



Surveying Lancashire: Expectations and experiences of Lancashire Constabulary and its associated partners

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Key Findings

- 1) Contrary to previous literature, contact(s) with the police was shown to have a positive effect and was useful in bolstering confidence in the Lancashire Constabulary.
- 2) The majority of the respondents were confident and satisfied with the Lancashire Constabulary in their local areas.
- 3) The respondents reported worries over funding and how this was affecting the service that Lancashire Constabulary was providing.
- 4) The respondents had strong views on physical visibility of Police presence: 74.1% valued foot patrols and 67.2% valued police vehicle patrols. Subsequently, 75.2% wanted an increase in foot patrols and 61.4% wanted an increase in vehicle patrols.
- 5) When asked to prioritise a range of policing issues the public chose violent crime (67.3%), gun/knife crime (58.1%) and sexual crime (55.3%) as very important. When asked to prioritise an individual issue the most rated were theft (17.8%), anti-social behaviour (17.2%), violent crime (14.7%) and drugs (14.2%).
- 6) A great majority of people felt safe during the day and in their own homes. Less felt safe in their local area and even less so in the night and in their town centre.
 - Age was found to be associated with feelings of vulnerability, with the exception of those who reported living in secure homes who reported the highest levels of safety.
 - Males felt significantly safer than females at night, in their own home, and in their local area.
- 7) The decreased feeling of safety in the above mentioned areas has been exacerbated by the reduction in officer numbers, with 76 participants explicitly stating how the reduction in police presence has made them feel more vulnerable than they were before.
- 8) There was also a small amount of mutual fear between different demographics: Muslims reported fearing Islamophobia from others, some white British respondents feared 'Asian youths' and 'foreign men', females fearing males in the night time, students fearing locals in pubs and bars and the locals fearing 'packs of students'.

- 9) 71.1% of participants reported having contact with the Lancashire Constabulary within the past 12 months. The majority found it easy to get in touch. However, 20 participants complained about the 101 number, stating that their trouble dissuaded them from using the 101 service to provide information to the Lancashire Constabulary in the future.
- 10) The majority of the participants reported that they would prefer to use contact with local officers (34.0%), telephoning the police (27.5%), and using the internet (27.1%) to keep in touch in the future.
- 11) Women are more likely than men to prefer social media as a means of communicating with the Lancashire Constabulary in the future, whilst men are more likely than women to prefer email.
- 12) Older people are more likely to value police presence in the form of viewing online only support and assisted watch schemes
- 13) Contrary to the fundamental policing style and the belief and resourcing model of most forces, participants placed more importance on receiving information from the police (on local crime and their neighbourhood team) than on having their say in the way their local area and Lancashire is policed.

Key Recommendations

- 1) Generally, Lancashire Constabulary should focus more on information out to the public and visibility in order to provide reassurance and promote community networks.
- 2) Becoming more transparent about the budget, perhaps through publishing financial reports and/or budget plans would reassure the public that the budget is being effectively managed.
- 3) Review the amount of foot patrols available with a view to increasing so as to meet the public demand for increased physical visibility.
- 4) When the Lancashire Constabulary aim to form policing priorities, it would be useful to determine the scope of the audience to reflect the differences within the demographics. Additional postcode analysis would help with this;
 - 4.1) When addressing countywide initiatives, an objective approach should be taken (i.e., crime statistics)
 - 4.2) When addressing neighbourhood team/local policing concerns, the subjective priorities of locals should be prioritised as they are more specific and personal concerns.
- 5) Increase opportunities for people to volunteer with the Lancashire Constabulary and other agencies. Also ensure information about existing volunteer work is well marketed and disseminated. Use people from local areas with local knowledge to feed information back into their local areas (i.e., getting a volunteer to update a social media page/answer the telephone for reports in their own local area). This would build rapport, increase satisfaction and encourage more information in as responses could be addressed with local knowledge.
- 6) Address issues with the 101 number, ensuring that call waiting time is not too long and that the caller is likely to have knowledge of their local area. Possibility of having call takers for certain areas, allowing the call taker to have local knowledge and can relate to the person who is passing information to the police or reporting an incident.

- 7) Continue developing virtual visibility for all demographics. However, consider marketing and targeting social media towards a younger demographic and a female demographic, and emails towards a male demographic.
- 8) Focus more on information out, as the participants reported this as more important. Better marketing and promotion of the 'In the know' service would address the 537 participants' wishes for more information and local crime statistics.
- 9) Provide better contact information for local officers/neighbourhood teams and local police stations. Also provide better information on when situations "aren't police matters" and provide information on which agency is responsible and how to get in touch with them.

Lancashire Constabulary – Community Engagement Research Draft

1. Introduction:

There is strong evidence that police-community engagement is crucial in determining how a community feels towards their local police force (Reiner, 2010). Contacts and engagement allows the police to explain how they are following established procedures fairly, equally and lawfully, whilst providing this information in a respectful way (Bradford *et al.*, 2006). Whilst assessments demonstrate improved services and decreased crime rates over the past few decades (College of Policing, 2015; CSEW, 2014), this is not reflected in the public's view (Bradford *et al.*, 2008). Some citizens claim that there has been no change or a worsening in their local policing, and that crime has risen. The void between the actual drop in crime and perceived lack of police effectiveness from the public has been termed by Herrington and Millie (2006) as the "reassurance gap".

Subsequently, there is recognition that the state of the police is heavily tied to the state of society (Reiner, 2010) and that the public have a vital role to play in the criminal justice system. Laws themselves derive from what the public believe is acceptable and unacceptable based upon established social norms. In addition, the public *want* a dialogue on crime and to engage with the police regarding concerns and priorities in their community (Casey, 2008). Since the public have such a vital role, 'public confidence' is a key indicator of police effectiveness (Gabbidon and Higgins, 2009). Community engagement has been associated with increasing public confidence, however there needs to be an initial level of public confidence in the police for community engagement to actually occur (Quinton and Morris, 2008). According to Stanko and Bradford (2009) there are four aspects that impact upon public confidence: (i) police effectiveness, (ii) fair treatment, (iii) community engagement, and (iv) the response to disorder. Whilst these concepts are mainly separate - the public can be confident in the police but they may not engage - it is important to note that they can also interlink. For instance, with a focus on community engagement, intelligence gained from the community can aid the police response to disorder and tackling the priorities of the community, and in turn the fair treatment and dealing with disorder can increase police

legitimacy and community engagement. Overall, in order to effectively address community engagement as a whole, it is important to consider all aspects.

2. Public Confidence:

Whilst there is still a lot of discussion around the quantifiable metrics of policing, i.e. crime rates, funding and officer numbers, there has long been a focus on the public perception of policing (Lowe and Innes, 2012). The public's perception has been that due to the cuts in funding there will be *less* officers and with a need to have *more* of an impact. Neighbourhood Policing through the National Reassurance Policing Programme (NRPP) aims to bring more local accountability. The NRPP aims to make neighbourhood policing teams more visible and locally known in order to bolster public confidence (Tuffin *et al*, 2006).

The use of the 'signal crimes' approach within the NRPP at a local level has been advocated as an effective strategy in dealing with public engagement, allowing the police to gauge the concerns of the community based upon intelligence collected from the community itself. With this aim, Jackson *et al* (2009) demonstrates how public confidence in the police is not rooted in the fear of crime, but in the disruption of social norms of everyday living. Innes (2004) purports that each individual interprets disorder differently, which in turn forms warning signals as to people, areas, events and times of day which they need to avoid. He states that the use of these warning signals as 'signal crimes' or 'signal disorders' means that the police can build an intelligence picture based upon a collection of public concerns. The collection can then be used as Community Intelligence (COMTEL) to determine community priorities (Innes *et al.*, 2009).

In terms of fair treatment, whilst there is an expectation in modern society for the police to act lawfully and focus on the needs of the public (Stanko and Bradford, 2009), there is also recognition that the police have the ability to use coercive force in order to conduct their duties. Fortunately, it is also recognised that they rarely do so (Tyler and Huo, 2002), and instead seek compliance through the use of their authority and legitimacy in order to ensure fair treatment (Reiner and Hough, 2005). However, the police's peculiar role within society makes it difficult to foster legitimacy, since they often attend immediate and difficult scenes of disorder without the capacity to provide long term solutions. Although legal bodies such as the police hold more authority and are likely to have the public follow their procedures (Tyler,

2006), it is crucial for the police to increase and maintain legitimacy in order to foster cooperation with the community (Tyler, 2006; Tyler and Fagan, 2008; Stanko and Bradford, 2009).

Likewise, if higher police legitimacy leads to more cooperation from the public, less confidence and legitimacy means that it will be difficult to engage with the community (Reisig *et al.*, 2007). Merry and colleagues (2011) discovered that those most likely to be dissatisfied with their experience were victims that were not kept informed of the progress of the crime after the initial police response. In addition, individuals that have multiple contacts with the police, especially those in high crime areas, have been found to develop a negative disposition towards the police as constant contacts become onerous (Carr, Napolitano and Keating, 2007; McCara and McVie, 2005). The police can act differently in high crime areas, potentially resulting in more aggressive stopping of people, higher suspicion, and acting prejudicially towards the 'known troublemakers' (Skogan, 2006). This can impact upon legitimacy and confidence if their actions are deemed to be unjust or prejudicial (Weitzer and Tuch, 2004). However, whilst this may occur in a small number of cases, Goudriaan, Wittebrood and Nieubeerta (2006) found that a lack of confidence in the police does not actually affect the reporting of crime.

As mentioned earlier, whilst community engagement is one of the main aspects that can increase public confidence (Stanko and Bradford, 2009), there also needs to be an initial level of public confidence in the police for community engagement to actually occur (Quinton and Morris, 2008).

3. Community Engagement:

Contact with the police can occur in many different ways; 'information in' contact refers to the public engaging with the police and 'information out' refers to the police engaging with the public. Studies into the contact between the police and the public have often found mixed results. However, with the overall effect of contact is seemingly negative and those that have experienced recent contact often report lower confidence in the police (Bradford, Stanko and Jackson, 2008). In addition, positive contacts do not seem to have an equivalent positive effect, therefore there may be little that the police can do to increase public confidence and to improve community engagement (Skogan, 2006). Bradford and colleagues (2009) suggest

that positive encounters are expected by those that have already positive views of the police but are considered ‘freak occurrences’ by those with negative views towards the police. In contrast to these results, there is evidence that positive contact can have a small positive effect and that community engagement is crucial for bolstering public confidence (Maxson *et al*, 2003; Bradford *et al*, 2009). Examining overall contact, ‘information in’, and ‘information out’ in more detail allows for a better understanding of how the police are addressing different types of community engagement.

‘Information In’:

‘Information in’ refers to the contacts that are initiated by the public and the information that is passed from them to the police. As mentioned above, there is support that better service will not improve public confidence because negative contacts have a strong negative effect whilst positive contacts have a weak (if any) positive effect (Skogan, 2006). Contrary to Skogan’s findings, Bradford and colleagues (2009) found that there was consistency with the procedural justice model and that positive contacts could in fact improve perceptions around police fairness and community engagement. They argue that personal contact with the police is more focused on the processes involved as opposed to the actual outcome of the contact (Bradford *et al*, 2009). Murphy (2009) builds upon this by suggesting that this only refers to police-initiated contact. This demonstrates that whilst all forms of contact needs to involve fair treatment and legitimacy, the ability to provide a suitable outcome should be specifically prioritised in citizen-initiated contacts. .

In order to better address the need to provide appropriate outcomes, the focus on neighbourhood policing and increased contact with the community would allow the police to become more responsive to the needs of the community (Quinton and Morris, 2008). The public tend to understand more about what affects local rather than national policing (Ipsos MORI, 2008). The neighbourhood policing programme and the ‘signal crimes’ approach take account of the subjectivity involved in addressing the concerns of the local community. Other perspectives, such as the Problem-Orientated Policing approach (POP) (Bullock and Tilley, 2003); lack the subjectivity in problem definition. In this approach, problems are defined and prioritised by their value within the criminal justice system. However, Innes (2005) considers that each individual interprets crimes differently and that disorder such as anti-social

behaviour, graffiti and dog fouling may be more of a priority to an individual than crimes that are deemed a priority under the criminal justice system. To take account of the subjectivity within a community, the collection of information or COMTEL can be presented to enable the police to prioritise certain acts of social control in order to address the needs of the public and to provide a suitable outcome (Innes and Sheptycki, 2004). While Innes *et al* (2009) postulates that 'intelligence led policing' which allows for the analysis of statistics and geographical information, to be the 'anti-thesis' to community policing, a combined approach of community policing and intelligence-led policing may provide a better outcome.

Yet in order to engage with the community, it is important to first understand *how* the community want to be engaged. Only relatively few people have a direct and constant contact with the police, meaning that the current representation of community engagement is skewed. It is necessary for the police to 'reach out' to demographics that receive no contact, as their confidence and views on legitimacy may already be influenced by media reports and vicarious experiences with the police (Hohl, Bradford and Stanko, 2010). It is also important to consider informal as well as formal contact. For instance, having receptive officers on patrol, attending public events, holding community focus groups would allow for better physical engagement. In conjunction, the police can also increase their 'virtual visibility' through social media, improved websites, and online forums that would allow the public to engage freely online with the police. Yet the most important factor to consider with regards to 'information in' is that it should be quick, easy, and effortless on behalf of the public, meaning that the police should ensure that they understand the public (Casey, 2008). Effortless contact would also allow for continuous engagement with the community, ensuring that the contact and communication does not become onerous (Loader, 2006).

'Information Out':

Just as important, 'information out' refers to the police contacting the community and the information that is passed from the police to the public. It is important to consider how the police are disseminating information to the community and how it is shaping perceptions of fairness and community engagement (Bradford *et al*, 2009). One of the most prominent issues is media dissemination of information about the police: it has been reported that out of a group of 1,191 people, 57% based their perception on television media and 48% based their

perceptions on newspaper media (Ipsos MORI, 2008). It is important that the police account for the effects of this contact since the media is often negatively biased and regularly report stories of misconduct or police failings, subsequently lead to the lowering of public confidence in the police (Weitzer and Tuch, 2004).

Hinkle and Weisburd (2008) found that residents recorded a higher level in the fear of crime when there was a high police presence in their neighbourhood. Taking account of this finding, the public notice when there is a high police activity in their area, meaning it would be useful for the police to keep the public informed and engaged as to the reasons for the high activity and the result. The 'information out', either as a specific communication regarding a particularly visible operation or a regular and continuous update, could occur in many different forms to address different demographics. It could occur through leaflet drops or direct written communication (Hohl, Bradford and Stanko, 2010), or through virtual means such as posting on social media and forums. In addition, the creation of personal 'accounts' with the police through their website could also allow for individuals to keep themselves updated on crimes that they report or have been a part of. With regards to direct police-initiated communication, the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) have a model of police communication with five 'good practice' points: (i) more information about policing direct from the police themselves, (ii) ensuring the information applies to the immediate local area, (iii) making it clear that the police know the problems the community are facing and how they are tackling them, (iv) ensuring that the community can easily access local police for more information, and (v) the writing style should be professional, yet simple and approachable (Hohl, Bradford and Stanko, 2010)

'Information out' and police-initiated contact is equally important as 'information in' and citizen-initiated contact in ensuring community engagement. This is mainly because, now more than ever, the police should not only be doing things lawfully, fairly and legitimately, but are also seen by the community as doing so (Bradford *et al.*, 2009).

4. Lancashire Constabulary Community Engagement

Recently, the Lancashire Constabulary have been restructuring to become more effective with communication and engagement both internally and externally. The main external initiative is better engagement with local communities as well as the wider public of Lancashire in an

attempt to discover the public's values and priorities of policing. The first step in this initiative, is gaining an insight into how the public want to find out about and contact the police, if at all.

This restructuring is part of the larger Future's Programme, in which there are 4 key elements: (i) local policing, (ii) crime and investigation, (iii) resource management, and (iv) business support. The first element is the key for community engagement in order to discover what services the public want in comparison with Police capabilities, i.e. merging of a 'signal crimes' and 'intelligence-led approach' (Innes, 2005; Innes and Sheptycki, 2004). Gaining the public's insight into local policing services is invaluable to the police, especially in light of economic cuts to their funding. Subsequently, the police must strike a balance in the way they reduce cost whilst maintaining an effective service to the public, and it is through the community engagement that they will determine what services the public value most in order to address this balance.

An example of this in the past was the public survey and consultation into the closure of front desks in 2011, as part of police cutbacks. A three month consultation saw over 11,000 responses which aided the police in determining how many and which front desks to close in order to balance the cuts needed against an effective service to the public. As a result, instead of closing the initially planned 21 out of 38 front desks they only closed 15 in total. In addition to reducing the number of closures, the remaining front desks still accounted for 90% of the public's demand. Furthermore, the example also highlights the need for police legitimacy and confidence, as there were reports that some members of the public did not believe it was a true consultation and that decisions had already been made behind the scenes with the consultation merely keeping up appearances. Whilst this was not the case, it demonstrates the importance of public confidence in bolstering community engagement in the first place (Tyler, 2006; Tyler and Fagan, 2008; Stanko and Bradford, 2009).

More broadly, community engagement is also necessary for intelligence purposes as most of the police intelligence derives from public reports of crime. Yet, current methods of engaging the public, such as PACT meetings (Police and Communities Together), often result in poor attendance. More recent restructuring demonstrates how the Lancashire Constabulary are making efforts to communicate and ensuring that there is little effort needed on behalf of the

public. Casey (2008) commented that it should be the police that are expected to understand the public, to which there have been a number of proposed communication methods that the police are looking to use in order to address the differing needs and differing demographics of the public. Some of the methods are already in use such as floodlight PACTs, unplanned street meetings and the use of social media, but they need targeting or adjusting in order for Neighbourhood Teams to more effectively communicate with their local communities. In addition, there is also a push to use members of the public themselves (i.e. special constables, community support officers and cadets) to liaise with the communities and communicate with the police. In addition, the use of neighbourhood watch schemes and services such as 'In the Know' aim to inform and disseminate information to the public, which in turn allows individual members of the public to continue disseminating that information by talking to other members of the public in their neighbourhood.

Whilst the previous points mentioned above are mainly concerned with physical visibility and engagement, there is also a focus on virtual visibility and engagement. Previously, Lancashire Constabulary utilised social media platforms and their website to broadcast information with little or no public interaction. However, there are more recent plans to improve online services. Within this restructuring, social media could facilitate the broadcasting of information as well as engaging and contacting the public informally on issues affecting the community as a whole. The possibility of creating online accounts through the police website may allow victims and witnesses to 'log in' and receive information on any crimes they have reported or witnessed and keep up to date with progress of the investigation. It may be possible that these online accounts could also disseminate important information via email to members of the public in certain areas, or merely provide a link to the 'In the Know' service (interactive site of policing information in the area). The main advantage in the use of virtual visibility is the efficiency of communication in which a wide audience can be addressed and engaged, with little resources needed. This in turn would reduce the demand for physical visibility, allowing the police to effectively cut the budget to meet their financial target but still effectively meet the needs of the public.

Overall, the need to engage the public has become a priority within the Lancashire Constabulary. The increase in virtual visibility could address a wider audience for little resources whilst reducing the amount of physical visibility needed. Yet, this must meet the

needs of the public. Therefore, uncovering how certain areas or demographics want to engage will determine how community engagement is formed. Taking account of the survey into the closing of the front desks, the respondents to the survey expressed an interest in the use of more virtual visibility and volunteers as part of physical visibility. However, the type of engagement will heavily rely on who is wanting to be engaged, meaning that the Lancashire Constabulary are keen to find out those who would prefer keeping in touch through social media and online accounts, and those who prefer face to face engagement and leaflet drops through front doors.

