a masters degree. In terms of experience of Prevent, 15.8% had no experience of implementing it, 31.6% had less than 1 year, and 50% of the sample had between 2-5 years experience. Further information is included in Section 3.2.1. Data from this survey was cross-sectional and was intended to describe teachers’ personal and professional characteristics, as well as canvas their attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent.

2.4.3 Qualitative strand

There were 10 teachers who were selected for the qualitative phase of the study. These participants were selected from the larger sample of 38 teachers by means of a maximum variation sample. This form of purposive sampling allows for the researcher to select a smaller number of participants whilst gaining a wider picture of the phenomenon. According to Palinkas et al. (2015), maximum variation sampling is most commonly used in sequential mixed-method designs and is particularly useful in ensuring representativeness and diversity of individual participants and organisations. Key factors that were considered when purposively sampling participants for maximum variation were as follows:

- Gender
- Number of years teaching
- Level of anti-radicalisation training
- Ethnicity
- Level of qualification
- Attitudes towards prevent - value, importance, ease of delivery, training, comfort
  – *(addressed in section on descriptive statistics)*
- Experience of implementing Prevent
- Additional responsibilities (e.g. SENCo, SLT)

A brief overview of each participant is detailed in Table 4(b).

Table 4(b): Teachers and sampling characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Sampling characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male, 3 years teaching, Little coverage, White, Postgraduate degree (PGCE), Less than 1 year, None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female, 15 years teaching, Some coverage, White, Postgraduate degree (PGCE), 2-5 years, SENCo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Female, 22 years teaching, Some coverage White, Undergraduate degree, 2-5 years, KS Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Male, 23 years teaching, Substantial coverage, White, Postgraduate degree (PGDE), More than 5 years, None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Female, 20 years teaching, Substantial coverage, White, Master’s degree, 2-5 years, SENCo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Male, 15 years teaching, Some coverage, White, Master’s degree, No experience, Acting Head teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Female, 4 years teaching, Some coverage, White, Postgraduate degree (PGCE), Less than 1 year, SENCo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Female, 7 years teaching, Substantial coverage, Black, Undergraduate degree, 2-5 years, SENCo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male, 3 years teaching, Some coverage, Asian, Undergraduate degree, less than 1 year, None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Female, 13 years, Substantial coverage, Asian, Postgraduate degree (PGCE), 2-5 years, Assistant head</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.5 Materials
2.5.1 Quantitative strand

Several different variables were utilised to examine RQ1 (a-c); a more detailed examination of these variables is presented in Table 5, below. Not all of these variables were included in the maximum variation sample (Table 4), but instead are treated as descriptive variables to give a better understanding of the participants used within the study. These variables were collected from the teacher self-report survey which is separated into two parts; the first part relates to participants’ professional and personal characteristics, whilst the second the part relates to teachers’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent.

Table 5: Variables from teacher self-report survey, with description and source

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>The sex of the participant</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years qualified</td>
<td>The length of time a participant has been qualified in the teaching profession</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of anti-radicalisation training</td>
<td>The level of training a participant has received in Prevent</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>The age of the participant</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>The ethnicity of the participant</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of qualification</td>
<td>The qualification level of the participant</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience of implementing Prevent</td>
<td>The length of time a participant has had implementing Prevent</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional Responsibilities</td>
<td>Additional responsibilities of the participant (e.g. Senior Leadership, SENCo)</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived value of Prevent</td>
<td>Participant’s perception of the value of Prevent in their school</td>
<td>Part 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of training</td>
<td>Participant’s attitude towards the importance of anti-radicalisation training</td>
<td>Part 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of delivery</td>
<td>Participant’s perception of how easy it is to put Prevent into practice</td>
<td>Part 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient training</td>
<td>Participant’s attitudes towards the amount of training they have received</td>
<td>Part 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfort</td>
<td>Participant’s confidence towards delivering Prevent in their school/classroom</td>
<td>Part 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.5.2 Qualitative strand

There were 10 participants who were chosen as ‘focus’ teachers in the present study and agreed to participate. Data were obtained by way of a series of semi-structured interviews including participants across primary and secondary schools in Yorkshire.

**Interview design**

Semi-structured interviews allow for the discovery of insights into an issue from the perspective of a participant, whilst providing clear guidelines for interviewers (Bernard, 2000). Semi-structured interviews are used to gather focused, qualitative data and are thought to be particularly effective when there is only one opportunity to interview a participant, and when there are a number of participants to interview (Zorn, 2010). Semi-structured interviews offer parity between the focus of an ethnographic survey and the versatility of an open-ended interview. Open ended questions are often used to allow participants to speak at length regarding particular points that might be pertinent to them (Robson, 2002).

Using a semi-structured interview schedule in the present study allowed for questions to be prepared ahead of time, based on some of the extant literature into Prevent and the implementation of programmes in schools. Whilst semi-structured interviews generally generate more data than a structured interview, the degree of flexibility inherent to the approach allowed the participants to express their views without constraint.
Interview components

An interview schedule (Appendix 5) was developed based on the research questions and around some of the key aspects of implementation (e.g. Durlak and DuPre, 2008) and an established implementation pro-forma (Humphrey et al., 2015). Open-ended questions were used to allow participants to detail descriptively their general awareness of radicalisation and extremism, progressing to evaluative questions (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009) relating to the implementation of Prevent. Reference was made during the interviews to the responses made by participants in their quantitative survey (Appendix 3), in order to triangulate data between the two phases. The interview schedule went through a drafting process, by means of a pilot interview and supervision with an EP colleague. The interview schedule (20-40 mins) broadly aimed to elicit responses from participants regarding their general awareness of radicalisation and extremism, the fidelity of Prevent (e.g. how often did they refer to their training), their attitudes towards Prevent (e.g. perceptions of impact), dosage and adaptations made to the programme, the quality of the training received, how their pupils reacted to the discussions around Prevent, as well as any other factors that might affect the implementation of Prevent in schools.

2.6 Procedure

2.6.1 Quantitative strand

Inclusion in the project was on an 'opt-in' basis; Teacher attitude surveys were distributed, along with an information sheet on the project, in June 2017 through the SENCo network who attend bi-termly additional needs partnership meetings. Through this medium teachers decided whether they wished to take part in the research. Teachers that were interested in taking part received further notifications via email. Interest in the project was subsequently gauged through planning meetings with Head teachers and SENCos in schools where the researcher, as a trainee Educational Psychologist, practiced. Consent forms and information were then provided.

If teachers wished to become involved in the project they filled in one of the consent forms and returned it to the researcher. Consent forms were returned to the researcher in person at scheduled 'drop ins' when visiting individual schools for routine school visits.
Participants were able to ask additional information about the study in person or refer to the study information sheet that was provided with the survey. Consent for taking part in the study was for both the survey and a possible interview. Survey/questionnaire filling in took place in teachers’ own time.

All the data provided was deemed anonymous and handled confidentially. Identifiers (e.g. teacher names) was only utilised in order to match responses between different forms of data (e.g. the teacher survey and interview). After this matching process was complete, all identifying information was destroyed. For interview data, names were changed at transcription and the audio-recordings were then destroyed after the project was completed. Surveys were returned to the researcher in person in a blank envelope. This gave participants the opportunity to return these forms in person without the fear of their personal data getting lost or stolen.

2.6.2 Qualitative strand

Semi-structured interviews were administered with teachers in the author’s schools, allowing factors investigated in the quantitative phase to form the basis of the sample through maximum variation. Instead of seeking representativeness through equal probabilities, maximum variation sampling seeks it by including a wide range of extremes (List, 2004), thus incorporating as rich a sample as possible into the study (e.g. a spread of teaching experience, gender, ethnicities, scaled attitudes). Whilst the questions were the same for all teachers, there were opportunities to expand upon responses and probe more deeply when it was appropriate during the interviews, for example: “How easy has it been for you to implement strategies from Prevent? Is there anything about your school that has made it easier / harder?” For part 2 of the survey, the variation in the sample was obtained by selecting extremes from within the different scales, including extreme responders (e.g. 1,2 or 9,10) as well as responses chosen from the midpoints (e.g. 4,5,6). All interview data in the study were recorded in person, transcribed and anonymised prior to analysis. The data was then analysed using NVivo 12.
2.7 Analytical strategy

2.7.1 Quantitative strand

Descriptive statistics were chosen as the optimal analytical technique for datasets where the focus is on describing the basic features of the data in a study. Reliability issues are important to address in quantitative data. However, given the relatively small sample size, and the inclusion of only descriptive statistics in the present study, issues of reliability (e.g. stability, internal consistency) are less relevant. The aim of the descriptive statistics in this study is not to generalise, but rather to provide some simple summaries (Field, 2009) about the sample and the measures. Descriptive statistics were provided using SPSS version 22.

2.7.2 Qualitative strand

It was determined that thematic analysis was the most appropriate qualitative method to address the interview data in the present study, due to the versatility it allows within the researcher’s appointed theoretical framework. Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that thematic analysis offers “an accessible and theoretically flexible approach to analysing qualitative data” (p.77) which is often used, but rarely acknowledged for its utility in psychological research. There is a degree of contention between researchers regarding whether thematic analysis should be considered a phenomenological method (e.g. Joffe, 2011) or an analytic method (Clarke & Braun, 2013), rather than an actual methodology. Nonetheless, its suitability and functionality are explored in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Outline of Thematic Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th>Thematic Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advantages</td>
<td>• Thought of as being ‘highly flexible’, with the ability to be modified depending on the study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Provides a rich and detailed account of the data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Accessible to non-researchers with regards to ease of understanding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Given that the present study adopts a pragmatic perspective, the inherent flexibility of thematic analysis was appealing over the rigidity required by some other perspectives. Indeed, Aronson (1994) notes that thematic analysis is an optimal counterpart for a pragmatic research perspective given that it is considered a theoretically flexible method (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is deemed suitable to be used with a wide range of research interests and with those coming from disparate theoretical perspectives. It is able to work within a wide range of research questions (e.g. individual experiences, construction of a phenomena), analyse a broad range of data (e.g. interviews, media scripts, focus groups), and works with either large or small data sets (Clarke & Braun, 2013).

Key criticisms of thematic analysis are concentrated around a paucity of practical frameworks in order to execute it effectively (e.g. Joffe & Yardley, 2004). In an attempt
to address this criticism Clarke and Braun (2013) provide a surprisingly comprehensive and appealing framework to help develop the ‘trustworthiness’ in thematic analysis. Separated into six separate stages, followed by a 15-point checklist (Appendix 6) this is the framework appropriated for use within the present study. Given the exploratory design of the present study, the interview questions were guided to an extent by a-priori codes drawn from the extant literature. However, emergent themes may occur given that thematic analysis can also be used inductively. The six stages that were followed were:

- **Familiarisation with the data:** Transcription of the interviews took place and were then re-read to become conversant with the content of the interviews. This included listening to the interviews again. Notes were written long hand, before uploading the transcripts into NVivo 12.

- **Coding:** This stage involved the re-reading of the interview data and the initial development of codes. These foundational codes were entered as ‘tree nodes’ into NVivo.

- **Searching for themes:** This stage involves searching the large expanse of codes and determining whether there are links between them. Clarke and Braun (2013) note that “a theme is a coherent and meaningful pattern in the data” (p.4) that is pertinent to the research questions being asked. Codes were initially grouped into broad topic headings and categories (e.g. Training); a ‘sock bag’ was created for themes which may not have easily fitted within participant themes.

- **Reviewing themes:** A checking process of the emergent themes was undertaken to see whether they were appropriate in the larger context of the coded extracts and the wider dataset. This was aided by the drawing of diagrams to review the relationships that seemed to exist between themes. Certain themes were collapsed or absorbed into a separate theme. Care was taken to ensure that the themes did not overlap too much with each other.

- **Defining and naming themes:** This stage involved looking at the themes and the subthemes and determining whether each theme tells its own ‘story’. A naming process for the themes then occurred, with a record made of how each individual theme relates to the larger narrative.
• Writing up: The overall findings were then composed for the results section, including verbatim quotations to exemplify their subsequent analysis and to ensure that the detailing of the data is contextualised within the existing literature.

2.8 Ethical considerations

The University of Sheffield ethics committee (Ref: 013701) approved the data collection for this study (see Appendix 7 for letter of approval). Ethical considerations including respect for the privacy of others, informed consent, minimising potential harm, ensuring competence, social responsibility, integrity, and storage of data were all addressed before the study commenced. The researcher referred to the guidelines laid out by the British Psychological Society, paying particular attention to the Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009), the Code of Human Research Ethics (2014), as well as the HCPC Standards of conduct, performance, and ethics (2016).

Participants were provided with an information sheet which gave an overview on the study (Appendix 2), as well as a participant consent form (Appendix 4), which requested consent for both parts of the study – the survey and the interview. Whilst the research was thought by the researcher to be relatively non-invasive, the content and line of questioning was sensitively approached and handled with a great deal of caution. Where possible the research attempted to avoid closed options in the questionnaire (e.g. gender) and instead referred to how the individual in question 'identified' their own gender. The survey also offered the opportunity for participants to 'prefer not to say' in order to help avoid discomfort.

Participants were also made explicitly aware that they had the right to stop the interview at any time and without explanation. This also included participants being able to withdraw from the study without question. Assurances were given that there were no right or wrong answers and that their personal views are respected. There were also assurances of confidentiality and anonymity. Participants were informed of how the data collected in the study will be used for the author's doctoral thesis and that there may be potential for the results of the study to be published. The interviews took place in a private interview setting (e.g. an empty school classroom or office), where only the researcher was present. Furthermore, the research took place during the school day at a time that was
deemed suitable by the participant teacher. The researcher attempted to establish an open, authentic rapport and, as such, there were no leading questions. The researcher was also mindful of maintaining a degree of impartiality with the participants, so as not to influence the outcomes of the research.
2.9 Summary statements

This summary imparts a brief synopsis of the central elements covered within this chapter.

- **Epistemology and pragmatism:** a rationale and justification for the use of philosophical pragmatism and mixed methods research was covered in depth.

- **Quality matters in mixed methods research:** an overview on the complex issue of how to address quality criteria in MMR was addressed, proposing frameworks from the literature that might be used to achieve it.

- **Design:** the design of the current study is a ‘sequential explanatory mixed methods design’ with a quan(QUAL) emphasis. This refers to a study were data is collected in sequence, with the smaller quantitative phase informing the larger, subsequent, qualitative phase.

- **Participants:** an overview of the participants included in the present study were presented, with particular detail paid to participant recruitment, selection, sampling characteristics, purposive sampling details, and how participants were selected in both quantitative and qualitative phases of the research project.

- **Materials:** a brief overview of the participant survey were given, including details on the variables that were identified in both parts of the survey (part 1 and 2).

- **Procedure:** details on the procedure used in both the quantitative and qualitative sections were included in this section.

- **Analytical strategy:** a detailed overview of the analytical strategy used in the quantitative strand (descriptive statistics) and qualitative strand (thematic analysis) were given, with a rationale for their inclusion in the present study.

- **Ethical considerations:** a brief overview of the ethical considerations made for the present study, paying attention to the guidelines provided by both the BPS and HCPC, were included.
Chapter 3: Quantitative Results

3.1 Introduction

In the next two chapters the results from the quantitative and qualitative analyses are presented. For clarity these chapters are organised into several sections and in sequence. In the first instance, the quantitative results are presented, in keeping with the first phase of a sequential explanatory mixed methods design, where the data is used to select the sample of the qualitative phase. Descriptive statistics from the quantitative phase are presented first, detailing the personal and professional characteristics of the participants in part 1 of the survey, with teachers’ attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent detailed in part 2. This is followed by the next chapter which details the 10 participant interviews using Thematic Analysis. Both chapters conclude by providing summaries of the findings of the quantitative and qualitative analysis before moving on to the discussion chapter.

The research questions for the present study are as follows:

1. a) What are teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism?
   b) What are teachers’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation strategies (Prevent) in schools?
   c) How might such attitudes affect the implementation of anti-radicalisation programme delivery?

2. How can the role of the Educational Psychologist help support teachers in addressing radicalisation and extremism in schools?
3.2 Quantitative results

The quantitative data was intended to help inform the choice of participants selected in the qualitative phase. However, the quantitative data was also able to partially address the following aspects of the research:

1. a) What are teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism?
   b) What are teachers’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation strategies (Prevent) in schools?

3.2.1 Descriptive statistics: part 1

Responses from 38 participants were included in the descriptive statistics data for the quantitative phase of this study. This section provides an analysis of both parts of the teacher survey, including their personal and professional characteristics as well as their attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent in their schools. Variables which were included in the maximum variation sample are reported below.

Gender

Table 7: Gender distribution of participants in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data presented in Table 7 demonstrates that there were 11 males and 27 females who completed the teacher survey. It is important to note that whilst there were a greater number of females included in the study data, this is perhaps not unrepresentative of the wider teaching population as a whole in the UK. This point is explored further in the discussion chapter.
**Number of years teaching**

Table 8: Number of years qualified as a teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years qualified</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 + years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data presented in Table 8 indicates the spread in the length of time that participant teachers in the study had been qualified for. 23.7% of the sample had been qualified between 1-5 years, 7.8% between 6-10 years, 31.7% had been qualified between 11-15 years, 23.6% for 16-20 years, and 13.2% being qualified for 21 years and over. The longest teachers in the sample had been qualified for was 23 years (3 participants), with the newest teachers being qualified for 1 year (2 participants).

**Ethnicity**

Table 9: Ethnicity of participants in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data presented in Table 9 indicates the ethnicity spread in the study. The predominant ethnicity of the study was White at 86.8%, followed by Black at 7.9%, and Asian at 5.3%. Whilst it would have been desirable to have a more proportional ethnic spread in the present study, it is hoped that this limitation has been lessened somewhat by the use of purposive sampling.
**Level of qualification**

Table 10: Qualification level of participants in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of qualification</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate certificate</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The qualification level of participants in the study was quite varied and is presented in Table 10. 18.4% of participants had obtained an undergraduate degree (e.g. BEd), 55.3% had obtained a postgraduate certificate (e.g. PGCE, PGDE), 26.3% had obtained a Master’s degree (26.3%), with no participants having obtained a doctorate.

