



HANDBOOK FOR TRAINERS



SwaPOL  **SOCIAL WORK
AND POLICING**
Vocational Training in Public order Management

SWaPOL – Cooperation in Social Work and Policing

A Curriculum for Joint Vocational Development

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A Curriculum for Vocational Training



EUROPEAN CENTRE FOR SOCIAL WELFARE POLICY AND RESEARCH

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Preamble

This training project is committed to contribute to UN Sustainable Development Goals 3, 11 and 16 (SDGs), and subscribes to the following principles:

- Ensure healthy lives and promoting the well-being for all at all ages is essential to sustainable development (SDG 3: Good Health and Well-Being).
- There needs to be a future in which cities provide opportunities for all, with access to basic services, energy, housing, transportation and more (SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities).
- Access to justice for all and building effective, accountable institutions at all levels (SDG 16: Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions).

Integration of well-being and justice in the management of public order and the work towards healthy European cities is at the core of this training.

First, in regard to issues of health and well-being, the training project wants to “strengthen the prevention and treatment of substance abuse, including narcotic drug abuse and harmful use of alcohol” (target 3.5 of SDG 3).

Second, in regard to issues of housing and sustainable cities, we subscribe to the task “to ensure access to adequate, safe and affordable housing” (target 1 of SDG 11) and to support social inclusion for all users of public space.

Third, in regard to justice, we promote the rule of law to establish public order and to ensure equal access to justice for all (task 3 of SDG 16).



<https://sdgs.un.org/goals>

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Introduction

1. The origin of this Handbook and how to use it

1.1. The project SWaPOL – Social Work and Policing

This Handbook for Trainers was produced as part of the project SWaPOL - Social Work and Policing, an education and training project co-funded by the EU-programme “ERASMUS+ Strategic Partnerships for Vocational Education and Training”. The SWaPOL project was carried out in 2018-2021 under the leadership of the *European Centre for Social Welfare Policy and Research* based in Vienna, Austria, in cooperation with partner organisations in Austria, Portugal and Belgium.

The objectives of this project were to develop and run a pilot training-workshop in all partner countries, and to produce teaching material to support future generations of law enforcement and welfare service teams that wish to adopt this inter-disciplinary idea as part of their teaching programmes.

The convergence of professions

A closer look at professions shows that in daily practice there are many points of contact where different professionals meet. This may be the case in the industrial sector, when planners, designers and technicians collaborate in a production process, and also in the health sector, when medical practitioners with different specialisations collaborate in order to enhance the patient's health. The collaboration runs smoothly when aims and objectives, attitudes, organisational structures, language, etc are similar for the different professionals involved. However, in some areas public cooperation is required between professionals whose aim and outlook are not so readily compatible. In these cases, collaboration may become very challenging. The management of the maintenance of social order in public situations and places, where law enforcement and social welfare institutions meet was selected as the specific focus for this project.

In public order management at least professions in law enforcement and social welfare – each with their own public policy framework - converge. Policies on public space, that shall not only be safe but healthy, are concerned with user groups who are at risk such as young people, but also with people who sometimes cause irritation and fear such as homeless people and those who misuse alcohol and illicit substances.

The consortium of the project *SWaPOL - Social Work and Policing* has been dedicated to developing a new training programme that considers the issues of public order management in urban places in a practical “hands on” way in order to support exchange, cooperation and mutual trust between social workers and police officers. The goal is simply for better collaboration between these two professions that are already actively engaged in their respective public services in public spaces and places. And

so, the overall aim in the SWaPOL project can be stated as contributing to a better mutual understanding between the professions of social work and policing. This training is intended to be an illustrative model for a partnership approach in public order management.

Why are training institutions important in this project?

Experience in many European administrations shows that a partnership approach tends to fail when bridges between a strategic (political) level and the level of practical implementation are missing. Projects are often not sustainable for two reasons: either practitioners on the ground are not convinced of what are perhaps ingenious policy decisions handed down from above in operational headquarters or, when successful practices arise exclusively from the initiative of a single practitioner which does not receive the much-needed strategic support from decision makers. Metaphorically speaking, good strategies cannot put down roots on infertile soil, and good seeds cannot grow without the sunshine from above. With the inclusion of training institutions this gap between policy and practice may be bridged. It is here, that concepts and experience may be communicated and the potential for growth enriched. From this idea of mutual exchange, it follows that the best suited form of training is vocational training in terms of further education rather than basic training in the professions.

Finally, as a project will, by definition, have to come to a conclusion, the sustainability of any project's contribution requires its absorption into long term strategies. In this case, the SWaPOL training is hopefully looking forward by seeing itself as a device promoting support for such partnership approaches shaping public order management in the future. SWaPOL assumes it has a vital place in the ongoing training programmes of both public service professions.

The scope of the SWaPOL training

In general, the scope of vocational trainings and continuous education can range from a one-day event to a comprehensive study programme of several semesters. For practical reasons, however, this SWaPOL training is limited to a 5-day course with three selected themes. Also, this training does not include an examination or assessment, as the vocational training systems of social work and the police differ in important respects (not all police academies apply the European ECTS credit system as found in the higher education sector). However, it is suggested that participants need to register and are required to attend the training at all times in person to receive a certificate of participation. The particular didactics in training are very much reliant upon personal encounters and exchange between participants. Therefore, online correspondence may support the training, but in general the training shall be conducted in face-to-face situations.¹

1.2. The themes covered in the SWaPOL training

There may be a range of thematic overlaps between the professions of social work and policing. This SWaPOL training is dedicated to situations in public space and to those users who may become clients of both professional groups, the police and social workers. These situations often concern problems of social disorder where repression is not always the most useful reaction.

¹ Pilot trainings showed that employed participants have only limited time beyond the training.

However, the answer to social problems in public space extends beyond immediate reactions and requires preventive approaches that may emerge from the cooperation of police and social workers. The themes selected for this training are 1) substance use among young people, and 2) the problem of homelessness. Both themes are located at the intersection of policing and social work, and both problems call for a compromise between law enforcement and health promotion. Here, concepts of prevention are relevant and a discussion about respective practicalities and strategies should be at the centre of this vocational training

The SWaPOL training is composed of three parts – or modules:

Module 1: Cooperation between social work and police

Module 2: Substance use among young people: Prevention and harm reduction in nightlife

Module 3: Homelessness

Module 1 in the SWaPOL training is dedicated to bringing together representatives of both professions to critically and openly reflect their own professional practices and listen to each other when work ethics, cultural particularities, organisational structures, attitudes and habits are presented, explained and justified. Didactic exercises will support participants in that endeavour. Prejudices shall be reduced, and mutual trust shall be created as fertile grounds for collaboration and problem solving.

In **Module 2** participants shall learn about classification of psycho-active substances, methods of prevention and harm reduction and discuss substance use in nightlife from different perspectives. Police officers and social workers examine the balance of prevention, harm reduction and social control on the basis of real examples. New possibilities for collaboration (and its limitations) will be worked out.

Module 3 aims to explore the multidimensional processes of exclusion and marginalisation in public space and introduces participants to social prevention strategies. The main focus is on risk factors for homelessness and social isolation including housing conditions, gentrification, displacement, alcohol and drug consumption, and mental illness. 'Problem-oriented policing' as the guiding principle for cooperation integrates case management, conflict resolution and care work in the community.

Cooperation between professionals of social work and the police is sometimes challenging but nevertheless essential with regard to the wellbeing of their shared clientele of vulnerable people in urban spaces. First, this Handbook alerts practitioners to the benefits of collaboration in public order management. Second, readers of this Handbook shall be supported in organising similar training sessions to convey high-quality skills and competences to practitioners in the selected professional fields of social work and the police. Policing concepts such as "community policing", "social crime prevention" and "problem-oriented policing" will be discussed and merged with methods in social work such as "streetwork", "outreach work" and "socio-spatial analysis". These concepts can be applied to the problems of psycho-active substances use and homelessness.

A detailed schedule for this training can be found in the SWaPOL Curriculum, which should be consulted together with this handbook.

1.3. Possible extensions to the SWaPOL training

This SWaPOL training is limited to issues of social work and policing in public spaces. However, an extension to the training is conceivable in at least two dimensions:

First, there may be *other overlaps in the professional practice of social workers and police* particularly in *private space* (domestic violence; cyber mobbing; stalking; sexual deviance; gambling; psychiatric diseases). This entails a possible collaboration with and between other organisations (health services, hospitals, psychiatrists, psychologists, data experts, private detectives, childcare centres).

Secondly, *other stakeholders contributing to the maintenance of public order* may be invited to the training sessions (those in public transport services; urban planners and landscaping architects; railway companies; ambulances; taxi companies; event managers; private security companies; youth associations; universities; departments in city administrations: public artwork, nursery and primary schools, sports and event management, social integration, information management, etc.). All these professions have particular functions in the management of public order, and an overall exchange may be welcome but would go beyond the limits of this training as it is conceived at this time.