Methodology

Study Design:

The current study aimed to identify the expectations, experiences and engagement of those who live, work and/or study in the Lancashire County using an online survey that incorporated both closed and open questions. This was to allow Lancashire Constabulary and its partners to better understand how to meet the needs of the public. As the aim was to identify the views of those that reside in Lancashire, the study utilised a cross sectional design. Participants were selected through a snowball sampling technique, in which the link to the online survey was advertised and disseminated by the Lancashire Constabulary Corporate Communications through various social media such as Twitter and Facebook and also through email of anyone registered to 'In the Know'. In addition, UCLan similarly used social media sites to advertise the survey link. The sampling method was chosen mainly to allow for an unrestricted response from the public and to collect as many views as possible. However, there is a recognition that since the survey was conducted online that the sample would be skewed towards those that already have access to the internet and had access to the link provided by the Lancashire Constabulary.

Materials:

The questionnaire itself was designed in collaboration with the Lancashire Constabulary and partners (i.e. Lancashire County Council) in order to address the issues they thought to be prominent in surveying community engagement. The questionnaire itself was broken down into 4 sections: (i) Introduction, (ii) Policing: Your views and expectations, (iii) Keeping in touch, and (iv) Demographic information.

Section 1 included introductory questions asking whether the participant worked, resided or studied (or other) in Lancashire County. It went on to ask the participant their postcode and how long they have lived in their current area.

Section 2 was concerned with how the participant felt about their immediate area and what they valued most in policing when considering the police budget. It asked how the participant defined their community and how much they felt part of that community, how they felt about their local area, how satisfied they were with the police in their local area, how confident they

were with the police in their local area and how important it was to them that they had a say in the way their area was policed. The last question in Section 2 was a Likert scale that placed the participant in the position of rating the importance of policing services in the context of the police budget.

Section 3 explored any previous police contact that the participant had and whether the contact left them feeling satisfied. In addition, the section also then went on to ask how well informed the participant felt about the police in their local area before then moving on to a long list of communication methods. With regards to the list, the participant was asked which communication methods they had used in the past 12 months to find out about the Lancashire Constabulary and which methods they would prefer to use in the future. The section then finished with a general comments section, allowing participants to record any information they have with regards to Lancashire Constabulary.

The final section (Section 4) concerned the participant's demographic information. The section itself was important in determining what type of demographic preferred which communications type, as well as various other inferences.

Sample:

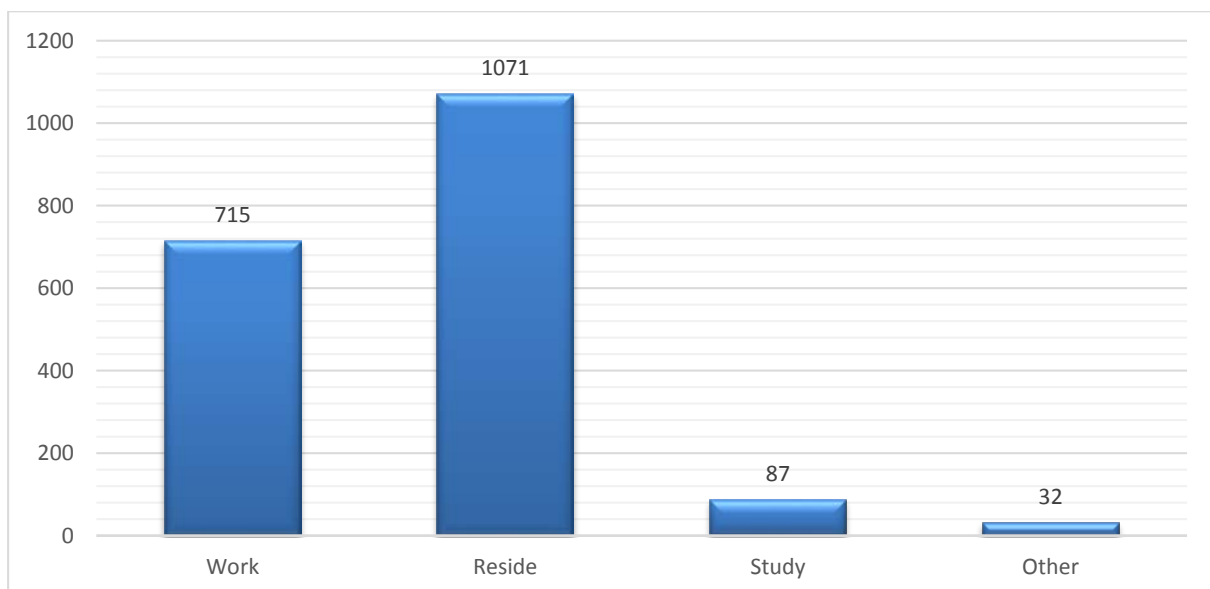
The sample population were those that live, work and/or study in Lancashire county. The sample itself contained a total of 1205 participants, all selected through the snowball sampling technique. From the data file of 1205, 8 participants were removed as they were below the age of 18, resulting in a final sample of 1197.

11% did not give age information ($n = 134$). For the 1063 who did, the mean was 48 years old ($SD = 14.85$) and the median was 49 years old, with a range of ages from 18 – 87 years. This was comparable to Lancashire county council age statistics which found an average age of 46 years (2011 census). 79 (7.4%) of respondents were aged 18-24, 141 (13.3%) were aged 25-34, 216 (20.3%) were aged 35-44, 254 (23.9%) were aged 45-54, 203 (19.1%) were aged 55-64, 146 (13.7%) were aged 65-74, and 24 (2.3%) were aged 75+. Out of the 1066 participants who indicated their gender, 464 (43.5%) were male and 602 (56.5%) were female. The mean age of males was 51 years old ($SD = 15.8$) and the mean age for females was 45 years old ($SD = 13.84$).

Out of the 1197 responses, 7 gave postcodes that were not within the Lancashire Constabulary force and divisional boundary (i.e. BD23, OL7, M26, BL1, WN7, and WN1). However, their responses were included in the final analysis as they indicated that they had some other association with Lancashire (i.e. work, study, or other association). Please note that even postcodes included may still cross out of the Lancashire boundary (as only the first part of postcode was provided due to ethical issues of anonymity). The majority of respondents were located in Preston (n = 330, 27.6%), Chorley (n = 96, 8%), and Blackburn (n = 86, 7.2%). For detailed mapping showing the locations of respondents please see attached Appendix 1 and 2.

Participants were asked to indicate their status in Lancashire County (see Figure 1): 1071 (89.5%) indicated that they reside in Lancashire, 715 (59.7%) indicated that they work in Lancashire, 87 (7.3%) indicated that they study in Lancashire, whilst 32 (2.7%) indicated their status as 'other' (i.e. retired, redundant etc.). The mean number of years of Lancashire residency was 36.85 (SD = 18.39), and the reported length of residency ranged from less than a year to 79 years.

Figure 1: Status in Lancashire county.



The majority of the sample indicated that they were either Christian (n = 699, 67%) or had no religion (n = 299, 28.6%), whilst 15 (1.4%) indicated that they were Muslim, 11 (1.1%) were Buddhist, 5 (0.5%) were Jewish, 1 (0.1%) was Sikh and 14 (1.3%) indicated their religion as

'other' (i.e. Pagan). The majority of the sample considered their ethnicity to be English/Welsh/Scottish/Northern Irish/British (n = 1009, 96.6%), whilst 11 (1.1%) were Indian, 4 (0.4%) were Pakistani, 3 (0.3%) were Irish, 3 (0.3%) were white and Asian, 2 (0.2%) were Gypsy, 1 (0.1%) was eastern European, 1 was Caribbean (0.1%), and 1 (0.1%) was African. 4 (0.4%) indicated their ethnicity as 'other'. These results are comparable to Lancashire county council ethnicity and religion statistics (Census, 2011).

The majority of respondents were in full time employment (n = 581, 54.8%), retired (20.7%) or in part time employment (n = 129, 12.2%). 46 (4.3%) were students and 30 (2.8%) were looking after their home and/or family. 25 (2.4%) were unable to work, 9 participants (0.8%) were currently unemployed and looking for work, and 1 participant (0.1%) indicated that they have never had a paid job. 20 (1.9%) participants indicated their employment status to be 'other' than the options available. These statistics were comparable to Lancashire county council employment statistics (Census 2011).

Of the 1012 respondents, the majority of the sample had a household income of £50,000 or above (n = 280, 27.7%). This is much higher than Lancashire county council statistics which indicate that the average household income for 2014 in Lancashire was £26,600. 193 (19.1%) earned £10,000 - £19,999, 181 (17.9%) earned £20,000 - £29,000, 147 (14.5%) earned £30,000 - £39,000, and 137 (13.5%) earned £40,000 - £49,999. The minority of the sample had a household income of less than £10,000 (n = 74, 7.3%).

Out of the 1042 respondents, the majority of participants indicated that they had gained degree/NVQ5 level or above qualifications (n = 442, 42.4%), whilst 217 (19.9%) had gained GCSE's, 168 (16.1%) had gained AS level qualifications, 117 (11.2%) had gained HND qualifications, and 56 (5.4%) had no qualifications. Again the current sample was unique to Lancashire county council statistics regarding education level, as a much larger percentage had earned a degree (compared to 23.6%) and much fewer had no qualifications (compared to 24.8%).

Participants indicated the number of people living in their household (including themselves). The majority of households had no children (under 18) residents (n = 816, 68%). Within the 381 (31.8%) households that had children in residence, the mean number of children living there that were 4 years old or younger was 0.15 (SD = 0.43), and the mean number of children

aged 5 – 17 years old was 0.4 (SD = 0.75). 854 (71.3%) households had adult residents aged 18-64, and 254 (42.4%) had residents aged 65 years and older. The mean number of adults aged 18 – 64 years old was 1.45 (SD = 1.16), and the mean number of adults aged 65 years old and older was 1.53 (SD = 0.67). [Please note: numerous participants indicated that the software was faulty when answering questions regarding household residents and a lot of data was missing – therefore this data may not reflect real figures].

In terms of disability, 851 participants (71.1%) indicated that they did not consider themselves to have a disability, whilst 346 (28.9%) did; 91 (7.6%) reported having a physical impairment, 17 (1.4%) had a sensory impairment, 44 (3.7%) reported a mental health condition, 9 (0.8%) reported a learning disability or difficulty, 81 (6.8%) reported a long term illness, and 17 (1.4%) indicated some other form of disability.

Procedure:

The participant would have access to the survey through an online link disseminated from Lancashire Constabulary Corporate Communications, or that had been passed to them by someone they knew through the snowball sampling technique. The participant was required to read and respond to an information sheet and consent form before the participant could complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire finished by thanking the participant for taking part in the survey and asking them to pass it to as many people that resided in Lancashire, in order to collect as many views as possible on the Lancashire Constabulary.

Analysis:

For the quantitative analysis, all completed and acceptable partially completed survey data was extracted from the online survey site and into a spread sheet. A statistical analysis was then conducted in which descriptive and inferential statistics were examined using IBM SPSS statistics software (Version 22 for Windows XP). Assumption testing and analysis was conducted according to standard procedural guidelines (Field, 2008). The parametric assumptions of all data sets were investigated to examine whether conducting parametric analysis was appropriate. Normal distribution was investigated by 'eye-balling' histogram plots of the data against the Euler-Gauss bell curve (normal distribution) and examining the skewness scores of the data sets (Field, 2008). Results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

(appropriate for sample sizes > 50 participants) were also examined. Spearman's correlation coefficients, t-test's and ANOVA's were computed to analyse the data. 2-tailed analysis was used for all measures because this study is exploratory. Due to the number of statistical tests run, only significant findings are reported for the various comparisons.

The qualitative analysis was a basic content and thematic analysis of the open question responses. The thematic analysis was done through an initial brush analysis of the 1197 responses, in which key words and phrases were noted and those participants that 'opted out' were coded as not applicable. Themes were then formed around these key words and phrases and coded against each participant that answered the question. Within this stage, there was usually an 'other' theme that was used to code participants that did not fit into the existing themes.

After the first pass of coding, another brush analysis was used within the 'other' category, picking out key words and concepts that were re-examined against the existing themes. At this stage, themes were amended, removed or split in order to accommodate data from the 'other' section and in order to make the themes more representative of the overall sample. After the formation of the new themes, there was a second pass of coding applied to each participant. Again there was the inclusion of an 'other' category being used for those participants that did not fit into existing themes, with the justification that there were some strong or controversial views provided by a few participants that would be interesting at the discussion stage, but not popular enough to be considered a theme. Themes were not mutually exclusive and the same participant will have been counted multiple times if they mentioned multiple themes within their response.

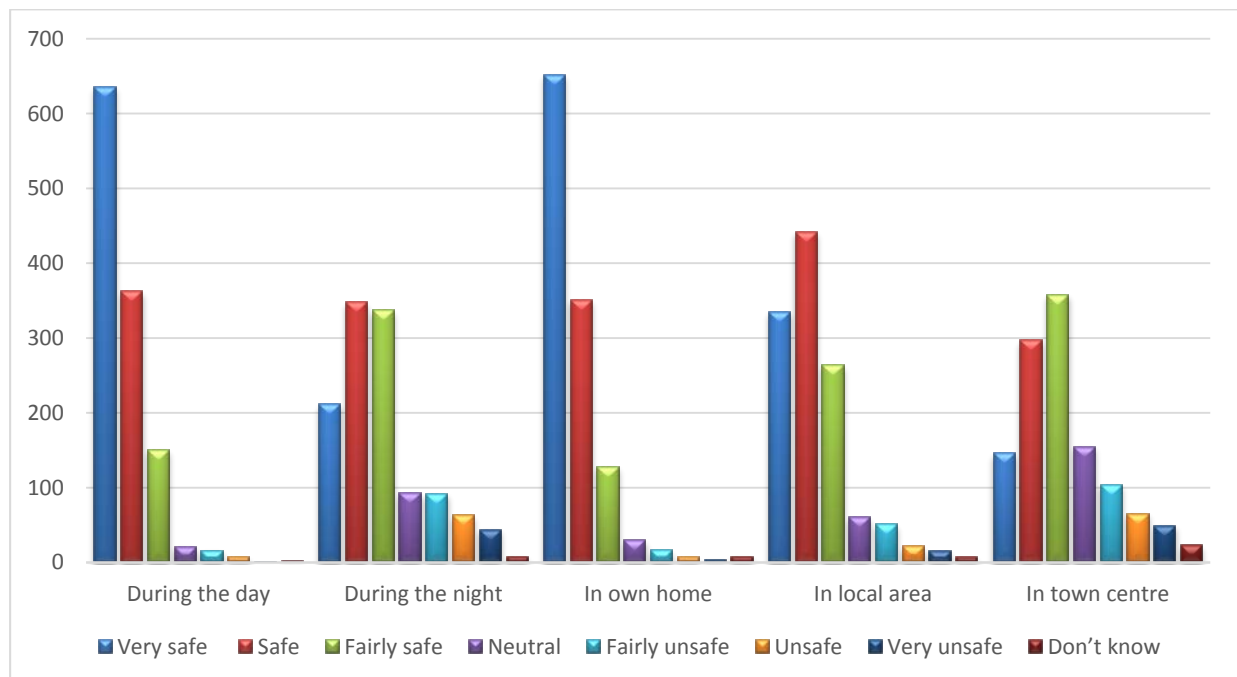
In addition to the thematic analysis, the total number of participants referring to each theme was totalled, allowing for a calculation of a percentage against the total number of responses (n). This meant that it was possible to identify the frequency of each theme. The participants that did not leave an answer, or provided a response indicating they did not wish to answer, were not coded in the analysis since they had 'opted out' of the question.

Results

Feelings of Safety

Figure 2 shows how safe participants feel in a range of areas/at different times. This figure shows that the sample feels very safe most in the daytime ($n = 636$, 53.2%) and in their own homes ($n = 652$, 54.8%), and very unsafe most during the night ($n = 44$, 3.7%) and in the town centre ($n = 49$, 4.2%).

Figure 2. Feelings of safety



Age and feelings of safety

A Spearman's correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between age and feelings of safety. There was a significant positive correlation between age and feelings of safety in the day ($r_s = .09$, $p < .025$), in the night ($r_s = .12$, $p < .001$), in the home ($r_s = .06$, $p < .05$), and in the local area ($r_s = .08$, $p < .01$). There was no significant relationship between age and feelings of safety in the town centre ($r_s = .02$, $p > .05$). In order to identify any significant differences between age and feelings of safety, a one-way ANOVA was calculated on age brackets (18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65-74, 75+) and feelings of safety.

There was a significant effect of age on feelings of safety in the day at the $p < .05$ level for the seven age brackets [$F(6,1054) = 3.86$, $p = .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test

indicated that the mean score for those aged 25-34 ($M = 6.02$, $SD = 1.24$) was significantly lower than those aged 65-74 ($M = 6.47$, $SD = 0.80$).

There was a significant effect of age on feelings of safety in the night at the $p < .05$ level for the seven age brackets [$F(6,1049) = 4.87$, $p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for those aged 18-24 ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.68$) was significantly lower than those aged 45-54 ($M = 5.22$, $SD = 1.47$), 55-64 ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 1.57$), 65-74 ($M = 6.47$, $SD = 1.57$) and 75+ ($M = 5.50$, $SD = 1.53$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for those aged 25-34 ($M = 4.73$, $SD = 1.76$) was also significantly lower than those aged 65-74 and 75+.

There was a significant effect of age on feelings of safety in their own home at the $p < .05$ level for the seven age brackets [$F(6,1049) = 2.78$, $p < .025$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for those aged 25-34 ($M = 6.04$, $SD = 1.30$) was significantly lower than those aged 65-74 ($M = 6.49$, $SD = 0.80$).

There was a significant effect of age on feelings of safety in their local area at the $p < .05$ level for the seven age brackets [$F(6,1049) = 3.72$, $p = .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for those aged 25-34 ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 1.37$) was significantly lower than those aged 65-74 ($M = 5.96$, $SD = 1.10$).

Generally, these results imply that those aged 18-34 reported the lowest rates of safety in the night whilst, those aged 25-34 reported lowest feelings of safety in the day, in their own home and in the town centre. Interestingly, those aged 75+ reported the highest rates of safety in the night and those aged 65-74 reported the highest rates of safety in the day, in their own homes, in their local area and in the town centre, compared to other age groups.

Gender and feelings of safety

To examine whether there was a significant difference in the feelings of safety across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted. On average males felt significantly safer in the night ($M = 5.43$, $SE = .07$) than females ($M = 4.87$, $SE = .07$); $t(1057) = 5.86$, $p < .001$. Males also felt significantly safer in their own home ($M = 6.37$, $SE = .04$) than females ($M = 6.26$, $SE = .04$); $t(1057) = 1.97$, $p < .05$. Lastly, males felt significantly safer in their local area ($M = 5.82$, $SE =$

.06) than females ($M = 5.6$, $SE = .05$); $t(1057) = 2.85$, $p < .01$. No other differences across gender were found to be significant.

Area and feelings of safety

In order to identify any significant differences in feelings of safety across different areas, a one-way ANOVA was calculated for the five postcodes within Preston (PR1, PR2, PR3, PR4, and PR5; see table 1).