**Experience of implementing Prevent**

Table 11: Teachers’ experience of implementing Prevent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience level</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The level of experience that teachers had implementing the Prevent programme in schools varied greatly between participants. 15.8% had no experience, 31.6% had less than 1 year of experience, 50% had between 2-5 years of experience, with 2.6% having more than 5 years of experience. ‘Implementing’ in this context relates to the time passed since teachers had received training in Prevent.
Responsibility of teaching staff

Table 12: Teachers’ additional responsibilities in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Additional responsibility</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head Teacher</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy/Assistant Head</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SENCo</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KS Coordinator</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No additional role</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers’ additional responsibilities in school were widely distributed. 10.5% of the sample had Head Teacher responsibility, 21.1% were Deputy or Assistant Heads, 26.3% had SENCo responsibility, 15.8% were Key Stage coordinators, whilst 26.3% had no additional role to their teaching responsibilities.

3.2.2 Descriptive statistics: part 2

The following series of histograms represent participant teacher attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent in schools, from the 2nd part of the teacher survey. Teachers’ attitudes were recorded on a scale of 1 to 10 (where 1 = lowest and 10 = highest) across five different domains: perceived value of Prevent in their school, importance for teachers to receive training in anti-radicalisation, ease of programme delivery, sufficient level of training, and how comfortable (relating to their self-efficacy) were teachers in delivering the programme. Descriptive statistics for the five domains in part 2 of the teacher survey are presented in Table 13 below. From a pragmatic perspective the mean scores are recorded, as the median score can often be a poor summary of the information in the data (e.g. Pallant, 2013). However, for comprehensiveness, the median, mean, and mode scores are included in table below. In the following histograms the ‘x’ axis represents the scaled rating, with the ‘y’ axis representing the number (frequency) of participants who selected a particular value.
Table 13: Descriptive statistics for part 2 of teacher survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived value of Prevent</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of training</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.61</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of delivery</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient training</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfort (self-efficacy)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perceived value of Prevent

Figure 2: Perceived value of Prevent in school

![Perceived value of Prevent in school](image)

The perceived value of Prevent in teachers’ schools was quite varied and ranged between 3 and 10 (1 = not valuable at all, 10 = extremely valuable), with a mean score of 6.18 (mode = 4) and a Std. Dev of 2.28. It is apparent that the scaled responses for the perceived
value of Prevent are bi-modal. One possible reason for this range may be due to the
difference of setting (e.g. between primary school and secondary school); need for the
Prevent programme may have been deemed more valuable in settings where the young
people were older and, therefore, potentially at greater risk of radicalisation. This point
shall be discussed further in the discussion chapter.

**Importance of training**

**Figure 3:** Importance of anti-radicalisation training

Teachers’ beliefs on the importance of anti-radicalisation training were generally thought
to be very important, ranging between 4 and 10 (1= not important at all, 10 = extremely
important), with a mean score of 8.61 (mode = 10) and a Std. Dev of 1.48. This suggests
that the large majority of teachers in the study believed that anti-radicalisation training
for teachers was very important, with over half of the sample rating the importance of
anti-radicalisation training for teachers at a 9 or 10. This would also seem to suggest that
respondents have discriminated between the ‘value’ and ‘importance’ of Prevent.
Teachers’ views on how easy it had been to deliver the Prevent programme in their schools suggested that participants had not found it that easy to deliver, with scores ranging between 1 and 8 (1 = Not easy to implement at all, 10 = very easy to implement), with a mean score of 3.58 (mode = 3) and a Std. Dev of 1.41. Ease of delivery has, ostensibly, implications for the fidelity, dosage, and quality of programme implementation.
As indicated in Figure 5 above, a large proportion of teachers in the study (78.9%) reported that they had received an insufficient to average level of training in Prevent. Scores ranged between 1 and 9 (1 = not enough training at all, 10 = training more than sufficient), with a mean score of 4.29 (mode = 5) and a Std. Dev of 2.08. As with the other explored domains in the teacher survey, these points were used as areas for further discussion in the qualitative phase. Nevertheless, it is apparent that a disparity appears to exist between the level of importance that teachers placed on receiving training in anti-radicalisation and the reality of how much training they had received and whether it was subsequently easy to implement in their schools.
Comfort in putting Prevent into practice

**Figure 6:** Level of teacher comfort in implementing Prevent

The final domain, explored in Figure 6 relates to how comfortable teachers felt in putting Prevent into practice. Scores in this area were more widely distributed, tending to centre around the midpoint with a range of 1 to 8 (1= not comfortable at all, 10 = extremely comfortable), a mean score of 4.45 (mode = 5) and a Std. Dev of 1.96. Further examination of these points is explored in the discussion chapter of this study.

### 3.2.2 Conclusion

Overall, teachers participating in the study from schools across Yorkshire generally felt that anti-radicalisation training was deemed to be highly important, with the Prevent programme regarded to be of average value in their schools. However, an important disparity appears to exist; whilst teachers felt that anti-radicalisation training was deemed to be highly important, a large proportion of participants expressed the view that Prevent has not been easy to deliver in their schools, that they have not received sufficient training and that they did not feel particularly comfortable about putting it into practice. As is
consistent with some of the extant implementation literature (e.g. Domitrovich, 2015; Durlak, 2015) attitudes towards training, the level of training or coaching received, ease of delivery, and implementer comfort are all important factors in the successful delivery of a given programme or intervention. The qualitative results in the next section will explore these points further before reflecting on the results as a whole in the discussion chapter.
3.3 Summary statements

This summary provides an overview of the quantitative results detailed within this chapter from the first phase of the sequential mixed methods design:

- A total of 38 teachers data were included in the quantitative phase of the study. Descriptive statistics were presented to demonstrate diversity in terms of participants’ gender, number of years teaching, ethnicity, level of qualification, experience of implementing Prevent, and additional responsibility of teaching staff.

- The perceived value of Prevent in teachers’ schools was varied with a mean score of 6.18 and a Std. Dev of 2.28. This suggested that within the sample teachers generally felt that the Prevent programme had ‘bi-modal’ value within their schools.

- Teachers’ beliefs on the importance of anti-radicalisation training were generally thought to be very important with a mean score of 8.61 and a Std. Dev of 1.48. Over half of the sample rating the importance of anti-radicalisation training for teachers at a 9 or 10.

- Participants found that Prevent was not that easy to deliver, with scores ranging with a mean score of 3.58 and a Std. Dev of 1.41. It was noted that this may have implications for the overall quality of programme implementation.

- A large proportion of teachers in the study reported that they felt they had received an insufficient to average level of training in Prevent with a mean score of 4.29 and a Std. Dev of 2.08. A disparity therefore exists between the ‘level of importance’ that teachers placed on receiving training in anti-radicalisation, and the reality of how much training they had received and whether it was subsequently easy to implement in their schools.

- Teacher comfort in putting Prevent into practice varied somewhat between practitioners, tending to centre around the midpoint with a mean score of 4.45 and a Std. Dev of 1.96.
Chapter 4: Qualitative Results

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the qualitative results are presented and explored. The qualitative data is intended to address both research questions in the second phase of the sequential research design:

1. a) What are teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism?
   b) What are teachers’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation strategies (Prevent) in schools?
   c) How might such attitudes affect the implementation of anti-radicalisation programme delivery?

2. How can the role of the Educational Psychologist help support teachers in addressing radicalisation and extremism in schools?

As detailed in Method section 2.7.2, the chosen analytical method for the qualitative phase of the study was thematic analysis. Interviews with 10 teachers were analysed for use in this study, chosen via a maximum variation sample. Participant teachers were chosen based on a range of individual characteristics that were obtained during the first phase of the research design (Table 4) in order to enhance the diversity of the participants. This potentially allows for a broader perspective within the confines of a smaller sample. An overview of the participants included in the qualitative strand is included in section 2.4.3. In an attempt to aid clarity, verbatim extracts from the participants are presented in italics.

Interviews were analysed using the six-stage process, and the 15-point checklist detailed by Clarke and Braun (2013). A thematic map of the six main themes is detailed in Figure 7, with a full thematic sub-map provided in Figure 8. Each of the six main themes are presented in subsections, exploring teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism, as well as their perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent. The role of the EP is also addressed.
Figure 7: Thematic map with primary themes
Figure 8: Full Thematic map
4.2 Knowledge and understanding

This initial theme relates to the knowledge and understanding that teachers had in relation to radicalisation and extremism, the warning signs of radicalised behaviour in children and young people, as well as their legal duty under the Prevent legislation. The profile of Prevent in their schools was also covered. There were four main subthemes, which for the sake of clarity are not presented in separate subsections, but rather are addressed to in sequence throughout the body of the text. The four subthemes were as follows:

- Reasons for anti-radicalisation training
- Definitions and understanding
- Warning signs and duty
- Awareness of Prevent profile in school

What was immediately apparent was that teachers’ understanding of why anti-radicalisation training had taken place in their schools was somewhat varied:

*There has been a considerable amount of material that has been touched on in whenever we have our safeguarding training days which are a yearly occurrence. On top of that, the school every year have four twilight sessions within the year, and in my experience the three years that I’ve spent in that school one of those has one of those twilight sessions has always been had a focus on anti-radicalisation in some capacity...* (Participant 1).

This identifies the issue that in some settings anti-radicalisation training appears to have been ‘grouped’ together with the school’s regular safeguarding training, potentially causing the issue of radicalisation to blend with other priorities within the school. Conversely, some teachers held the belief that the reason training was taking place in their school was down to the ‘need’ of their particular setting:

*...I think it’s an LEA wide thing isn't it? That all schools were doing it. I'd actually moved into (*** from another area, so I've actually done the Prevent training twice [...] those experiences were quite different of how it was delivered and I*
think it was just it because this area does have a large percentage of ethnic minorities and it is something that we need to be aware of in schools really (Participant 3).

In a similar vein, teachers’ beliefs around how radicalisation and extremism are defined were particularly varied “I think it’s anything that sits at the extreme edges of what's deemed to be appropriate in society - so you're allowed to hold certain views but if they get into the realms of being at the far ends of those, far right or far left, then they're not deemed to be appropriate by government” (Participant 2). This was in stark contrast to the view of another teacher who noted “I guess along the lines of being groomed to develop ideals about, well becoming radical about a certain topic using religion as a as a smoke screen, almost to hide the fact that it’s terrorism, basically, and using terrorism in order to give across political ideas, that sort of thing” (Participant 10). This would seem to suggest that, despite the fact that teachers have received training from Prevent, their own beliefs around radicalisation and extremism are most prominent; this includes the notion that the Prevent strategy may relate directly to religious or political terrorism.

It was also evident that there was some confusion around the terminology of radicalisation and extremism, and that it was difficult to tease the terms apart:

I'm not sure if I could, can I distinguish between the two? So radicalisation is I would say is the process by which often young peoples’ views are changed from the mainstream, from what generally people in the UK would accept as being, you know, pro-democratic ‘pro-British’ pro-kind of the way our own way of life our particular way of life and changed to one which would certainly challenge that in a violent way so, for example, suicide bomb whatever it is and extremism it’s very easy to say all it is Islamist extremism, but then of course we had the murder of Jo Cox as well so kind of the extremes ... (Participant 4).

Interestingly, this also highlights the notion that radicalisation and extremism are related to issues that are deemed to be ‘Un-British’, against ‘British Values’, or specific to Islam. Teachers from areas with relatively low proportions of ethnic diversity also noted “there's certainly a viewpoint in this part of (*** that Islamic extremism is not part of this
community and it’s someone else’s problem, perhaps it’s judged by parents to be a fault of Islam itself, so we’re a very white community in that respect” (Participant 6).

In keeping with the complexities of how radicalisation is conceptualised and defined was that a number of teachers also reported difficulties in how they were supposed to interpret children’s views, behaviours, or appearance as ‘warning signs’ of radicalisation:

...Any child talking about things that are obviously more ‘adult spouted’ views to a certain extent, it’s difficult to make that distinction between what's cultural and what's, you know, inappropriately extreme discussion I think, you know, any child talking about glorifying anything that we wouldn't think was appropriate, terrorism or, you know, making comments that would put a certain religion or political belief above others in the same way that, you know, you’d deal with misogyny... (Participant 2)

This was also mirrored by other teachers who struggled to tease apart the warning signs of radicalisation with the same behaviours that one might expect to see with social and emotional behavioural difficulties: “Aggression, as I remember, poor self-esteem, quiet, threatening, bullying behaviour towards other children, yeah, quick to temper, I think at primary age, you know, four to eleven, they're the kind of things that we would be looking for” (Participant 6), as well as “… a change in behaviour, quite despondent, you look at kids that we generally have flags over - kids that potentially have got vulnerable backgrounds, that don’t have a father figure, sometimes or like they're craving that kind of nurture that they don’t get at home, they're easy targets” (Participant 8). This would seem to infer a lack of confidence, or unease, by some of the teaching professionals in understanding what the Prevent Duty expects of them and highlights the notion of focussing solely on the child as the ‘cause’ of the problem.

Not all teachers struggled with this notion, however, instead preferring to think of their Prevent duty as just another form of safeguarding that required escalating to another professional “You have obviously got to keep everything as confidential as possible and pass it onto the designated kind of safeguarding officer as quickly as possible […] We've got a fifteen minute turnaround of flagging something that we’re concerned about…” (Participant 8) and, comparably: “I’d raise it with the DSP of safeguarding, so it would go down that route but we do have a Prevent form which then can refer the child into
“Channel and the other prevent things within the authority” (Participant 2). In this respect, teachers evidenced that they found it easier to ‘pass it on’ to another professional than to have to think about the implications of doing so (e.g. referring to the Channel process).

The profile of Prevent in schools, and teachers’ awareness of this seemed to predominantly centre around the context of the setting, for example:

> Low, vigilant, it’s a primary school, you know, we’re not a college and we’re not a high school [...] So, for us it’s in terms of its priority and its prevalence it’s making sure that the staff are aware and the staff know what it is, or if not completely understanding what it is then certainly knowing to look for those signs of children that might be indicators of either their radicalisation or any other safeguarding issues [...] it’s about watching the children, but you certainly won’t walk round this primary school and find posters or, you know, phone numbers for help lines or people to contact. You’ll see the stuff perhaps in staff rooms but not in the wider school (Participant 6).

The above quotation demonstrates that the awareness of Prevent, or the issue of radicalisation and extremism in schools, may be contextually dependent on the age of the children and young people deemed ‘at risk’. There is, perhaps, the perception that younger people are not at the same risk of radicalisation than their older peers. Although, one teacher did note that they had implemented a ‘lock down’ policy, in light of their training in case of an armed person entering their school:

> P: Everyone’s done the training, everyone’s aware of it, we have all our policies in place, we have our lockdown policy which we talk about quite often. The Head thinks it’s important, we’ve brought that up quite a lot in staff meetings. We don’t want to do, I know some schools have done the same thing...

> I: Is your lockdown policy to do with if you had a gunman in the school?

> P: Yes, yes, it is (Participant 7).
Overall, teachers’ knowledge and understanding of Prevent was heavily varied, in spite of the training that they had received. There was a sense of struggle from the participants interviewed with recognising ‘the signs’ of radicalisation not being so simplistic, with some preferring to escalate the issue to other professionals. The profile of Prevent in schools seemed to vary based on the need in context, particularly towards the school setting (i.e. primary or secondary). However, it was evident that the issue of radicalisation and extremism was not localised to secondary schools; the influence of the Prevent training in some settings had led primary schools to implement policies that were designed to combat terrorism (e.g. protection against school shootings).

4.3 Dosage

The amount of time that teachers have to spend implementing a given programme or intervention is thought to be an important correlate in the literature (e.g. Century, Rudnick, & Freeman, 2010) as to how well it is received, or how ‘successful’ it is deemed to be. It was anticipated that teachers’ experiences with Prevent would be related to the amount of training they had received as well as how much weight it was given in school as a priority. There are three sub-themes in this section:

- Experience implementing Prevent
- Allocated time in the curriculum
- Opportunity to generalise

As expected, teachers had varied levels of experience implementing Prevent in their schools, when also taking into account how long they had been teaching for “I would say from what I see Prevent as, I was effectively implementing it from day one of starting the job” (Participant 1). In some schools it appeared that teachers were expected to familiarise themselves with the Prevent training they received as part of their annual safeguarding “I'm fairly sure there's a small part in the safeguarding policy that references it and we do read the safeguarding policy annually and have to sign to say we've done it” (Participant 2). This would seem to suggest that teachers in some settings were expected to re-familiarise themselves with the materials without any specific ongoing coaching or guidance from the local Prevent team.
There was also some evidence that teachers seemed somewhat vague regarding the training they received and how long they had actually been implementing it for: “I can’t remember. I think just over a year, I think we did the training I think just over a year ago” (Participant 7), as well as “We haven't had the ‘in school’ training our training was online, so it was online at home and it wasn't brilliant, it wasn't clear, and it was you just you - read and listened and watched some videos and it lasted about half an hour” (Participant 8). Thus, it is apparent that teachers’ experience of implementing Prevent was also associated with the initial training that they had received, and whether this had been online or in person. There is some evidence to suggest, in Section 4.4, that teachers preferred the ‘in-person’ training to what they received online.

There was a clear indication that teachers were not allocated a lot of time to be able to address the topic of radicalisation and extremism within their curriculum time, instead having to make time for it based on how important they felt it to be:

*I just make time. I mean in year six there's no time for anything other than maths and grammar (laughs) but no, you just make time, you need to make time, you know, we all do. We all do ‘reflection time’, reflection's a perfect time. We all do RE which I think’s important, I think that links really, really well [...] we went on to learn about the Islam religion and we talked about how good the religion is and what they want, they're always giving things* (Participant 7).