These extensions quickly lead to high complexity and require additional time, resources and didactical amendments to the SWaPOL training. In that sense, the way the SWaPOL training is conceived in this handbook may indeed become a starting point for a series of vocational training sessions for a wider array of professional players in public administration.

2. The structure of this Handbook and how to use it

The presentation of the three training modules is at the centre of this handbook. Each module will be introduced by a statement of the main objectives that shall be pursued and intended competences that shall be gained in that module. Second, a larger part provides keynote themes for the module as a suggestion for presentations of trainers/trainers and to give an impulse for discussions. The keynote themes that will be presented in the chapters below may be used as orientation points to lead through the session, and to help trainers anticipate arguments that may possibly arise in the discussion. A third section in each chapter is dedicated to learning activities that can be flexibly selected for an individual programme. Here exercises, didactical games and excursions are explained in terms of their purpose and deployment in practice in the course of the training. At the end of each chapter, review questions help trainers to test their own understanding in the field and to guide participants through the most important concepts in each module. This structure will be maintained for all chapters on training modules.

The annex gives a collection of keynote themes and exercises in a user-friendly overview. It is hoped that the SWaPOL curriculum can contribute to a more sustainable implementation of joint trainings of social workers and police prevention officers in the future.

This handbook can support new coordination teams in preparing local trainings. However, it shall be acknowledged that the SWaPOL training also touches upon delicate matters which are also subject to political ideologies: Everybody may have his or her personal opinion about the treatment of vulnerable persons in society. Therefore, it should be emphasised that both the team of trainers and respective guest lecturers should have a good understanding about the general goals and intentions of this training. All partners in the trainer-team shall be dedicated to the following objectives:

- Open-mindedness towards all themes and target groups addressed during the training
- Support for basic human rights and rejection of discrimination of vulnerable people
- Respect for all professions involved in the training
- Reduce prejudices and build trustful relations between the professions
- Gain an understanding about different responsibilities and division of labour
- Increasing the motivation to collaborate in partnerships

3. Didactical concepts – constructive alignment, student-centred learning

Many academic institutions today employ experts in high school didactics. Education experts work in separate interdisciplinary counselling centres and offer systematic training in recent didactical methods and give individual advice to academic lecturers of all academic disciplines and across faculties. Trainings include workshops and lecture series, for example, in “designing lectures and exams”, “how to use learning platforms”, “giving peer-feedback”, “supporting learning processes”, “teaching in foreign languages”, “diversity sensitive teaching”, and many more.

This SWaPOL training programme is informed by several of these topics. In particular, SWaPOL follows the concept of “Student-Centred Learning” as one of the most recent developments in teaching and learning (ECTS Users’ Guide 2015 – European Commission²). The focus on *competence-oriented* academic education entails a fundamental attitude towards active, self-regulated and self-responsible learning by students.

The SWaPOL programme is *outcome-oriented* and based on *intended competences* of students:

“The programme learning outcomes are based on the programme profile and describe what a student knows, understands and is able to do on completion of the programme” (ECTS Users’ Guide 2015, p. 23).

2 https://ec.europa.eu/education/ects/users-guide/docs/ects-users-guide_en.pdf

Student-Centred Learning (SCL) is a process of qualitative transformation for students and other learners in a learning environment, aimed at enhancing their autonomy and critical ability through an *outcome-based approach*.

The SCL concept can be summarised into the following elements:

- Reliance on active rather than passive learning
- Emphasis on critical and analytical learning and understanding
- Increased responsibility and accountability on the part of the student
- Increased autonomy of the student
- A reflective approach to the learning and teaching process on the part of both the student and the teacher.

(ECTS Users' Guide 2015 – European Commission; p. 15)

Competence means 'the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development. In the context of the European Qualifications Framework, competence is described in terms of responsibility and autonomy' (Recommendation 2008/C 111/01). Competences can be generic or subject specific.

Intended Learning Outcomes express the level of competence attained by the student and verified by assessment. They are 'statements of what a learner knows, understands and is able to do on completion of a learning process' (Ibid.). They are formulated by academic staff, involving students and other stakeholders. In order to facilitate assessment, these statements need to be verifiable (ECTS Users' Guide 2015, p. 22).

Constructive Alignment

Competences, learning outcomes and learning activities are integrated in the concept of "**Constructive Alignment**" (Biggs and Tang 2011): The elaboration of teaching concepts always

- starts from the definition of Intended Learning Outcomes,
- then assessment formats are developed,
- then learning activities are developed.

The SWaPOL training programme will be oriented towards this structure but will not fully pursue it. In particular, no formal assessment format will be included in the programme, as the training will be part of different educational systems. Whereas courses in social work sometimes apply the academic

ECTS point system, the police generally use a different accreditation system for their internal continuous trainings. However, respective assessment formats may be considered in the future, if the SWaPOL training can be integrated in police trainings at police high schools. At this moment assessments after participation in the SWaPOL training is not considered.

Hence, the SWaPOL training will be based on the other two elements: *Intended Learning Outcomes and Competences* will be defined for each module; *Learning Activities* will be developed to assist students during the learning process.

Intended Learning Outcomes can be classified in 3 groups (Biggs and Tang; 2011):

- a. Cognitive Learning Outcomes: Knowledge and intellectual capabilities, e.g. knowing, perception, recognition, thoughts, comprehension, evaluation, etc.
 - Knowledge: Repeat facts
 - Understanding: interpret something in your own words
 - Application: Apply general concepts to specific situations
 - Analysis: Deconstruct situations and show its structure
 - Generalizations: Generalize from specific situations to overall concepts
 - Synthesis: Make connections between single cases to form a synthesis
 - Evaluation: Evaluate situations according to given criteria
- b. *Affective Learning Outcomes: Change in attitudes, interests, values and feelings*
 - Develop an interest, insight and understanding of the logic of other professions
- c. *(Psycho-) Motoric Learning Outcomes: Development and training of (physical or mental) activities or movements (capabilities for action)*
 - Exercise activities together (communication, work steps, and particular motions and touches (e.g. when helping others)

All three forms of learning outcomes will be relevant in our SWaPOL modules!

4. Knowledge exchange and public involvement

This SWaPOL training turns away from a conventional teacher-student relationship with its one-way education process. Instead, the training pursues a *participatory approach* as SWaPOL lecturers give a thematic impulse and then moderate a discussion: First, their input is intended to encourage an exchange *with* practitioners of different professional backgrounds; secondly, the setting offers a communication platform for exchange between practitioners of both sides. Therefore, lecturers put themselves on the same level with participants and discuss ideas about better practices of collaboration in their work with disorderly and vulnerable groups in society. Hence, the learning process is vice-versa.

This didactical method sits well with the conceptual framework of *public sociology* that wants to emphasise the convergence of *professional, critical, applied and public dimensions* of sociological work (Burawoy, 2005). The *professional dimension* is given with the lecturers' expert input (keynote-themes) on international concepts such as community policing and social work. Here, conceptual frameworks and empirically tested best-practice examples are presented together with orienting questions. A *critical dimension* is found in deliberating contested normative concepts such as public order, public health, confidentiality, (de-)criminalisation of psycho-active substance use, homelessness as a form of social disorder, and others. An *applied dimension* in terms of *policy orientation* is given in negotiations of real situations in urban spaces that need to be resolved between practitioners. Here, concepts and practices will have to be applied to given social circumstances. Finally, a *public dimension* is found in the method of engagement *with* and *among* representatives of the police and social support services, or as Burawoy contends: "... discussion often involves values or goals that are not automatically shared by both sides so that reciprocity, ..., is often hard to sustain" (Burawoy 2005: 9). The SWaPOL training launches a dialogue with and between professions, with each bringing their agenda to the table to adjust it to the other.

One of the criteria for quality assessment of the training overall shall be a good balance between the four dimensions: professional, critical, applied and public.

Module 1: Cooperation between social work and policing

1. Objectives

- Encourage a dialogue about the legal and ethical basis for professional practice
- Raise (self-)awareness about professional cultures of social work and police work
- Learn about working methods in social work and in policing

2. Intended competences

- *Cognitive learning outcomes:*

Understand cultural differences in occupations: Organisational structure; internal communication; activities; terminology; professional socialisation (attitudes, opinions, habits).

Understand definition of work orders and legal frameworks.

Understand professional concepts and basic working methods such as "community policing", "social pedagogy", "streetwork", "(crime-)prevention"; "socio-spatial analysis", etc.