Table 1. Preston postcode and corresponding coverage

Preston postcode	Coverage
PR1	City Centre, Avenham, Broadgate, Deepdale, Fishwick, St. Matthew's, Penwortham
PR2	Ashton On Ribble, Brookfield, Cadley, Fulwood, Grimsargh, Haighton, Ingol, Larches, Lea, Ribbleton, Riversway, Sharoe Green, Tanterton
PR3	Barnacre-with-Bonds, Barton, Bilsborrow, Bonds, Bowgreave, Broughton, Calder Vale, Chipping, Garstang, Goosnargh, Great Eccleston, Little Eccleston, Longridge, Myerscough, Oakenclough, Pilling, Ribchester, St Michael's On Wyre, Scorton, Whittingham
PR4	Becconsall, Catforth, Clifton, Cottam, Eaves, Elswick, Freckleton, Hesketh Bank, Hutton, Inskip, Kirkham, Longton, Much Hoole, New Longton, Newton, Tarleton, Thistleton, Walmer Bridge, Warton, Wesham, Woodplumpton, Wrea Green
PR5	Bamber Bridge, Coupe Green, Gregson Lane, Higher Walton, Hoghton, Lostock Hall, Riley Green, Samlesbury, Walton-le-Dale, Walton Park, Walton Summit

There was a significant effect of area on feelings of safety in the day at the $p < .05$ level for the five conditions [$F(4,325) = 7.28$, $p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for PR1 ($M = 6.21$, $SD = 0.86$) and PR5 ($M = 6.17$, $SD = 0.85$) was significantly lower than PR3 ($M = 6.55$, $SD = 0.64$), and PR 4 ($M = 6.74$, $SD = 0.53$). PR2 ($M = 6.38$, $SD = 0.86$) was also significantly lower than PR4.

There was a significant effect of area on feelings of safety in the night at the $p < .05$ level for the five conditions [$F(4,324) = 14.47, p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for PR1 ($M = 4.66, SD = 1.52$), PR2 ($M = 5.07, SD = 1.36$), and PR5 ($M = 5.57, SD = 1.69$) was significantly lower than PR3 ($M = 5.72, SD = 1.25$), and PR 4 ($M = 6.00, SD = 0.91$).

There was a significant effect of area on feelings of safety in the local area at the $p < .05$ level for the five conditions [$F(4,325) = 8.48, p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for PR1 ($M = 5.61, SD = 1.29$) and PR5 ($M = 5.45, SD = 1.28$) was significantly lower than PR3 ($M = 6.17, SD = 0.85$), and PR 4 ($M = 6.35, SD = 0.71$).

There was a significant effect of area on feelings of safety in the town centre at the $p < .05$ level for the five conditions [$F(4,321) = 6.08, p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for PR2 ($M = 5.60, SD = 1.65$) was significantly higher than PR3 ($M = 5.46, SD = 1.49$), whilst the mean score for PR5 ($M = 4.23, SD = 1.65$) was significantly lower than PR3 and PR4 ($M = 5.26, SD = 1.49$).

Generally, these results imply that those living in PR1 and PR5 feel less safe than those living in PR3 and PR4 in the day, in the night and in their local area. Residents of PR5 were also found to feel significantly less safe in the town centre than those residing in PR3 and PR4.

Qualitative Results

In total, 947 participants provided qualitative information as to their feelings of safety/unsafety. From the responses there were 7 themes that best fit the data: 'feeling safe in the area', 'groups of youths/gangs/ASB', 'feeling generally vulnerable', 'alcohol and drugs', 'no police response/inadequate response time', 'home invasion/attacks on property/attacks near home' and 'other' (see table 2).

Table 2. Qualitative responses to feelings of safety/unsafety

Theme	Number of Participants (<i>n</i>)	Percentage (from <i>n</i> = 947)
Feeling safe in the area	442	46.7%
Groups of Youths/Gangs/ASB	229	24.2%
Feeling generally vulnerable	189	20.0%
Alcohol (and drugs)	145	15.3%
No police response/inadequate response time	76	8.0%
Home invasion/attacks on property/attacks near home	42	4.4%
Other	73	7.7%

The most regularly occurring theme was ‘feeling safe in the area’, with 442 participants (46.7%) stating that they felt safe because their house was secure and in a nice area. The participants further explained that this was because the communities they lived in were small (often in the countryside or villages) and that there wasn’t much trouble or ‘gangs’ in their local area.

Reflecting this, ‘groups of youths/gangs/ASB’ often caused a major feeling of unsafety. 229 participants (24.2%) stated that gangs of youths, anti-social behaviour and teenagers shouting abuse was one of the main issues causing them to feel unsafe in their homes, local area and in the town centre. An examination of the theme in closer detail also showed that there was a subtheme around race and ethnicity. A few of the participants specifically referred to “Asian Youths” being their issue, as well as feeling unsafe around gangs of “non-English speaking” youths and, more generally, “foreign men” that shouted in the street.

From the 189 participants (20.0%) who reported ‘feeling generally vulnerable’, most participants explained feeling generally vulnerable as a result of their age (older), disability and/or gender (female). Generally vulnerable participants often stated that they would not leave their house after dark if alone and on foot, even in their local area. In addition, many mentioned that going into a town centre during the night was not an option they would consider, especially on a Friday and Saturday night. In addition, there were many who

mentioned that improvements to street lighting to increase visibility would go some way to increase their feelings of safety during the night.

Considering these apparently contradictory results between qualitative reports of general vulnerability as a result of increasing age and quantitative findings that those aged 64-75 felt the most safe, it must be recognised that the majority of this sample qualitatively reported feeling safe in their area because of their secure homes, small communities and lack of trouble and 'gangs' in their local area. Taken together, these results indicate that older participants living in secure homes and nice areas feel safer, whereas older participants that did not fit into this demographic felt more generally vulnerable.

A small percentage ($n = 76$, 8%) stated that they felt unsafe through the lack of police presence, patrolling officers and/or inadequate response time. There was a specific mention of officers on foot, as some participants explained that seeing the police patrolling in a police vehicle did not make them feel any safer. Participants also identified how they perceived that the police would respond slowly if there was an emergency, which in turn decreased their feeling of safety in all areas and times of day.

Another interesting theme was around the participants identifying why they were unsafe in their own homes. Within the theme 'home invasion/attacks on property/attacks near home', 42 participants (4.4%) stated that burglaries, "people trying doors", "fireworks through the letterbox", "stealing roofing lead", as well as property and car damage outside of their house made them feel unsafe within their homes. In addition, some participants explained how a burglary in a dwelling close by would decrease their feeling of safety because of the perceived increased likelihood that it would also happen to them.

Finally, the 'other' theme consisted of 73 participants (7.7%) who listed some of their reasons for feeling unsafe as: speeding motorists, dogs/dog owner violence, specific individuals in communities making people unsafe, as well as aggressive beggars. The latter was a concern for those in town, especially around the entrance to shops and cash machines, as it increased a feeling of vulnerability in some participants.

Overall, within the question, there was a general impression that individuals attach themselves and identify with a specific demographic, which subsequently led to a reciprocal

fear between all the different demographics. Muslims tended to fear others because of Islamophobia and racism, White British feared “Asian Youths” and “foreign men”, females feared males in the night time, students feared “locals” and the locals feared “packs of students” (mainly around the Friday/Saturday drink culture).

Sense of Community

Overall, the majority (62.1%) felt part of their community. Figure 3 shows that out of the 1193 who completed this question, 216 (18.1%) felt part of the community a great deal, 525 (44%) felt part of the community to some extent, 333 (27.9%) did not feel part of the community much, 115 (9.6%) didn’t feel part of the community at all, and 4 (0.3%) didn’t know.

Figure 3. Sense of community

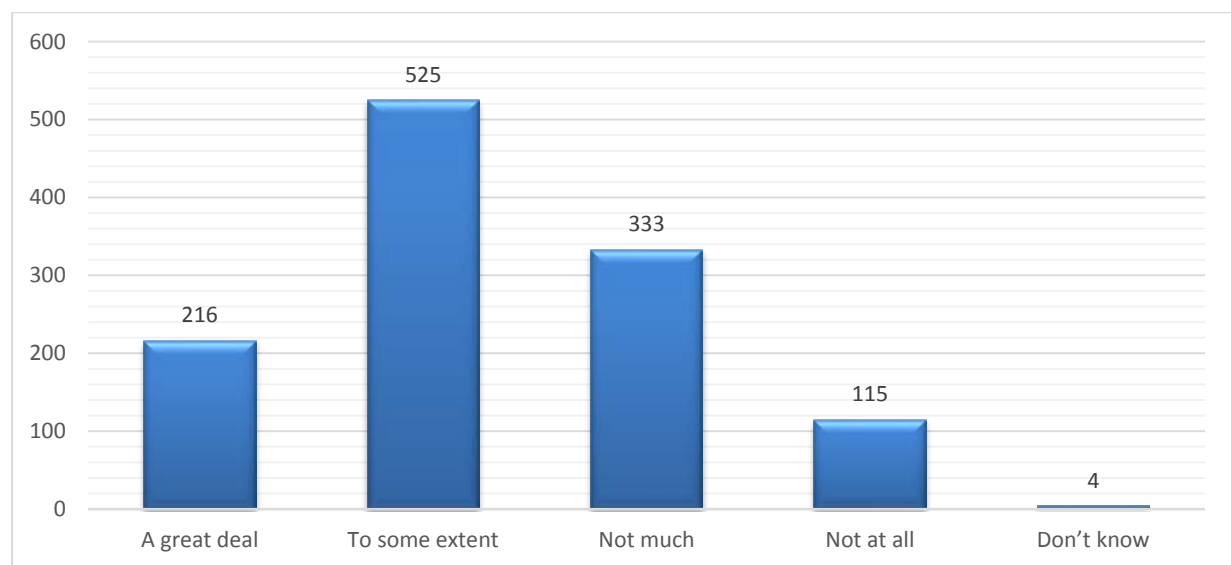
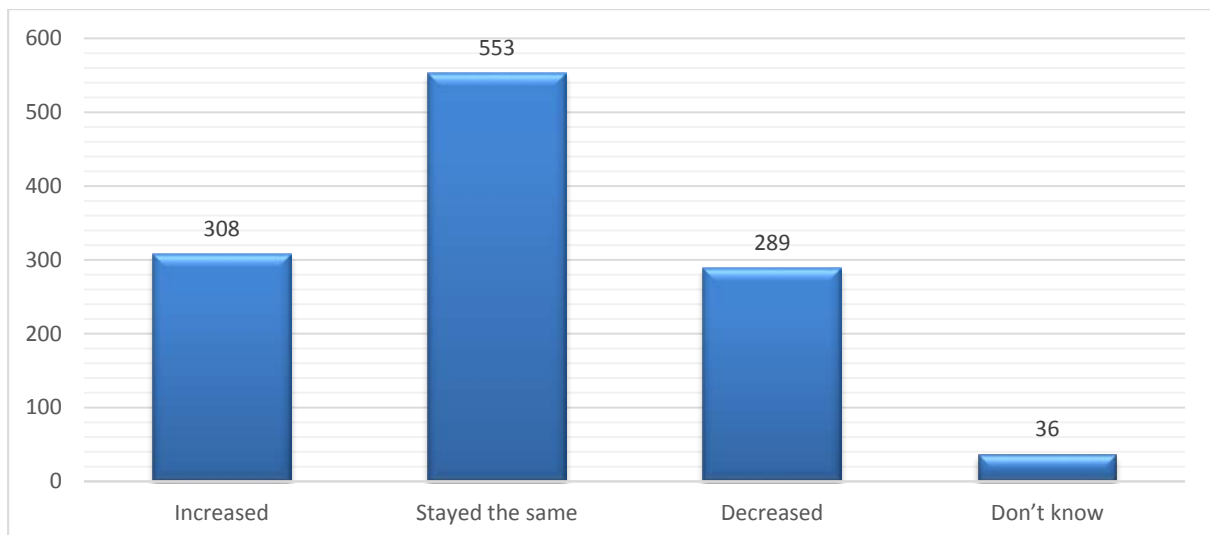


Figure 4 shows the participants indication of changes in their sense of community since living in their local area. Out of the 1186 respondents, 308 (26%) felt it had increased, 553 (46.6%) felt it had stayed the same, 289 (24.4%) felt it had decreased, and 36 (3%) didn’t know.

Figure 4. Changes to sense of community since living in local area



Age and sense of community

In order to identify any significant differences between age and sense of community and changes in sense of community since moving to their local area, a one-way ANOVA was calculated. There was a significant effect of age on sense of community at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1054) = 11.29, p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for those aged 18-24 ($M = 2.27, SD = 0.86$) was significantly lower than those aged 45-54 ($M = 2.72, SD = 0.87$), 55-64 ($M = 2.87, SD = 0.84$), 64-75 ($M = 2.98, SD = 0.89$), and 75+ ($M = 3.21, SD = 0.78$). The mean score for those aged 25-34 ($M = 2.43, SD = 0.93$) was also significantly lower than those aged 55-64, 64-75, and 75+. In addition, the mean score for those aged 35-44 ($M = 2.61, SD = 0.83$) and 45-54 was significantly lower than those aged 75+.

There was also a significant effect of age on changes in sense of community at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1047) = 2.58, p < .025$]. However, post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean scores were not significantly different. Generally, these results imply that sense of community increased with age, with an incremental increase from 18-24 year olds to those aged 75+.

Children residents and sense of community

To examine whether there was a significant difference in the sense of community and changes in sense of community across households with and without children residents, an independent samples t-test was conducted. Sense of community was not significantly different across the two samples, however, those without children were more significantly

more likely to report a decrease in their sense of community since living in their local area ($M = 1.91$, $SE = .03$) than those with children ($M = 2.05$, $SE = .03$); $t(1184) = -2.76$, $p < .01$. No other differences across households with and without children were found to be significant.

Area and sense of community

In order to identify any significant differences in sense of community and changes in sense of community across different areas, a one-way ANOVA was calculated for the five postcodes within Preston. There was no significant effect of area on sense of community, however there was a significant effect of area on changes of sense of community at the $p < .05$ level for the five conditions [$F(4,323) = 7.60$, $p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of change in sense of community for PR2 ($M = 1.88$, $SD = 0.77$) was significantly lower than PR3 ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 0.74$), and PR 4 ($M = 2.21$, $SD = 0.58$), whilst the mean score of PR5 ($M = 1.62$, $SD = 0.77$) was significantly lower than PR1 ($M = 2.08$, $SD = 0.74$), PR3 and PR4. Generally, these results imply that residents of PR2 have experienced a decreased sense of community compared to PR1, PR3 and PR4, whilst PR5's sense of community has decreased the most.

Qualitative Responses

Qualitative responses regarding the participants' concepts of community formed themes that related to the proximity and boundaries of their geographical community, involvement in community groups, general sense of community and changes to sense of community.

Respondents defined their community geographically as: 'close proximity', 'medium proximity', 'large proximity' or 'non-geographic' (see table 3).

Table 3. Qualitative responses regarding the geographical definition of community.

Theme	Number of Participants (<i>n</i>)	Percentage (%) (from <i>n</i> = 1130)
Medium proximity	835	73.9%
Close proximity	251	22.2%
Large proximity	26	2.3%
Non-geographic	18	1.6%

The majority of participants (*n* = 835 participants, 73.9%) defined their geographical community as ‘medium proximity’ which included the wider neighbourhood, village, town, borough or cities. 251 participants (22.2%) referred to their geographical community as ‘close proximity’; their street, estate, student halls and residential halls. Within those that defined their geographical community as ‘close proximity’, some did not define their community as anything outside of their home and family. In contrast, only 26 participants (2.3%) defined their community as the county of Lancashire or the country (‘large proximity’). Finally, 18 participants (1.6%) reported that they could not define their community geographically (‘non-geographical’), and explained that this was because their communities were based around people that lived within a moveable geographic area or an area that could not be measured i.e. travelling communities, the armed forces, and those who solely identified with virtual communities online.

1143 participants provided information on the various community groups and schemes that they were involved with. Within this question, 6 themes were identified: ‘none’, ‘youth orientated groups’, ‘sports groups’, ‘religious/church/mosque groups’, ‘criminal justice orientated groups’ and ‘other’ (see table 4).

Table 4. Qualitative responses regarding involvement in community groups.

Theme	Number of Participants (<i>n</i>)	Percentage (%) (from <i>n</i> = 1143)
None	527	46.1%
Youth orientated groups	177	15.5%
Sports groups	125	10.9%
Criminal justice orientated groups	151	13.2%
Religious/Church/Mosque groups	84	7.4%
Other	296	25.9%

The majority of participants (*n* = 527, 46.1%) reported that they were not part of any community groups or schemes. Within this theme, some stated that they were unaware of how to get involved, and others expressed that despite being interested in volunteering, there was a lack of opportunities to do so in their area.

177 participants (15.5%) explained how they were part of ‘youth orientated groups’. This was often parents referring to how they volunteered and helped with groups that their children were part of, i.e. Brownies, Scouts, Rainbows, Girl Guides, Cadets, school and college groups as well as rehabilitation for youth offenders. Interestingly, there were 151 participants (13.2%) that were part of ‘criminal justice orientated groups’. This included those that were part of community based groups (i.e. neighbourhood watch and horse watch), those that were Magistrates for the court or CCTV operators for Lancashire County Council and also those that took part in policing related groups (i.e. PACT meetings, police volunteers and special constables). In addition, 125 participants (10.9%) were involved with various ‘sports groups’, whilst only 84 participants (7.4%) reported that they were involved in ‘religious’ groups. Finally, 296 participants (25.9%) stated that they attended various other community groups that did not fit into the existing themes (‘other’). ‘Other’ groups included environmental and gardening groups, healthcare orientated groups, animal welfare groups/Blue Cross, elderly support groups as well as various other niche community groups.

There were 849 qualitative responses providing information as to why respondents either felt included or isolated from the community. The responses were analysed and 5 themes best fit the data: 'involved with groups and activities', 'keep themselves to themselves', 'sociable/friendly/happy to have a chat', 'no more social value/no community spirit' and 'other' (see table 5).

Table 5. Qualitative responses regarding sense of community

Theme	Number of Participants (<i>n</i>)	Percentage (%) (from <i>n</i> = 849)
Involved with groups and activities	308	36.3%
Keep themselves to themselves	237	28.0%
Sociable/Friendly/Happy to have a chat	198	23.3%
No more social value/No community spirit	116	13.7%
Other	43	5.1%

The majority of respondents (*n* = 308, 36.3%) stated that they were 'involved with groups and activities' that made them feel part of the community. These respondents included business owners and shop keepers that often met community members on a daily basis, as well as those that lived in the area all of their life and knew people well.

The next most prominent theme were participants that tended to 'keep themselves to themselves', with 237 participants (27.9%) explaining that they prefer to stay indoors and not get involved. Some stated that this was because work and family commitments restricted their time to get to know people in their community, whilst others acknowledged that they didn't know of any activities to get involved with. A few participants explained that they avoided community activities because they were mainly held in religious venues, which put off those that do not share the same (if any) religion.

There were 198 participants (23.3%) that explained that they were generally 'sociable/friendly/happy to chat with others', were willing to help out if asked, spoke to a few friendly faces around town or had a chat whilst walking the dog. In contrast, 116 participants (13.7%) explained how they felt generally, social value has diminished ('no more social

value/no community spirit'). In addition, some stated how they do not interact in their community for fear of offending others, as well as feeling uncomfortable because of the ethnic mix in which everybody lived in segregation through strong cultural and roots and backgrounds. Some participants explained how they believed that having children bolsters a sense of community and how you are "not taken seriously if you do not have children", since majority of the activities and groups available are targeted at parents as opposed to adults working full time.

Finally, the theme of 'Other' contained 43 participants (5.1%), some of which discussed the lack of need to interact with a geographical community when they were happy with a virtual one. Other participants were those who had just moved to the area and couldn't weigh up their feeling of community.