This would seem to indicate that staff were having to adapt the Prevent training that they had received in order to make it fit within the curriculum that already exists. This point was reiterated by another teacher who noted: “*Not in terms of Prevent as something that you would look at, say, the PSHE curriculum that says, you know, this is a ‘Prevent related’ input. Our PSHE curriculum is about valuing difference and exposing our children to a wider perspective so some of it’s more incidental discussion or learning, so it’s if it comes up in a conversation then you challenge a child*” (Participant 2). There was no clear sense of how the Prevent programme was being implemented, with some teachers noting it was included in PHSE, RE, or other forms of social and emotional learning. Some teachers evidenced that their schools were attempting to allocate time for talk around radicalisation and extremism to a weekly occurrence:
...We have added a lesson into our timetable which we've been told it needs to be in every week and it’s ‘philosophy for children’; we had training on it and we had two days’ worth of training on it, so it was a big project in the school and it’s generally to kind of help the children think more independently and be more in control of their own ideas but also expose them to a wealth of different kind of viewpoints from culture in society, and I would say that a lot of the time that links into this concept of ‘radicalisation’ without even talking or using those words to the children so it might be a, you go by stimulus, so it might be the stimulus was a picture of a tank and then you talk about war and then inevitably the conversation spirals into what is war and I think all of that is intertwined with this idea of radicalisation (Participant 1).

Thus, it is apparent that the concept of allocated time for implementing the Prevent strategy was more dependent on whether individual teachers and schools decided that it was important enough to generalise throughout the school weeks and days. Teachers reported difficulties with how exactly they might generalise Prevent within their own practice, particularly with the time constraints of the job:

I: How often do you refer to the training that you've received?

P: I guess it depends so if there is a concern around a Prevent issue then I would refer back to, not necessarily what I'd been trained on, but refer back to the processes the due processes that we have to do as a school. So yeah, not very often really, there's not much time (Participant 10).

Teachers with a desire to address the issue of radicalisation and extremism noted that in order to generalise what they had learnt to their students they were having to design their own resources, for example:

We as a history department were trying to maybe contribute to, you know, the issues raised by Prevent so trying to look at, you know, issues of terrorism, why it happens, the history of it [...] because, you know, my own theory about the lad who I taught ended up going to Syria for Isis, I suspect he was radicalised online. I'm sure they teach online safety in school [...] but given those historical skills
and applying them, you know, kids will often say ‘what's the point of history?’ ‘Well here we are, here's a very obvious thing when you're looking online who's made the stuff, why, what are they trying to get you to think?’ (Participant 4).

This is a powerful example of how teachers, wishing to generalise the issues raised by Prevent, are significantly adapting the programme components in order to educate in a way that they think might be effective. These reflections on programme adaptation are also evaluated in section 4.5 on surface and deep level adaptations. It is evident that the amount of time allocated to Prevent within the curriculum is considerably varied, with very few teachers reporting regular junctures within the school week which were intended to address issues raised in Prevent. Teachers and schools that did wish to address the issue on a more frequent basis were having to make up their own resources or depend on other emotional literacy programmes for their content. This has obvious ramifications for the way in which the intended message of Prevent by its programme developers is being delivered between different schools and settings.

4.4 Perceptions of and attitudes towards Prevent

Teachers’ attitudes of and perceptions towards the implementation of Prevent was the largest primary theme in the study as there were a number of important aspects to explore. Teacher attitudes towards the Prevent programme and its implementation were likely to have a significant impact on how it was delivered in schools. There were seven sub-themes in this section:

- Feelings towards Prevent
- Safe guarding and ethics
- Responsibility to police
- Training needs
- The influence of pupils’ views
- Relationships with parents
- Perceptions of value

One factor that did unite all of the teachers interviewed was the belief that radicalisation and extremism was relevant to them as a teacher: “Of course it’s relevant to me as a
teacher. You know, as a teacher you don’t stay still so, you know, you can’t ever be naïve enough to presume that just because at the moment perhaps extremism is not a part of this locality it might be in the future...” (Participant 6). However, teacher attitudes towards Prevent were understandably varied, with a number of teachers noting that they felt the concept of anti-radicalisation training to be extremely important: “I think it’s a highly necessary but a lot of but my feelings towards that are generally born out of my own experience with the children, so that then the necessity of Prevent is through my understanding of the world in which we live in at the moment and the problems that we’re going through” (Participant 1). This notion was expressed by another teacher who noted “as a teacher who lives and works in the same community as the students come from then, you know, I’m interested to see, if students are expressing those views where they’re coming from and what it would be my role in trying to stop that from happening” (Participant 4). Yet, there was also the view that whilst training in anti-radicalisation might be important, the current strategy was not viewed favourably due to its bias:

I think it’s something you have to aware of because we know that all children’s beliefs are formed by those around them and what you learn as a child goes on to the part of your makeup as an adult, there's the whole ‘give me the child before the age of seven and I’ll show you the man’, it just felt very much like it was about us spotting children that were going to go on to become terrorists and it the thrust of it was about Islamic terrorism... (Participant 2).

Advice from the DfE to schools notes that protecting children from radicalisation is part of schools’ safeguarding duties, yet this seemed to create a degree of contention with some the teachers interviewed, with some expressing the view that Prevent and safeguarding are not one and the same:

I would say it’s different because it is! Although you could argue that everything’s political, I think that this seems to be highly politically charged so I would be more inclined to see or whilst I think, you know, cases of radicalisation will more than likely have threads of the other sort of issues that might be dealt with in terms of like social economical scenarios or poverty (Participant 1).

This was echoed by another teacher who noted:
At what point is something a safeguarding issue and something that is going over a line? It almost is, isn't it? And what is a different culture or a different religion or a different way of doing things, and so it’s just being aware isn't it? The accountability is quite scary... (Participant 3).

It was apparent that a number of the teachers interviewed had ethical issues with the monitoring of children of a particular religious faith, suggesting that looking for ‘warning signs’, that are perhaps common behaviours for children and young people may not be an effective means of protecting them from harm.

The responsibility to police, beyond conventional safeguarding was also an area of contention, “I view it as a programme that is designed to police, of course it’s designed to police. I think for my setting it’s not about education at the moment” (Participant 6). There is, therefore, an interesting distinction in the data between policing and educating. Whilst it appeared to make certain teachers uncomfortable, it was also seen by some as an inevitability:

This is society in terms of the role of the teacher since I started teaching, the fact of it is that social care is cut right back to the quick, any support for families has been cut back to the quick, the people who see children every day are the teachers. I know we’re supposed to just educate, but we don’t just educate and I think greater and greater and greater we are social care as well; I can rail against that and I can complain and I can say ‘what bleeding time do we have for that?’ The fact is the government have us over a barrel because they've got a complete emotional hold on us, in that it’s emotional blackmail, because I would never leave a child to go hang and if there is nowhere else for them to go... (Participant 5)

This is perhaps an indication that teacher apathy towards the role of social care, and the safeguarding role of the state, has been replaced by the teaching profession. In essence, teachers will police, because they might feel it is their moral, as opposed to legal duty to do so. It also seems to suggest that teacher efficacy and how they view themselves as
professionals may also be an important factor in their willingness to adopt the Prevent programme ethos.

Teacher’s attitudes towards the training and resources received with the Prevent programme were an important subtheme, with teachers generally having quite strong views regarding what they felt was needed. One of the most notable aspects was the apparent lack of continuity between teachers on the level of training they had received. In one setting a teacher noted “we have an update on it every year but in person [...] but then it’s not as in depth as that initial training was, so the initial training was from the lead for Prevent, he came in and did some training around that. We’ve also had some online work” (Participant 10). Whereas in another setting it was reported that “we haven't had the in-school training, our training was online, so it was just online at home and it wasn't brilliant - it wasn't clear and it was just you. You just read and listened and watched some videos and it lasted about half an hour” (Participant 8). This raises the important point that the training for Prevent appears to be fairly inconsistent; some settings had only received an online training to be done at home, whereas other settings had support from the Prevent team directly and in-person at their schools. This potentially has some large ramifications in terms of the programme’s fidelity if there is not a consistent, measurable picture of how the training is being delivered and received. It ostensibly has ramifications for how teachers feel towards Prevent delivery.

Teachers’ perceptions of the resources that were provided with the Prevent programme seemed to have a substantial influence on their attitudes towards how easy the programme was to deliver: e.g., “There isn't a manual or a book particularly that you can read that says ‘this is how you do it’ and so as a teacher you kind of feel insecure, and I think as well the children can ask you some quite challenging questions can’t they? It’s that kind of feeling a little bit exposed and in an area that you’re not completely confident with is quite hard” (Participant 3). The suggestion that the materials provided were difficult to use, or insubstantial, is also reflected in the following: “I think if I if something happened and I was concerned I'd be quite nervous, as I've already said, to put that training into place because I don’t think I’ve been properly trained to know the right avenue and I think that's across schools, think that's everybody” (Participant 7). Indeed, most of the teachers interviewed suggested that they would benefit from having far better resources:
... clarity on training for staff and with that, you know, clarity on dealing with issues within school, educating our young people, educating families. I’d definitely like to see lesson plans, PowerPoints, scripts the assemblies, presentations, leaflets for parents information. (Participant 10)

As well as:

... to have something there to just refer to, even if it was a really small a little flowchart ‘right you need to do this, right your next job’s this, this is what you do these are the things that you need to do if you're in that situation’; just something that I can refer to. (Participant 6)

Not all teachers entirely agreed with this notion, however, and in one particular setting it was felt like the materials provided by Prevent were useful:

The videos and PowerPoints that they built up and they were working on a couple of training packs that were really useful at one point, but I've not implemented them as part of debate club; they also had a programme that they were meant to start and didn't in school. It was kind of an after-school programme, a bit like a team challenge that they were linking into with some of our vulnerable kids […] I think they're full of ideas potentially but actually putting them into a like getting them to the point where they're implementing them is a bit tricky. It never seems to actually come about. (Participant 8).

Nevertheless, it would appear that the resources and training provided between settings is somewhat inconsistent, with a general desire for better materials, such as lesson plans, PowerPoints, posters, and a better standard of implementation by external Prevent coaches.

Participant responsiveness to interventions is also considered to be an important factor in the implementation literature for successful programme outcomes (e.g. Durlak & DuPre, 1998) and so it was deemed important to determine teachers’ perceptions of how pupils and parents responded to the Prevent programme in their schools. Teachers’ perceptions
of how their pupils viewed Prevent seemed to vary based on the ethnicity of their cohorts, for example:

*Oh yeah, they do absolutely! They’re quite outspoken about it as well. When I was doing the training, they were very outspoken about it. I remember a pupil saying, ‘I just hate the fact Miss that everybody thinks because I'm Islamic I'm a terrorist,’ you know, ‘we always get blamed for the terrorism’ those sorts of things. It was difficult delivering it to them, so they weren’t just thinking ‘ah just because I'm a Muslim I'm I could be a terrorist’ so you've got to be sensitive around that [...] if a child is saying something like that then that's quite a powerful statement isn't it about they're feeling marginalised by that process.* (Participant 10)

There was also a view expressed that pupils were aware that they could not talk about certain things they had heard at home, for fear of the repercussions in school: “*I think some kids will know full well that some of the things they hear at home like I said they choose their audience and they’ll know that you can’t talk about that kind of thing at school but they're hearing it at home and it drives it underground perhaps even more*” (Participant 2). This notion of pupils feeling like they were being ‘watched’, or marginalised by the police was also detailed by another teacher:

*...In debates I've had with students about, you know, when we’re teaching about terrorism ‘well why does it always seem to be focused on us as a Muslim community?’ I think the students who've said things have said ‘yeah’, you know, ‘it makes us feel as though, you know, the eyes are on us the police eyes are on us’ and clearly that's not a comfortable position for them to be in. Yet, based on my own experience of teaching those kind of issues, you know, the children are largely ignorant of a lot of the complexity of the issues involved.* (Participant 4)

This is an interesting point as it highlights teachers’ interface with sensitive interpersonal and cultural issues as well as affecting how they feel, in terms of both comfort and professional challenge. Teachers also reflected on how events happening near the local community changed their pupils’ perceptions and how their schools felt it was important to address: “*Last year when we had the attack in Manchester we did a lesson on it [...] it was very much ‘this has happened in the news right we need to make up a lesson’* [...]

76
the children are quite stereo-typical and we talked about what radicalisation was and we had a discussion about terrorism and their view of it was it was a certain religion…” (Participant 7). It therefore seems pertinent to note that marginalisation appears to be a factor that is consistently raised by teachers regarding their pupils and their concerns around this. The above quotation indicates that teachers are designing their own resources to deal with this issue, rather than using what has been provided to them by the Prevent programme.

It was also found that teachers viewed collaboration with parents in addressing radicalisation and extremism as very important, although lacking in the current Prevent strategy:

*I think the only thing I haven’t talked about is the what the children go home to at the end of the day […] there's a lot of hard work that goes on in school but once the child goes home there is also then a huge influence at home and the vast majority of the time hopefully that's a good thing, but a lot of the time that can be problematic […] for example, in our school we’re encouraged to try and create as many opportunities, at least one opportunity a term where parents can come in and be involved but in a very non-threatening way […] it doesn’t matter how many times I’ll phone up those eight missing parents they’ll just go under the radar. There’s nothing in the programme to involve parents. (Participant 1)*

In addition to the issue of there not being content to involve parents in Prevent, teachers also raised the matter that Prevent could potentially be damaging their relationships with parents as well as instilling a culture of fear: “…there’s nothing necessarily going on when you dig deeper, but it’s just that fear that if they say the wrong thing then the whole thing will come down on them and it’s not a nice life to lead is it?” (Participant 8). The issue of it eroding parents’ morale was also raised: “I’m sure it must have been dreadful for families of people who knew that, you know, people who’ve come from round here who have been involved in terrorism and how traumatic that must have been, and upsetting, to have then the police kind of running this kind of initiative, must have made them think ‘well what do people think of us?’” (Participant 4). This would seem to suggest a need, from a teacher perspective, for shared understanding.
A body of evidence in the literature suggests that teachers’ perceptions of impact are important in how an initiative or programme continues to be received; barometers of success or evidence of change encourage teachers to deliver with better implementation quality. It was apparent that a number of teachers in the study struggled to determine what the impact of Prevent in schools might be: “Well, I think I’m unclear as to whether there is meant to be some impact for us in the classroom because if there is that didn’t come across in the face to face that we had, it was very much about observing and reporting” (Participant 2). Others preferred to think of the outcomes of Prevent being about the fact they were more ‘aware’ of radicalisation and extremism as an issue: “Not practically, but I’d like to think that it makes you more aware” (Participant 6). One teacher did note that the Prevent strategy had ‘saved’ a child in their school:

...we've had a couple of kids that technically have been ‘saved’ by Prevent, as they like to put it. They've been injected into a system with Prevent because they've potentially been on the verge of being radicalised and so then Prevent have stepped in [...] we’d referred and we knew that they’d picked him up, but there was no kind of communication at that point back to school, until it then came out in the news that he’d done a news article saying basically that Prevent had ‘saved’ him and so that was all over the newspapers and that was the next we’d heard about it really... (Participant 8)

The above quotation raises an interesting point about the perception of Prevent and its impact, as it is apparent that the work that schools and teachers do to help prevent radicalisation and extremism is separate from working restoratively with children and young people once it is determined that they are at risk. This would seem to infer once again, that teachers possibly feel that their role in Prevent may not be to educate, but rather observe and police, understandably generating a degree of tension.

4.5 Factors affecting implementation

Whilst many of the factors that might affect the implementation of Prevent overlap with different themes throughout this chapter, it was apparent that there were some key elements that were important to address. There are three subthemes in this section:
Adaptations to a programme or intervention are generally thought to be undesirable by developers as they have the potential to erode the fidelity or core components. As such, it was important to note in the present study that a majority of teachers were having to either develop their own resources to accompany the Prevent training or adapt PowerPoints and videos that were provided to them by the Prevent team. This has included surface and deep level adaptations. Surface level adaptations may include small changes to a programme (e.g. altering the use of language slightly to enhance cultural validity), whereas deep level adaptations can have an adverse effect on programme outcomes (e.g. missing parts, designing own resources) In the present study, some surface level adaptations that teachers seemed to be making to Prevent included changing how they presented it:

P: I definitely have had to alter my language and the way I approach talking to them. Granted they are quite an immature bunch, but at the same time I would say that the age which they are at, I've had to sort of, not 'dumb down', but sort of, not even sugar coat but just kind of ...

I: You've had to adapt it to their age level?

P: Yeah definitely (Participant 1).

Small changes as indicated by the quotation above may not be a significant issue; language changes to fit the context and age group of the young people may actually enhance cultural validity. However, a significant number of teachers in the study reported having to design their own resources or adapt what they had been given to try and make it fit with another aspect of their curriculum (e.g. PHSE), thus making deep level adaptations:
It has to be adapted and varied. I think it has to be carefully considered, certain elements of it, you know, what might be necessary to put in what might not be. It’s not, I wouldn’t say censoring but obviously, you know what, taking into account risk factors and things like that, you have to take into consideration, you know what, would this audience be mature enough to absorb the content that’s going to be delivered towards them or that's going to be put in front of them so, you know, it’s like you said before like we were saying it’s striking that balance. How much of this can I present to them that might be appropriate? (Participant 9).