Ability to deconstruct a social situation in a socio-spatial analysis

- *Affective learning outcomes:*

Understand reasons for misunderstandings and potential conflict between the professions

Change attitudes, values and feelings towards "the other" profession

- *(Psycho-)Motoric learning outcomes:*

Practice particular forms of communication and procedures (action steps) in certain situations when cooperation is required.

3. Keynote themes

3.1. A general note on professions

At the onset of a discussion about possible recent policy developments and work methods of the two professions considered here, one or two general points may be appropriate. Some thoughts on professions *per se* shall be raised to encourage participants to reflect their tasks in a society and in that way to develop an interest for each other.

Quite some time ago, in 1963, the American sociologist Bernard Barber made an effort to define professionalism:

“Professional behaviour may be defined in terms of four essential attributes:

- a high degree of generalized and systematic knowledge
- primary orientation to the community interest rather than to individual self-interest
- a high degree of self-control of behaviour through codes of ethics internalized in the process of work socialization and through voluntary associations organized and operated by the work specialists themselves, and
- a system of rewards (monetary and honorary) that is primarily a set of symbols of work achievement and thus ends in themselves, not means to some end of individual self-interest. (Barber, 1963: 672)”

From the definition above, it follows that the professional worker is always to be regarded as a member of an organisation or association. However, the sociology of the professions has also been interested in relationships between the roles of workers and organisational requirements. In that sense, the two professions, social work and police, may differ in their relation between autonomy of workers and constraints that make them comply with a certain code of work ethics. As neither police officers nor social workers resemble robots on the job, the topic of individual flexibility or restraint within an organisation will give plenty of ideas for discussion.

A discussion on that matter may be initiated by a question and an answering scale, although the answer will be much more complex, of course.

Discussion:

How do you rate your daily work on a scale between individuality and organisational constraint?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
<i>Individuality</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	<i>organisational constraint</i>

A discussion among participants may (or may not) touch upon the three types of “accommodative mechanisms” to reduce the tension between individuality and organisational constraints that Barber (1963) describes:

First, departmentalisation contributes to a *differentiation of role structures* in organisations, and furthermore leads to a process of continuous division of labour. The degree of subdivision of overall goals into numerous departments will be a significant variable to analyse professional work in organisations such as in the fields of social work and policing.

Second, a *mix of professional and administrative roles* in one person may resolve the conflict between professionals and management. The “professional-administrator” must “be a professional who can judge and direct another professional but who can also exercise super-ordinate control when necessary” (Barber, 1963: 681). This double-role may pose a special challenge to the workers in an organisation.

Third, the tension between professional expertise and organisational goals may be lifted by *differentiated reward structures* and further encouragement for the professional to put the administrative goals, e.g. to contribute to the organisational profit or a particular institutional image, above individual benefits. This may be achieved by rewards such as subsidies for continuous professional training, announcement as a special achiever in the organisation, or administrative benefits concerning working times.

Further, following Bernard Barber, one can define two ways of control in professional institutions: The control by peers or “*colleague control*” as, for example, in the academic professions in terms of peer-reviews; and control by superiors or “*super-ordinate control*” in hierarchical organisations.

Altogether, collegial or super-ordinate control structures, differentiated reward structures, and a combination of roles and responsibilities, may all have an effect on the quality of collaboration between police and social workers. This point of professional liability will have to be taken into account when we analyse the preconditions for a better cooperation between professionals on both sides.

3.2. A note on organisational cooperation

This vocational training invites professionals in the police and in the field of social work to participate as representatives of their organisations. What are the conditions for a good collaboration between organisations? Clearly mistrust, preconceptions, negative examples and lack of transparency obstruct good collaboration between members of organisations. Also, the relationship between organisations can be either systematic or vague, it can cover several levels in an organisational hierarchy, or it can rely on sympathy and personal relationships on the ground.

Concepts of collaboration such as community policing, which among other concepts are introduced in this training module, need a basic idea in organisational management. What kind of relationship between police and social work are we aiming at? How can a sustainable collaboration be shaped?

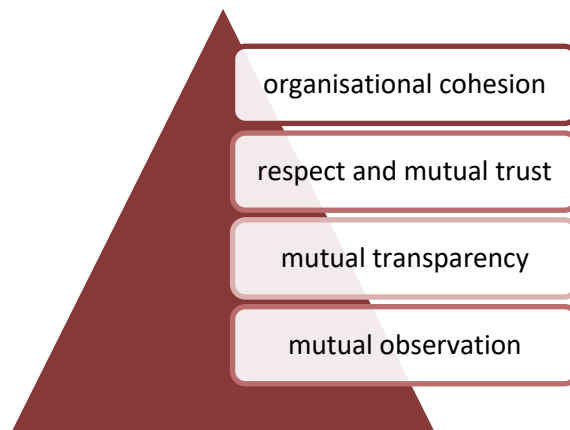
In a systematic perspective, organisational cooperation of two or more partners can be arranged in 4 stages:

(1) A most elementary form of collaboration is given in **mutual (organisational) observation**. The longer the period of observing what “the other side” is doing, the clearer the rules, rationales and “no-goes”. This process of observation allows for better coordination in operational practice.

(2) Permanent observation in terms of awareness about each other’s actions leads to **mutual (organisational) transparency**. Now the organisational decisions of the other part are transparent, and the tasks, objectives and processes can be adjusted and coordinated. On this level consistent exchange can be expected, which leads to a consensus about overall objectives and goals supported by programme managers within each organisation.

(3) Inter-organisational transparency is the basis for developing **respect** and **mutual (organisational) trust**, which allows for particular practices that require loyalty and consent between organisations. Trust building is fundamental for a common work-ethic and “normative spirit” in the field.

(4) If all activities of the two partner organisations are driven by a common ethical orientation, we can reach the highest level of organisational cooperation: **organisational cohesion**, expressed in both subjective (personal) and objective (functional) unity. Cohesion includes all hierarchical levels of each organisation and allows for further development of common strategies of problem solution.



Discussion: Realistic or not?

"We are aiming at the highest level of organisational cooperation between the professional organisations, the police and social work organisations: Organisational cohesion requires consent for mutual observation, transparency and trust".

Emphasis on cooperation

Discussions shall be oriented to developing the capabilities for cooperation between police officers and social workers, and there are some basic preconditions for successful cooperation, as Fegert and Schrappner (2004) contend:

1. Cooperation is successful only among equal partners, i.e. good cooperation does not go together with mutual assessment and giving orders.
2. Cooperation must show a material, practical or social purpose on both sides
3. A minimum of shared goals and beliefs is required
4. Cooperation depends on the good-will of single persons, but also needs the back-up from organisational structures. Rules and procedures control for practices of corruption.

More particularly, in the SWaPOL training we propose five essential premises for a good cooperation between social work and police:

1. **Mutual respect:** Police officers and social workers should be clear about each other's tasks and functions in a social system: The police represent power and authority; social work gives individual and social support to coping with difficulties in life. These are the basic positions to start developing new functions on both sides and approach each other to make further arrangements for cooperation.
2. **Accepting differences instead of merging tasks and responsibilities:** More recently, police have implemented concepts such as community policing and problem-oriented policing to augment trust in the general public. On the other side, social workers may be turning towards functions of public order management and show their readiness to cooperate with authorities. Nevertheless, both professions approach each other in their own occupational functions.
3. **Self-reflection:** Police and social workers need to show ability to reflect their occupational functions. They may ponder a particular case, their professional role in that case, and the way they communicate with other relevant stakeholders involved. This requires individual orientation within the constraints of orders, tactics and corps spirit.
4. **Regular exchange:** Systematic and regular meetings for constructive reflection and exchange between police and social workers on a local basis shall be installed. At casual partnership meetings, actions in recent cases may be reviewed and future activities may be planned in a relaxed atmosphere.
5. **Evaluation and quality assurance:** Quality management does not only apply to business enterprises but also to police work and social work and particularly to the work of crime prevention partnerships. Formal evaluation should be carried out by external competent institutions. This

may include output- and process evaluation, i.e. probing success factors in cooperation and reviewing performances according to a work-plan with regard to effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability and transferability to other units or geographic regions.

3.3. Discussing occupational cultures

The police and social work are both servants to the general public to prevent and remedy social problems, but they are nevertheless very different professions. These differences can be inhibited in situations when tasks overlap particularly in public space. For instance, social work is concerned with youth work, street work, and community work; police pro-actively engage with local groups such as youth clubs, elderly associations, sports clubs and business associations. Both professions are subject to the proportionality of control and help in the context of prevention (of crime, addiction etc.) and protection (of victims, homeless persons etc.). However, different organisational cultures may guide them differently in their performances. Although, or maybe because, a discussion of organisational cultures seems boundless and endless, we will offer some features that may guide a reasonable dialogue in a training workshop.