598 participants responded to explain why there was an increase/decrease or no change in the participants feeling of community. The data formed 8 themes: 'friendly place/making more friends', 'people moving from outside of the area', 'people keeping themselves to themselves', 'nothing has changed', 'children', 'crime issues/policing issues', 'work/family/life commitments' and 'other' (see table 6).

Table 6. Qualitative responses regarding changes to sense of community

Theme	Number of Participants (<i>n</i>)	Percentage (%) (from <i>n</i> = 598)
Friendly place/Making more friends	190	31.8%
People moving from outside of the area	66	11.0%
People keeping themselves to themselves	63	10.5%
Nothing has changed	60	10.0%
Children	42	7.0%
Crime issues/Policing issues	39	6.5%
Work/family/life commitments	35	5.9%
Other	130	21.7%

The majority of respondents (n = 190, 31.8%) explained the reasons for an increase or maintenance of their sense of community was that they felt that their local area was a nice place to live and that they were making more friends as a result of attending social groups and/or initially receiving a warm welcome from their neighbours and other residents.

66 participants (11.0%) reported that 'people moving from outside of the area' was a reason as to why they believed their sense of community was decreasing. Some explained that the increase of affordable social housing was attracting the "wrong type of people" to their community and subsequently decreasing their feeling of community. In addition, many discussed how rented accommodation does not allow for communities to get to know each other as residents are constantly moving and have "no sense of ownership". In addition, some participants explained that those with different ethnicities and cultural backgrounds created "pocket communities", which decreased their feeling of unity. 63 participants (10.5%) identified how they felt that a lot of people just tended to stay secluded and will only speak to them if spoken to or only help if they are asked to ('people prefer keeping themselves to themselves').

The most common explanation for no change in a participant's feeling of community was simply that 'nothing has changed' throughout their time in their community (n = 60, 10.0%).

Again, 42 participants (7%) stated that their sense of community had changed because of children. For those explaining an increase in their sense of community, it was often because they have had children and subsequently attend schools and various activities targeted towards children, as well as talk to other parents. However, with regards to a decrease in community feel, some explained that there were no activities aimed towards adults without children and this meant that they had no reason to get out and involved in their community.

39 participants (6.5%) stated that they feel there is a lack of police support in their community ('crime issues/policing issues'). Some reported never seeing a friendly police officer or PCSO, and that youth hang around outside making it difficult for people to actually communicate and form a community. Others made explicit reference to how their feeling of community (and safety) would increase if they saw officers more.

35 participants (5.9%) reported 'work/family/life commitments' to be a reason that their sense of community had stayed the same or decreased. These participants explained how working full time and having to worry about their own family and financial situation was a priority over the community.

Finally, 130 participants (21.7%) explained various 'other' reasons for why they believe their feelings towards their community have changed. Within this theme there were issues such as certain individual(s) ruining the community, disabilities, as well as general feelings of a no community spirit. In addition, the responses in this theme also demonstrated some strong views on how the older generation was more community orientated, whereas the younger generation prefer separation. For instance, many explained how their sense of community was decreasing because the elderly generation was being replaced by the younger generation.

Satisfaction with Lancashire Constabulary in local area

Figure 5 shows how satisfied/dissatisfied the sample was with Lancashire Constabulary in their area. Out of the 1184 respondents, the majority were satisfied (n = 678, 57.2%), whilst 228 (16.2%) were dissatisfied, 231 (19.5%) were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, and 15 (1.3%) didn't know.

Figure 5. Satisfaction with Lancashire Constabulary

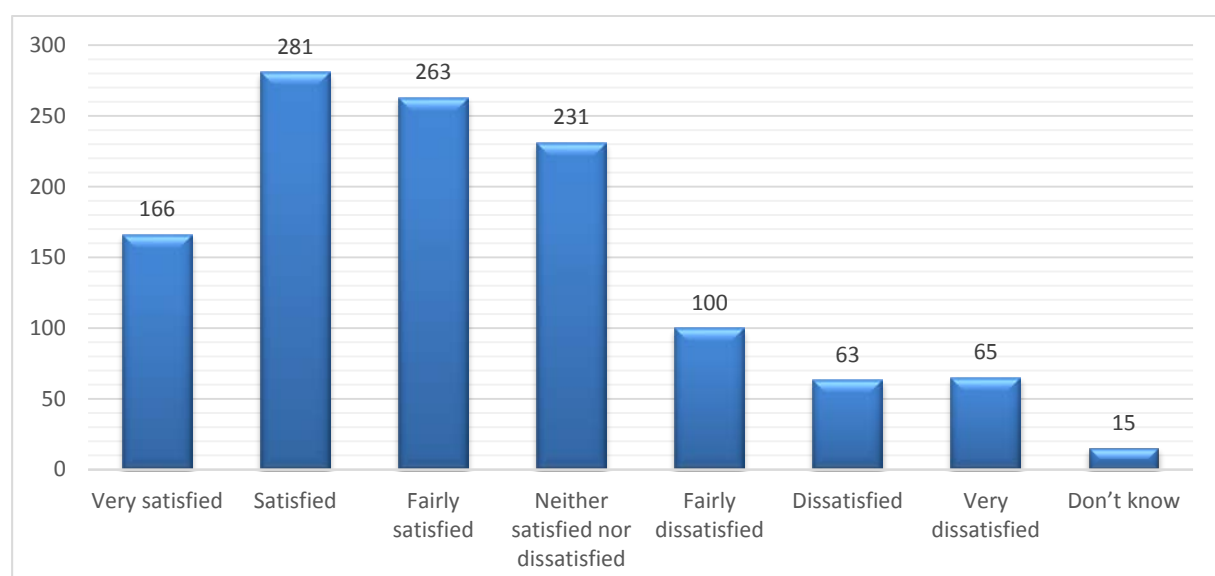
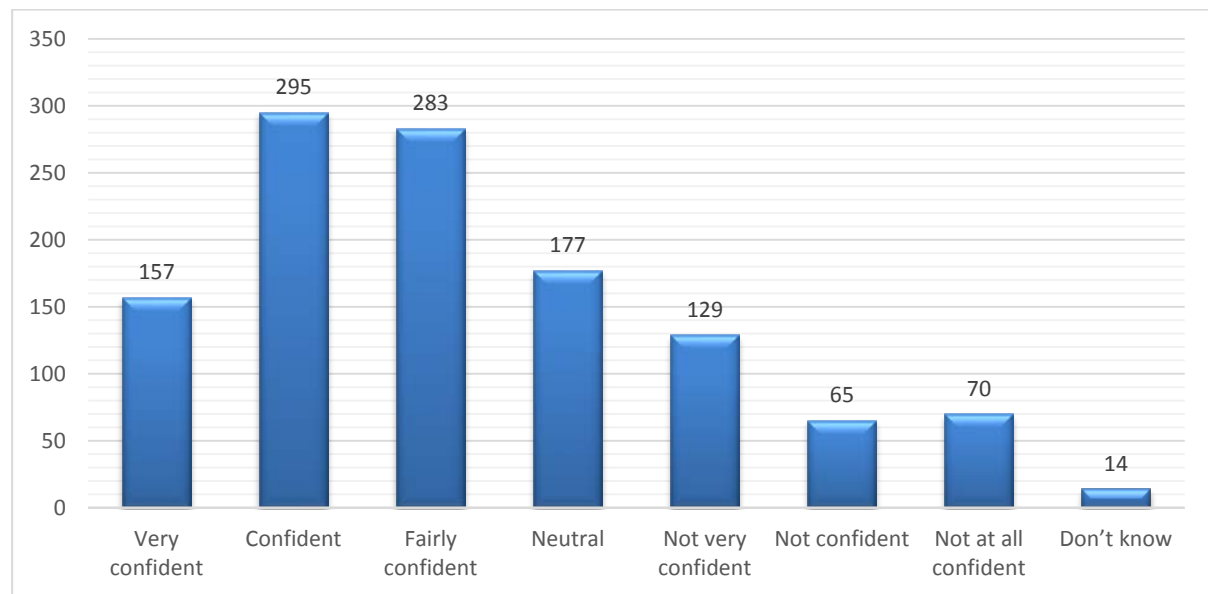


Figure 6 shows the samples confidence in Lancashire Constabulary in their local area. Out of the 1190 respondents, the majority were confident (n = 735, 61.8%), whilst 264 (22.2%) were not confident, 177 (14.9%) were neither confident nor not-confident, and 14 (1.2%) didn't know.

Figure 6. Confidence in local Lancashire Constabulary.



Gender and satisfaction/confidence in Lancashire Constabulary

To examine whether there was a significant difference in satisfaction and confidence across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted. On average, females were significantly more satisfied with Lancashire Constabulary ($M = 4.82$, $SE = .07$) than males ($M = 4.55$, $SE = .08$); $t(1052) = -2.55$, $p < .025$. In addition, females were significantly more confident with Lancashire Constabulary ($M = 4.77$, $SE = .07$) than males ($M = 4.55$, $SE = .08$); $t(1060) = -1.2$, $p < .05$.

Contact

Figure 7 shows if the participants have had contact with Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months. Out of the 1105 respondents, 786 (71.1%) have had contact with Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months, and 319 (28.9%) have not had contact with Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months.

Figure 7. Contact with Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months.

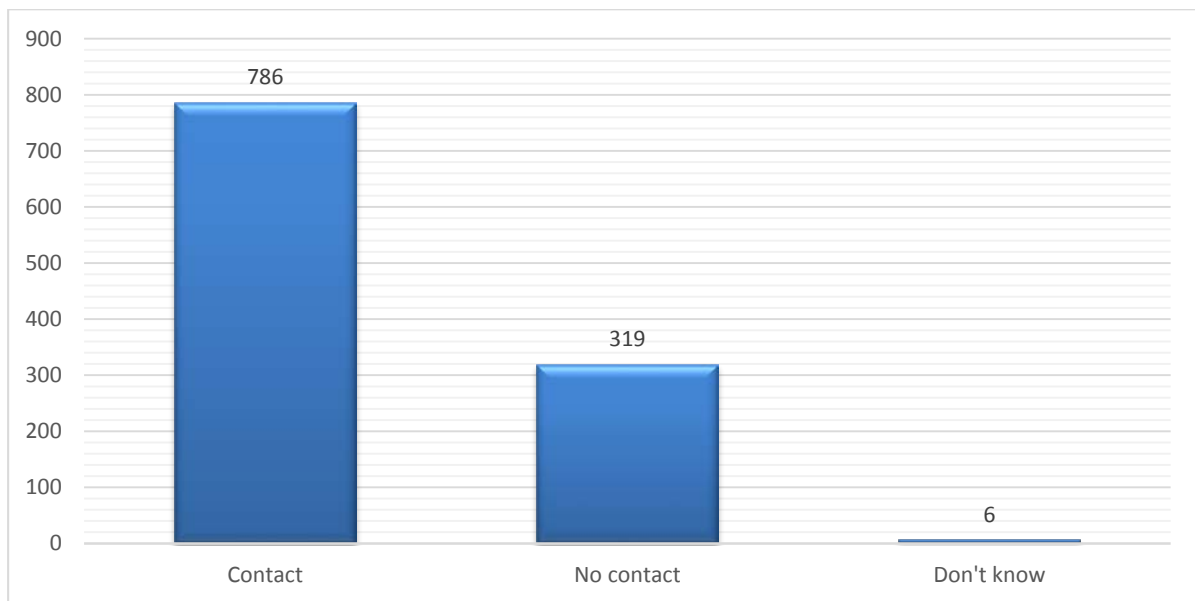


Figure 8 shows how easy the participants found contacting Lancashire Constabulary. Out of the 1012 respondents, the majority (n = 682, 67.3%) found it easy, whilst 141 (13.9%) found it difficult, 103 (10.2%) found it neither easy nor difficult, and 86 (8.5%) didn't know.

Figure 8. Ease of Police contact

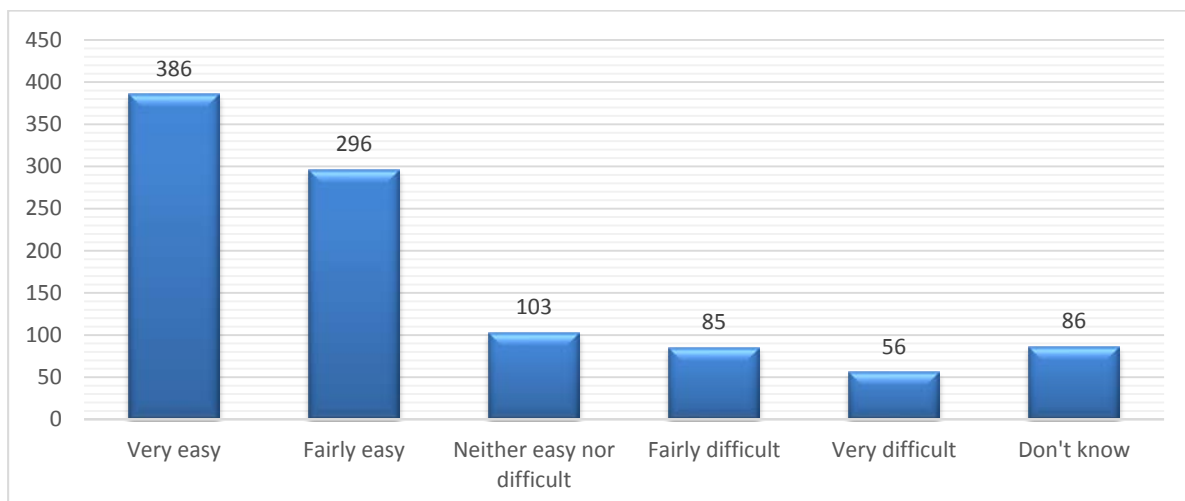
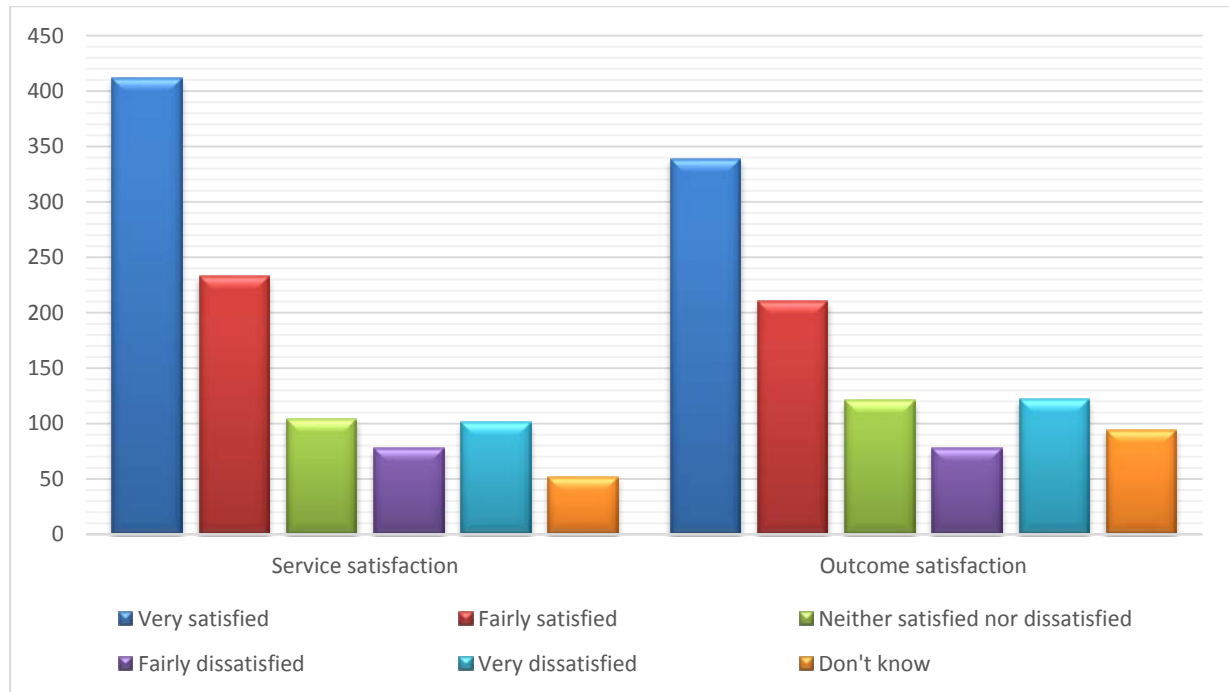


Figure 9 shows how satisfied/dissatisfied the participants were with this contact with Lancashire Constabulary. Out of the 980 respondents, 645 (65.8%) were satisfied with the service that they received, whilst 179 (18.3%) were dissatisfied, 104 (10.6%) were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, and 52 (5.3%) didn't know. Out of the 965 respondents, 550 (57%) were satisfied with the outcome of the contact with Lancashire Constabulary, whilst 200

(20.7%) were dissatisfied, 121 (12.5%) were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and 94 (9.7%) didn't know.

Figure 9. Contact satisfaction.



Contact satisfaction and confidence in Lancashire Constabulary

A Spearman's correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between confidence with Lancashire in local area and satisfaction with a contact with Lancashire Constabulary. There was a significant positive correlation between confidence with Lancashire in the local area and satisfaction with the police service received during a contact with Lancashire Constabulary ($r_s = .48, p < .001$). There was also a significant positive correlation between confidence with Lancashire in local area and satisfaction with the outcome of a contact with Lancashire Constabulary ($r_s = .48, p < .001$). This indicates that those who were satisfied with the service received during a contact and with the outcome of a contact with Lancashire Constabulary are most likely to feel confident with Lancashire constabulary in their local area. In addition, there was a significant positive correlation between satisfaction with the service received and the outcome of a contact with Lancashire Constabulary ($r_s = .76, p < .001$), which indicates that those most satisfied with the service received during a contact with Lancashire Constabulary were also most likely to be satisfied with the outcome of the contact.

Age and contact with Lancashire Constabulary

In order to identify any significant differences between age and contact with Lancashire Constabulary, a one-way ANOVA was calculated. There was a significant effect of age on contact with Lancashire Constabulary at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1050) = 2.63, p < .025$] and ease of contact [$F(6,954) = 2.22, p < .05$]. However post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for contact and ease of contact was not significantly different across age brackets.

Gender and contact with Lancashire Constabulary

To examine whether there was a significant difference in contact with Lancashire Constabulary across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted. On average, females were significantly more satisfied with the service received from Lancashire Constabulary during a contact ($M = 4.82, SE = .07$) than males were ($M = 4.55, SE = .08$); $t(931) = -3.12, p < .01$. No other differences across gender were found to be significant.

Children residents and contact with Lancashire Constabulary

To examine whether there was a significant difference in contact with Lancashire Constabulary across households with and without children, an independent samples t-test was conducted. On average, those without children were significantly more likely to have had a contact with Lancashire Constabulary during the past 12 months ($M = 4.82, SE = .07$) than those with children ($M = 4.55, SE = .08$); $t(1109) = -3.30, p = .001$. No other differences across households with and without children were found to be significant.

Area and contact with Lancashire Constabulary Lancashire Constabulary

In order to identify any significant differences in contact with Lancashire constabulary across different areas, a one-way ANOVA was calculated for the five postcodes within Preston. There was a significant effect of area on satisfaction with the service received during a contact with Lancashire Constabulary at the $p < .05$ level for the five conditions [$F(4,265) = 3.12, p < .025$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for PR1 ($M = 3.89, SD = 1.60$) was significantly higher than PR5 ($M = 2.96, SD = 1.71$). This suggests that PR1 residents were significantly more likely to be satisfied with the service received during a

contact with Lancashire police than PR5 residents. No other differences were found to be significant.