It was also the case in some schools that teachers were aware of the adaptations they were having to make and expressed a level of discomfort in doing so:

*When the Prevent agenda really came to the front I thought, right okay, how can we as a history department look at that? So, we thought about teaching a unit on terrorism, and actually did teach it. Something like that it was quite scary really because you think, ‘well I’m going to do this with the best intentions, but I could, you know, could teach it the completely wrong way make some horrible mistakes and make the situation potentially worse and enflame things that weren’t necessarily there’ (Participant 4).*

Whilst this theme overlaps to a degree with teachers’ feelings towards Prevent, this is also a clear example of the potential danger of adaptations that professionals may be having to make; without the appropriate guidance, coaching, and resources, teachers may feel in the dark regarding their practice and its appropriateness. There is also a risk that without these resources teachers’ professional self-efficacy about their delivery of such programmes may be affected. In the same vein, teachers also reflected on their training experiences and it was evident that this was somewhat inconsistent, with training being delivered by different agencies, as well as differing levels of training support (i.e. online, in person, or both). For example, in one school a teacher noted: “*I get a sense that we've had two sessions on it. I've been here, what about ten years. It's been online and given that I can barely remember it it's not really effective is it?*” (Participant 4). Whereas in another school a teacher noted that the level of training support they had received initially was very good, albeit potentially reactive instead of preventative:

80
...the videos that they build up and they were working on a couple of training packs that were really useful at one point, but we’ve not implemented them as part of debate club and they had a programme that they were meant to start, and didn’t, in school [...]. I got the sense that the resources and training we received was because something had happened at our school [...] now we’ve settled into it we don’t really have as much involvement with them. They were coming into school a lot, they were coming in for training, they were coming in for workshops, they were coming in for debate club. I would say in the last eight months that’s not been the case - they've backed off. (Participant 8).

Programme adaptations to both content and the training received are important to note when attempting to determine the likelihood of success in a given intervention, as they have the ability to affect outcomes significantly through inconsistent implementation. The final factor that seemed to be pertinent to how teachers reflected on their engagement with Prevent related to their own individual characteristics. Individual level factors are thought to be an important factor in the delivery of preventative interventions, given that the implementer is the professional that has to put a programme into practice. Whilst there are a multitude of individual level factors that might affect implementation, some that were alluded to in the current study included teacher’s emotional self-efficacy, (e.g. “Well, we’re trying our best to be as open about it as possible and talk about how we emotionally connect to the topic” (Participant 1); the ability to talk about feelings and emotive nature of the topic was thought to be important. There was also the sense that teachers’ moral value system (e.g. “It’s kind of your value system, so I would talk to them about my value system and how I how I like to live my life and the rules I kind of follow [...] I wouldn’t ever expect the children to have those same values but I do try and be very tolerant with them.” (Participant 3) also played a role on how they thought to deliver Prevent. The role of self-efficacy (e.g. teacher’s comfort or commitment) also seemed prevalent, feeling comfortable in handling possible cases of radicalisation, or believing that it is the role of the teacher to address it:

... if a child comes in and shows ‘signs’ it’s trying to identify what those signs are without being direct, because you're not allowed to ask children direct questions. I think that's quite difficult, it’s they're wanting to come in here, and it’s you flagging it up, and the possibility of it not being anything as well. That's quite a
big thing to suggest, I think it’s very difficult – you have to be at ease with what you’re doing (Participant 7).

…it’s something that cannot be avoided, it’s something that needs to be tackled, you need to work from ground up, you know, look at the root causes, what causes extremism? Why do people go down certain routes towards extremism? It’s our job to tackle this, who else can? If you don’t handle those issues and all the foundations it’s the same thing, you know, it’s like with numeracy and literacy, you need to tackle these kinds of issues from ground floor up, from the root from primary school (Participant 9).

It is likely that such attitudes demonstrated in the quotations above are likely to be important in the successful delivery of a given programme or intervention, in addition to teachers’ ‘will’ and ‘skill’. Teachers need not only want to be able to engage with programmes such as Prevent but must also have the necessary skill set to be able to bring this desire to fruition.

4.6 Cultural validity

‘Cultural validity’, in the context of the present study, is a term which refers to the need for an intervention or programme to have cultural resonance in order for it to be accepted by a given population or community. In order for an intervention to be culturally valid it may need to go through a process of cultural adaptation. The two subthemes in this section address how this might occur:

- Need in context
- Type of school or setting

Teachers’ attitudes towards Prevent and its implementation in school were also related to their perception of contextual need. One teacher reflected that the need in their school for Prevent might be low due to the age of their cohort: “I’m not sure the need in this community at this age group, more specifically the age group than community, is especially high. I think the staff training is fine as long as it’s regularly refreshed would be enough to be vigilant for that sort of thing” (Participant 6). However, another teacher
cautioned “I think the context of where we are is quite a dangerous place to be, in that I think people rest on their laurels very much and I think people think of it that as ‘not in my back yard’, I think despite their age we’ve got very aware children, we’ve got very connected children…” (Participant 5). It was also acknowledged that social inequality might give rise to radicalised behaviour, leading to a greater level of need in their schools for Prevent: “we have quite a high level of poverty in this school, I think that can cause greater need for anti-radicalisation, I think that (poverty) causes our young people to become more disengaged” (Participant 1). The notion of both poverty and ethnicity being a factor was also poignantly expressed:

“Very deprived it’s one of the most deprived places in Britain I would say, it’s quite raw down there […] predominantly Asian, there’s a lot of deprivation there so there's a lot of crime, you know, a lot of social angst […] the lacklustre of opportunities that are available to them so they feel the need to connect or bond with a certain group, a sense of belonging or a sense of identity, they feel like they need to belong to a group and what way then to be angry or to lash out and to feel a sense of freedom then to attach themselves to certain individuals, you know, who can, I suppose, give them a sense of comfort. Might not be our idea of a sense of comfort but make them belong” (Participant 9).

These attitudes may play an important role in understanding the cultural validity of Prevent in certain contexts; participants from the present study seem to infer that in contexts where there are higher levels of poverty, or social inequality, radicalisation may be a greater risk.

Other teachers who noted that the Prevent programme was relevant in their schools understandably felt this way as they had young people directly involved in radicalised activities:

…I think more so here in the context of the school we’re in, you know, we had two pupils who have been radicalised and are became extremists. One became a suicide bomber, the other we’re not sure of yet but is still in Syria as far as we know. We have had pupils here who have been referred to the Channel programme and because it, you know, it is a part of this school and this community
- possibly we are a high-risk community, and you just want to get things right (Participant 10).

This was reiterated by other teachers who had similar experiences:

*As a school that's a big stigma to have attached to it. Thankfully a lot of our parents don’t read newspapers and won’t have been aware of it, but I think we would have had a lot of complaints had that been kind of a more accessible form of publicity. I think the school is more complicit in its attention to Prevent because it feels like it has to be* (Participant 8).

Determining whether a particular type of school or setting was an important factor in Prevent being culturally valid was contentious and varied somewhat between teachers. One teacher noted, for example, that the issue of radicalisation and extremism was pertinent and important to address in all schools: “I think we've got to be careful that we don't make it into a polarising issue, particularly given that we’re a predominantly white British school in a semi-rural location that really has a very small proportion of ethnic minorities of any kind of ethnicity. I just think there is a danger in schools like ours that people think it doesn’t apply […] it’s easy to get complacent” (Participant 2). Conversely, another teacher expressed the view that “…there's less risk in this school than maybe another school. Your ears would perk up more if you were in a different setting or in a different area, a different setting” (Participant 7).

The community setting, as well as the school, was mentioned: “I'd kind of prefer to look at from the perspective why do people feel excluded from the community? That’s relevant to most places. Why are they looking for kind of more radical opinions about what's going on in the world? Creating kind of a sense of dialogue; community, engagement, participation” (Participant 4). Interestingly, the online community was also alluded to as an important factor: “…there’s a belief online like it’s ‘all Muslims’ they're doing all the bad things, it’s got to be them, and so as a school we take that quite seriously. I think, unfortunately, it’s going on everywhere. Social media has been and continues to be a massive, massive problem with radicalisation at the minute, so as a community we’re aware of it in person, and in the virtual space” (Participant 8).
Thus, cultural validity played an important role in how teachers reflected on the role of Prevent in their schools, with both the school/setting and the need in context being addressed as factors of importance.

4.7 Role of the EP

Whilst many of the themes explored throughout this chapter relate to attitudes towards Prevent and its implementation, this final theme addresses how participants in the study felt they might be better supported. This included possible support from EP services and what that might look like. There are four subthemes in this section:

- Training and coaching
- Knowledge and resources
- Experience of working with vulnerable CYP
- Expertise in SEMH

The first aspect that teachers believed they could be better supported in was in regard to the training and coaching aspects around radicalisation and extremism:

_ I think you as a group of professionals (EPs) are better placed. I remember when you guys flooded us when unfortunately we had the death in school, and the amount of work you guys did and the impact that had, if that can be kind of replicated in a training system for awareness then surely, if you're the best people to work with kids, which theoretically we have to go through you for consultations on so many different levels of different things, surely you're the best people to, once you understand the world of radicalisation as well on top of that, surely you're the best people to deliver it_ (Participant 8).

Another teacher paralleled this opinion; EPs were thought to be potentially ‘best placed’ to deliver preventative interventions into radicalisation and extremism given the training requirements of the profession and the ability to work between and within systems:

_“...it’s always really helpful in any situation to speak to you and to have your opinion to begin with because your opinion can often be different to a teacher’s opinion, because you’re looking at it from the outside. Resources and training are really useful_
coming from you, some support in school, some coaching maybe...” (Participant 7). A burgeoning body of research suggests that psychologists as coaches for preventative interventions can help to improve implementation outcomes by supporting teachers in fidelity, dosage and quality (e.g. Becker et al., 2013) and, therefore, is an interesting avenue of investigation in relation to preventative action for radicalisation and extremism in schools.

A secondary factor that was raised was in relation to the knowledge and resources that EPs have for teachers to possibly draw on. It was also thought by some of the participants that the root cause of radicalisation may be correlated to unmet mental health needs: “I think generally that people who are at risk of radicalisation may have some underlying mental health issues which could be unpicked and worked on. Families would need support as well, so supporting families from an Educational Psychologist point of view would be really helpful. Also, if the teachers are the first to spot things then having someone to talk to about that and refer to would be really good” (Participant 10).

This was reiterated by other teachers who emphasised the point around how EPs are potentially best placed due to their knowledge base and skill set:

...having a well-qualified mental health professional who is able to have a dialogue with teacher and child, look through records, do something that I genuinely would like to do but I just have no time being able to [...] I think it’s very important that there is a role, with knowledge within this sort of experience, to help quash radicalisation and extremism [...] I think having that outsider experience is very important (Participant 1).

Nevertheless, not all teachers had considered the role of the EP in helping them address the issue of radicalisation and extremism in their schools. Some suggested that they were not aware of role that EPs could play: “I wouldn’t have ever considered it [...] your involvement in it would have never crossed my mind, just never, it just wouldn’t have been something that I’d have considered as part of your role” (Participant 7). This was mirrored by another teacher who noted: “…if I had concerns in terms of radicalisation or Prevent I don’t think Ed Psych would come up at all, I think I'd be
back to the back on the computer to the Prevent site and I would be just making sure who it is, I think I would probably be flagging up West Yorkshire police I would have thought” (Participant 6). The issue of time also arose, with some teachers considering EPs to have a wide enough remit already, potentially having too much to do already, without adding radicalisation work: “...your service is so tight right now that I think we’re all just prioritising what we put it in for EP support, and because it’s not an issue for me I don’t think that would be a route I’d go down unless somebody said...” (Participant 2). As such, it is apparent that if EPs were to undertake work in radicalisation and extremism then awareness of the type of work that the profession is able to undertake needs greater propagation; teachers who had a greater understanding of the EP role responded positively to the possibility of EP involvement.

There was an emphatic indication from the participants in the study that the role of EP in working with vulnerable children and young people at risk of radicalisation was considered favourably:

...I think it is about early identification isn't it? looking at your children who are perhaps most vulnerable and I think your EP would be able to work on helping you identify those children and saying if it is something that might be a concern (Participant 1).

As well as:

…there are aspects of children’s lives that can make them more vulnerable, where they're feeling lost, where they're feeling a lack of identity, where they're feeling possibly isolated from their peers, where they're feeling whatever issues are going on at home, if there is kind of issues along nurture at home and they’ve got those needs as well, I think there are needs and issues in a young person’s life that can be tapped into so they might be more vulnerable for it [...] to have experience of working with vulnerable young people and knowledge about the thing that they're being radicalised into is invaluable (Participant 5).

The final factor was the role of the EP in working with social and emotional mental health needs (SEMH) and how this related for teachers to radicalisation and extremism in schools. Teachers seemed to reflect that children that were at risk of radicalisation
might be better served with a structured social and emotional learning curriculum (e.g. learning to problem solve, or develop pro-social skills):

...if we go back to my attempt at trying to define radicalisation I think if you are socially and emotionally stable and you feel like you belong, and you feel like you live in a community which accepts you, then there's no need to be radicalised [...] I think that is inextricably linked with this kind of healthy social and emotional existence (Participant 1).

This notion, that social and emotional skills are key was reiterated by another teacher: “...it is very much like your social and emotional curriculum isn't it, it comes up, you might be reading a story or something and there's suddenly a child that says something, or there's a conversation and you pick it up and you have a conversation around it [...] like in 'circle time' it comes in incidentally” (Participant 3), as well as “…give students those self-awareness skills, ways of developing a positive attitude so that they're not open to, you know, internet based suggestions of radicalisation” (Participant 4). In this context, SEMH refers to children and young people being able to cope with everyday life and feeling like they belong in their communities. Ostensibly, children and young people experience difficult feelings and emotions at different times throughout their lives, with families and communities often being regarded as being an important factor in mental wellbeing. Schools may well need additional support from professionals, such as Educational Psychologists, who are ideally placed to help support children and young people across mainstream, targeted, and specialist provision.

4.8 Conclusion

The unified themes explored within this chapter indicate what teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism might be, as well as exploring their perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent in schools. The possible role of the Educational Psychologist in supporting teachers to address the issue of radicalisation and extremism in schools was also considered. It was evident that many of the subthemes were interlinked ecologically and not in isolation of each other, for example, how teachers’ attitudes towards Prevent (e.g. training and resources) were related to some of the factors affecting implementation.
4.9 Summary statements

The summary below provides an overview of the qualitative results detailed in this chapter:

- Teachers in the study defined and understood radicalisation and extremism in different ways. This was also the case in their understanding of what their duty under the Prevent legislation should be.
- Teachers’ experience of implementing Prevent varied, although most felt that they generally were not given time to deliver the content, with few opportunities to generalise the training. Teachers suggested that they were having to make time to address the issue of radicalisation with their own initiative.
- Teachers’ general perception of Prevent was that it has a greater emphasis on policing as opposed to educating. This created an uncomfortable tension for a number of the participants. There was a widespread view that there were not enough resources to deliver the programme effectively, with teachers having to make up many of their own PowerPoints, documents, and other resources. Parents and pupil views were seen to be important in how they reflected on the programme. Perceptions of impact were commonly regarded as difficult to determine, except in a few cases.
- Almost all teachers were having to make adaptations to the programme in order for it to be ‘fit for purpose’. The training of the programme was deemed to be inconsistent with some receiving training only online.
- The need in context and the type of school or setting were deemed important by teachers as to whether Prevent was culturally valid in their schools.
- Some teachers regarded the role of the Educational Psychologist positively and welcomed the prospect of support from them in addressing radicalisation and extremism. It was noted that this might be achieved through training and coaching, as well as having an expertise in working with vulnerable children and young people, in addition to those with SEMH needs.
Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism and their attitudes of and perceptions towards the implementation of Prevent in schools. The role of the Educational Psychologist in helping teachers to address this issue was also included.

The motivation for this study was to garner an improved appreciation of these aspects in order to inform future research and practice, as well as giving voice to one of the key professionals required to carry out the Prevent legislation and duty. Little research presently exists focusing on teachers as implementers in this field.

This chapter is separated into four distinct sections. Initially a brief overview of the findings of the research is provided. The next section considers the research questions of the present study in relation to the literature base, drawing on both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. The third section will aim to address what the implications for future research are, as well as addressing the limitations inherent to the present study. The final section concludes with a review of the study findings and an evaluation of its original contribution to knowledge.
5.2 Restatement of the results

Quantitative phase
The quantitative data was intended to help inform the choice of participants selected in the qualitative phase. However, the quantitative data was also able to partially determine what teachers’ beliefs and values were towards radicalisation and extremism, as well as gauging what their perceptions of and attitudes towards Prevent in their schools were.

38 teachers’ data were included in the quantitative phase of the study. Descriptive statistics were presented to demonstrate diversity in terms of participants’ gender, number of years teaching, ethnicity, level of qualification, experience of implementing Prevent, and additional responsibility of teaching staff. The perceived value of Prevent in teachers’ schools was bi-modal with a mean score of 6.18 (mode = 4) and a Std. Dev of 2.28; however, teachers’ beliefs on the importance of anti-radicalisation training were generally thought to be very important, with a mean score of 8.61 (mode = 10) and a Std. Dev of 1.48 - over half of the sample rated the importance of anti-radicalisation training for teachers at a 9 or 10. Participants generally found that the programme was not easy to deliver with scores ranging with a mean score of 3.58 (mode = 3) and a Std. Dev of 1.41. A large proportion of teachers in the study reported that they had received an insufficient to average level of training in Prevent with a mean score of 4.29 (mode = 5) and a Std. Dev of 2.08. Finally, teachers’ comfort in putting Prevent into practice varied somewhat between practitioners, tending to centre around the midpoint with a mean score of 4.45 (mode = 5) and a Std. Dev of 1.96. It was apparent that an inconsistency exists between the level of importance that teachers placed on receiving training in anti-radicalisation, and the reality of how much training they had received and whether it was subsequently easy to implement in their schools.

Qualitative phase
The qualitative data was intended to address and explore both research questions in the second phase of the sequential research design and explored what teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism might be, as well as exploring their perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent in schools. The possible role of the Educational Psychologist in supporting teachers to attend to the issue of radicalisation and extremism in schools was also considered. By means of semi-
structured interviews, a total of six main themes emerged from a thematic analysis of the data.