Table 1: Occupational cultures in social work and policing

	Social work	Police
The legal basis	Human rights Child and youth welfare act The right to assistance in personal development and self-responsibility Provision of good living conditions	Federal police codes Protection of life, freedom and property Crime prevention and counselling Settlement of disputes Victim protection
Social responsibilities	Solution to social problems Safeguarding opportunities for life Individuals and human interaction in families, peer groups and (virtual) communities Reduction of social inequalities	Protection against danger Law enforcement Protection of individual rights Prevention and conflict resolution Intervention on calling Consultation and responsabilisation
Organisation structure	Single private or public associations Religious connection Medical connection Administrative connection	Hierarchical and administrative Differentiated into departments of various responsibilities
Principles of work	Protection and promotion of human rights Low-threshold work Active in their approach Support Carework Consultation	Law Duty to investigation Principle of proportionality Monopoly on the use of force Peace keeping Consultation

This list is certainly not exhaustive, and it may be inaccurate and, in some countries, even partly incorrect. Also, participants may touch on the delicate matter of occupational ethos and elaborate examples respectively, but we will not go further into that field here. Anyhow, this table can provide a general basis and input for discussion as not all will agree with these roles and principles.

Occupational images and sensitive topics

In a SWaPOL training, discussions among participants shall be encouraged to go beyond the collection of statements of differences (and similarities). Rather, an exchange of self-images and stereotypes of "the other" shall be carefully initiated with the aim to discuss obstacles and potentials for cooperation.

Collaboration and cooperation require both organisations to indicate a willingness to understand the principles of the other organisation and to find alternative solutions to conventional work methods. The police can send a signal of cooperation when installing crime prevention units and introducing respective principles of problem-oriented policing or community policing, while social workers accept that certain behaviour can be intimidating, disturbing and cause trouble in public places. Hence, social work is also expected to help avoid conflict and, in this sense, contribute to public order. Also, the development of common prevention activities at schools such as offering information on dangers of addiction and legal consequences of substance use shall be considered in this training.

A commitment to and exchange about these efforts to approach each other will contribute to a successful training session. At the same time, it seems appropriate to also allow confrontation, that is to give participants the opportunity to define the boundaries of cooperation and to emphasise ideologies and practices that are not negotiable. Here, one should not ignore themes that perhaps trigger disagreement such as the matter of confidentiality on both sides. Another point of discussion may be the different relationships with clients, as police often must demonstrate authority, whereas social workers usually show empathy. Also, ways of interpretation of delinquency as crime on the one hand, and as a symptom of deeper socio-psychological problems on the other hand, can generate quite emotional debates in class. However, reasonable exchange about logics behind certain standpoints can finally help create mutual trust and respect.

Sensitive topics that may trigger disagreement:

- Confidentiality
- Relationship with the client
- Delinquency
- Terminology: "prevention", "social control", "public order"
- Ways of "problem solution"
- Police checks and racial profiling
- Police transparency
- The balance of law enforcement and social service (peace keeping) in the police
- The balance between being supportive and making boundaries clear to clients in social work

These and other topics will challenge trainers in their arts of moderation. Here, the qualification of trainers is significant. In this respect, it is also recommended to determine some basic rules of communication at the start of the SWaPOL training.

Surprised by the amount of expertise in the other profession?

The following example shows that it is important to exchange experience and expertise to acknowledge each other's expertise in the field of (crime) prevention.

Social work training in Austria

In Austria, admission to a university course in social work is bound to formal qualification, the positive completion of a ranking test and a personal interview. Social work students complete academic education and training with a bachelor or master's degree in the special field of social work, usually offered at universities of applied sciences.

The academic training for social workers takes 6 semesters for a basic degree (BA) and 10 semesters for an advanced degree (MA). The structure of the academic training varies between universities; however, all courses consist of single modules that include compulsory and selective courses, internships, and finish with the defence of a final theses.

The core subjects in social work are: Social sciences, pedagogy, social work methods, scientific methods, application in practice, psychology, and law. An extra-occupational study-course, the so-called dual study, offers social workers a much more practice-related training where university presence and apprenticeships (internships) alternate (FH JOANNEUM, 2019).

Continuous training for "Police Prevention Officers" in the Vienna Police Force – "Under 18"

The Vienna Police Force is commissioned by the Austrian Federal Criminal Police Office (Bundeskriminalamt) to carry out special trainings for Police Prevention Officers in addition to and independent of basic training for career development. With this special training, police officers shall act as special advisors to the public in various security fields such as protection of property, prevention of violence, prevention of fraud, internet security - and prevention of various forms of addiction among young people.

"Under 18" is part of this overall training programme and prepares police officers to collaborate with schools and reach out for teachers, young people and parents to give support on *life competences and healthy living*. This training is delivered to police officers within a period of two years besides work and includes several modules, including didactics, prevention of violence, prevention of addiction, prevention of radicalisation and recruiting, and a fresh-up training.

Here, only three prevention modules are highlighted:

1. **“All Right”**: Prevention of violence; information on legal standards and youth protection laws with its variations in the Austrian counties; age of criminal responsibility; conflict management; moral courage versus vigilant justice.
 2. **“Click & Check”**: Basic legal standards and youth protection laws; special focus on social media competences, e.g. “sexting”, cyber mobbing, etc. Method: “The tree metaphor”
 3. **“Look at your Life”**: Consists of 5 sub-modules to prepare for the work in schools:
 - (a) *“Look at your class”*: The social climate in class, social relationships among pupils and between pupils and teachers.
 - (b) *“Look at your law”*: Basic legal standards and youth protection laws.
 - (c) *“Look at your web”*: Critical review on the time spent online; consumer behaviour on the web; exercise offline-time; information (and invitation to participate) for parents.
 - (d) *“Look at your party”*: Discuss the behaviour at parties, alcohol consumption; “Please organise a party – what do you need?”; help in cases of overdose; legal consequences; Quiz on alcohol (myths to get sober etc.).
 - (e) *“Look at your time-out”*: This module is about activities in leisure time.
- Other sub-modules are not limited to pupils but include meetings with teachers and parents:
- *“Look at your school”*: Meetings with teachers of that particular class where the training is given to give them background information on the training programme. Teachers may pick up topics from the training for his or her lectures (ethics, etc.).
 - *“Look at your family”*: Meeting with parents of the pupils involved to inform them and also to include them in the programme; raise awareness in parents as role models; legal input.

3.4. Converging concepts

A brief introduction to the general framework for this vocational training between experts in social work and policing will help define the starting point on each side of the two professions: On the side of the police, we will introduce policy changes that occurred at the turn of the century in many western criminal justice systems. The concepts we consider most useful as a basis for a multi-agency approach to public order are community policing and problem-oriented policing. On the other side, we will proceed from the global definition of the social work profession ³ as the basis for collaboration towards wellbeing and integration of all populations in public space. Both sides share the dedication to human security:

3 <https://www.ifsw.org/what-is-social-work/global-definition-of-social-work/>

“Human security is an approach to assist Member States in identifying and addressing widespread and cross-cutting challenges to the survival, livelihood and dignity of their people. It calls for people-centred, comprehensive, context-specific and prevention-oriented responses that strengthen the protection and empowerment of all people. The human security approach is a proven analytical and planning framework that supports more comprehensive and preventive responses by the United Nations, cutting across sectors, developing contextually relevant solutions, and adopting partnerships to help realise a world free from fear, want and indignity.” (United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security, 2019).

Multi-agency policing

At the turn of the century, criminologists worldwide have observed a transformation in crime control and a predatory competition between concepts of “penal welfarism” and “punitive justice”. David Garland (2001) argued that the rehabilitative ideal has gradually been replaced by the demand for control, retribution and “just deserts”. The traditional picture of the delinquent as a disadvantaged, needy person has widely disappeared, whereas stereotypes of offenders as rational utility maximizers or members of criminal networks are now prevailing. Criminological thinking shifted from topics such as labelling, anomie, relative deprivation and structural living conditions as original causes of crime to a kind of pragmatism in crime control that promotes a tight system of surveillance.

In a slightly less pessimistic view, Wood and Shearing (2007) argued, that we face “... not a single model of governance, but a complex of hybrid arrangements and practices in which different mentalities of governance as well as very different sets of institutional arrangements coexist” (Wood and Shearing, 2007: 21). In a “whole of government approach” diverse organisations, public and private, try to sort out their different cultures, ideologies and traditions in order to work out strategies in community safety (Sutton et al. 2008).