Qualitative Responses

A large number of qualitative responses (n = 188) stated that the police were doing “a great job” and some stated that they believe the police are becoming more “user-friendly”. Some stated that the turnout to open days and ‘behind the badge’ events demonstrates how much support the police have and that people are interested in what the police do.

In contrast, 58 participants explained that they have a poor view of the Lancashire Constabulary. Some explained their negative opinion to be as a result of the general behaviour and attitudes of officers i.e. “attitudes towards people living in different social classes are disgusting”. Other concerns were directed towards the lack local area knowledge and how officers often attend areas they have no experience with, which frustrated some participants.

A small, but important theme concerned the ‘telephone service/101 number’, in which 20 participants explained how it was a poor service. They described the service as “awful”, “useless”, and had too long of a waiting time. They were also frustrated that they had to call multiple times to get through, costing 15p each call, when they were in fact trying to give the police information about a crime. In addition, they also stated that the call takers had no knowledge of their area and the whole process actually dissuaded them from calling or using the service in the future. One participant articulated how, because of a focus on online communication and a poor phone service, those that were not computer literate or had poor access to the internet felt left out.

There were also a number of suggestions that the police should examine the volunteer process, as a few participants stated that it would be good volunteering as an administrative assistant and other office based roles, as opposed to mainly police officer based roles. Lastly, there were also some comments on personal difficulties contacting the police because of boundary/ward issues with other forces, in which when they “phone the Police there is huge confusion about which Constabulary should attend - with neither Lancashire nor Yorkshire wanting to be responsible”.

Valued Visible Police Presence

Figure 10 indicates the type of visible police presence this sample values in their community. Most participants indicated that they valued visible police presence in the form of foot patrols (n = 882, 73.7%) and vehicle patrols (n = 800, 66.8%), and least participants valued online support available to view only (n = 212, 17.7%).

Figure 10. Valued visible Police presence

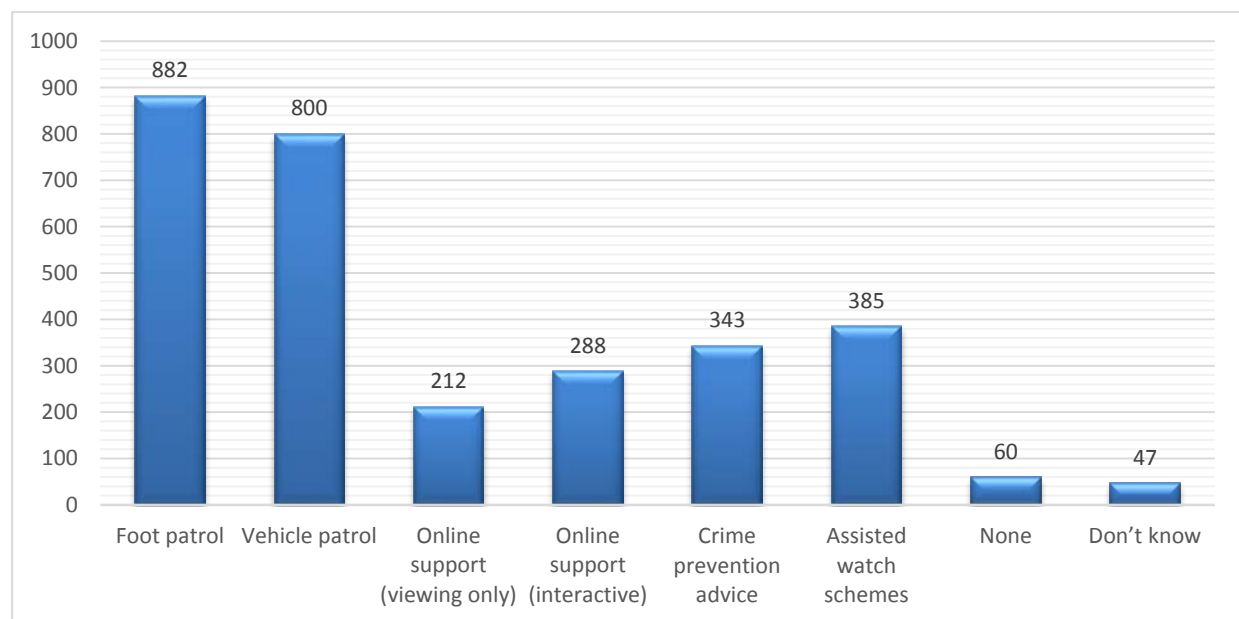
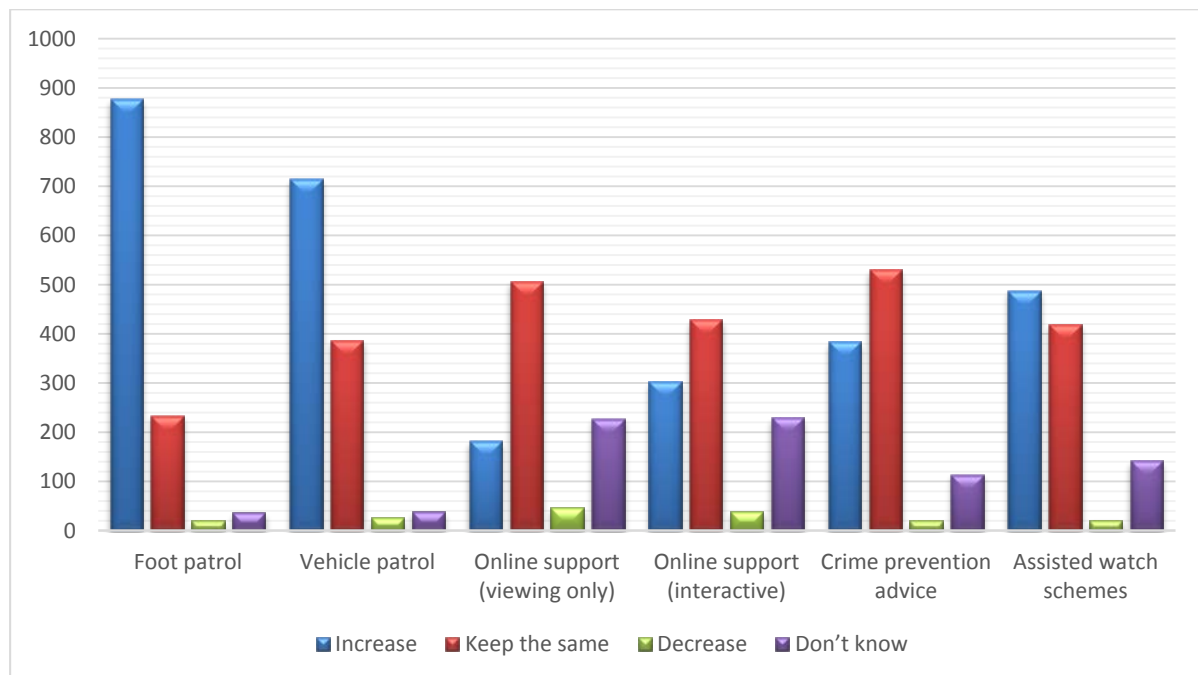


Figure 11 shows the participants' feelings towards changes to police presence. The majority of the sample would like to see increases in foot patrols (n = 877, 75.2%), vehicle patrols (n = 715, 61.4%) and assisted watch schemes (n = 488, 45.7%). The majority of the sample also indicated that they would like viewing only online support (n = 506, 52.6%), interactive online support (n = 428, 42.9%), and crime prevention advice (n = 529, 50.6%) to be kept at the same level.

Figure 11. Changes to Police presence.



Age and valued visible police presence

In order to identify if there were any significant differences between age and valued forms of visible police presence, a one-way ANOVA was calculated. There was a significant effect of age on valuing view only online support at the $p < .05$ level for the seven age brackets [$F(6,1056) = 4.61$, $p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.13$, $SD = 0.34$) was significantly lower than those aged 75+ ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.48$). There was also a significant effect of age on valuing assisted watch schemes at the $p < .05$ level for the seven age brackets [$F(6,1056) = 4.16$, $p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for those aged 75+ ($M = 1.54$, $SD = 0.51$) was significantly higher than those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.23$, $SD = 0.42$), 25-34 ($M = 1.27$, $SD = 0.45$), 35-44 ($M = 1.29$, $SD = 0.46$), 45-54 ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.47$), and 55-64 ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.47$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for those aged 65-74 ($M = 1.47$, $SD = 0.50$) was also significantly higher than those aged 18-24. Generally, these results imply that those 75+ value police presence in the form of view only online support significantly more than those aged 18-24, and also that those aged 75+ value assisted watch schemes significantly more than those aged 18-64.

In order to identify any significant differences between age and valued changes to forms of visible police presence across age brackets, a one-way ANOVA was calculated, however there was no differences were found at the $p < .05$ level.

Gender and valued visible police presence

To examine whether there was a significant difference in valued forms of visible police presence across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted. On average, females were significantly more likely to value view only online support ($M = 1.20$, $SE = .002$) than males ($M = 1.15$, $SE = 0.02$); $t(1064) = -2.46$, $p < .05$. In addition, females were significantly more likely to value crime prevention advice ($M = 1.32$, $SE = 0.02$) than males ($M = 1.26$, $SE = 0.02$); $t(1064) = -2.03$, $p < .05$. Lastly, females were significantly more likely to indicate that they didn't know what forms of police presence they valued ($M = 1.06$, $SE = 0.01$) than males ($M = 1.02$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1064) = -3.16$, $p < .01$. No other differences across gender were found to be significant.

To examine whether there was a significant difference in valued changes to forms of visible police presence across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted. On average, females were significantly more likely to value an increase in crime prevention advice ($M = 2.21$, $SE = 0.04$) than males ($M = 2.03$, $SE = 0.05$); $t(929) = -3.05$, $p < .01$. In addition, females were significantly more likely to value an increase in assisted watch schemes ($M = 2.24$, $SE = 0.04$) than males ($M = 2.09$, $SE = 0.05$); $t(949) = -2.24$, $p < .025$. No other differences across gender were found to be significant.

Children residents and valued visible police presence

To examine whether there was a significant difference in valued forms of visible police presence across households with and without children, an independent samples t-test was conducted. On average, those without children were significantly more likely to value assisted watch schemes ($M = 1.34$, $SE = 0.02$) than those with children ($M = 1.27$, $SE = 0.02$); $t(1195) = 2.47$, $p < .025$. In addition, those without children were significantly more likely to value no forms of police presence ($M = 1.06$, $SE = 0.01$) than those with children ($M = 1.03$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1064) = -2.03$, $p < .05$. No other differences across households with and without children were found to be significant.

To examine whether there was any significant differences in valued changes to forms of visible police presence across households with and without children, an independent samples t-test was conducted, however no significant differences were found at the $p < .05$ level.

Area and valued visible police presence

In order to identify if there were any differences in valued forms of visible police presence across different areas, a one-way ANOVA was calculated for the five postcodes within Preston. There was a significant effect of area on valuing foot patrols [$F(4,325) = 3.18, p < .025$] and assisted watch schemes [$F(4,323) = 3.84, p < .01$], at the $p < .05$ level for the five conditions. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of valuing foot patrols for PR1 ($M = 1.87, SD = 0.34$) was significantly higher than PR4 ($M = 1.64, SD = 0.49$). In addition, the mean score of valuing assisted watch schemes for PR3 ($M = 1.45, SD = 0.50$) was significantly higher than PR5 ($M = 1.19, SD = 0.40$). No other differences were found to be significant. In general, these results imply that, residents of PR1 value foot patrols significantly more than residents of PR4, and residents of PR3 value assisted watch schemes significantly more than residents PR5.

In order to identify if there were any differences in changes to forms of visible police presence across different areas, a one-way ANOVA was calculated for the five postcodes within Preston, however no significant differences were found at the $p < .05$ level.

Qualitative responses

Qualitatively, 97 participants explained how the police should prioritise visual policing in order to reassure the public. This included participants that wanted more PACT meetings, officers in schools and more officers during the night time to increase the feelings of safety.

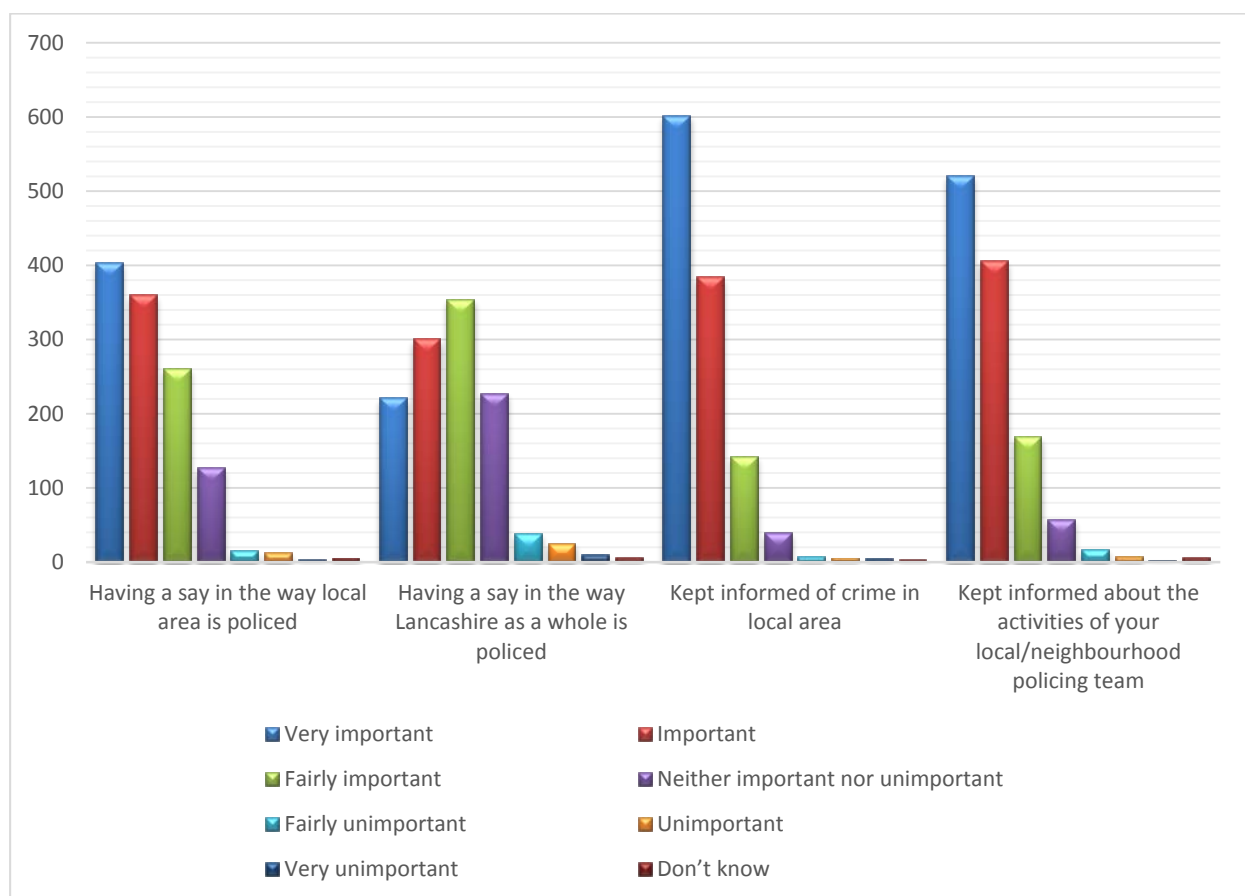
In addition, 215 participants mentioned how they needed more transparency from the police with how the cuts are actually affecting policing and how much help they need from the public, with some even stating that it had become a “hot topic” to talk about between people in their communities. There were two prominent subthemes within this. The first was that participants highlighted that “not seeing an officer on the street has now become a talking point within communities” and that there is an increasing fear that the financial cuts are severely affecting the police’s ability to do their jobs. The second subtheme concerned the

Police and Crime Commissioner. Many of the comments aligned with the view that the PCC “was a waste of money that would be better spent putting officers on the street”, “money spent on a police commissioner is a gross waste of funds that could be used for better policing”, and bluntly “Get rid of Police and Crime Commissioner - waste of money and resources”. Yet a lot of the anger and views were direct towards central government, as opposed to the Lancashire Constabulary.

Importance of Lancashire Police Services

Figure 12 shows how important/unimportant the sample finds a range of Lancashire Police service issues. The majority of the participants found being kept informed of crime in their local area (n = 602, 50.9%) and the activities of their local/neighbourhood policing team (n = 521, 44.25%) to be very important.

Figure 12. Importance of Lancashire Police services



Age and the importance of Lancashire Police services

In order to identify if there were any significant differences between age and the importance of Lancashire Police services, a one-way ANOVA was calculated. There was a significant effect of age on the importance of having a say in how Lancashire is policed at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1043) = 2.74, p = <.025$], however post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that mean scores were not significantly different across age brackets.

Hypothesised Lancashire Police budget priorities

Figure 13 shows how the participants would hypothetically prioritise important issues if they were in charge of the Police budget. The majority of the respondents would prioritise violent crime ($n = 782, 67.3\%$), gun/knife crime ($n = 559, 58.1\%$) and sexual crime ($n = 642, 55.3\%$) as very important. The fewest participants prioritised vandalism ($n = 178, 15.4\%$), mental health ($n = 269, 23.8\%$), and criminal damage ($n = 349, 30.2\%$) as very important. When asked to prioritise one of these categories (see Figure 14), the majority of the 1183 respondents prioritised theft ($n = 211, 17.8\%$), anti-social behaviour ($n = 204, 17.2\%$), violent crime ($n = 174, 14.7\%$) and drugs ($n = 168, 14.2\%$).

Figure 13. Hypothesised Lancashire Police budget priorities.