Teachers in the study defined and understood radicalisation and extremism in different ways. This was also the case in their understanding of what their duty under the Prevent legislation should be. Almost all of the teachers interviewed felt that radicalisation and extremism as an issue was relevant to them as a teacher. Teachers’ experience of implementing Prevent varied, however, with most feeling that they were generally not given time to deliver or refer to the content, with few opportunities to generalise the training. Teachers that did believe it to be important were having to make the time to address it themselves, rather than being given allocated time in the school week.

Teachers’ general perception of Prevent was that it has a greater emphasis on policing as opposed to educating. This created an uncomfortable tension for a number of the participants. There was a widespread view that there were not enough resources to deliver the programme effectively, with teachers having to make up many of their own PowerPoints, documents, and lesson plans. Parents’ and pupil views were seen to be important in how they reflected on the programme. Perceptions of impact were commonly regarded as difficult to determine, except in a few cases.

Almost all of the teachers interviewed were making adaptations to the programme. The need in context and the type of school or setting were also deemed important by teachers as to whether Prevent was culturally valid in their schools. Teachers commonly regarded the role of the Educational Psychologist positively and welcomed the prospect of support from them in addressing radicalisation and extremism. It was noted that this might be achieved through training and coaching, as well as having an expertise in working with vulnerable children and young people, as well as those with SEMH needs. Further discussion on the integration of findings and the value in using mixed-methods in the present study is presented in section 5.4.1.
5.3 Research Question 1: Values, beliefs and attitudes

1. a) What are teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism?
   b) What are teachers’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation strategies (Prevent) in schools?
   c) How might such attitudes affect the implementation of anti-radicalisation programme delivery?

In this section the findings from the quantitative strand and the six main themes that came to light from the qualitative strand are contemplated in relation to the literature. As the study utilised a sequential research design, including both quantitative and qualitative elements (quant → QUAL), the discussion in this section makes reference to both phases.

Knowledge and understanding

Teachers’ knowledge and understanding of radicalisation and extremism varied greatly in this study, with many having different ideas as to how these terms might be defined, why the training had taken place in their schools and, perhaps most importantly, what their duty under the current Prevent legislation was. Many of the teachers had a rough understanding as to how these terms might be defined, with some referring to radicalisation as being against ‘fundamental British values’. The Department for Education (DfE, 2015) notes that building resilience to radicalisation should occur through the promotion of British values in schools; it was apparent that teachers in the present study were not entirely comfortable with this concept due to the fact that they valued having their pupils voice their opinions, in the interest of healthy debate and discussion. Arguably, the two are not mutually exclusive of each other. Nevertheless, Revell and Bryan (2016) oppose the concept of promoting fundamental British values in schools, on the basis that young children might be unable to discern from their teachers what is opinion and what is fact.

It was also apparent that many teachers did not have a clear perception of what their legal duty was. The ‘Prevent Duty Guidance for England and Wales’ (Home Office, 2011) states that within teachers’ capabilities staff must understand what radicalisation means
and why children and young people may be drawn towards extremism through it. In particular, school staff must be aware of the specific type of extremism that the government is most concerned with and what measures are available to prevent individuals from being drawn into terrorism. This is an interesting point to reflect on, given that a number of the teachers interviewed were not sure what their duties were, other than it being loosely related to safe guarding. In a similar vein, teachers’ beliefs towards the ‘warning signs’ of radicalisation were ambiguous, with many struggling to tease apart the warning signs of radicalisation from regular behavioural or emotional problems. These findings are concordant with the literature base, where the notion of ‘warning signs’ is contentious for a number of different reasons. The Muslim Council of Britain (Muslim Council of Britain, 2015), for example, note that requiring teachers to search for warning signs of radicalisation is a futile exercise, as many of the termed warning signs or vulnerabilities are so broad that they are, in effect, meaningless. There is also the view that spotting warning signs of radicalisation in children and young people leads to ‘within child’ formulations, rather than viewing the child holistically and in an environmental context (e.g. Bronfenbrenner, 1989). Indeed, Blackwood, Hopkins, and Reicher (2016) address the issue of focusing only on the individual in the radicalisation process, when potentially it is the environmental context or ‘the group’ that warrants greater attention, “Where people lack a secure sense of the autonomous self, the group becomes powerful, and belonging is conceptualized as a form of consolation for psychological needs” (p. 605). Some of the teachers in the study preferred to pass on the responsibility of determining what the warning signs of Prevent were, by escalating it to another professional; this was evident in the quantitative data where a majority of teachers did not feel that comfortable putting Prevent into practice, and in the qualitative data where teachers struggled with the ambiguity of the strategy, as detailed above.

Teachers regarded the profile of Prevent in their schools differently depending on the need in context, particularly towards the school setting (i.e. primary or secondary). Unsurprisingly, school leadership was also considered an important factor as to the level of attention that Prevent received. This is concordant with the literature base that school leadership is a significant factor in the successful delivery of preventative programmes. For example, Kam, Greenberg, and Walls (2003) in the SEMH literature found that where principal support was lacking, outcomes for students were diminished significantly. This was thought to be connected to a lack of time to implement effectively as well as staff
having lower morale. As such, teachers’ perceptions of whether their school culture supported Prevent may have had an influence on whether they thought it to be a priority in their schools or not, as well as their sense of feeling supported, scared, or apprehensive towards their statutory duty. It is important to note, however, whilst school leadership influences teachers, school leadership in turn is influenced by Ofsted and their expectations of school performance. This should be considered in the overall picture.

**Dosage**

Teachers’ lack of time to implement interventions effectively is an issue that frequently pervades the profession (e.g. Hansen & Dusenbury, 2004). Dosage is an important aspect to investigate in preventative interventions; programme developers are frequently searching for the optimal level. The dosage literature draws its research base from the field of medicine; antibiotics, for example, need an optimal dose for them to be effective – too many or too few can lead to undesirable consequences. There is a view that this may also be the case for evidence-based interventions (Century et al., 2010), but a lack of consensus in many studies around how dosage is defined and measured has led to programme developers often negating it as a factor over fidelity. Nevertheless, it was perhaps unsurprising that in the present study the issue of time that teachers had to attend to the Prevent strategy arose as an important theme.

Teachers in the study had variable experience of implementing Prevent, with their experience of the programme tending to be related to their initial training session. The initial training that teachers received was also quite irregular, with some teachers reporting receiving training in school and others only receiving it online. This would seem to infer from a teacher perspective that there is an inconstant model of how Prevent training is delivered and, therefore, this directly affects teachers’ experience of the programme. In the substance abuse prevention literature Rohrbach et al. (2005) found that teachers with greater ‘experience’, relating to their initial training and with the length of time they had been delivering interventions, aided the widespread dissemination of preventative programmes more effectively. Thus, there is a cause for concern from an implementation perspective in the present study, as in order for an intervention’s outcomes to be monitored there must be a consistent approach to the training that is delivered as well as the materials that are provided. Without this information it is very
difficult to ascertain why a given intervention is effective or ineffective. Implementation information helps to shed light on this picture. Not without its challenges, Domitrovich and Greenberg (2000) suggest that researchers should systematically monitor the levels of content within an intervention, training, and dosage to garner the effect that these discrete components have on programme outcomes. It is apparent in the present study that teachers are receiving varying levels of training, with it being very unlikely that this is being monitored. This, in all likelihood, signifies that Prevent is being delivered in a different way, not only between schools, but also between practitioners.

All of the teachers interviewed noted that they did not have an allocated time in the school monthly or weekly timetable to deliver content from Prevent, with teachers having to deliver content from Prevent on an ‘as and when’ basis. This suggests again that there is no clear sense of how Prevent is being implemented across different settings. This is perhaps indicative of the difficulties in utilising a dosage model for preventative programmes in UK schools where a structured, taught curriculum (e.g. SEAL) is not essential or mandatory. Whilst teachers have a legal obligation to look for warning signs of radicalisation in children and young people, there is no clear sense in the legislation how they implement the strategy or when they are supposed to deliver the intervention. The same can be said for how teachers reflected on the opportunities that they had to generalise the programme to other parts of the school day. Some teachers noted that they referred to the Prevent materials when an issue arose in their class, whereas another suggested their department at school had designed a whole unit of work to better generalise the programme. Dusenbury et al. (2005) note that in order for a programme or intervention to be administered with high delivery quality the way in which it is generalised is highly important. The quality of dialogue that teachers have with their students on a daily basis has long been correlated with favourable developmental outcomes. Abry, Rimm-Kaufman, Larsen, and Brewer (2013) indicate, in a study focusing on student-teacher interaction quality, that students benefit when the sessions teachers delivered are well structured, and when teachers progress their students understanding by coordinating what they are teaching with the developmental needs of their class, which could help enable generalisation.
**Perceptions of and attitudes towards Prevent**

One factor that was corroborated across both the quantitative and qualitative elements of the study was that teachers believed that the issue of radicalisation and extremism was extremely relevant to them as teachers. This is positive in the sense that teachers who believed that the issue of radicalisation was relevant to them as teachers might be more willing to adopt a preventative programme into their classroom practices. Aarons (2005), in an examination of mental health provider attitudes towards the adoption of new innovations or evidence-based practices, found that programme implementers were more willing to adopt new practices and deliver them more effectively when they had a strong belief that the intervention was important.

Whilst the concept of anti-radicalisation was important to teachers in the study, there was a disparity in how valued the Prevent strategy was perceived in their schools – this was indicated in the quantitative survey data. In the interviews some teachers indicated that they felt the Prevent programme was biased towards spotting ‘would-be terrorists’ instead of being educative and thus ‘preventative’, with a sense of confusion about its purpose. This sense of confusion was reiterated by the Independent Reviewer of Terrorism Legislation who observes: “the Prevent programme is clearly suffering from a widespread problem of perception, particularly in relation to the statutory duty on schools and in relation to non-violent extremism” (BBC, 2015). Advice from the DfE (2015) expresses that protecting children from radicalisation is part of a school’s safeguarding duties; this was partially concordant with the views of some of the teachers interviewed, who believed that Prevent fitted in with this duty comfortably. There were a number of teachers, however, who did not agree with this notion, believing that there is a fine line between safeguarding and policing. Indeed, Petrie (2015) in a review of the current Prevent legislation notes that there is a significant risk in conflating the abuse of children and young people with initiatives designed to target terrorism. Many teachers in the study also felt ill-at-ease with the responsibility to police, going so far in some cases to calling it ‘emotional blackmail’. There is a view that by mandating teachers to monitor and report the signs of radicalisation Prevent distorts their professional role; the Association of Teachers and Lecturers make the point that teachers are not ‘counter terrorism’ experts and that the strategy may exacerbate Islamophobia and racism (ATL, 2015). Furthermore, Taylor and Soni (2017) call to attention the possibility that the
Prevent duty risks impeding the relationship of trust between students and teachers. Dane and Schneider (1998), as well as Becker, Darney, Domitrovich, Keperling, and Ialongo (2013) highlight the importance of trust between students and teachers in establishing a positive classroom climate. Perhaps unsurprisingly, Abry et al. (2013) found that the classroom climate plays a crucial role in the successful implementation of preventative programmes.

Teachers in the study frequently alluded to not having enough resources to deliver Prevent effectively, as well as reporting in the quantitative strand that they had received an insufficient to average level of training. A number of practitioners suggested that this was a cause of concern for them as they were having to either make up their own resources or adapt existing ones to fit Prevent. This contributed to the anxiety that some of the participants experienced regarding whether what they were delivering was ‘right’, or in keeping with the programme developer’s intentions. Indeed, comprehensive, well-designed programme resources (e.g. lesson plans, PowerPoints, posters) are frequently attributed in the literature as being an important aspect of how well teachers are able to deliver preventative programmes (e.g. Hanson et al., 2014), although there is a critical debate to be had between standardisation and flexibility in delivery (Hansen & Dusenbury 2004). The Prevent strategy directs programme users to an online facility (i.e. Educate against hate) to choose resources from but does not provide any guidance as to how or when these should be used. There is a risk in allowing materials to be disseminated in this way, as it becomes very difficult to monitor the way in which programme resources are utilised, or effective in a given context. This is not so dissimilar from the past implementation of the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) programme in England. SEAL implementation in schools was supported by a loose enabling framework, rather than by structured programme resources, in an attempt to provide different approaches to delivery (Weare, 2010). However, Humphrey, Lendrum, and Wigelsworth (2010) in the national evaluation of the secondary SEAL programme found that the programme failed to have a positive impact; this was attributed to poorly addressed implementation, rather than programme design per se. The authors also note that schools and leadership teams were less likely to adopt programme practices unless there was a reasonable evidence base to support their efforts. As such, this has some interesting implications for the way in which the Prevent strategy is being delivered in the UK, both
in terms of how it is being implemented, as well as a lack of rigorous research underpinning its application.

Although teachers had their own personal feelings towards the intervention, they also had views regarding how their students – the ‘target audience’ of Prevent viewed the programme. Durlak and DuPre (2008) suggest that participant responsiveness to an intervention is an important measure of how a programme holds the attention of its participants. Humphrey (2013) notes that participant responsiveness is likely to be strongly related to other factors of implementation (e.g. the quality of how it is delivered).

In the context of the present study, teachers raised concerns around how their students might feel marginalised by Prevent and gave examples where students had noted that discourses around radicalisation in schools often seemed to be focused around Muslim communities. Panjwani (2016) in a study of Muslim teachers’ views states that Prevent’s focus on fundamental British values may lead to the alienation of students and create a culture of criminalisation. It was apparent in the present study that teachers felt that the children and young people that they were working with either felt marginalised by the discourses around radicalisation, or fearful of talking about it in school, leading to stereotyped attitudes around the issue. There is a view that if young people are not consulted around the issue of radicalisation and extremism then they are more likely to mistrust Prevent and regard their schools as unsafe spaces to discuss the issue (Muslim Council of Britain, 2016). Thus, the findings in the present study are consistent with the literature that details the affect that participant responsiveness can have on teacher perceptions of an intervention. There is also an important point to make around the view from teachers that their students might feel marginalised by Prevent. McCauley and Moskalenko (2014) suggest that the first stage of radicalisation occurs through ‘personal victimisation’, the marginalisation of an individual plays a large part in this. Thus, on reflection of the findings in the present study, there is a risk that elements of the Prevent programme may amplify the problems they aspire to address.

Certain studies have identified the importance of teacher-parent relationships in aiding successful outcomes in preventative programmes (e.g. Stern, Alaggia, Watson, & Morton, 2008), although it is often thought to be problematic getting parents involved, often due to logistical issues. Parents as active participants in interventions are generally regarded as having better success as they can help set goals and contribute to decision
making (Knoche, Sheridan, Edwards, & Osborn, 2010). Teachers in the present study noted that parents had very little involvement in Prevent, with three of the teachers interviewed voicing concern that Prevent had the potential to erode relationships with parents due to the policing aspect of the programme. It was also suggested that Prevent might be creating a fear culture that hampers the open discussions that schools should be able to have with parents and pupils. Whilst the findings in the literature relating to the role of parents in preventing radicalisation and extremism is sparse, Sikkens; Van San, Sieckelinck, and De Winter (2017) did find, in a recent qualitative study on parental influence on radicalisation and de-radicalisation, that formerly radicalised individuals did not attribute their parents as a direct influence in becoming radicalised. However, a problematic family environment was thought to possibly influence the radicalisation process, as well as helping individuals become de-radicalised. The authors note that family support programmes could help facilitate this. It is apparent that it is difficult to discern whether teachers’ relationships with parents affect how Prevent is implemented, although, it does seem that concerns towards the eroding of relationships is an important factor to consider and warrants further investigation.

A general consensus existed towards the perceptions of impact that teachers had towards Prevent. Most teachers felt that it was very difficult to determine whether the programme has had any impact, although some noted that Prevent had raised their general awareness. There is some evidence to suggest that teachers implement interventions more effectively when they believe that what they are delivering is making a difference to their students. In particular, dosage markers in certain studies indicated greater frequency of delivery in relation to teachers’ beliefs regarding intervention effectiveness; if teachers believed the intervention was working they tended to deliver it more (e.g. Brackett, Reyes, Rivers, Elbertson, & Salovey, 2012).

**Factors affecting implementation**

There are a multitude of factors that affect the implementation of preventative interventions (for a comprehensive overview see Domitrovich et al., 2008) which are beyond the confines of this study to explore extensively. However, there were some key factors in the present study that were particularly prevalent and, therefore, important to address. Programme adaptations are a relatively new factor to be addressed in the field of
implementation given that traditionally the focus has been on implementation fidelity and, to a degree, implementation dosage. It is perhaps unrealistic to expect perfect implementation in classroom settings and so a degree of adaptation is inevitable. Durlak and DuPre (2008) found that positive outcomes in interventions were still possible even when implementation fidelity was between 60 and 80 percent. Adaptations must be addressed with caution, however, as they have the potential to erode programme fidelity and alter the programme outcomes in unforeseen ways; section 4.5 briefly addresses the issue of surface and deep level adaptations. Surface level adaptations may actually improve programme success due to increased ownership by teachers and a better fit for programme recipients.

It was evident in the present study that all teachers interviewed were making adaptations to the programme, either by making up their own resources, lesson plans, units of work, or altering conversations in a way that best fitted their context (e.g. primary or secondary schools). Dariotis, Bumbarger, Duncan, and Greenberg (2008) note that a lack of programme fidelity may play a significant role in intervention failure, with Century et al. (2010) maintaining that it is vital that the ‘critical components’ (i.e. the key elements) of a programme are maintained. The problem in the context of the present study and Prevent is that the critical components of the programme appear incoherent; there are no discernible guidelines as to how Prevent should be delivered, as well as inconsistent training materials that vary greatly from school to school. This was corroborated in the qualitative strand through the interviews, and in the quantitative strand where teachers reported insufficient training, as well as finding it difficult to put into practice. Blase and Fixen (2013) note that when a programme does not appear to be successful, or when the outcomes have not been achieved, it is important to have a thorough understanding of the core components and the extent to which they were put into practice. The findings from the present study suggest that in order for Prevent to be implemented effectively in schools there may need to be a much clearer picture of a ‘best practice’ model, with the critical, or ‘core’ components clearly detailed for reference when delivering content around radicalisation and extremism. Without these core components teachers are at a loss in understanding what they can, or cannot, deliver and the affect that this might have.