In terms of prevention, a policy shift occurred from the prevention of criminality as an individual deviant trait to the prevention of crime as a complex event. On a local level new concepts of policing have superseded the former repressive methods of social control: “Community policing” (Hope 1995), “Problem Oriented Policing” (Goldstein 1990) and “social and situational crime prevention” (Sutton et al. 2008; Rosenbaum et al. 1998) are networking-strategies first developed in the US and in Great Britain, focusing on alterations of communal and environmental opportunities for crime. In particular, the concept of “situational crime prevention” can be understood as an amalgamation of neo-liberal concepts of self-responsibility and rational choice. Social control is now interpreted as an urge for self-control (self-protection and insurance) and general control mechanisms (CCTV, access control, data-registrations). In terms of collaboration, this new type of policing is characterized by a shared responsibility for control. The guarantee of security is not any longer the domain of the police alone, but a shared responsibility of a variety of actors (Legnaro 1997). Now, policing activities need to be carefully integrated into traditional political and cultural routines in city administrations (Floeting 2015).

Principles of social work⁴

The social work profession's core mandates include promoting social change, social development, social cohesion, and the empowerment and liberation of people.

Social work is a practice profession and an academic discipline that recognizes that interconnected historical, socio-economic, cultural, spatial, political and personal factors serve as opportunities and/or barriers to human wellbeing and development. Structural conditions in a society contribute to the perpetuation of inequalities, discrimination, exploitation and oppression. The development of critical awareness through reflecting structural sources of oppression and/or privilege, on the basis of criteria such as race, class, language, religion, gender, disability, culture and sexual orientation, and developing action strategies towards addressing structural and personal barriers are central to emancipatory practices that enhance empowerment and individual freedom. Social workers show solidarity with the disadvantaged and strive to alleviate poverty, liberate the vulnerable and oppressed, and promote social inclusion and social cohesion.

The overarching principle of social work is to respect the dignity of human beings, diversity, human rights and social justice. The social work profession recognizes the convergence of human rights with collective responsibility. The idea of collective responsibility highlights the fact that individual human rights can only be realized on a day-to-day basis if people take responsibility for each other and the environment. Therefore, a major focus of social work is to advocate for the rights of people at all levels, and to facilitate outcomes where people take responsibility for each other's wellbeing (see webpage IFSW - International Federation of Social Workers).

The global definition of the social work profession – as provided on the official website of the IFSW - shall be at the heart of further collaboration with law enforcement agencies:

“Social work is a practice-based profession and an academic discipline that promotes social change and development, social cohesion, and the empowerment and liberation of people. Principles of social justice, human rights, collective responsibility and respect for diversities are central to social work. Underpinned by theories of social work, social sciences, humanities and indigenous knowledge, social work engages people and structures to address life challenges and enhance wellbeing. The above definition may be amplified at national and/or regional levels.”⁵

In some instances, “doing no harm” and “respect for diversity” may represent conflicting and competing values, for example where in the name of culture the rights, including the right to life, of groups such as women and homosexuals, are violated. The Global Standards for Social Work Education and Training deals with this complex issue by advocating that social workers are educated in a basic human rights approach, with an explanatory note that reads as:

4 The following principles are quoted from the website of the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW): <https://www.ifsw.org/what-is-social-work/global-definition-of-social-work/>

5 This definition has been approved by the IFSW General Meeting and the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW) General Assembly Meeting in July 2014.

“Such an approach might facilitate constructive confrontation and change where certain cultural beliefs, values and traditions violate peoples’ basic human rights. As culture is socially constructed and dynamic, it is subject to deconstruction and change. Such constructive confrontation, deconstruction and change may be facilitated through a tuning into, and an understanding of particular cultural values, beliefs and traditions and via critical and reflective dialogue with members of the cultural group vis-à-vis broader human rights issues (ibid.)”.

Although the developments in these policy fields may be controversial, we consider both concepts - multi-agency policing and social work - as fertile grounds for a future cooperation of professionals in the promotion of public order. In fact, positive examples in Germany (“Kriminalpräventive Räte”) and in the United Kingdom (“crime prevention partnerships”), and elsewhere, show that the cooperation between several stakeholders can be successful. This SWaPOL training focuses specifically on the problem of vulnerable people in public places. The most vulnerable groups in society suffer from conventional forms of (repressive) policing and from antagonism between the police and social workers. This SWaPOL training aims to encourage participants to exchange progressive concepts in their professions to resolve resentments and urge collaboration despite different socio-political, organisational and historical backgrounds.

In the following section some of the working methods on both sides – policing and social work – will be introduced. We selected the principles community policing, problem-oriented policing, and place-based crime prevention on the side of the police; outreach work, social casework, social group work, community work and street work as working methods on the side of social work. These concepts and methods may be discussed in a workshop in Module 1 of the SWaPOL training with regard to improving cooperation, collaboration and social cohesion.

3.5. Methods in multi-agency policing

In SWaPOL we use the term multi-agency policing as an overarching concept for a particular segment in police work. More particularly, community policing is clearly different from other tasks of the police such as investigation of crime, street patrolling, response to emergency calls, and writing crime reports. In this module we will offer an introduction to the work of community policing officers. First, we will explain the concept of community policing, and then we will go into more detail and point to some related concepts such as “problem-oriented policing”, “proximity policing” and “place-based crime prevention”.

Community Policing⁶

Historical context

To understand community policing, it is important to look at the historical context of this concept. The first appearance goes back to the London Metropolitan Police, founded in 1829 by Robert Peel,

⁶ This section was put together as part of the EU-COST ACTION project TU1203 on “Crime Prevention by Urban Planning and Design” by Svetlana Stanarević and Mónica Diniz. <http://www.costtu1203.eu/>

who established a model of “policing by consent” on a consensus basis with citizens and with little need to use force. Peel introduced foot patrols in a certain territory by local police officers, enabling a greater knowledge of the police about the neighbourhoods and their security problems, while citizens increase trust in police officers that were designated to the area (Fisher-Stewart, 2007).

After an authoritarian period, policing has again become more attentive to community concerns. Since the 1970s, community policing has been further developed by criminologists in the United States of America and in the United Kingdom. It is widely understood as a strategy aimed at achieving a more efficient and more effective crime control by reducing fear of crime and enhancing police services. This implies a need for greater accountability of the police, a greater role in decision-making and greater concern for human rights and freedoms (Ponsaers, 2001).

Community policing definition

The office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) of the U.S. Department of Justice provides the following definition: Community policing focuses on crime and social disorder through the delivery of police services that includes aspects of traditional law enforcement, as well as prevention, problem solving, community engagement and partnerships (Fisher-Stewart, 2007). Community policing involves citizens in partnership with the police, in order to identify security problems and to enhance the quality of life in neighbourhoods. Three key components of community policing shall be briefly explained:

Community partnerships and organizational transformation

Community policing is based on the concept that the police officers and citizens build constructive and valuable strategic local partnerships to address community concerns related to crime, fear of crime, physical and social disorder in neighbourhoods. In this sense, this model of policing requires the police to develop a close relationship with citizens in the community, allowing them greater involvement in the process of identification of security needs in the community. Community policing stresses that the police cannot successfully investigate or prevent crime without active participation of citizens. Therefore, police should contribute to transform communities from being passive consumers of police protection to active co-producers of public safety (Bayley and Shearing, 1996).

The organization of community-based crime prevention involves the re-orientation of patrol activities towards non-emergency servicing, engagement in local community safety partnerships, increased police accountability to local communities, and the decentralization of command structures. It thus involves major changes in the customary roles of the police. The use of tactics such as informal foot patrols and participation in community meetings facilitate exchange of information between the police and communities (Skogan and Hartnett, 1999).

Problem-Oriented Policing (POP)⁷

The term "Problem Oriented Policing (POP)" was first introduced by University of Wisconsin–Madison professor Herman Goldstein in 1979 as an approach to respond to the crisis in effectiveness and legitimacy in policing that emerged in the USA in the 1970s and 1980s. Goldstein argued that better operational effectiveness could be accomplished through comprehensive analyses of crime problems and their solutions (Braga, 2008). Thus, Goldstein argued that the police should focus more on the analysis of problems in the communities besides the response to police calls and single crime incidents (Weisburd et al., 2008). Today the "Center for Problem-Oriented Policing" at Arizona State University defines problem-oriented policing as

*"... an approach to policing in which discrete pieces of police business are subject to microscopic examination in hopes that what is freshly learned about each problem will lead to discovering a new and more effective strategy for dealing with it."*⁸

On that basis, the Center for Problem-Oriented Policing has collected a large number of single projects and published respective "Problem-specific Guides" for problem analysis and harm reduction concerning "aggressive drinking", "bullying in schools", "drug dealing in open-air markets", "homeless encampments" and many more. Hence, problem-oriented policing promotes a good balance between reactive and preventive policing based on professional crime analysis (Goldstein, 1990; Ward, 1998).