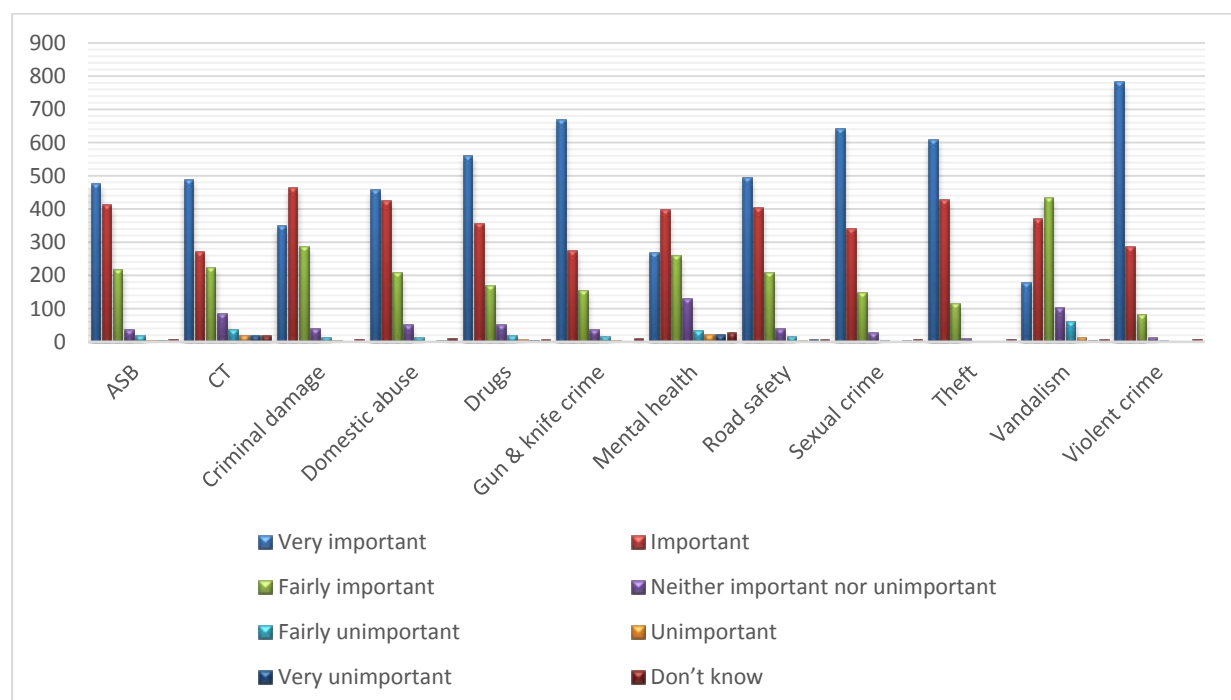
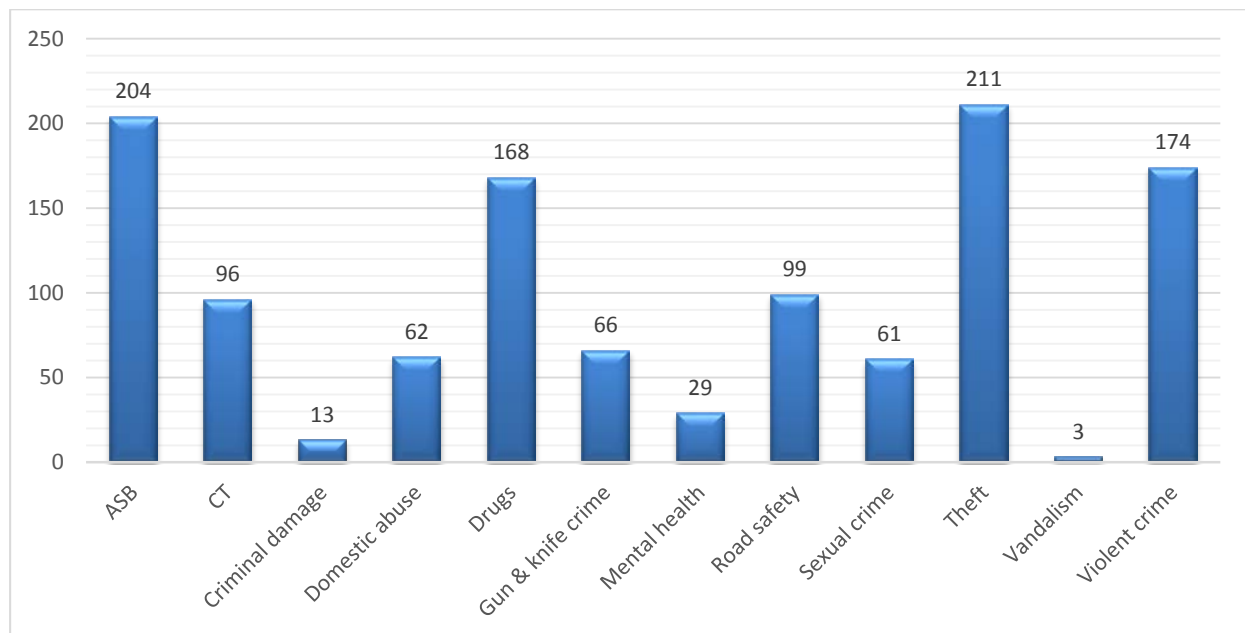


Figure 14. Prioritised crime category



Age and hypothesised Lancashire Police budget priorities

In order to identify if there were any significant differences between age and the hypothesised Lancashire Police budget priorities, a one-way ANOVA was calculated. There was a significant effect of age on hypothetically prioritising budgets for ASB at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1033) = 3.05$, $p = < .01$], however post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for hypothetically prioritising ASB budgets was not significantly different across age brackets.

There was also a significant effect of age on hypothetically prioritising budgets for domestic abuse at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1026) = 4.15$, $p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of hypothetically prioritising domestic abuse budgets for those aged 75+ ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 1.08$) was significantly lower than those aged 18-24 ($M = 6.22$, $SD = 0.88$), 25-34 ($M = 6.12$, $SD = 1.10$), 35-44 ($M = 6.20$, $SD = 0.92$), and 45-54 ($M = 6.06$, $SD = 1.07$).

There was also a significant effect of age on hypothetically prioritising budgets for mental health at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1026) = 2.77$, $p = < .025$], and post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of hypothetically prioritising mental health

budgets for those aged 18-24 ($M = 5.81$, $SD = 1.25$) was significantly higher than those aged 65-74 ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 1.89$).

There was a significant effect of age on hypothetically prioritising budgets for sexual crime at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1035) = 3.08$, $p = < .01$], and again, post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of hypothetically prioritising sexual crime budgets for those aged 75+ ($M = 5.78$, $SD = 1.09$) was significantly lower than those aged 18-24 ($M = 6.29$, $SD = 0.87$), 25-34 ($M = 6.41$, $SD = 0.09$), 35-44 ($M = 6.44$, $SD = 0.70$), 45-54 ($M = 6.37$, $SD = 0.93$), 55-64 ($M = 6.24$, $SD = 0.99$), and 65-74 ($M = 6.15$, $SD = 1.25$).

Finally, there was a significant effect of age on hypothetically prioritising budgets for vandalism at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1028) = 6.49$, $p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of hypothetically prioritising vandalism budgets for those aged 18-24 ($M = 4.99$, $SD = 1.33$) and 25-34 ($M = 4.90$, $SD = 1.35$), was significantly lower than those aged 55-64 ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 1.03$), 65-74 ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.21$) and 75+ ($M = 5.71$, $SD = 0.91$). No other differences across age was found to be significant.

Generally, these results imply that those aged 75+ would hypothetically prioritise domestic abuse budgets significantly less than those aged 18-54, and sexual crime significantly less than those aged 18-74. In addition, whilst 18-24 year olds would prioritise mental health significantly more than those aged 65-74, 18-34 year olds would prioritise vandalism significantly less than those aged 65+.

In order to identify if there were any significant differences between age and the prioritised crime category, a one-way ANOVA was calculated, however no significant differences were found at the $p < .05$ level.

Gender and hypothesised Lancashire Police budget priorities

To examine whether there was a significant difference in hypothesised Lancashire Police budget priorities across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted. Males were significantly more likely to hypothetically prioritise police budget expense for ASB ($M = 6.15$, $SE = 0.98$) than females ($M = 6.02$, $SE = 0.99$); $t(1036) = 1.98$, $p < .05$. However, females were significantly more likely to hypothetically prioritise CT ($M = 5.99$, $SE = 1.22$), than males ($M = 6.63$, $SE = 1.51$); $t(1017) = -4.21$, $p < .001$, domestic abuse ($M = 6.21$, $SE = 0.84$) than males (M

= 5.91, SE = 1.03); $t(1025) = -5.20$, $p < .001$, drugs ($M = 6.31$, $SE = 0.84$) than males ($M = 6.00$, $SE = 1.22$); $t(1037) = -4.80$, $p < .001$, gun/knife crime ($M = 6.43$, $SE = 0.84$) than males ($M = 6.18$, $SE = 1.12$); $t(1026) = -4.09$, $p < .001$, mental health ($M = 5.74$, $SE = 1.17$) than males ($M = 5.17$, $SE = 1.45$); $t(1007) = -6.87$, $p < .001$, road safety ($M = 6.20$, $SE = 0.90$) than males ($M = 5.99$, $SE = 1.11$); $t(1040) = -3.50$, $p < .001$, sexual crime ($M = 6.51$, $SE = 0.70$) than males ($M = 6.14$, $SE = 1.00$); $t(1037) = -6.88$, $p < .001$, and violent crime ($M = 6.64$, $SE = 0.62$) than males ($M = 6.49$, $SE = 0.74$); $t(1037) = -3.53$, $p < .001$. No other differences across gender were found to be significant.

An independent samples t-test indicated that there was a significant difference in prioritised crime category across gender; $t(1060) = -2.44$, $p < .025$. Males were more likely to prioritise ASB, CT and theft, whilst females were more likely to prioritise criminal damage, domestic abuse, drugs, gun/knife crime, mental health, road safety, sexual crime, and violent crime. No other differences across gender were found to be significant.

Children residents and hypothesised Lancashire Police budget priorities

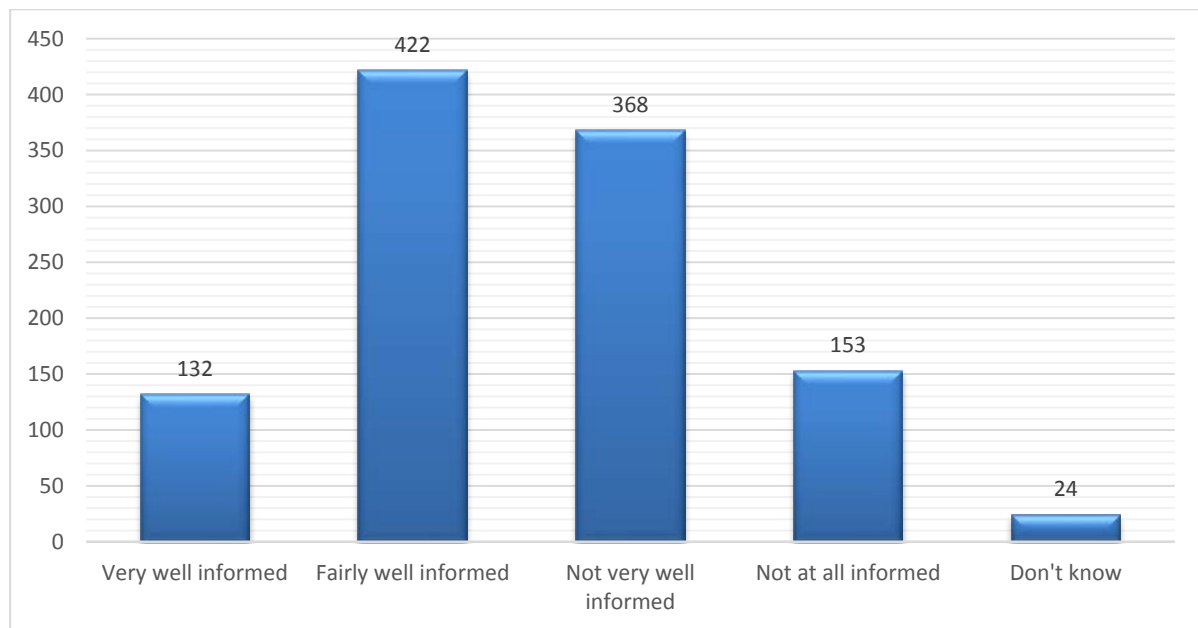
To examine whether there was a significant difference in hypothesised Lancashire Police budget priorities across households with and without children, an independent samples t-test was conducted. Those with children were significantly more likely to prioritise domestic abuse ($M = 6.19$, $SE = 0.90$) than those without children ($M = 6.04$, $SE = 0.96$); $t(1151) = -2.46$, $p < .025$. No other differences across households with and without children were found to be significant.

To examine whether there was any significant differences in prioritised crime category across households with and without children, an independent samples t-test was conducted, however no significant differences were found at the $p < .05$ level.

Informed

Figure 15 shows how well informed the participants feel about the Police in their local area. Out of the 1099 respondents, 544 (50.4%) felt fairly well to very well informed, whilst 521 (47.4%) felt not very well to not at all informed.

Figure 15. How well informed the sample feels about local Police.



Age and how well informed respondents felt

In order to identify if there were any significant differences between age and how well informed respondents felt, a one-way ANOVA was calculated. There was a significant effect of age on how well informed respondents felt at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1040) = 3.03, p < .01$]. However, post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of how well informed respondents felt was not significantly different across age brackets.

Area and how well informed respondents felt

In order to identify if there were any differences in how well informed respondents felt across different areas, a one-way ANOVA was calculated for the five postcodes within Preston. There was a significant effect of area on how well informed respondents felt at the $p < .05$ level for the five conditions [$F(4,293) = 2.65, p < .05$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of how well informed respondents felt for PR5 ($M = 2.11, SD = 1.01$) was significantly lower than PR1 ($M = 2.62, SD = 0.96$), PR2 ($M = 2.59, SD = 0.91$), and PR3 ($M = 2.65, SD = 0.91$). In general, these results imply that, residents of PR5 felt significantly less informed than residents of PR1, PR2 and PR3.

Communication

The most frequently used methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months were reported as the internet (n = 503, 42%), social media (n = 434, 36.3%) and contact with local Police officers (n = 461, 38.5%). The least used most used methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months were the office of the Police Crime Commissioner (n = 38, 3.2%), and information centres (n = 51, 4.3%).

The most preferred methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the future were contact with local Police officers (n = 407, 34%), telephoning the Police (n = 329, 27.5%) and using the internet (n = 324, 27.1%). The least preferred methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the future were national newspapers (n = 93, 7.8%), and the office of the Police Crime Commissioner (n = 93, 7.8%).

Age and methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months

In order to identify if there were any significant differences between age and most frequently used methods of finding out about Lancashire constabulary in the past 12 months, a one-way ANOVA was calculated.

There was a significant effect of age on use of advertising campaigns in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 3.45, p = < .01$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using advertising campaigns for those aged 18-24 (M = 1.32, SD = 0.47) and 25-34 (M = 1.29, SD = 0.46) was significantly higher than those aged 75+ (M = 1.08, SD = 0.28).

There was also a significant effect of age on contact with local councillors in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 4.07, p = < .001$], and post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using contact with local councillors for those aged 18-24 (M = 1.10, SD = 0.30), 25-34 (M = 1.11, SD = 0.31) and 75+ (M = 1.13, SD = 0.34) was significantly lower than those aged 65-74 (M = 1.29, SD = 0.45).

There was a significant effect of age on use of email in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 6.93, p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using email for those aged 65-74 (M = 1.57, SD = 0.50) and 75+ (M = 1.54, SD =

0.51) was significantly higher than those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.47$), 25-34 ($M = 1.28$, $SD = 0.45$), 35-44 ($M = 1.29$, $SD = 0.46$), 45-54 ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.47$). The mean score of using email for those aged 65-74 was also found to be significantly higher than those aged 55-64 ($M = 1.37$, $SD = 0.49$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of information centres in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 3.65$, $p = .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using information centres for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.10$, $SD = 0.30$) was significantly higher than those aged 75+ ($M = 1.00$, $SD = 0.00$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of Lancashire Constabulary's 'In the Know' service in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 13.09$, $p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using 'In the Know' for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.22$, $SD = 0.41$) and 25-34 ($M = 1.22$, $SD = 0.42$) was significantly lower than those aged 55-64 ($M = 1.42$, $SD = 0.50$), 65-74 ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 0.48$) and 75+ ($M = 1.54$, $SD = .051$). In addition, the mean score of using the 'In the know' for those aged 35-44 ($M = 1.30$, $SD = 0.46$) was significantly lower than those aged 65-74 and 75+, and also the mean score of those aged 45-54 ($M = 1.36$, $SD = 0.48$) and 55-64 was significantly lower than those aged 65-74.

There was a significant effect of age on use of public meetings with the Police in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 5.12$, $p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using public meetings with the police for those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.08$, $SD = 0.27$), 35-44 ($M = 1.08$, $SD = 0.28$), 45-54 ($M = 1.11$, $SD = 0.31$) and 75+ ($M = 1.08$, $SD = 0.28$) was significantly lower than those aged 65-74 ($M = 1.25$, $SD = 0.44$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of radio in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 2.29$, $p < .05$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using the radio for those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.13$, $SD = 0.34$) was significantly higher than those aged 75+ ($M = 1.00$, $SD = 0.00$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of residential association meetings in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 4.58$, $p < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using residential association meetings for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.05$, $SD = 0.22$), 25-34 ($M = 1.06$, $SD = 0.25$), 35-44 ($M = 1.06$, $SD = 0.25$), 45-54

($M = 1.07$, $SD = 0.26$), and 75+ ($M = 1.04$, $SD = 0.20$) was significantly lower than those aged 65-74 ($M = 1.20$, $SD = 0.40$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of social media in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 20.93$, $p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using social media for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.62$, $SD = 0.49$) and 25-34 ($M = 1.60$, $SD = 0.49$) was significantly higher than those aged 45-54 ($M = 1.35$, $SD = 0.48$), 55-64 ($M = 1.25$, $SD = 0.44$), 65-74 ($M = 1.21$, $SD = 0.41$) and 75+ ($M = 1.00$, $SD = 0.00$). In addition, the mean score for those aged 35-44 ($M = 1.52$, $SD = 0.50$) was significantly higher than those aged 55-64, 65-74 and 75+, and the mean score of those aged 45-54 was significantly higher than those aged 75+.

There was a significant effect of age on use of TV in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 4.20$, $p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using the TV for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.16$, $SD = 0.37$) was significantly higher than those aged 55-64 ($M = 1.04$, $SD = 0.20$) and 75+ ($M = 1.00$, $SD = 0.00$). In addition, the mean score for those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.14$, $SD = 0.35$) was significantly higher than those aged 75+.

There was a significant effect of age on use of the 101 number in the past 12 months at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 2.63$, $p = < .025$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using the 101 number for those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.47$) and 35-44 ($M = 1.32$, $SD = 0.47$) was significantly higher than those aged 75+ ($M = 1.08$, $SD = 0.28$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of the internet in the past 12 months [$F(6,1056) = 2.64$, $p = < .025$], contact with local officers in the past 12 months [$F(6,1056) = 2.27$, $p = < .05$], and the use of leaflets in public places in the past 12 months [$F(6,1056) = 3.18$, $p = < .01$] at the $p < .05$ level, however post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score for these variables were not significantly different across age brackets. All other difference were not found to be significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Age and preferred methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the future

A Spearman's correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between age and preferred future method of communication with Lancashire Constabulary. There was a

significant positive correlation between age and preferring communication with Lancashire Police in the future via contact with local Police officers ($r_s = .12, p < .001$), via email ($r_s = .12, p < .001$), via Lancashire Constabulary's 'In the Know' messaging service ($r_s = .16, p < .001$), and via public meetings with the Police ($r_s = .07, p < .025$). This indicates that as age increases, so does the preference to use future methods of communication with Lancashire Constabulary in the form of contact with local Police officers, via email, via Lancashire Constabulary's 'In the Know' messaging service, and via public meetings with the Police. There was also a significant negative correlation between age and future communication via advertising campaigns ($r_s = -.08, p < .01$), via letters from the Police ($r_s = -.06, p < .05$), no preferred form of communication ($r_s = -.07, p < .025$), via radio ($r_s = -.06, p < .05$), via social media ($r_s = -.07, p < .025$), and via TV ($r_s = -.06, p < .05$). This indicates that as age increases, the preference to use advertising campaigns, letters from the Police, no preferred form of communication, radio, social media, and TV as future methods of communication with Lancashire Constabulary decreases.

In order to identify if there were any significant differences between age and the most preferred methods of finding out about Lancashire constabulary in the future, a one-way ANOVA was calculated.

There was a significant effect of age on use of advertising campaigns in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 5.30, p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of the use of advertising campaigns for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.32, SD = 0.47$) was significantly higher than those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.16, SD = 0.37$), 35-44 ($M = 1.19, SD = 0.39$), 45-54 ($M = 1.13, SD = 0.33$), 55-64 ($M = 1.10, SD = 0.31$), 65-74 ($M = 1.09, SD = 0.29$) and 75+ ($M = 1.04, SD = 0.20$).