Teacher characteristics undoubtedly affect the way in which interventions are delivered, with both their ‘will’ and ‘skill’ considered to be key factors in addition to their
psychological characteristics (e.g. Domitrovich et al., 2008; Joyce, 2016; Lendrum, Humphrey, Askell-Williams, & Orrell, 2015). It was apparent that these factors were relevant in the present study when teachers referred to using their emotional knowledge to connect with their students, their self-efficacy in terms of feeling confident with what they were delivering, as well as their skill to handle difficult problems. A body of research is beginning to emerge to suggest that these individual level factors are an important factor for investigation in the successful implementation of preventative programmes. In the context of the present study it is important that these teacher characteristics (e.g. self-efficacy, emotional self-efficacy) are considered by programme developers in the future, if hoping to address the issue of radicalisation and extremism in schools.

**Cultural validity**

Cultural validity refers to the cultural relevance that an intervention has in a given context or setting. In order for an intervention to be deemed ‘culturally valid’ it must take into account differences in values and beliefs, traditions, and customs (Merrell & Gueldner, 2010). A rise in cultural diversification of education systems across the world as a result of ethnic migration mean that cultural diversity of pupils in schools has changed significantly. There is an issue with the majority of preventative programme outcomes being validated within homogenous groups of students (e.g. Humphrey, 2013). This means that the cultural reach of a programme may only have resonance with the population in which it was designed. In the context of Prevent, teachers in the present study reported that the programme might not be relevant for their setting or, in some cases, that because their student population were predominantly affluent and white, then radicalisation would not be an issue. This, of course, should not be the case as the Prevent programme developers note that it is intended to tackle all forms of radicalisation, including extremist right-wing politics (Home Office, 2011). What this does suggest is that Prevent may be lacking in cultural validity if groups of teachers are rejecting the programme as being invalid for their context. Prevent was regarded as having higher cultural validity in schools where the radicalisation of young people had actually occurred, including one instance where a former pupil had become a suicide bomber; in this case the need in context for the programme appeared to be higher as teachers in the school labelled themselves as a ‘high-risk’ community. There is a potential difficulty with this from an implementation perspective as it infers that the programme may be
mandatory in areas where instances of radicalised behaviour have occurred. When teachers are mandated to adopt a programme or practice instead of ‘buying-in’ to it overall programme adoption and fidelity tends to suffer (e.g. Elias, Zins, Graczyk, & Weissberg, 2003).

Merrell (2008) defines a number of key issues relating to cultural differences and the assessment/monitoring of preventative programmes that are relevant to both programme developers and practitioners. The need for teachers to be culturally competent is highlighted (e.g. understanding contextual behavioural expressions in students), as well as the inherent risks in focusing on or emphasising particular groups when discussing cultural issues, indicating that such discourses actively promote the stereotyping of minority groups. So, for example, if teachers recurrently reinforce the need to respect the culture of ‘Muslim children’ we homogenise them in the process and, therefore, fail to acknowledge their individuality. It was evident in the present study that teachers frequently referred to their students homogeneously when they made reference to their school populations (e.g. ‘we’re predominately white-British’); this raises some interesting questions regarding the current viability of Prevent in schools. Prevent programme developers may need to become more aware of the importance of cultural validity as a core component of the programme if the desire is not to stereotype or inadvertently marginalise groups of children and young people.

5.4 Research Question 2: Role of the Educational Psychologist

2. How can the role of the Educational Psychologist help support teachers in addressing radicalisation and extremism in schools?

An important aspect of this study was how the role of the EP might be able to help teachers addressing the issue of radicalisation and extremism in schools. Whilst there is only a nascent body of research pertaining to the role of EP and radicalisation there were, nevertheless, some areas that teachers identified in the present study as avenues of support that the EP might fulfil.

Teachers need to be well trained and supported when delivering new programmes or practices; an increasingly large body of evidence suggests that teachers can benefit from
coaching in preventative programmes (e.g. Becker et al., 2013). Coaching psychologists can help improve the implementation of evidence-based programmes, enabling implementers to deliver with greater fidelity, quality, and offer guidance on the optimal dosage level of a given intervention. Teachers in the present study had a positive perception of the EP role, with some of the teachers interviewed stating that the profession is perfectly placed to help support them with training and coaching. Joyce and Showers (1988) in a seminal study on the role of coaching suggested that implementation support in the form of a coaching model could help the sustained implementation of new initiatives in school. Single, or ‘one-off’ training sessions in the literature are generally deemed to be insufficient; new practices or procedures must be imbedded effectively with follow up sessions. Becker et al. (2013) suggest that training should encompass a universal stage, where all teachers receive training, followed by a bespoke stage, where teachers receive additional support based on their individual needs and skills. This has the effect of supporting interventions in a culturally valid and meaningful way. Subsequent research into coaching psychology (e.g. Reinke, Newcomer, Marchese, & Lewis, 2014) has presented a similar picture. Teachers reported, in both the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study, not having a sufficient level of training in Prevent. This is one aspect that EPs could, in theory, help support as long as the programme material was deemed acceptable within the profession (e.g. matching ethical standards). The inclusion of ‘coaching’ by EPs may also help to reduce the level of implementation variability, guide the process of adaptation, and improve programme fidelity (Reinke et al., 2014).

Teachers also noted that EPs have skills and knowledge that might help teachers better understand and tackle the radicalisation of children and young people to extremist positions. Sewell and Hulusi (2016), for example, suggest that EPs are able to work with a range of psychological theories (e.g. Reactive Approach Motivation) which, based on empirical research and practice, could be utilised by EPs when working with children and young people at risk of radicalisation. EPs are also able to help ‘capacity build’ within educational settings, enabling professionals such as teachers to be able to address the issue of radicalisation by receiving psychological support and advice. The Channel Duty Guidance (HM Government, 2015) makes recommendations that support for children and young people at risk of radicalisation comes in the form of life skills work, educational skills, and cognitive/ behaviour therapies. Teachers noted that many of the children who
they deemed ‘at risk of radicalisation’ may have underlying mental health needs, familial problems, or be deemed as ‘vulnerable’ by their schools. There are a number of ways that EPs are already working therapeutically with schools and could potentially fit in with the Channel Duty’s Guidance. For example, EPs are already using a variety of therapeutic approaches, such as narrative therapy (Morgan, 2000) which allows young people to accept, externalise, and ‘re-author’ their experiences that might otherwise lead them to a greater risk of becoming radicalised.

The Children and Families Act (2014) requires local authorities to disseminate the ‘local offer’ in helping to support children and young people aged 0-25 who have SEND needs of any kind. This must include reference to SEMH needs. Many of the teachers in the study felt that children who were at risk of radicalisation may have SEMH needs and was an area that teachers felt EPs could help support them with. This encompasses both universal (e.g. social and emotional learning programmes) and targeted (e.g. therapeutic) interventions. The ‘Future in Mind’ (2016) SEMH guidance notes that “it is important to remember that all children and young people experience difficult feelings and situations in their lives, with families often playing a large part in helping children and young people to cope and manage said difficult emotions and experiences” (p.4). EPs have the ability to work with both schools and families, offering advice, support, training, psychological assessments, intervention, and psychological advice for statutory processes such as Education, Health and Care needs assessments. Taylor and Soni (2017) note in their implications for those working in schools that education professionals must seek to promote the inclusion of all pupils, cautiously avoiding marginalising discourses in conversations with students. EPs can play an important role in promoting the inclusion of pupils by enabling schools to foster a culture of safety and trust in sharing views that can be discussed instead of vilified. It was apparent that some of the teachers in the study struggled, however, to appreciate what the distinctive contribution of the EP could be in helping to support them with such an issue. As such, it is important that EP services continue to build positive relationships with schools and other settings in a way that promotes the support and services that the profession has to offer.
5.5 Summary statements

- Teachers knowledge and understanding of radicalisation and extremism varied greatly. Teachers in the study defined these terms differently, with many unsure as to what their legal duty was. Teachers generally struggled to tease apart the warning signs of radicalisation, suggesting that the current guidance for teachers in Prevent might be unclear. The profile of the programme varied depending on context and setting, with principal leadership being raised as an important factor to its dissemination.

- Teachers reported not having enough time to deliver the programme effectively, which is concordant with much of the literature into preventative programmes. It is apparent that the delivery model of how much training teachers have received differs greatly between schools and practitioners. This has implications for how the implementation of Prevent can be assessed effectively.

- Teachers felt that the concept of radicalisation and extremism was very relevant to them as teachers, although most felt that the current systems in place to address the issue through Prevent are inadequate. Most teachers felt that there were not enough resources to deliver the programme effectively, which coloured their perception of its effectiveness and impact. Teachers voiced their concerns regarding the effect that the Prevent programme could be having on their relationships with their pupils, and their wider relationships with families.

- Almost all teachers reported making adaptations to the programme, including designing their own resources or changing the subject matter to fit their cultural context. Research related to adaptations was discussed with the potential ramifications included. The notion of teachers’ will and skill was also addressed, noting the importance of teachers’ individual level characteristics in the effective delivery of preventative programmes.

- The need for Prevent to be culturally valid was discussed with the notion of teachers ‘buying-in’ to the programme linking to findings in the extant literature.

- The role of the Educational Psychologist was addressed in helping support teachers. Coaching support, dissemination of knowledge and skills, as well as SEMH support were deemed possible avenues of support.
5.6 Integration of findings

5.6.1 Confluence of approaches

The design of the present study used both quantitative and qualitative elements (quant → QUAL), through a sequential, explanatory, mixed methods design. In some mixed method designs (e.g. embedded) the usual practice is to ascertain whether there is a level of confluence between the two phases of data collection. Given that the present study only utilised a small, ancillary, quantitative element the confluence of approaches is perhaps less relevant. Nevertheless, it was apparent that teachers’ responses in part 2 of the teacher survey helped to elicit further responses in the qualitative interviews. Teachers reflected in the surveys that the issue of radicalisation and extremism was extremely relevant to them, yet a disparity was indicated, in that the perceived value of Prevent and the level of training that they had received was comparatively low. Teachers also reported in the surveys that it was not particularly easy to deliver, with many feeling uncomfortable as to how they could deliver it effectively. The quantitative data was useful in this study as it allowed the canvasing of a larger sample (n=38) of participants than would have been possible by qualitative means alone. It allowed for rich purposive sampling, and a way of reflecting on individual participant responses in the interviews, to allow them to discuss their surveys further.

5.6.2 Distinctive contribution of the qualitative data

The qualitative data was designed to give a richer, deeper insight into the beliefs, values, attitudes and perceptions of teachers in the study, adding ‘meat on the dry bones’ (Bryman, 2006, p.106) of the quantitative findings. Whilst a fuller discussion of the qualitative findings is detailed in Section 5.3 it was apparent that a number of themes emerged that were distinctive to the qualitative data. In particular, the role of teachers making adaptations to the programme was highly consequential and has some far-reaching consequences for the implementation of Prevent. Teachers spoke at length regarding the adaptations they were having to make to the programme, beyond the training they received, as well as why they were having to do so. In particular the designing of their own resources and choosing how and when to implement the programme were important points of discovery. It was clear that teachers had a desire to
implement the programme well, but felt ill equipped to do so, often leading to feelings of fear or anxiety as to whether they were ‘getting it right’.

Teachers’ relationships with both pupils and parents was also an important theme that was distinctive to the qualitative findings. In particular, teachers reflected on how relationships with parents were important to the success of the Prevent programme and was an area that they felt was noticeably lacking in the current provision. Parental involvement in preventative programmes is often thought to be problematic in the implementation literature, yet it is an important point to address in the current context, given the powerful influence that parents or carers can have on the views of their children. The way in which their pupils responded (akin to participant responsiveness) to Prevent also seemed to affect their perceptions of how they should be delivering it, with many raising concerns in relation to the possible marginalising of individuals.

5.6.3 Value in the integration of findings and summary

In using a sequential approach of both quantitative and qualitative elements, the aim was that the initial collection of the quantitative data and its following analysis provided a greater scope and understanding of the research problem. It is the conviction of the author that this has been accomplished in the present study, with both elements of the study providing value to the overall research findings. The initial findings from the quantitative data have been significantly elaborated on in the qualitative phase, with a richer and more detailed exploration of some of the issues relating to Prevent and its implementation. Teachers’ values and beliefs towards radicalisation and their attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent are both varied and complex. A mixed methods approach in this instance has allowed for multiple research perspectives to be drawn upon to help address the research problem. The use of mixed methods research in the field of radicalisation, extremism, and implementation of preventative approaches is extremely rare, with very little research to date using both quantitative and qualitative elements. It is hoped that the inclusion of both elements in the present study has helped deepen the body of research that currently exists.
5.7 Limitations

Within the present study there are a number of limitations that are important to address. Whilst it was the author’s intention to address as many of these as possible, a number of limitations nevertheless exist. Issues of generalisation and methodological limitations are presented in this section.

5.7.1 Generalisation

A key issue to address when handling quantitative data is the issue of generalisation. In quantitative terms a sample size of 38 is regarded as being small (Field, 2009). As such, inferential statistics could not be used to draw on significant findings that could be generalised to a larger population. As noted in the method section, descriptive statistics were used instead to provide some simple summaries of the participants and their data. Maximum variation sampling was used in the qualitative phase in an attempt to allow for the researcher to select a smaller number of participants whilst gaining a wider picture of the phenomenon (Palinkas et al., 2015). It is possible, however, that with a larger participant sample a greater variability of personal and professional characteristics could have been included, thus creating wider variation and diversity in the subsequent interviews. Gaining a larger number of participants was not possible due to time constraints.

Given that inferential statistics were not used in the present study, issues of reliability and generalisability (Pallant, 2013) were not applicable. Instead, it was possible to use the quantitative data in a sequential fashion, to help inform the choice of participants in the second phase of qualitative data collection and to allow the participants to reflect back on their responses. The quantitative data did, however, provide some useful summaries and patterns (e.g. values and attitudes) that existed within the sample.

5.7.2 Methodological issues

In the present study there were some limitations relating to the data collection that are important to address. The data collection for the study took place in schools where the author worked as a Trainee Educational Psychologist. As such, it is possible that teachers may have been more likely to get involved in the project as they had contact with the TEP
in the past and, therefore, may have been more likely to think positively about being involved in the project. However, teachers were able to opt-in to the research, with the surveys and interviews being on an entirely voluntary basis. Teachers were able to speak to the researcher directly without having to speak to their leadership teams, thus potentially reducing the chance of conflict. The distribution of female to male teachers was 72% to 28% and was roughly nationally representative (Office for National Statistics, 2011). The ethnicities of the participants in the study were also roughly nationally representative, although it would have been more favourable to the researcher to have had an equal balance of participants. Given the constraints and timing of the data collection this was not possible. It is also possible that some non-white participants were less likely to want to become involved in the study as a result of feeling concerned or worried about how their views might be disseminated. This would be concordant with the views of some teachers in the study that Prevent does not create a ‘safe space’ for open discourse.

Although widely used in psychological research (e.g. Domitrovich et al., 2008) there are, nevertheless, some limitations to using cross-sectional research, which can only present a ‘snap-shot’ of a given research problem. It is possible that teachers may have responded differently to some of their responses in the surveys if they were taken at different time points. Yet, teachers were able to reflect on their responses in the interviews and so it is hoped that this limitation has been lessened by giving teachers an opportunity to reflect on their responses. Greene (2015) notes that in spite of the limitations of self-report measures they are still an effective means of gaining individual insight into a given research problem. There is also a possible limitation in using semi-structured interviews as bias can exist in qualitative data, often being criticised for a lack of research quality or objectivity (Symonds & Gorard, 2010). However, as was noted in the method section, all areas of the qualitative data were subject to quality criteria (Clarke and Braun, 2013); the use of mixed methods in the present study aimed to triangulate some of the data collected and, therefore, lessen some of the potential limitations that might exist.
5.8 Implications

5.8.1 Implications for research and practice

Whilst the findings of the present study sought to offer an original contribution to knowledge by eliciting the voice of teachers in relation to radicalisation, extremism, and the implementation of Prevent, there are directions for future research that could be developed further.

Some suggestions for future research could include a larger sample size of teachers in the quantitative data phase, this would allow for larger inferences to be made within the data, as well as the possibility of using inferential statistics. This would have the effect of improving the validity of the data and reducing bias. There is also the possibility of using a larger sample size from different regions of the country in order to improve the representativeness of the sample. It would also be of great interest to develop some of the points raised within the study to extend the research process from teachers to encompass the voice of children, young people, and their families. Given that teachers raised concerns in the present study as to the affect that they felt the programme was having on their pupils it is a particularly relevant avenue for future research. This would enable greater triangulation of the data between different parties, and garner a greater sense of how radicalisation, extremism and issues surrounding Prevent are perceived and understood. There are also some important implications for future research in relation to the impact of Prevent in serving to stifle meaningful discourse between children, young people and staff, and how to address this.

The issue of teachers’ individual-level factors in implementation is a burgeoning area for research. A possible avenue would be to examine how teachers’ individual level factors (e.g. emotional self-efficacy, teaching self-efficacy, burnout) affect the implementation of Prevent. There were some important points made within the present study as to how Prevent is being implemented (e.g. in relation to its ‘core components’, resources); future research could help to inform how Prevent might be best delivered in schools, by including the voice of teachers into future programme development. It would also be of interest to examine the factors that affect the implementation of Prevent on an ecological level, including individual, school, and community level factors.
In terms of how Educational Psychologists can help teachers address the issue of radicalisation and extremism there are also a number of implications for practice. Teachers felt that they needed to be better supported in the delivery of Prevent. Recent research suggests that training and coaching may be highly influential factors in the effective implementation of preventative programmes. EPs are very well placed to be able to work with teachers and schools through, consultation, assessment, and intervention. EPs potentially have a role in helping schools take appropriate steps to prevent children and young people becoming radicalised to extremist positions or ideologies. This could be achieved by helping teachers create a safe ‘space’ in their classrooms by encouraging respectful, healthy debate and avoiding unintentional marginalising or polarising discourses.