Michael Scott and Herman Goldstein have captured the principle of problem-oriented policing in a list of "key elements of problem-oriented policing"⁹:

- A problem is the basic unit of police work rather than a crime, a case, calls, or incidents.
- A problem is something that concerns or causes harm to citizens, not just the police. Things that concern only police officers are important, but they are not problems in this sense of the term.
- Addressing problems means more than quick fixes: it means dealing with conditions that create problems.
- Police officers must routinely and systematically analyze problems before trying to solve them, just as they routinely and systematically investigate crimes before making an arrest. Individual officers and the department as a whole must develop routines and systems for analyzing problems.
- The analysis of problems must be thorough even though it may not need to be complicated. This principle is as true for problem analysis as it is for criminal investigation.
- Problems must be described precisely and accurately and broken down into specific aspects of the problem. Problems often aren't what they first appear to be.

7 A comprehensive overview on theory, concepts and practice of problem-oriented policing (POP) is given on the webpage of the Center for Problem-Oriented Policing: <https://popcenter.asu.edu/about/whatispop>

8 See: "What is POP?" <https://popcenter.asu.edu/content/learning-center>

9 See: <https://popcenter.asu.edu/content/key-elements-problem-oriented-policing-0>

- Problems must be understood in terms of the various interests at stake. Individuals and groups of people are affected in different ways by a problem and have different ideas about what should be done about the problem.
- The way the problem is currently being handled must be understood and the limits of effectiveness must be openly acknowledged in order to come up with a better response.
- Initially, any and all possible responses to a problem should be considered so as not to cut short potentially effective responses. Suggested responses should follow from what is learned during the analysis. They should not be limited to, nor rule out, the use of arrest.
- The police must pro-actively try to solve problems rather than just react to the harmful consequences of problems.
- The police department must increase police officers' freedom to make or participate in important decisions. At the same time, officers must be accountable for their decision-making.
- The effectiveness of new responses must be evaluated so these results can be shared with other police officers and so the department can systematically learn what does and does not work.

This has resulted in the development of further conceptual policing strategies. Here, only two shall be mentioned:

*The Sara Model: Scanning, Analysis, Response, Assessment*¹⁰

Scanning – this first step requires the police to identify and prioritise recurring issues in the community.

Analysis – the second step is the data collection on the problem in order to determine its scope, nature, causes, and resources needed to deal with the problem.

Response – in this stage the police uses the information from the analysis to design appropriate responses, which can involve other agencies to brainstorm ideas for the implementation of interventions goals and action plans.

Assessment – this step occurs after the implementation of interventions taken to solve the problems previously identified. It requires the police to evaluate the success of their implemented plan and collect data regarding the evaluation of the impact of the response on the problem, and the re-assessment of the problem in order to change responses or to maintain positive conditions (Eck and Spelman, 1987).

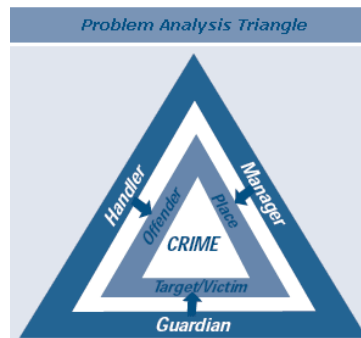
The Problem Analysis Triangle (Crime Triangle)

The problem analysis triangle (Fig.1) provides a way of thinking about recurring problems of crime and disorder, assuming that crime is more likely when (1) a motivated offender and (2) suitable target

¹⁰ See: <https://popcenter.asu.edu/content/sara-model-1>

come together in (3) time and space, in the absence of capable guardians. Additionally, an outside triangle describes forms of social control: Offenders can sometimes be controlled by other people known as “handlers”. Targets and victims can sometimes be protected by other people known as “guardians”. And places are usually controlled by someone known as “managers”.

Figure 1: The problem analysis triangle (crime triangle)



Source: Center for problem oriented policing (wepage)

Summing up, many police organizations throughout the world have experimented with new approaches to policing for daily contact with citizens. The decline of the state capacity and the expansion of informal social control, led to the development of community oriented policing (COP) models (e.g. community policing, problem-oriented policing), focusing on police-community partnerships, problem solving, crime prevention, organizational decentralization and permanent deployment of officers in designated functions. In European this approach has been denominated as “Proximity Policing”, particularly in France.

Proximity Policing

Indeed, while for some authors both “community policing” and “proximity policing” represent the same type of policing with a different name, for others there are differences, not so much in the overall philosophy, but in the structural dynamics associated with these two types of policing (Bolle, 1998; Casey, 2010). Whereas community policing is dedicated to negotiations between the police and the community, proximity policing reflects the very relationship between the police and the state in which the police defines its priorities but maintains the organisational structure (Monjardet, 1996).

More importantly, the differences in terminology reflect the structure of state authorities. For instance, in contrast to a decentralised US policing system, in some European countries such as France the term “police de proximité” (proximity policing) seemed more suitable for the strategy to bring the police closer to the population without involving the public in policing strategies (Jenkins, 2013).

According to the International Francophone Network for Police Training (FRANCOPOL), the model of proximity policing integrates three basic principles (Brien, 2015):

1. Establishment of a trust relationship between police and the population
2. Police working in partnership with a multitude of social stakeholders
3. Crime prevention and problem solving of public disorders.

Hence, one can easily associate the concept of "proximity policing" to the overall idea of multi-agency policing.

Place-Based Crime Prevention

Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED, spoken: sep-ted) is a prevention strategy that was first developed in the USA in the 1960s and '70s. It has been defined as: The potential of manipulating the physical environment to produce behavioural effects that will reduce the incidence and fear of crime, thereby improving the quality of life (Crowe, 2000). CPTED focuses on the physical and social conditions that prompt undesirable or criminal behaviour. In an early phase, principles mainly focused on opportunity structures that impede or facilitate crime. So-called "First-Generation CPTED" was underpinned by three principles: Natural surveillance, natural access control, and territorial reinforcement and space management (Newman 1972). This approach focused entirely on the rational offender, who calculates risks and rewards before committing a crime.

Saville and Cleveland introduced "Second-Generation CPTED" in the general debate on place-based crime prevention (Saville and Cleveland 1997). They extended the theory of "First-Generation CPTED" by moving beyond the design-effects-crime narrative and suggested to include social factors in the strategy of place-based crime prevention (Saville and Cleveland 2013). Saville and Cleveland insist on a merger of situational and social approaches to crime prevention. More specifically, they argue to abstain from holistic macro-social, long-term, welfare solutions such as job-creation and economic revitalisation and instead to concentrate on "specific social and cultural dynamics in each individual neighbourhood" (ibid p. 81). What they endorse is a micro-level version of social crime prevention. "Second-Generation CPTED" stands for social cohesion and connectivity, the support of particular community culture and threshold capacity or a good balance between potential crime generators (night-clubs, abandoned buildings) and social stabilisers such as safe congregation areas and youth clubs (Saville and Cleveland 1997, 2003a, 2003b, 2013).

Despite the different terminology, community policing, problem-oriented policing and proximity policing have in common the idea of multi-agency partnerships and the practice of community involvement in public order management.

3.6. Methods in social work

Social work is both interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary, and social work draws on a wide array of scientific theories and research. 'Science' is understood in this context in its most basic meaning as 'knowledge'. Social work draws on its own constantly developing theoretical foundation and research, as well as theories from other human sciences (IASSW AIETS 2019¹¹).

11 See: <https://www.iassw-aiets.org/global-definition-of-social-work-review-of-the-global-definition/>

Outreach work

“A community-oriented activity undertaken in order to contact individuals or groups from particular target populations, who are not effectively contacted or reached by existing services or through traditional health education channels” (Hartnoll et al, 1990).

Social casework

Social casework is a process used by certain social services to help people cope better with their social problems (Perlman, 1973). It is an art that uses the knowledge of science of human relationships and the skills in cultivating these relationships to mobilise forces in the individual and resources in the community that are appropriate to better fit the client into his or her whole environment or in parts of their environment (Lattke, 1955). Treatment in social casework is seen as a concerted mix of events that, as it appears to be diagnostically indicated, work towards a change in the person or in their social or interpersonal environment or both. It seeks to modify the exchange that takes place between humans and the environment. For the most part, these goals are pursued in discussions between client, social workers and other important persons, and through a range of concrete relief measures (Hollis, 1977). The method of social casework induces a client to use a relationship process, essentially with one person, for one's own and the general social welfare (Galuske, 2013 nach Smalley 1977).

Social group work

In group work, a specially trained group leader wants to facilitate the development of the entire personality of people in the group. The relationship among the group members and their relationship with the group leader is crucial. However, encountering and dealing with factual problems is also essential for progress (Lattke, 1962). Group work can be described as an educational process that first, emphasizes the development and social adaptation of individuals through voluntary group membership, and that, secondly, uses this membership as a means of promoting other socially desirable goals. Group work is a method that deliberately uses the small manageable group as the centre of education. The pedagogical aid is based on analysing and deliberately steering the group processes (Kelber, 1965). Group work is a process designed to help individuals within and through small primary groups to change in a desirable direction. This process recognizes the power of social forces that emerge within small groups and seeks to harness these forces in the interest of changing clients. The formation, development and process within the group is consciously and cautiously influenced by the group educator in the way he or she defines the goals for his assistance (Vinter, 1972). Meaningful group experiences help individuals increase their social functioning and to better meet their personal needs in public life (Konopka, 1971).