There was also a significant effect of age on contact with local councillors in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 4.13, p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of contact with local councillors for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.29, SD = 0.46$) was significantly higher than those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.13, SD = 0.34$), 35-44 ($M = 1.12, SD = 0.32$), 45-54 ($M = 1.11, SD = 0.31$), 55-64 ($M = 1.13, SD = 0.34$), and 65-74 ($M = 1.09, SD = 0.29$). The mean scored of those aged 65-74 was significantly lower than those aged 75+ ($M = 1.25, SD = 0.44$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of a leaflet through the door in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 4.60, p = <.001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of leaflets through the door for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.39, SD = 0.49$) was significantly higher than those aged 45-54 ($M = 1.20, SD = .40$), 65-74 ($M = 1.12, SD = 0.32$) and 75+ ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.28$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of leaflets in public places in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 3.09, p = <.01$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of leaflets in public places for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.25, SD = 0.44$) was significantly higher than those aged 55-64 ($M = 1.10, SD = 0.31$), 65-74 ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.27$) and 75+ ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.28$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of letters from the Police in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 5.17, p = <.001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of letters from the police for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.34, SD = 0.48$) was significantly higher than those aged 35-44 ($M = 1.15, SD = 0.36$), 45-54 ($M = 1.15, SD = 0.35$), 55-64 ($M = 1.14, SD = 0.35$), 65-74 ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.28$) and 75+ ($M = 1.13, SD = 0.34$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of local newsletters in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 3.04, p = <.01$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of local newsletters for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.37, SD = 0.49$) was significantly higher than those aged 65-74 ($M = 1.13, SD = 0.34$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of local newspapers in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 2.60, p = <.025$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of local newspapers for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.30, SD = 0.46$) was significantly higher than those aged 65-74 ($M = 1.10, SD = 0.31$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of national newspapers in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 4.41, p = <.001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of national newspapers for those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.27$), 35-44 ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.27$), 45-54 ($M = 1.09, SD = 0.29$) and 75+ ($M = 1.17, SD = 0.38$) was significantly higher than those aged 65-74 ($M = 1.03, SD = 0.16$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of the office of the Police Crime Commissioner in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 3.02, p = < .01$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of the office of the PCC for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.20, SD = 0.40$) was significantly higher than those aged 25-34 ($M = 1.06, SD = 0.25$), 35-44 ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.27$), 45-54 ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.27$), 55-64 ($M = 1.08, SD = 0.27$), 65-74 ($M = 1.05, SD = 0.23$) and 75+ ($M = 1.04, SD = 0.20$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of police telephoning in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 2.15, p = < .05$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of the police telephoning for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.20, SD = 0.40$) was significantly higher than those aged 75+ ($M = 1.00, SD = 0.00$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of radio in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 3.09, p = < .01$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of the radio for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.18, SD = 0.38$) was significantly higher than those aged 65-74 ($M = 1.02, SD = 0.14$).

There was a significant effect of age on use of social media in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 6.70, p = < .001$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of social media for those aged 75+ ($M = 1.04, SD = 0.20$) was significantly lower than those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.41, SD = 0.49$), 25-34 ($M = 1.32, SD = 0.47$), 35-44 ($M = 1.31, SD = 0.46$), 45-54 ($M = 1.26, SD = 0.44$), and 55-64 ($M = 1.22, SD = 0.42$). The mean scores for those aged 65-74 ($M = 1.11, SD = 0.31$) were also significantly lower than those ages 18-24, 25-34, and 35-44.

There was a significant effect of age on use of TV in the future at the $p < .05$ level [$F(6,1056) = 2.38, p = < .05$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of TV for those aged 18-24 ($M = 1.18, SD = 0.38$) was significantly higher than those aged 55-64 ($M = 1.05, SD = 0.22$) and 75+ ($M = 1.04, SD = 0.20$).

Finally, there was a significant effect of age on contact with voluntary sectors in the future [$F(6,1056) = 2.23, p = < .05$], and the use of information centres in the future [$F(6,1056) = 2.25, p = < .05$] at the $p < .05$ level, however post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that mean scores were not significantly different across age brackets.

Table 7 shows the most frequently used methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months and preferred methods to be used in the future for each age bracket.

Table 7. Most frequent methods of communication with Lancashire Constabulary across age bracket

Age	Used most in the past 12 months	Most likely to use in the future
18-24	information centres	Local newspaper/PCC
25-34	TV	Radio
35-44	Information centres	Advertising campaigns
45-54	Public leaflets	Information centres
55-64	Public meetings with the police	Police telephoning
65-74	Residential association meetings	Information centres
75+	email	Contact with local councillors

Gender and methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary

To examine whether there was a significant difference in methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted. On average, males were significantly more likely to have used the office of the PCC as a method to find out about Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months ($M = 1.05$, $SE = .01$) than females ($M = 1.02$, $SE = .01$); $t(1064) = 3.20$, $p = .001$. In addition, males were significantly more likely to have used email in the past 12 months ($M = 1.42$, $SE = .02$) than females ($M = 1.32$, $SE = .02$); $t(1064) = 3.36$, $p = .001$, and also were significantly more likely to prefer to use email as a method to find out about Lancashire Constabulary in the future ($M = 1.31$, $SE = .02$) than females ($M = 1.24$, $SE = .02$); $t(1064) = 2.26$, $p < .025$. Females were more likely to have used social media as a method to find out about Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months ($M = 1.43$, $SE = .02$) than males ($M = 1.34$, $SE = .02$); $t(1064) = -2.84$, $p < .01$, and also were significantly more likely to prefer to use social media as a method to find out about Lancashire Constabulary in the future ($M = 1.29$, $SE = .02$) than males ($M = 1.22$, $SE = .02$); $t(1064) = -2.67$, $p < .01$. No other differences were found to be significant across gender.

Children residents and methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary

To examine whether there was a significant difference in methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary across households with and without children, an independent samples t-test was conducted. Those with children were significantly more likely to have used advertising campaigns as a method of finding out about Lancashire constabulary in the past 12 months ($M = 1.23$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.18$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.01$, $p < .05$. Those with children were also significantly more likely to have used visiting a local police station (in person) ($M = 1.20$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.14$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.76$, $p < .01$, to have used the internet ($M = 1.46$, $SE = 0.03$) than those without children ($M = 1.40$, $SE = 0.02$); $t(1195) = -2.00$, $p < .05$, to have used the police telephoning $M = 1.12$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.08$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.15$, $p < .05$, to have used social media ($M = 1.51$, $SE = 0.03$) than those without children ($M = 1.30$, $SE = 0.02$); $t(1195) = -7.23$, $p < .001$, to have used telephoning the police ($M = 1.34$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.24$, $SE = 0.02$); $t(1195) = -3.53$, $p < .001$, to have used TV ($M = 1.10$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.06$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.50$, $p < .025$, and finally, to have used the 101 number ($M = 1.29$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.22$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.86$, $p < .01$. Those without children were not found to be significantly more likely to use any method of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months than those with children.

Those with children were significantly more likely to prefer to use contact with local officers as a method of finding out about Lancashire Police in the future ($M = 1.38$, $SE = 0.03$) than those without children ($M = 1.32$, $SE = 0.02$); $t(1195) = -2.16$, $p < .05$. Those with children were also significantly more likely to prefer to use contact with voluntary sectors in the future ($M = 1.12$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.08$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.21$, $p < .05$, to prefer to visit a local police station in person in the future ($M = 1.21$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.16$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.04$, $p < .05$, to prefer to use national newspapers in the future ($M = 1.10$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.06$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.41$, $p < .025$, and finally, to prefer to use social media in the future ($M = 1.28$, $SE = 0.02$) than those without children ($M = 1.21$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.67$, $p < .01$. Those without children were not found to be significantly more likely to use any method of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary in the future than those with children.

Finally, those with children were significantly more likely to prefer to use none of the listed options as a method of finding out about Lancashire Police in the future ($M = 1.04$, $SE = 0.01$) than those without children ($M = 1.02$, $SE = 0.01$); $t(1195) = -2.40$, $p < .025$.

Area and methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary

In order to identify if there were any differences between area and methods of finding out about Lancashire Constabulary, a one-way ANOVA was calculated for the five postcodes within Preston.

There was a significant effect of area on use of public meetings with the police in the past 12 months [$F(4,325) = 4.33$, $p < .01$] and use of telephoning the police in the past 12 months [$F(4,325) = 2.66$, $p < .05$] at the $p < .05$ level. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using public meetings with the police for PR1 ($M = 1.18$, $SD = 0.39$) and PR2 ($M = 1.19$, $SD = 0.40$) was significantly higher than PR3 ($M = 1.04$, $SD = 0.19$) and PR5 ($M = 1.02$, $SD = 0.14$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of using telephoning the police for PR1 ($M = 1.36$, $SD = 0.48$) was significantly higher than PR3 ($M = 1.15$, $SD = 0.36$).

There was a significant effect of area on use of information centres in the past 12 months [$F(4,325) = 2.50$, $p < .05$], and the use of leaflets in public places in the past 12 months [$F(4,325) = 2.52$, $p < .05$] at the $p < .05$ level, however post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean scores were not significantly different across the five postcodes.

There was a significant effect of area on preferring to use a leaflet through the door in the future [$F(4,325) = 3.00$, $p < .025$], and preferring to use TV in the future [$F(4,325) = 3.81$, $p < .01$] at the $p < .05$ level. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated that the mean score of preferring to use a leaflet through the door in the future for PR5 ($M = 1.34$, $SD = 0.48$) was significantly higher than PR3 ($M = 1.13$, $SD = 0.34$) and PR4 ($M = 1.15$, $SD = 0.36$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test also indicated that the mean score of preferring to use TV in the future for PR2 ($M = 1.15$, $SD = 0.36$) was significantly higher than PR3 ($M = 1.02$, $SD = 0.14$) and PR4 ($M = 1.01$, $SD = 0.12$).

There was a significant effect of area on preferring to use police telephoning in the future [$F(4,325) = 3.10$, $p < .025$], however post hoc comparisons using the Tukey B test indicated

that the mean score of using policing telephoning in the future was not significantly different across the five postcodes.

In general, these results indicate that residents of PR1 and PR2 were more likely to have used public meetings with the police as a method of communication within the past 12 months than residents of PR3 and PR5 and also that, residents of PR1 were more likely to have used public meetings with the police as a method of communication within the past 12 months than residents of PR3. In addition, residents of PR5 were more likely to indicate that they would use leaflets through the door as a method of communication in the future than residents of PR3 and PR4, whilst residents of PR2 were more likely to indicate that they would use TV as a method of communication in the future than residents PR3 and PR4.

Employment and type of communication

A Spearman's correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between employment status and preferred future method of communication with Lancashire Constabulary. There was a significant positive correlation between employment and preferring communication with Lancashire Constabulary via the 'In the Know' messaging service ($r_s = .06, p < .05$), which indicates that those in not in employment are more likely to prefer to use the 'In the Know' messaging service as a form of communication with Lancashire Constabulary in the future. There was a significant negative correlation between employment and future communication via social media ($r_s = -.1, p < .01$), which indicates that those in employment are more likely to prefer to use social media as a form of communication with Lancashire Constabulary in the future. There was no significant relationship between employment and other forms of preferred future methods of communication with Lancashire Constabulary.

Household income and type of communication

A Spearman's correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between household income and preferred future method of communication with Lancashire Constabulary. There was a significant negative correlation between income and preferring communication with Lancashire Constabulary via information centres ($r_s = .07, p < .05$), via the 'In the Know' messaging service ($r_s = .08, p < .025$), via a leaflet through the door ($r_s = .07,$

$p < .025$), via letters from the Police ($r_s = .1$, $p < .025$), public meetings with the Police ($r_s = .06$, $p < .05$), and via residents' association meetings ($r_s = .1$, $p = .001$). This indicates that those with higher household incomes are less likely to prefer to use information centres, Lancashire Constabulary's 'In the know' messaging service, a leaflet through the door, letters from the Police, public meetings with the Police, and residents association meeting as a form of communication with Lancashire Constabulary in the future.

Qualification level and type of communication

A Spearman's correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between qualification level and preferred future method of communication with Lancashire Constabulary. There was a significant negative correlation between qualification level and preferring communication with Lancashire Constabulary via contact with local councillors ($r_s = .06$, $p < .05$), and via national newspapers ($r_s = .07$, $p < .025$), which indicates that those with higher level qualifications are less likely to prefer to use contact with local councillors or national newspapers as a form of communication with Lancashire Constabulary in the future.

Qualitative Responses

Qualitative responses expanded on methods of communication with Lancashire Constabulary. 26 participants (48.2%) referred to having patrols on the street they could talk to, having the police visit community centres, talking to officers from their house, PACT meetings, preventative work in schools and more open days. 10 participants (18.5%) explained how the 'In The Know service' was a very good service and that there needs to be more advertising and publicity around it. 5 participants (9.3%) explained how easy it was to use social media for police information, however, one participant stated strongly that the police must not assume that not everybody uses social media sites and has access to the internet. The '101 telephone' number received negative feedback with 4 participants (7.4%) making comments on how they felt it was a waste of time, it was always busy and when they called the call taker had no knowledge of their local area.

There were 756 participants who provided an answer for the type of information they would like to receive from the police. From the responses, there were 6 main themes: (i) 'local crime

or community issues/stats/priorities/updates', (ii) 'who to contact/local officers information', (iii) 'missing person's information', (iv) 'none', (v) 'In The Know', and (vi) 'other' (see table 8).

Table 8. Information that would be liked to be received from Lancashire Constabulary.

Theme	Number of Participants (<i>n</i>)	Percentage (%) (from <i>n</i> = 756)
Local crime or community issues/stats/priorities/updates	537	71.0%
Who to contact/Local officers information	251	33.2%
Missing persons information	132	17.5%
None	55	7.3%
In The Know	22	2.9%
Other	115	15.2%

Firstly, only 55 participants (7.3%) stated that they did not want any information (unless it was directly relevant to them individually). In contrast, the majority of participants (*n*=537, 71.0%) expressed how they really wanted crime statistics, details of crime and information on the outcome of crime after the police response. A major subtheme surrounded how the crime statistics should be for the participants' local area, as opposed to the town or wider area.

However, 251 participants (33.2%) stated that they did not know who to contact, or how to get in touch with the police, i.e. contact information for local officers, for their nearest police station, and for other agencies when it is "not a police matter". A subtheme of this was that participants did not know how to help, since a lot of the requests for contact information were for people trying to help and report information to the police but could not get in touch efficiently. Overall, this theme demonstrated how the public are wanting to engage, contact and in many cases help the police, but do not feel they have the information or the capacity to do so.

132 participants (17.5%) expressed how they wanted information on missing persons, especially those around their local area. 22 participants (2.9%) made explicit mention of the

‘In The Know’ service and how there should be the continuation and promotion of the service, as the participants felt that there was not much awareness about the online service.

Finally, the theme of ‘other’ contained 115 participants (15.2%) and was made up of very specific information that they wanted from the police. This included many specific topics such as sex offender information, ASBOs, wanted persons, information on high police activity (such as the helicopter), cost benefits of the Police and Crime Commissioner, finance reports, and general successes and difficulties. There were also strong views around the information about complaints and officer discipline and how to keep up to date about the behaviour of certain officers. In addition, there were also a select few who made mention of the ease of information through the use of social media, especially Facebook. Within the same topic, a few participants also requested an online forum so that they could openly discuss and share policing concerns with the police and other members of the public.

There were 841 responses to the question aimed to gauge what affect the media had on the participants’ views of Lancashire Constabulary specifically if they read/heard a general media story about a problem with the police, 7 themes were generated: (i) ‘it doesn’t affect/don’t read media/prefer to make own opinion’, (ii) ‘negative/damages confidence’, (iii) ‘not national but local’, (iv) ‘positive/enhances confidence’, (v) ‘budget worries’, (vi) ‘not sure/depends on circumstance’, and (vii) ‘other (see table 9)’.

Table 9. The impact of national media coverage of policing on participants views of Lancashire Constabulary.

Theme	Number of Participants (<i>n</i>)	Percentage (%) (from <i>n</i> = 841)
It doesn’t affect/Don’t read media/Prefer to make own opinion	400	47.6%
Negative/Damages confidence	160	19.0%
Not national but local	117	13.9%

Positive/enhances confidence	110	13.1%
Budget worries	101	12.0%
Not sure/Depends on circumstance	25	3.0%
Other	76	9.0%

The majority of respondents (n = 400, 47.6%) stated that they are not influenced by the media or that they would only be influenced by the issues if it directly affected them. A major subtheme was that the participants believed that the media is biased and tainted, with many of them saying it should be “taken with a pinch of salt”.

Less people, stated that it had a ‘negative/damages confidence’ effect. There were 160 participants (19.0%) that stated how they generalised the negativity within the media and applied it to all police forces and considered them to be “all the same”. In addition, more specifically, participants mentioned how the media issues regarding the Metropolitan Police Service and South Yorkshire Police affected their view negatively, in which this negativity was also directed towards the Lancashire Constabulary.

The next were those that were not bothered by the national media, but bothered by the local media. There were 117 participants (13.9%) who explained how they recognised that “all forces are painted with the same brush” but that Lancashire Constabulary was a separate force to other “troubled forces”. Because of this, they explained that their views would only be influenced by the media if it directly concerned policing issues within their local area, or if the report was about Lancashire Constabulary.

110 participants (13.1%) stated that the media stories actually increased their confidence and sympathy towards the police who were doing a “very good job with the limited resources they have” and “during difficult times”. A major subtheme within this group was how the participants felt a lot of anger towards the media, as they already had a strongly held positive view of the police or they saw the media as merely being “self-serving”, “sensationalising” and “constantly negative”. These participants highlighted how it is a shame that there are no positive stories about the police because of the belief that it would not actually sell news.

There were 101 participants (12.0%) that stated that they were worried about the state of the police because of the funding restraints and how this was affecting the service. A major subtheme seemed to be and anger towards central government for enacting such harsh cuts, with some participants stating that they would be happy paying more money if it were to guarantee having more police officers patrolling their local area on foot.

Finally, the 'other' theme in this instance contained 76 participants (9.0%) and was mainly made up of participants who made specific comments about their views, i.e., ideas that the police should create news about itself so as to combat the negativity in the media, as well as defending their image as a whole. In addition, other participants seemingly singled out the role of Police and Crime Commissioner, stating that "the press reports re Police and Crime Commissioner confirm our view that they are an unpopular initiative poorly supported by the public" as well as other stating how "the press is really PR from an elected official who just wants to get re-elected".

Discussion

Views and expectations:

Confidence and satisfaction in community engagement:

Whilst crime seems to be in decline on a national scale (College of Policing, 2015; CSEW, 2014), there is no matching view held by the public with some believing it to be increasing (Bradford *et al.*, 2008). This suggests that there is a need for the police to address the reassurance gap as explained by Millie (2006). An issue within addressing the gap, however, is that the Lancashire Constabulary has cut back on officers and physical visibility to meet their financial targets. In turn they are aiming to increase virtual visibility to fill the void left within the reassurance gap. As a measure of police effectiveness, Gabbidon and Higgins

(2009) state that confidence is a key indicator, with the result being that if there is a high level of confidence there will be a better likelihood community engagement (Quinton and Morris, 2008).