In terms of how EPs can help maximise the implementation of interventions it would be useful for EPs, and others in the field, to become more versed in the intricacies of implementation science. This includes becoming more aware of the factors that may influence intervention delivery and success, as detailed, for example, in Domitrovich et al’s (2008) conceptual framework. This would allow for EPs to become more aware of both the anticipated and unanticipated consequences of intervention delivery.

EPs also have the ability to be able to work with parents and co-construct solutions to a problem which is becoming increasingly difficult to discuss without fear of persecution. When parents feel included in the education of their children they are more likely to support the efforts of teachers in schools. EPs could help facilitate communication between parents, schools, and external agencies in a way that is conducive to the development of the child or young person. Having open and shared conversations around radicalisation not only strengthens relationships between individuals but may also help to diminish the development of extremist behaviours. For EPs as practitioners this may translate into organising regular planning meetings, group consultations, or being on hand to offer psychological advice and support in a preventative manner whenever the need arises.
5.9 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore teachers’ beliefs and values towards radicalisation and extremism, as well as their perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent. The intention was to unify quantitative data from a larger sample (n=38) of teachers with the greater depth associated with qualitative research. To achieve this a sequential explanatory mixed methods design was used.

There were two main research questions which encompassed both quantitative and qualitative elements. The quantitative strand consisted of a teacher self-report survey which drew information on their personal and professional characteristics. This included a series of scales to determine teacher attitudes towards the implementation of Prevent. The qualitative strand consisted of interviews with 10 teachers drawn via maximum variation sampling from the larger quantitative sample. These semi-structured interviews explored in detail their experience of radicalisation, extremism and the implementation of Prevent.

There were a number of implications for researchers, practitioners, and programme developers as a result of the findings from the study. Specifically, the need for teachers to be better supported in their efforts to implement anti-radicalisation strategies, both in training and with the ongoing support they receive. It is vital that teachers have a better understanding of the core components of the programme so that they have greater confidence in understanding what they are supposed to deliver and what adaptations are acceptable to make. There were also some significant implications for how Prevent is being disseminated in schools, with teachers reporting that they felt it is important that children, young people, and their families are included in the process.

It is the belief of the author that the present study has made an original contribution to knowledge, with implications for both research and practice in the field of Educational Psychology. If teachers are expected to play such a critical role in the prevention of children and young people becoming radicalised to extremist positions, then it is vital that their professional views are included in the future development of preventative programmes and practices.
References


Appendices

Appendix 1: Information sheet for Head Teachers / SLT

INFORMATION SHEET FOR HEAD TEACHERS AND SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

I am writing to you to request your involvement in an exciting project about teachers’ beliefs, values, and attitudes towards radicalisation, extremism and the implementation of anti-radicalisation strategies in schools. Anti-radicalisation training is provided for teachers and staff within schools in an attempt to prevent children and young people from being drawn into extremist forms of behaviour. The current research aims to investigate the views that teachers hold on these strategies, given that there is very little research to date in this field. The research is being conducted as part of a doctoral thesis from the University of Sheffield for the award of Doctorate in Educational and Child Psychology.

I am writing to you to explain that I will be requesting, with your consent, teachers in your school to be involved in the research project. I am aiming for teachers to complete a questionnaire on their professional characteristics (e.g., length of time teaching, gender, training) and their views on the implementation of current anti-radicalisation training that they might have received. Following this questionnaire, a small group of teachers will be invited, based on the information provided in the survey, to be interviewed for approximately 30 minutes on their views.

If you would like any more information or have any questions about the research project, please telephone Craig Joyce on 07762741256 or email me at caljoyce1@sheffield.ac.uk

Who will conduct the research?

The research will be conducted by Craig Joyce in the School of Education, University of Sheffield, Glossop Road, Sheffield, S10 2TN.

Title of the research

"Exploring mainstream teachers' beliefs and values towards radicalisation, extremism and their perceptions of and attitudes towards the implementation of anti-radicalisation strategies"

What is the aim of the research?

The main aim is to examine teachers’ beliefs, values, and attitudes towards the implementation of current anti-radicalisation strategies in schools.

Where will the research be conducted?

Primary and Secondary schools in West Yorkshire.

What is the duration of the research?

The project itself runs from June 2017 until October 2017.

What would teachers be asked to they took part?

Teachers in both primary and secondary schools will be asked to complete a short survey about themselves which will cover issues such as the length of time they have been teaching, and their feelings about the implementation of current anti-radicalisation training. This survey will be completed once and will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.
Participating teachers may then be invited, based on the information provided in the questionnaires, to participate in a short recorded interview (approximately 30 minutes). Interviews would be arranged through email and take place during the school day in an empty classroom or office, at a time suitable to your staff. This interview is intended to explore teachers’ thoughts and experiences of current anti-radicalisation training, including resources, implementation issues, training and the support model.

What happens to the data collected?

The data will be analysed by myself, a doctoral researcher at the University of Sheffield. It is also possible that I will write articles for academic journals based on the research findings. In all publications and reports data will be presented anonymously.

How is confidentiality maintained?

All data provided will be treated as confidential and will be completely anonymous. Identifying information (e.g. teacher names) will only be used in order to match responses about the same individual from different sources (e.g. the teacher survey). After this matching process is complete, all identifying information will be destroyed. For interview data, names will be changed at transcription and the audio-recordings (which are stored on a secure, password protected device) will then be destroyed after the project is completed.

All survey data will be stored on a secure, password-protected computer to which only myself will have access. For interview data, names will be changed at the time of transcription. The source of any comments included in reports or publications will be anonymous.

Criminal Records Check

I have undergone a Criminal Records Bureau check at the Enhanced Disclosure level.

Will schools be paid for participating in the research?

I am not able to offer any payment or incentive for participating in this study.

Contact for further information

If you would like any more information or have any questions about the research project, please telephone Craig Joyce:

Craig Joyce
Educational Psychology & Early Years
SEN Support Service
Westtown Centre
Boothroyd Green
Dewsbury
WF13 2RQ

Tel: 07762741256
Email: caljoyce1@sheffield.ac.uk
What if something goes wrong?

If completing the survey makes you worry about any of your pupils’ wellbeing then you should speak to your school’s safeguarding and child protection officer in the first instance. If you ever wish to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research you should contact Dr. Lorraine Campbell, School of Education, The University of Sheffield, Western Bank, Sheffield, S10 2TN, UK.
Appendix 2: Information sheet for teachers

INFORMATION SHEET FOR TEACHERS

Your school has been asked to be involved in an exciting project about teachers’ beliefs, values, and attitudes towards radicalisation, extremism and the implementation of anti-radicalisation strategies in schools. Anti-radicalisation training is provided for teachers and staff within schools in an attempt to prevent children and young people from being drawn into extremist forms of behaviour. The current research aims to investigate the views that teachers hold on these strategies, given that there is very little research to date in this field. The research is being conducted as part of a doctoral thesis from the University of Sheffield for the award of Doctorate in Educational and Child Psychology.

I am writing to you to explain your role as a teacher in the research project. I am aiming for teachers to complete a questionnaire on their professional characteristics (e.g. length of time teaching, gender, training) and their views on the implementation of current anti-radicalisation training that you might have received. Following this questionnaire a small group of teachers will be invited, based on the information provided in the survey, to be interviewed for approximately 30 minutes on their views.

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Where will the research be conducted?

Primary and Secondary schools in West Yorkshire.

What is the duration of the research?

The project itself runs from June 2017 until October 2017.

Why have I been chosen?

I am writing to you because your school has expressed an interest in being involved in the research. Schools have been chosen based on their accessibility; these schools receive support from the Educational Psychology Service. The researcher is a Trainee Educational Psychologist in these schools.
What would I be asked to if I took part?

Teachers in both primary and secondary schools will be asked to complete a short survey about themselves which will cover issues such as the length of time they have been teaching, and their feelings about the implementation of current anti-radicalisation training. This survey will be completed once and will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Participating teachers may then be invited, based on the information provided in the questionnaires, to participate in a short recorded interview (approximately 30 minutes). Interviews would be arranged through email and take place during the school day in an empty classroom or office, at a time suitable to yourself. This interview is intended to explore teachers’ thoughts and experiences of current anti-radicalisation training, including resources, implementation issues, training and the support model.

What happens to the data collected?

The data will be analysed by myself, a doctoral researcher at the University of Sheffield. It is also possible that I will write articles for academic journals based on the research findings. In all publications and reports data will be presented anonymously.

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What if something goes wrong?

If completing the survey makes you worry about any of your pupils’ wellbeing then you should speak to your school’s safeguarding and child protection officer in the first instance. If you ever wish to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research you should contact Dr. Lorraine Campbell, School of Education, The University of Sheffield, Western Bank, Sheffield, S10 2TN, UK.
Appendix 3: Teacher Survey

<table>
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<tr>
<th>NAME:</th>
<th>SCHOOL:</th>
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<td>EMAIL:</td>
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Part 1 – ABOUT YOU

1. Are you
   - □ Class teacher
   - □ Support staff (e.g. teaching assistant, learning mentor)

2. If you are a class teacher, how many years have you been qualified?

3. If you are a class teacher, have you received anti-radicalisation training in PREVENT?
   - □ No coverage of PREVENT
   - □ Some coverage of PREVENT
   - □ Substantial coverage of PREVENT

4. What is your gender? **Tick one only**
   - □ Male
   - □ Female
   - □ Prefer not to say

5. What is your ethnicity? (e.g. White, Black, Asian)

6. What is your age in years?

7. What is your highest qualification? **Tick one only**
   - □ Undergraduate degree (e.g. BEd)
   - □ Postgraduate certificate (e.g. PGCE)
   - □ Masters degree (e.g. MEd, MSc)
   - □ Doctorate (e.g. DEd, PhD)

8. Please indicate your experience of implementing anti-radicalisation strategies **Tick one only**
   - □ No experience
   - □ Less than 1 year
   - □ 2-5 years
   - □ More than 5 years
9. Do you have any of the following additional responsibilities? Tick any that apply

- Head teacher
- Deputy/assistant head teacher
- Special educational needs co-ordinator/inclusion manager
- Key Stage co-ordinator
- PSHE and/or SEAL co-ordinator
- Other (please specify) __________________________

Part 2 – IMPLEMENTATION / ATTITUDES

1. How valuable do you feel the PREVENT programme is in your school? (1 = Not valuable at all, 10 = Extremely valuable)

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2. How important do you think it is for teachers to receive training in anti-radicalisation/extremism? (1 = Not important at all, 10 = Extremely important)

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3. How easy has it been to deliver the PREVENT programme in your class/school? (1 = Not easy at all to implement, 10 = Very easy to implement)

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4. Do you feel you have had enough training on PREVENT? (1 = Not enough training at all, 10 = Training quantity has been exceptional)

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5. How comfortable do you feel in delivering the PREVENT programme? (1 = Not comfortable at all, 10 = Extremely comfortable)

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Appendix 4: Consent form

TEACHER CONSENT FORM

Exploring mainstream teachers' beliefs, values, and attitudes towards radicalisation, extremism, and the implementation of anti-radicalisation strategies in schools.

An information sheet is attached to this form. Please read it carefully. Please complete the slip below to indicate if you would be happy to participate in the research project stated above, which involves filling in a questionnaire and an interview by myself. Finally, please also remember that if you do decide to take part, you are free to change your mind at any point in the study.

I do not / do wish (please delete as appropriate) to participate in the research project, which will include a questionnaire and a possible interview.

Please tick the following boxes if you are happy to be included in:

The research questionnaire  

The research interview  

My details are as follows:

My name  
School name  

Signed: ______________________  Date: ________
Appendix 5: Interview Schedule

Part A: Usual Practice/general awareness

1. To your knowledge, why has the school undertaken training in anti-radicalisation (PREVENT)?

2. What is your understanding of how radicalisation and extremism is defined in the UK?

3. What do you perceive the warning signs of radicalisation to be?

4. What do you do as a teacher if you are concerned about a child being radicalised?

5. Which young people do you see as being at risk of radicalisation?

6. Do you believe that extremism is relevant to you as a teacher?

7. Do you understand what your duties under the prevent legislation are supposed to be?

8. How long has your school been implementing PREVENT for?

9. How would you describe the overall profile of PREVENT in your school? Is it just classroom teachers that are involved? How involved is the head teacher? Senior management team?

Part B: Implementation Dosage

10. How long have you been implementing PREVENT?

11. How often do you refer to the PREVENT training that you have received?

12. Do you have an allotted time/space to talk about the content covered in the anti-radicalisation training on a regular basis?

13. Have you been able to use the PREVENT materials in specific lessons? (teachable moments)

14. Have you or the pupils been able to apply/generalise PREVENT in the classroom?

15. Have you or the pupils been able to apply/generalise PREVENT outside the classroom (e.g. playtime, lunchtime)?

Part C: Attitudes to PREVENT specifically
16. What do you think about the PREVENT programme? Have you had to adapt any of the materials that you were given? Do you feel that you have needed to prepare for conversations that you have had with your pupils using the PREVENT guidelines?

17. Are there any specific materials or lessons that you have used in relation to PREVENT? (e.g. scripted lessons)

18. How familiar are the concepts and strategies?

19. What do you think about the PREVENT resources? (e.g. training materials, posters, etc.)

20. How suitable/appropriate are the resources? (e.g. age-level, particular class, emotional level)

21. Are there any aspects of PREVENT that you have found particularly useful for your class/school?

22. Any there any aspects of the programme which you feel are not appropriate?

23. What do your pupils feel about PREVENT (e.g. conversations around radicalisation)?

24. Perceptions of impact: (Aims: teacher perceptions of self-efficacy, confidence, competence, skills/knowledge to implement, timing, content, utility, frequency, type of support available) Has PREVENT made a difference to your pupils? All pupils, or some groups of pupils particularly? The school more widely?

25. Training: The PREVENT programme provides training, both online and in group based (in-person) settings. Have you been able to receive some of this training? To what extent have you been trained in PREVENT?

26. If yes: How useful did you find this? What particular aspects were useful? Was there anything missing? What additional/alternative training might have been useful? Were you required to ‘cascade’ the training/brief colleagues? Have you had any additional in-school PREVENT training?

27. Would you like to see more support? Less support?

28. How important do you feel it is to have access to ongoing support?

Part D: Factors affecting implementation

29. How easy has it been to implement PREVENT? Is there anything about your school that has made it easier?

30. Have there been any challenges to the implementation of PREVENT?
Part E: Summarising experience (Aims: tap attitudes, beliefs, unanticipated experiences and factor)

31. As you know, this research project is examining the experiences of teachers delivering PREVENT in schools. Based on your experiences of PREVENT what advice would you give to a teacher from another school who has not implemented strategies from PREVENT before?

Part F: Closing the interview (Aims: unanticipated experiences, factors etc.; emergent themes)

32. Is there anything you would like to add?
33. Is there anything that you think I should have asked you about, or missed out?

ASK: Do you have any questions? Thank you for your time, I shall now turn off the recorder.
Appendix 6: Braun and Clarke’s (2013) 15-point checklist

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<th>Process</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
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<tr>
<td>Transcription</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The data have been transcribed to an appropriate level of detail, and the transcripts have been checked against the tapes for ‘accuracy’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coding</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Each data item has been given equal attention in the coding process.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Themes have not been generated from a few vivid examples (an anecdotal approach), but instead the coding process has been thorough, inclusive and comprehensive.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>All relevant extracts for all each theme have been collated.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Themes have been checked against each other and back to the original data set.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Themes are internally coherent, consistent, and distinctive.</td>
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<td>Analysis</td>
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<td>Data have been analysed - interpreted, made sense of - rather than just paraphrased or described.</td>
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<td>Analysis and data match each other - the extracts illustrate the analytic claims.</td>
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<td>Analysis tells a convincing and well-organised story about the data and topic.</td>
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<td>A good balance between analytic narrative and illustrative extracts is provided.</td>
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<td>Overall</td>
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<td>Enough time has been allocated to complete all phases of the analysis adequately, without rushing a phase or giving it a once-over-lightly.</td>
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<td>Written</td>
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<td>The assumptions about, and specific approach to, thematic analysis are clearly explicated.</td>
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<td>There is a good fit between what you claim you do, and what you show you have done - i.e., described method and reported analysis are consistent.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>The language and concepts used in the report are consistent with the epistemological position of the analysis.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>The researcher is positioned as active in the research process; themes do not just 'emerge'.</td>
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Appendix 7: Ethics approval letter

The University Of Sheffield.

Downloaded: 03/03/2018
Approved: 23/05/2017

Craig Joyce
Registration number: 150107646
School of Education
Programme: Doctorate in Educational and Child Psychology

Dear Craig

PROJECT TITLE: Exploring mainstream teachers beliefs, values and attitudes towards radicalisation, extremism and the implementation of anti-radicalisation strategies
APPLICATION: Reference Number 013701

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 23/05/2017 the above-named project was approved on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 013701 (dated 05/05/2017).
- Participant information sheet 1029469 version 2 (05/05/2017).
- Participant consent form 1029470 version 2 (05/05/2017).

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please inform me since written approval will be required.

Yours sincerely

David Hyatt
Ethics Administrator
School of Education
Appendix 8: Example interview transcript (Participant 3)

Reference – Participant 3
Transcriber – CAU
Date Transcribed – 21 November 2017
Recorded Time – 27 minutes

I: Trainee educational psychologist Craig Joyce on Monday the 20th of November and I'm here with participant number 3, so just the first question was, to your knowledge, why is your school undertaking training in anti-radicalisation?

P: I think it's an LEA wide thing isn't it that all schools were doing it. I'd actually moved into [***] from another area so I've actually done the prevent training twice so I did it in my previous post and in this post as well so...

I: Was it different?