Community work

Community organization for social welfare is considered one of the most basic methods of social work. In the simplest form, it is practiced when a group of citizens of a community (e.g. a city) gather to

meet a common need in a planned manner. However, as a professional activity with proven methods and recognized, instructive skills, community organization is the process by which resources and needs of social wellbeing within a geographically or content-limited field of work are coordinated (Lattke, 1955). Community work refers to a process by which a community identifies, classifies or prioritizes its needs and goals, develops trust and the will to do something by means of mobilising internal and external sources to satisfy the needs. The community thus, becomes active in this direction, thereby promoting the attitude of cooperation and its active practice (Galuske, 2013 nach Ross, 1968). It is a method that triggers a complex of initiatives whereby the population of a spatial unit recognizes common problems, overcomes old experiences of powerlessness, and develops its own resources of solidarity and to cope with problems. People learn to work out personal deficits and to develop individual stability, while at the same time working to eliminate acute emergencies (in the short term) and to eliminate the causes of deprivation and oppression (Karas & Hinte, 1978). Community work is the collective term used to describe different forms of work aimed at improving the socio-cultural environment as problematically defined, territorially or functionally demarcated (communities). This improvement should be carried out in a methodological way under the expert guidance of theoretically and practically trained social workers and with active participation of the affected community. It is about adapting the problem group to the environment, changing the (attitudes, behaviors of) the environment, and collaboratively working out skills or institutions necessary according to the relevant cultural norms (Ludes, 1977).

Street work

Street work is an important element in social work. In SWaPOL lectures, we recommend referring to the “International Guide on the Methodology of Street Work throughout the World”¹². This manual was elaborated by a number of experts at the International Network of Social Street Workers under the coordination of Dynamo International in 2008. This international guide

- introduces to principles and objectives of street work,
- presents practices, methods and tools of street work, and
- discusses contexts and challenges of street work.

In particular, the sections on “social exclusion” and “criminalisation and repression” provide material for discussion in the SWaPOL training.

Furthermore, the authors claim that variations in practice depend on whether street workers are linked to a public or a private organisation, a local association (secular or religious), the degree of recognition of street work and whether it features in legal texts.

¹² This manual can be downloaded [here](#)

Objectives of street work

- To reach the unreachable – The objective of street work is to talk to individuals, groups of children, young people or adults who need support or help but who seem out of reach, or who cannot be reached by existing organisations and institutions.
- Motivation and accompaniment – Working together with the target audience to help it make choices and possibly to undertake alternative activities (school, work, hobbies) and when necessary, to seek other forms of support or treatment.
- Social Education – Teaching a target audience to use the established remedial system and being predisposed to making sure that the resources of the area supply said audience with the most appropriate services and tools.
- A 'bottom-up' approach – To improve the difficult adaptation process and reduce exclusion, which certain bodies subscribe to, whether indirectly through action on people's environments, or directly by working within groups of children, young people or adults.
- Political and Social Awareness – The street worker must bear witness to the living conditions of children and young people, in order to call for the implementation of measures that can bring about some improvement. He must systematically hold the political authorities accountable regarding the situation and needs of people on the streets.

(International Guide on the Methodology of Street Work throughout the World; page 18.)

Socio-spatial analysis

Socio-spatial analysis is a methodological principle of community work or neighbourhood work that is not designed to change individuals in social space, but to empower them, along with other actors such as social work, to change and shape their personal conditions, their environment and infrastructure. With socio-spatial orientation individuals should be enabled to deal with their personal conditions and to arrange themselves in the socio-spatial context of their environment. The socio-spatial orientation is not a theoretical design or an independent approach; it rather is a concept that establishes links between theoretical concepts of social space and the practice of social work in social space. It helps to understand when a geographical-physical space becomes a social space, how the social space works and what becomes possible with and within it as well as with social work (Baum, 2018).

According to Hinte (2009) socio-spatial orientation follows five principles:

1. The interests and the will of the people represent the starting point of social space oriented action
2. Socio-spatial orientation focuses on initiative and self-help
3. Solutions to social problems are being searched in a resource-oriented way

4. Approaches that apply to all target groups and the interaction of all people in social space are seen as potential
5. Success factors of social space-oriented work are cross-sector cooperation and networking.

Public space from a disciplinary and professional perspective of social work is where interactions of social relationships, social positions and diverse life practices of people are reflected and become visible. From an interdisciplinary, analytical perspective, socio-spatial analysis with its applied survey and evaluation methods enable a differentiated examination of the connections between concrete social phenomena and interests, as well as social inequalities, which structure many emerging problems and conflict situations in public space. Public space is structured through social control or through various state or private regulations, such as juridical norms, building structures, technical instruments or personal interventions. Using socio-spatial approaches, participation processes or a following practice, enables the visualisation of unrepresented and already repressed interests of users, thus supporting the everyday planning and design of public space. Differences in public space are of particular importance and are perceived as disturbing when persons or groups cannot meet the normality expectations in one place, e.g. if their appearance, habits or abilities deviate from the usual. If their otherness in public places and paths is problematized, these groups are often confronted with control or standardization measures, which impairs their access or residence. Conflicts in and around public space are to be understood as expressions of colliding appropriation processes, social inequalities, asymmetrical power relations and social contradictions (AG Sozialer Raum der OGSA, 2016).

Social spaces are seen and valued very differently in practice. It is therefore not surprising that different aspects and research methods are proposed for the empirical recording, description and comparative assessment of social spaces in the social work field. While socio-spatial analysis in urban sociology research is usually used in a narrowly defined sense – meaning statistical processes that break down an urban totality into relatively homogeneous subunits regarding social and structural characteristics – in social work it is understood in a more generic way for a whole field of approaches and procedures. These can be roughly divided into two main directions:

1. On the one hand, the spectrum of possibilities includes structure-oriented approaches, which pay particular attention to the social and demographic composition of the resident population as well as quantifiable features of the structural and infrastructural equipment. Furthermore, there are phenomenological and interaction-oriented approaches that ask how social spaces, or the objective socio-spatial conditions are perceived in the subjects' perspective and everyday social practice of the inhabitants, what they mean to the residents and what their relevance to action is.
2. On the other hand, a distinction can be made between studies that refer to socio-spatial units that are defined within their boundaries (districts, neighbourhoods), and formative approaches, where the definition of social spaces and the definition of their boundaries themselves are the results of socio-spatial analysis. The combination of these two distinctions leads to the following four main variants of socio-spatial analysis:

- 1a. Non-formative, structure-oriented socio-spatial analysis asks for quantitative comparable characteristics of the social structure and infrastructure of an area within its borders.
- 1b. Formative, structure-oriented socio-spatial analysis creates a subdivision by a procedure, which treats socially and infrastructural similar spatial units as belonging together.
- 2a. Non-formative, phenomenological, interaction-oriented socio-spatial analysis asks about the meaning and the relevance of spatial realities in terms of life, in relation to a given area within its borders.
- 2b. Formative, phenomenological, interaction-oriented socio-spatial analysis identifies those territorial boundaries that are significant and relevant to action in the social practice and life-world view of the inhabitants (Boettner, 2007)

A practice-oriented method of socio-spatial analysis seems useful for the training course. It is called structured district inspection:

The structured district inspection is a two-stage observation and survey process, which brings about the knowledge and understanding of the different perceptions and interpretations - both of social workers and affected clients - of the socio-spatial qualities of clearly delineated district segments. In the first analysis step, the district subdivided previously into observation segments is observed several times by various social workers in observation rounds, without however seeking contact with population groups. In the second step, which is the subsequent survey phase, district inspections with clients are carried out at their meeting points in order to gain an insight into their everyday life and everyday perspectives. After completion of these two stages of analysis, a differentiated and denser assessment of the processes in the district is possible, based on different levels of perception. Although structured district inspection is a time-consuming process, it does in practice lead to the acquisition of a precise socio-spatial understanding, which can be the basis for e.g. subsequent institutional surveys. The term structured refers to two aspects of the procedure: On the one hand, to the definition of certain routes in the district, to the repeated inspection of these paths and places at different times, but also to the continuous documentation of the observation tours. On the other hand, the combination of observation tours and inspections with clients is intended to systematically investigate the complex interactions of socio-spatial relationships (Krisch, 2002).