Previous literature has found that overall; contact with the police often has a negative impact (Bradford, Stanko, and Jackson, 2008). In addition, it is argued that positive contacts with the police do not have corresponding positive effect, indicating that there is little the police can do through contact to increase public confidence and community engagement (Skogan, 2006). However, the opposite was found in this instance, as there was a significant positive correlation between the participants' confidence with the Lancashire Constabulary in their local area and their satisfaction with the police service received during the contact. This means that, within Lancashire, those that had contact within the past 12 months were satisfied and that this satisfaction correlates with higher confidence with the Lancashire Constabulary in their local area. In addition, to encompass Murphy's (2000) finding that during citizen initiated contact the individual also looks towards police effectiveness and the ability to provide an appropriate outcome, the satisfaction of the outcome was also correlated against confidence with the Lancashire Constabulary in their local area. Again there was a significant positive correlation between the confidence with Lancashire Constabulary in their local area and the satisfaction of with the outcome of contact. These findings align more with the findings of Maxon *et al* (2003) and Bradford *et al* (2009) who found evidence demonstrating that positive contacts can have a corresponding positive effect.

The overall level in confidence was promising since majority of the sample were 'confident - fairly confident' and also 'satisfied - fairly satisfied' with the Lancashire Constabulary in their area. In addition, it is also interesting to note that 13.2% of participants stated they were 'very confident' in the Lancashire Constabulary in their local area, whereas only 5.9% stated they were 'not at all confident'. This is echoed in some of the qualitative responses to the questionnaire, in which 188 participants chose to leave positive.

The finding in this instance detaches from previous literature suggesting that instead of not engaging with the public for fear of negative contact, Lancashire Constabulary should encourage more engagement with public as it results in positive satisfaction and this is also linked to more confidence.

Police presence:

Within the study, there was a confirmation that there is a public feeling about the police having to do 'more with less' (Innes, 2011). 215 participants of the study explicitly stated how they were worried by the funding restraints and how this was affecting the police service. They also expressed how they wanted more transparency from the police with what is being cut and information about how the police are dealing with their budget. As mentioned in the literature review, the NRPP was established to originally bridge the reassurance gap between the police and the public (Tuffin *et al*, 2006) by having a physical presence in local areas and neighbourhoods. However it seems that this is diminishing through a reduction in funding and officers, resulting in the public becoming increasingly unassured.

The study shows the public have strong views on the physical visibility of the police, in which 74.1% of people valued police foot patrols and 67.2% valued police patrols in vehicles. Unsurprisingly, this meant that 75.2% wanted an increase in police foot patrols and 61.4% wanted an increase in vehicle patrols. However, only 17.8% valued view-only online support and 24.2% valued interactive online support. This finding works against the concept of the police attempting to bridge the reassurance gap through an increase in virtual visibility, not just through the value attached to physical visibility, but through the reported lack of value attached to virtual means. It is also important to note that this finding becomes increasingly interesting as the sample itself was skewed towards those with access to the online survey, meaning that the participants all had means to access information online.

With these findings, it seems that that the public attach more value to physical visibility and therefore would want an increase in physical visibility if the police are to address the reassurance gap. This supports the College of Policing claim that decreased levels of police visibility to be a key indicator of emerging pressure on police resilience (College of Policing, 2015). However, one explanation for this may be that participants are unaware of the options that are available to them. Since some don't know about the online services the police could potentially offer, it would be useful to continue efforts to expand and promote virtual visibility and use it as a means to 'compliment' physical visibility as opposed to effectively 'replacing' it.

Hypothesised budget priorities:

Another interesting finding was when participants were asked to give policing priorities based around a hypothetical budget. When examining a range of priorities, majority of people prioritised violent crime (67.3%), gun/knife crime (58.1%) and sexual crime (55.3%) as very important. However, when asked to ultimately prioritise one policing issue the majority of people then rated theft (17.8%), anti-social behaviour (17.2%), violent crime (14.7%) and drugs (14.2 %). Although violent crime appears in both the general prioritisation and specific prioritisation, the finding in general could be related to the objectivity involved in defining a problem overall. In more detail, as the participants were asked to generally prioritise issues they prioritised crimes that were high impact and would carry a higher significance within the criminal justice system. However, when asked to prioritise a specific issue, the question became more personal and participants instead prioritised an issue that ultimately affected them personally. This is demonstrated in the explanations as to why people feel unsafe; 229 explicitly mention gangs of youths/anti-social behaviour, 145 explicitly mentioned alcohol (and drugs), and 45 explicitly mentioned home invasions and attacks on property. With regards to alcohol (and drugs) many participants explained how drug dealing/use was quite free and common in their area and those discussing home invasion/attack on property explained how they feared strangers checking for unlocked doors and general burglaries in the area. This goes some way to explaining why many participants had different specific priorities (especially theft, anti-social behaviour, and drugs) to when they were all asked to generally prioritise policing issues.

This relates to the difference between approaches such as Problem Orientated Policing (Bullock and Tilley, 2003) and 'signal crimes' (Innes, 2005), in which the sample had a general agreement on what crimes should be prioritised overall, but then had individual concerns when it came to prioritising one police issue. Prioritising one specific issue often related to an issue that most concerned them individually, and this could be because they have experienced it already and see it as their biggest concern to their safety.

This suggests that when the Lancashire Constabulary aim to form policing priorities, it would be useful to determine the scope of the audience. If it is a general audience, such as addressing countywide policing issues then a more objective approach should be taken. However, if the policing priorities are for individual neighbourhood policing teams, then the

subjectivity of individuals should be addressed as there are more specific and personal concerns at this level.

Feelings of safety and community:

A great majority of people feel safe during the day and within their homes. However, this decreased when asking about their local area, and even more so when asking about their safety in the town centre and during the night. In addition, there were 3.7% that felt 'very unsafe' during the night and 4.1% that felt 'very unsafe' in the town centre.

Another finding with regards to feelings of safety was around age. Within the qualitative data, 189 participants explained how they felt more generally vulnerable, in which a few participants explained this was because of their increasing age. However, within the quantitative analysis there was a seemingly contradictory significant positive correlation between age and a feeling of safety in the day, in the night, in the home, and in the local area. This indicated that the older participants are the more likely they were to feel safer in the day, the night, in their own home and in their local area. Yet, when the result was placed into context, there were a total of 442 participants that outwardly explained how they felt safe because their houses were secure and they lived in nice areas. These areas tended to be close knit communities, often small villages, where there was a lot of friendly faces and "no gangs of youths". Overall, this implies that those older participants living in secure homes and nice areas feel safer overall, whereas older participants that did not fit into this demographic felt more generally vulnerable.

Furthermore, gender also had an impact on the feeling of safety. On average males felt significantly safer than females at night, in their own home, and in their local area. The finding relates to the responses given, in which 189 participants explained feeling generally vulnerable. Within this theme there were participants who explained how being female made going out in the dark frightening, especially when there was no street lighting, and that they tended not to leave their home on foot unless accompanied by another. In fact, there was even mention of fearing driving at night when young men "played pranks" in the road causing female motorists to feel vulnerable within her car.

In addition to the 189 mentions of feeling generally vulnerable, there were 229 participants who explicitly mentioned 'gangs of youths' and anti-social behaviour as a reason for feeling vulnerable at night and in the town centre. Many suggested better street lighting would help increase their feeling of safety, as well as more police presence. When participants considered their safety in the town centre, disorder created by drinking, especially on Friday and Saturday nights was a prominent theme.

These findings generally merge with the 'signal crimes' approach (Innes, 2004), as many people avoid going outside their house during the night time and into town when people are drinking as they feel unsafe in these situations. However, these issues have become exacerbated by feelings of unease through the financial restraints to the police, and there were 76 participants who expressly stated how the reduction in patrols and lack of visible police patrols now made them feel more vulnerable than they were before. There was even specific mention of how it was officers on foot patrol that increased a feeling of safety, since vehicle patrols were not as personal and could potentially miss incidents as they drive by quickly.

This became especially prominent when participants described how this lack of support from the police actually made them feel less able to address disorder themselves and to actually confidently engage with each other in their community. Whilst 18.2% of people stated they felt a great deal part of the community, this was often because (as mentioned by 308 participants) they were involved in community groups and activities that got them interacting with others. Yet the majority felt that they were to some extent (43.8%) and not much (28.1%) part of their community. 237 participants reported this was because they just like keeping themselves to themselves and 198 people mentioned how they would stop to have a chat if engaged. However, 116 participants mentioned how they felt that social value had gone and nobody seemingly cared about the community any more. Furthermore, there was a small amount of mutual suspicion between different demographics within Lancashire, with Muslims fearing Islamophobia from others, some white British fearing 'Asian youths' and 'foreign men', females fearing males in the night time, students fearing locals in pubs and bars and the locals fearing 'packs of students'. Some people reportedly felt suspicious of others and unable to take their duties on neighbourhood watch seriously in their own areas as they did not feel they had sufficient backing from the police.

However, the Lancashire Constabulary could capitalise on the findings as many reported how they were wanting the support from the police and are willing to help in order to receive it. There were suggestions around the possibility for volunteering within the community to help increase feelings of safety and confidence, and that there should be more backing and physical visibility from the police. A few mentioned how this could be just an officer parking his car and spending an hour in a local area discussing issues before then moving on to the next local area. Although 527 participants stated that they were not part of any community groups, many within this category were willing to get involved but had no opportunities or did not know how to. Considering 151 participants were already part of community groups involved in criminal justice orientated activities such as CCTV, special constables, neighbourhood watch, horse watch etc., there is scope for the Lancashire Constabulary to appeal to communities to form more voluntary community groups with the intention of aiding the police in their work. Not only was there call for more support to form neighbourhood watch schemes and other community support groups (45.7% of participants stated that they wanted an increase in assisted watch schemes), but there were also participants wanting more opportunities for administrative assistant and other office based roles within the police itself. Within this theme, it could even be a possibility that the police select volunteer members to help disseminate information on crime and police work, so effectively members of the community are informing the rest of the community about local issues, but within the confines and control of the Lancashire Constabulary.

Keeping in touch:

Previous contact with the police:

Within the study, 71.1% of the participants had contact with the Lancashire Constabulary, in which majority found it easy to get in touch. In addition, and as mentioned previously, the overall majority of the participants were satisfied with the service they received and the outcome of the contact.

Unfortunately, there were participants who also had negative prior contact with the police. Some participants found it difficult to get in touch, with 10% of participants being dissatisfied with the service they received and 13% being very dissatisfied with the outcome of the contact. When corroborated with the qualitative data, there were 20 participants who had

explicitly stated how the telephone service and the 101 number was “awful”, “useless” and had too longer waiting time. Some complained about having to ring multiple times to get through, each time incurring a small charge. In addition, the call taker was then often call centre based and had no local knowledge of the area, making it feel unhelpful as the participant attempted to report a crime or give information.

This finding highlights the issues some had with phoning into the police, be it through general dislike of the service through to the call taker not knowing their area. With this in mind, it would be useful for the Lancashire Constabulary to have specific call takers that know about local areas on the 101 number, so as to relate to the caller as they phone in to give information. Again, this service of could be conducted by some voluntary members from different communities with strong ties to people in that area and a good local knowledge. To do so would further increase the satisfaction of individuals who attempt to call in to give information or to report an incident in their area, and in turn, would increase the likelihood of them reusing the service to provide information in the future.

Future contact with the police:

Out of the many communication methods offered that were suggested to the participants, the study found that in the past 12 months participants preferred to use the internet (42.0%), social media (36.3%) and contact with local officers (38.5%). Similarly, in the future the majority of participants in the study would prefer to use contact with local officers (34.0%), telephoning the police (27.5%), and using the internet (27.1%). The finding demonstrates the overall value attached to contacting local officers and using the internet, however the finding also demonstrates how participants want to use the telephone service in the future. This finding then related back to the previous, as it seems that many people want to use the telephone and the 101 number, but a few participants regarded the services as poor.

Interestingly, there was also a difference in gender with regards to the preferred communication type. The finding was that women are more likely than men to prefer social media as a means of communicating with the Lancashire Constabulary in the future.

Conversely, men were more likely than women to prefer email as a means of communicating with the Lancashire Constabulary in the future.

Furthermore, there were also interesting trends in age and preferred communication types. It was found that the older participants were more likely to prefer future contact via local police officers, email, 'In the Know', and public meetings with the police. In addition, the finding also indicated that older participants were less likely to prefer advertising campaigns, letters from the police, no communication, radio, social media, and TV as a means of future communication with the Lancashire Constabulary.

The findings demonstrate how people want to use the internet as a communication method, but that social media should be considered a separate entity and a more specific communication method that has a more specific audience with regards to police communication. With this in mind, a continued development of virtual visibility and online communication methods could appeal to all ages as well as ensuring the telephone service and local officers are still easy, efficient and viable communication methods. It would also be useful to the police to perhaps develop and target their social media channels so they appeal more towards a female demographic and younger demographic, and their email channels towards a more male demographic.

Information in and information out:

With regards to information in and information out, there was an interesting finding that aligns with a previous study by Ipsos MORI (2008), in which it was reported that the public tend to be more interested, confident and know more about what affects local policing as opposed to on a county or a national scale. It was found that more participants thought it was 'very important – important' to have a say in the way their local area was policed, whereas it was only 'important – fairly important' to have a say in the way that Lancashire as a whole is policed.

In addition, another interesting finding arose when the participants were asked about 'information out' and whether it was important for them to be kept informed of crime in their local area and kept informed about activities of the neighbour policing team. Participants that rated both of these as 'very important – important', demonstrating how much the

participants value the concept of 'information out'. In fact, participants rated 'information out' as more important overall than 'information in', meaning that it was more important to the public to be kept informed of policing rather than them having their say in how policing was carried out.

This is built upon in the qualitative data in which 537 participants expressly stated that they wanted more information about crime statistics, details of crime and information on the outcomes after police intervention. Examining the theme in more depth, there were many participants expressing how the information should be relevant to their local area. In addition, there were also 251 participants who explained how they did not know who to contact and required information on how to become more involved with the police. Within this theme there were a few subthemes on the type of contact information needed, such as information for local officers, for the nearest police station, and for other agencies when what they were reporting was "not a police matter". Within the same question, there was also a theme around the 'In the Know' service, in which 22 people explained how the service was excellent for disseminating information about crime and local issues and stated that there should be more of an emphasis on people using the service.

With regards to 'information out' specifically, it was mentioned within the literature review that it is necessary for the police to reach out to demographics that have had no previous contact with the police, as confidence could be influenced through the media and vicarious experiences (Hohl, Bradford and Stanko, 2010). With this in mind, there was roughly an even split between those that felt informed and uninformed. The majority felt informed whereas slightly less felt 'not very well informed'. It is also important to note that 13.9% felt that they were 'not at all informed' about the police in their local area. The study in this instance was mainly skewed towards those that make an active effort to follow the police in some capacity or had previous contact with them, which is demonstrated by only 1.4% having used no method of communication with the police in the past 12 months. Within the same 12 months 20% read about the police in the local papers and 6.4% in the national newspapers, 7% used the TV, and 6.3% used the radio, demonstrating that people do get information about the police from the media and other sources. However, within the qualitative responses, there were 400 participants who explained how the media doesn't affect their opinion and 117 participants who explained how their view would only be effected if Lancashire Constabulary

were specifically mentioned in the report. Often the participants showed mistrust towards the media and stated that they only read stories “with a pinch of salt”. In fact, 110 participants explained how the media positively enhances their view of the Lancashire Constabulary, in which many expressed anger towards stories that portray the police in a negative light and then generalise the negativity to all forces. However, there were 160 participants who explained how reading stories about the police on a national scale made them feel more untrusting of the Lancashire Constabulary. Stories involving the Metropolitan Police Service and South Yorkshire Police were mentioned in the explanations into how people then consider the police to be “all the same” and made them question the legitimacy and effectiveness of their local force.

Limitations and further research:

The sampling technique of the current study poses a number of limitations and offers opportunity for further research. Participants were selected through a snowball sampling technique, in which the link to the online survey was advertised and disseminated by UCLan via social media and Lancashire Constabulary Corporate Communications. Firstly, since the survey was conducted online, the sample is skewed towards those that already have access to the internet and had access to the link provided by the Lancashire Constabulary. Despite this, it should be recognised that there was a broad age range of participants (18 – 87 years). However, the exclusion of anyone under 18 years old means that the sample is missing a large set of relevant and potentially important data. The inclusion of data from participants aged under 18 would be a future recommendation to potentially aid public engagement with a highly influential group of people for life.

The sample is also skewed in terms of ethnicity, education, and household income, therefore, may exclude some populations who may not engage online which was required to access the link. These results indicate that generally respondents wanted to be provided with information by Lancashire Constabulary, but were not as eager to feed information in. This preference for communication may differ within different populations, particularly within different ethnicities and vulnerable areas (indicated by the VLI). Future research would benefit from targeted data collection using ‘offline’ methods from communities that have not engaged with the current project.

In addition, as recruitment was done via advertising and dissemination by the Lancashire Constabulary Corporate Communications and UCLan, the sample may be skewed towards participants that were already interested or engaged with the police and/or police issues in some way. This is exemplified by the high contact rates found - 71.1% had indicated that they had had contact with Lancashire Constabulary in the past 12 months. If the survey was advertised and disseminated via methods not immediately related to the Police, a more generally representative sample may be recruited.

Lastly, due to anonymity and ethical requirements, full postcodes were not obtained. Based on the limited geographical information (only the first half of the postcode could be obtained), the status of residency in Lancashire for all participants in the current sample cannot be guaranteed. In order to conduct specific geological mapping analysis, future research would require full postcodes. This would direct specific areas of interest i.e. identify postcodes of missing data which could potentially indicate a lack of public engagement with the police in these areas worthy of further examination. Further research recommendations would include follow up qualitative study to explore and examine the results discussed here in more detail. Interview based or focus group data would allow for issues to be fully explored and understood in context.

Conclusions

The findings of the current study indicate that that the public within Lancashire believe information *from* the police on crime in the local area and their local policing team is more important than them having their say to the police (information out, rather than information in from a public perspective). When they do have a say in the way policing works, the preference is for this to be focussed on their local area only. Many of the responses were around attempting to help the police by providing information and reporting crime, but with little awareness regarding who to contact and how. It would be useful for the Lancashire Constabulary to provide additional contact information regarding whom to contact under certain circumstances, such as when it is not a police matter and the contact information for other agencies that may be more appropriate in dealing with the issue. In addition, more information should be disseminated to the public around how to assist the police as there were many respondents expressing an interest in helping, but were unaware how to. This

correlates with the views around the 'In the Know' service, in which a better promotion and improved membership would address some participants' need for more information about crime in their local area. Overall, as Casey (2008) explained, the public 'want' dialogue on crime and to help the police, but it seems that they are unaware of how to go about this. Whilst there needs to be a focus on information out and providing information to the public in order for them to become better informed about Lancashire Constabulary, both information in and out are crucial in bolstering confidence and community engagement within the Constabulary.

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Appendix 1

Area	Frequency	Percentage
Preston	330	27.6%
Chorley	96	8%
Blackburn	86	7.2%
Burnley	64	5.3%
Blackpool	62	5.2%
Leyland	51	4.3%
Morecambe	50	4.2%
Thornton-Cleveleys	47	3.9%
Lancaster	43	3.6%
Skelmersdale	35	2.9%
Lytham St. Annes	34	2.8%
Poulton-Le-Fylde	34	2.8%
Accrington	33	2.8%
Rosendale	32	2.7%
Clitheroe	27	2.3%

Darwen	24	2%
Nelson	23	1.9%
Ormskirk	23	1.9%
Colne	22	1.8%
Bacup	15	1.3%
Fleetwood	15	1.3%
Carnforth	14	1.2%
Southport	9	0.8%
Wigan	7	0.6%
Barnoldswick	5	0.4%
Bolton	5	0.4%
Rochdale	4	0.3%
Ashton-Under-Lyne	1	0.1%
Bury	1	0.1%
Leigh	1	0.1%
Liverpool	1	0.1%
Manchester	1	0.1%
Skipton	1	0.1%
Todmorden	1	0.1%
Total	1197	100%