P: Yes yes so those experiences were quite different of how it was delivered and I think it was just it because this area does have a large percentage of ethnic minorities and it is something that we need to be aware of in schools really.

I: Okay well that's a really interesting point so we can pick up on that like a bit later on about the differences in the training that you've received. So your understanding then how would you define radicalisation and extremism in your own terms?

P: I think it was really interesting because in my previous post there had been a BNP councillor elected in the area where we were so it was looking at that it can be different ends of the scale from sort of white supremacy kind of radicalisation to sort of what people perceive in the press largely as the Islamic radicalisation so I think it's a lot of the issues around grooming and targeting children and how children are exposed to radicalisation I think it's important to be aware of and the different forms that it can take from sort of social media and that kind of thing so just an awareness of how it can happen and particularly with young children because I think sometimes you perceive that it doesn't it doesn't happen with children this young so it was just having...
I: You think it does yeah.

P: ...yeah yeah think and I think incidentally the children might not be aware that it is but I think in conversations that you have with the children and their perceptions that they have of particular things and that misinformation sometimes that they have and being able to deal with that in a school setting and kind of show children a broad you know through a broad and balanced curriculum but that kind of understanding and tolerance of religious differences and things is important.

I: What do you do if you’re concerned about a child being radicalised? What steps do you take?

P: I think I would definitely go and speak to the Head Teacher and you just have a chat with them. You’d perhaps kind of look and maybe talk to the previous teacher if there’d been any concerns and things as well if there was anything that they had noticed but I think yeah definitely kind of just on a kind of safeguarding thing you would definitely go and discuss it with your Head Teacher and just kind of keep an eye on it maybe bring it to the attention ask my TAs if they’ve noticed anything or the people working with the child and that kind of thing and perhaps just observe as well and see what was happening.

I: Which children do you perceive as being most at risk?

P: It’s quite interesting isn’t it because when we were doing the attachment training and often the children that are the loudest and the noisiest are the ones that you’re perhaps not the most worried about because they’re very vocal and they’re telling you how they’re feeling; and it’s the ones that are the quieter ones the ones that want to go underneath the radar that will do anything not to be noticed and not to be looked at. The ones that you perhaps know are spending quite a lot of time on their own so ones that you know are perhaps looking at unsuitable content on social media and things that might be using computer and laptops and things unsupervised so I think sometimes when the children will say that they are watching videos and things with me you might just have a little chat with them about what they’re watching.
P: Yeah, I think at this level when you're working with the young children that's very much what it is isn't it? It's their perceptions of the world around them and it's them making sense of the world around them and finding their place in that world around them that's a very, for them, can be quite a confusing or a difficult place. It's helping them to make sense of it and they might say something, you know, 'this is made me feel frightened' or 'this made me feel afraid' or they might say 'I didn't like that' or they do it like that and it's just and it's how you deal with those. It's a lot of it is incidental I think, the prevent when it comes up...

I: So teachable moments.

P: Yeah.

I: As opposed to a curriculum.

P: Yeah which is very much like your social and emotional isn't it; it comes up, you might be reading a story or something and there's suddenly a child says something or there's a conversation and you pick up and you have a conversation around it and I think as well when you're doing your subjects like RE and circle time it kind of comes in incidentally and with the children.

I: Perceptions of impact so I suppose in terms of you feeling like it making a difference for any of the pupils that you've worked with, have you noticed any difference as a result of prevent being in place that has been ...

P: I would say probably not really if I'm being really honest (laughs) with you.

I: Yeah that's fine. The prevent programme provides training both online and in group based settings so you've been able to receive some of that training haven't you?

P: Yeah.

I: Yeah. If you have, how useful did you find that?
I think it's like lots of things we talk about isn't it? It's nice I don't think I would ever it's those discussions you have with the children isn't it? It's kind of your value system and so you would talk to them about your value system and how I like to live my life and the rules I kind of follow and things but then I wouldn't ever expect the children to have those same values in that same, you know, just because I believe this I don't expect you to believe that so I do try and be very tolerant with them. I do try and encourage them that we can all have different opinions and that's fine, you know, and be able to voice those opinions and it is important that you can talk about your opinions and feel safe to do that and to be able to qualify your opinions and things with the children.

I: I suppose just in, you know, you were saying about the conversations you have with your pupils around prevent so thinking about the conversations about radicalisation that you might be having, what do you think in currently or in the past, what do your children think about those kind of conversations what do you think their perception of the kind of things you're trying to teach them are?

P: I think young children are very open to it aren't they and they often are very honest and they will say things and because they don't realise that sometimes what they're saying is quite shocking quite inappropriate so it's being able to them deal with those things that the children say but I think generally they're very young children I think are quite open and honest and say what they think and it's your opportunity then isn't it to deal with a perhaps a word that they're using that is inappropriate in a in a nice kind of way and I think that's where your skills as a teacher come in isn't it? It's you can kind of explain and look at it in a situation where well how would you feel if someone called you this kind of name and, you know, is it appropriate and what, you know, what could we call that person and what should that person be called and things so ...

I: So it sounds like that type of education isn't just exclusive to prevent though is it?

P: No.

I: What does that feel more like? a bit like social and emotional learning?
P: Yeah it could be.

I: Okay so are there what do you think about the general prevent resources so sort of the training materials things that you were given what did you think about that?

P: I think again they were very generic weren't they and I think a lot of the videos weren't showing older children and I think it would have been nice to have some materials perhaps that showed how it was pertinent to primary schools and how it is how it would look for us in a as an environment working with very young children and the kind of things that we might ... 

I: So they're not always, you know, age appropriate or emotionally appropriate for the kind of kids that you might be teaching?

P: Yeah.

I: Okay. Are there any aspects of prevent that you found particularly useful?

P: I think just the some of the awareness and some of the kind of things that you didn't know before that it was alright and I think just that kind of like you say I think particularly with the online and the social kind of side how that how it can be done through that the radicalisation and just being more aware and how subtle it can be and how it can go on over time and that they are able to, you know, vulnerable children so I think it does kind of make you more aware of the vulnerable children in your class and the ones that are perhaps could be more susceptible to radicalisation and just kind of give you a they're not on your radar but the ones that you would just be a little bit more aware maybe being exposed to things.

I: So thinking about the responsibility that you talked about, do you think it is what do you think about your responsibility to police your students so I suppose just from prompts there for you do you think it's possible, do you think it's effective and do you think it's ethical?
P: I think it's then the parents isn't it and that break down in trust then because often you're doing an awful lot to gain the trust of these people and ask them to come in and open up and be honest with you and then at the same time but I suppose it's the same as safeguarding isn't it, you always have to make someone aware that if what you're telling me is a safeguarding issue I will have to pass it on.

I: How familiar are the concepts and strategies in prevent, how familiar were they to you do they remind you of anything else or that you've done before?

P: Not particularly no. I've well I suppose they are similar to your safeguarding things aren't they and those the accountability is quite scary isn't it I think, you know, that you might be the person that misses something or that similarly you might be the person that jumps on something that...

I: So am I hearing in that there's an element of is there an element of fear related to, you know, you were saying about something being scary about if you don't do it so does that change how you then approach the way you think about it because of your own accountability?

P: It probably does but then that's wrong because it does it wouldn't with the safeguarding thing would it? The safeguarding I think you'd feel a lot more confident about...

I: Standing your ground?

P: Yeah this is what I need to do.

I: Do you think that's about because of preparedness though in terms of like you were saying...

P: It could be.

I: ... about the amount of training you've received?
kind of it's difficult isn't it. I think it would be nice sometimes to have more teachers involved with the training people that kind of have had the experiences and can link it to personal experience so it was pertinent to education because kind of speaking to friends they had it in industry and things in people working within the council and things and it's very different for them to what it is for us working in school yet they'd had very similar training hadn't they? I think some of them had watched the same videos and things and it would been nice if it had kind of been tailored...

I: Bespoke to education.

P: ... yeah yeah.

I: That's interesting. Do you feel that prevent fits in with safeguarding or do you think it's something different?

P: That's a tricky question isn't it? It's really difficult isn't it? At what point is something a safeguarding issue and something is overstepping a line, going over a line? It almost is, isn't it? And what is a different culture or a different religion or a different way of doing things and so it's just being aware isn't it? The accountability is quite scary.

I: Do you feel that you've got any issues with that though that you have around trust?

P: So i.e. ...

I: It's the accountability I think isn't it that's hard.

P: Having to report your pupils, you know, you have they have a trusting relationship with you and you're potentially having to report them.

I: Yeah yeah I think that's very ...

P: How do you feel about that?
P: I think the delivery of the training, it was slightly more enigmatic slightly more charismatic and made it sort of kind of personal experiences and personal anecdotes and things. I think here we had some people that were training how to do it as well and it just made it a little bit more. I think the kind of the questions I worked with, it’s bizarre isn’t it. I worked with a very very young staff in my previous school so they were kind of a bit more clued up and street wise and savvy about some things but maybe a little bit more prepared to ask questions so I think we kind of drove the training a little bit more whereas here I think it was very much kind of chalk and talk and I think it was useful to kind of ask the questions that we felt were prevalent to the children that we were working with, you know, that were pertinent to us, you know, what would you do if a child says this how would you do this what would you recommend for that? This is what we might have seen in school would that be a prevent thing or is that a safeguarding thing? and we could ask lots more questions but I think here it was a little bit more kind of chalk and talk this is what you do.

I: Do you think that so you were saying you haven’t really had much of a chance to sort of generalise really what you’ve learnt in those trainings into your daily sort of teaching practice?

P: Yeah yeah I would like to say that you’re probably not seeing any of the things that we’re talking about in your classroom but you are aren’t you just at a very low level. I think obviously because the children I’m working with are very young you kind of think that they’ve maybe not been exposed to it but then sometimes you can have a conversation and think actually this is a misconception that a child’s got or you know, this has come from a word, I think it’s mainly with young children it’s the words the terminology they would use to describe people isn’t it and how they would names they would give to people and things.

I: I mean interestingly you said that you think, you know, anti-radicalisation training is important, you know, you gave that a seven but you were saying that the amount of training you’ve had is, you know, border line insignificant sort of down towards four so I suppose attitudes to prevent specifically then just thinking about that, what do you think about the prevent programme?

P: I think it’s difficult isn’t it? I think the government had to kind of be seen to be doing something and this is maybe a way of doing it and they perhaps maybe did it quite quickly and it maybe was something that needed thinking about a little bit more carefully and looking at. The best way of the best way of doing it really and again it's
around that and so it’s important to celebrate the differences that the children have and to be kind of seen to be aware of that and when point things come up that you can talk to the children about to share it.

I: How long have you been implementing prevent for?

P: So my first training I think would probably have been about four years ago now probably.

I: Okay and what was the differences between those training sessions then?

P: Very difficult isn’t it? I think my last school I was in was a very large school and like I say again predominantly white British and there’d been a BNP councillor elected and it was an Asian a Muslim guy that came to do the training but kind of quite eye opening we ended up talking a lot about kind of things like tattoos and ways that you might kind of spot people that perhaps when you first look at them you wouldn’t identify them as being someone that would be a danger to children in terms of radicalisation, you know, being potentially someone to keep an eye on and things and looking at again I think it kind of made me realise that breadth of it that it isn’t always what’s perceived in the press but there is a lot of the kind of white, you know, supremacies and BNP and those kind of philosophies and things and our work at my previous school was more around that so we had children from a neighbouring school in Dewsbury who came and we looked at a lot at relationships with the children because our children’s experience was very quite British and so it was sort of broadening their horizons and things.

I: Do you refer to the prevent training that you’ve been given very often?

P: Not really no.

I: Okay and what do you feel like was a difference between that first session and the one you’ve had when you’ve been here then, how was that different?
I: Do you understand what your duties are as a teacher in Prevent, do you feel like that has been made clear enough to you?

P: Perhaps not now maybe it’s knowing exactly what to do. I mean, you know, because there was all the information about phoning and kind of informing people if you’d got any concerns and things and I know it was in the press wasn’t it about the number of referrals having kind of gone through gone through the roof and things so I think that kind of short period of time to collect information and things is important but no it’s maybe something I would like a little bit more information on.

I: Do you think extremism is relevant to you as a teacher?

P: What did I, what did that I would that I would be doing it or that ....?

I: Yeah that you’re ...

P: Yeah I think it’s important to give the children a real balanced and broad spectrum isn’t it so your own person it’s not hammering your own personal beliefs so I think it’s really important in whatever we’re doing I would always say to the children ‘some people would think that some people believe that’ so when we’re doing any RE teaching and things in particular, you know, we looked we looked at the ten commandments and so it’s important the language that you’re using isn’t it that it’s not saying ‘this is what I believe’ you know necessarily. You might say ‘I believe this as a Christian but other people would have other opinions and different beliefs of things’ so it’s about your vocabulary choice I think with the children isn’t it and giving them that information and allowing them to ask questions and feel confident enough to ask questions about something.

I: How would you describe the overall profile of Prevent in your school?

P: We don’t have a large proportion of EAL children and things but I think there is a perception in the area I think isn’t there with you, you know, people coming for work and things into the locality so there is an increase in children who speak English at home as an additional language and things who speak, you know, it’s their second language and I think there’s sort of maybe some misconceptions with some of the children
P: I've not gone back to any of the training or anything so I've not kind of sought it out to look at anything or anything again, use any of the materials again and things.

I: Is there anything particularly useful in there that you thought 'that was good' or anything missing that they didn't give you?

P: Again probably is how it's is with young children really. I think the materials were very much older children weren't they and we are kind of dealing with children in that kind of formative stage those very young age group and a lot of people would say the prevent agenda doesn't really apply to children so young but I think it does and I think it might have been useful to have a little bit more training about how to deal with situations when they do arise in school that could help you.

I: What additional support would you like to see then in terms of what other support would you have liked to have seen in terms of that training, in an ideal world what kind of model would you have liked to have been trained on?

P: Tricky one isn't it really 'cos it's kind of it's very time specific isn't it? You know, you kind of have this time to do it and things. I think a lot more kind of discussion about it and a chance kind of as a staff to look at how it is pertinent to our school how it does affect our school the issues that are in our school because again probably, you know, it looks like a very much white British school and people might say 'oh well the prevent agenda doesn't particularly apply here' but it it's looking at how that might how it might apply to my to our school and what we might need to do to kind of do it and just maybe some way of revisiting it just just over sort of regularly just to kind of see if there has been any issues that have come up. So like you would say like safeguarding is constantly isn't it? you're getting an update of this is what you're doing now and the kind of keeping children safe and things but once you've had the prevent training it kind of just disappears doesn't it and you don't do any for a long period of time again and ...

I: Do you think then that the role of so the role for instance of like the EP role Educational Psychology and kind of work that we do in schools with children could you see a place for the role of the EP in helping to facilitate the way that teachers work around prevent and radicalisation as an issue?
P: I think it is those that early identification isn’t it, you know, so looking at your children who are perhaps most vulnerable and I think your EP would be able to work on helping you identify those children and saying if it is something that might be a concern. I think, you know, if you...

I: So for clarification really is that, yeah?

P: Yeah yeah you know like I say when we were looking at the attachment and how it falls into the three groups and things and; you know; and how different groups of children maybe could be exposed to radicalisation; how it might affect various groups of children; you know, like your I think things like the football and that kind of thing isn’t it when you started looking at the particularly like the white supremacy stuff and football was generally at one point perceived as being an area where that was prevalent wasn’t it and so you know looking at identifying groups in your classroom that might be at risk of it would be useful.

I: Yeah and I suppose the complex interchange between that isn’t just just it doesn’t exist in it’s doesn’t just exist by itself it’s connected to lots of other things that are happening in family life as well. So how important do you feel it is to have on-going support on prevent?

P: Think it would be useful. Not regularly but just to have, I don’t know, sort of yearly just a kind of a check in really and just kind of catch up on it and a kind of discussion around it perhaps as a staff and things.

I: You were saying about how comfortable, you know, the ease of delivery you thought about putting it into practice, do you think it’s harder to put into practice then what you might think?

P: Yeah.

I: Yeah could you talk just a little bit around that?
P: I think when it's something it's like anything else isn't it? I know it's awful but as teachers you're kind of control freaks and so a lot of things you like to have had experience of yourself and you obviously feel more confident don't you talking about something that you've had personal experience of so it's something that I've never I don't think I would ever think that I've been exposed to anybody kind of attempting to radicalise me in any way or to fortunately or to kind of influence my decision to that extent so it's quite hard isn't it to talk to the children about how that might feel and how that might look when you haven't got that personal experience of it so to put it into, you know, a lot of things that you would talk to the children about you would put it into a personal experience; 'oh this happened to me' or 'a funny thing happened to me on the way to school!' and it's harder to do that isn't it when it's something that you don't feel completely confident with. There isn't a manual or a book particularly that you can read that says 'this is how you do it!' and so as a teacher you kind of feel and I think as well the children can ask you some quite challenging questions can't they and it's that kind of feeling a little bit exposed and in an area that you're not completely confident with is quite hard.

I: Okay so just I suppose to summarise, as you know this project's about examining the experience of teachers delivering prevent, so based on your experience of it what advice would you give to a teacher from another school who's not implemented any of that kind of work before or had, you know, training on it?

P: I think it's do ask lots of questions. If there's anything you're not sure of do kind of challenge and say what would I do in this situation? Where can I find more materials about that? Do kind of keep it higher on your agenda I suppose. In the general scheme of things kind of you know, when you're in a Year Two with lots of other things going on it can slip and it's just making sure that it is something that you're that you're aware of and you're vigilant around and knowing what to do if you do need to speak to someone else who you speak to and knowing the procedures (laughs) that you need to follow and things.

I: Okay is there anything you'd like to add?

P: Don't think so.

I: Or is there any questions that you thought 'oh wish he'd ask me that' and I haven't?
P: No I don’t think there is (laughs).

I: Okay alright okay I’m going to turn the recorder off.

P: Alright.

I: Thank you.

I = Interviewer

P = Participant

Word count 4959