Contact with and expectations of clients

When it comes to contact between social work and clients this takes place in a less burdensome and more trustworthy way compared to the relationship with the police. Not always, but mostly, it is voluntary. Even when this is not the case, social workers can at least make it clear that they are not subject to a principle of legality and have far-reaching obligations of confidentiality that also allow for trustful discussions about personal matters. Not only this circumstance, but also very different settings than those offered by street workers for instance, allow more intensive forms of contact and interac-

tion, which are also (and therefore also usually) of longer duration than those with the police. Working relationships can thus be created on a completely different basis, with more emphasis on stability, and further developed. The objective control function of social work is certainly not overlooked by its clients, but it often appears to be ambivalent. Social workers are considered in principle to be oriented towards understanding the clients and willing to communicate with them. However, they also give some people a picture that is more associated with weakness than with consequence, so that it can be suggested that one does not necessarily take what is said and recommended by them very seriously - in contrast to what policemen say (Möller, 2019).

4. Learning Activities

In this section of the handbook, we offer some ideas for an interactive design of the SWaPOL training. All of the following exercises have been developed and tested elsewhere, and we simply adopted and adapted them for this training.

4.1. Exercise 1: Meet and Greet at the Marketplace

Overall description:

This exercise can be used at the very start of the training to introduce participants to each other.

Based on the overarching theme of public space, participants and trainers imagine a marketplace where people meet and briefly introduce each other. The idea of a marketplace may also hint at the theme of public space in this SWaPOL training. This exercise helps people to get to know each other and to recognize as well as reflect communalities and differences. The meetings may be extended to short interviews on the professional background. Attention may be given to language (accents, formalities, voices), clothing (casual or formal), and other personal features.

Materials:

- A room large enough for all participants to walk around

Instructions:

Step 1:

- Explain: Imagine a marketplace and walk up and down. When you meet people, stop and introduce yourself and start a casual conversation about your job.
- Questions: What is your name? What is your occupational expertise? What is your motivation to participate in this programme? Hobbies? Likes and dislikes in your job?

Step 2:

- Form a circle and tell the group whom you have met
 - What did you notice?
 - Was the professional affiliation obvious?
 - If so, why?

Time: 15 minutes

4.2. Exercise 2: The Derdians¹³

Overall description:

This game is a simulation of a meeting of two cultures. A team of engineers goes to another country in order to teach the people there (called "the Derdians") how to build a bridge. This exercise aims at simulating different habitus and cultures. Participants must find ways to decode norms of a foreign culture in order to communicate with its people. The goal of the game is to break stereotypes of different cultures and to reflect on differences in cultural behaviour. In this SWaPOL training the different cultures stand as a metaphor for different professional ethics.

Materials:

- Pencils, rulers, scissors, sheets of paper, glue, tape. Instructions shall be prepared on sheets of paper for the groups to read.

Instructions:

Step 1:

Break the group into 2 mixed gender groups of (A) police officers and (B) social workers. One group of 10 people acts as a team of engineers to teach the other group ("the Derdians") how to build a bridge. Each group prepares in a separate room/area.

Instruction for Derdians

- The situation: You live in the country of Dardia. Your town is separated from the next town by a deep valley. To reach the market you have to walk 3 days. If you had a bridge across the valley you could get there in two hours. Your government has contracted with foreigners to come and teach

¹³ Iltaforyouth, 2019; Interfaithalliance, 2019.

you how to build a bridge. A model for this bridge will be built with paper, tape and string using scissors, rulers and pencils. You know the material but you don't know anything about construction.

- **Social behaviour:** The Derrdians are used to being very close to each other and communication only works when persons are very close to each other. Talking at a distance is considered very rude. If you join a group conversation you should huddle together. It is also very important that you greet every one when you meet. Conversation must begin with an introduction: example "I am Jay of Derrdia." If the person does not respond in kind it is considered rude.
- **Greetings:** The Derrdians greeting is to touch right elbows with the person they are greeting. Shaking hands is a great Faux Pas. Derrdians are insulted by not being greeted (touching right elbows) or if a person stands too far away in a conversation. When insulted, Derrdians shout loudly.
- **Yes/No:** Derrdians do not use the word "No". They always say Yes although if they mean "No" they shake their head up and down emphatically while frowning and saying "Yes".
- **Work behaviour:** Tools are gender specific: Scissors and Rulers can be touched only by men. Tape and string only by woman. Pencils and Paper are neutral.
- **Foreigners:** Derrdians like company. But they are very proud of their culture. They expect that foreigners will adapt to their culture. Their behaviour is very natural for them that's why they cannot explain it to the others.

Instruction for Engineers

- You are group of engineers of an international company. Your firm has just signed a very important contract with the government of Derrdia to teach Derrdians how to build a bridge. You have to make this in a short time (you've got only 30 minutes to teach Derrdians how to build a bridge) otherwise the contract will be cancelled and you will lose your job. Derrdia is a very mountainous country and it takes many days for Derrdians to go to the nearest town. With a bridge Derrdians could make a trip in 2 hours. But remember you cannot build the bridge - you have to teach Derrdians how to build it.

Step 2:

Preparations in the groups:

- Read the instructions carefully. Engineers: Decide together about the way you are going to build the bridge. Derrdians: Study and practice your cultural behaviour patterns.
- After 15 minutes: Two members of the engineer-team will be allowed to go and make a first contact with the Derrdians for 3 minutes, then they are to report back to their team.
- The group of engineers goes to the Derrdians to teach them how to build the bridge.

Step 3:

The bridge construction:

- The model bridge should stretch over two chairs at a distance 80 cm. It has to be stable. The pieces of the bridge must be cut out and assembled in Derdia so that the Derdians learn all stages of the construction. Each piece has to be drawn with pencil and ruler and cut out with scissors.
- The model bridge shall be built within 30 minutes.

Step 4:

Reflection after a game:

- The two groups take a flipchart and note their comments to the following three points:
 - Facts: Note only facts (not perceptions) about the rules of conduct.
 - Feelings: What emotions did you observe?
 - Interpretation: Describe the situation. Discuss the tendency to think that others (should or do) think the way we do; that we often interpret things that are different as being right or wrong, without considerations of the differences in cultural behaviour.
- Discussion of communication challenges: What did you learn about each culture? What assumptions did you make? What assumptions prove incorrect?
- Explain the metaphor! Communication and behaviour patterns.

Time: 1,5 hours

4.3. Exercise 3: Exchange self-images in inter-professional groups

Overall description:

With this exercise participants shall discuss the self-image of each profession. According to which general principles do social work and the police function? How does the organisational structure effect professional work? Which working methods do they use? How is their relationship to clients?

This exercise aims at defining one's own profession in terms of framing conditions, tasks and duties as well as getting a clear picture of the other profession. This is the basis for knowledge, mutual acceptance as well as communication, coordination and finally collaboration.

Materials:

- Flipchart sheets, flipchart marker

Instructions:

Step 1:

- Break up into small mixed groups of two/three social workers and two/three police officers.
- Discuss the professions reciprocally focusing on prejudice, differences and similarities and write down the most relevant aspects of your discussion in a flipchart. Working with drawings and symbols instead of using words may be helpful.

Step 2:

- Present and discuss the most relevant aspects of your discussion with the others

Time: 30-40 minutes

4.4. Exercise 4: Word cloud

Overall description

Word clouds can be produced with an interactive online tool such as mentimeter, which allows a presenter to engage the audience, collect responses to a question and to immediately present all responses aggregated as a word cloud.

This tool can be employed in the collection of stereotypes and qualities of the two professions. As participants type certain attributes they associate with the other profession into the system, they remain anonymous and hence avoid direct confrontation with the other group. No individual entries are presented. Instead, a word-cloud is a visual representation of words that are most frequently used when participants describe the professions and their representatives. In that way potential prejudice is visualised in an indirect and friendly way.

Material

W-Lan internet access for all participants; Smartphones; www.mentimeter.com

Instructions

Prepare the questions in a mentimeter session, for example: "What comes to your mind when you think of police officers / social workers?"

Ask social workers and police officers to use their private electronic device to log into www.menti.com and to type single words that they associate with the other profession.

Ask one group at a time.

Present the results separately in word clouds to the audience and discuss the results.

Time: max. 30 minutes.

4.5. Exercise 5: Exchange information about professional training schemes

Overall description:

Participants acknowledge the differences within historical and organisational structures of the different vocational training schemes and understand the key concepts in the training schedule and the place of prevention in daily work. Finally, they develop an insight and understanding of the logic of the guiding principles of the other profession.

Instructions

Step 1: Pair work within the professions to reconstruct their training schedules.

Step 2: 2 POL and 2 SW present and explain their basic and continuous training schedules to each other. Here they point out elements that they consider most crucial for daily occupational practice. Which training subjects seem to have the most impact on general images of the police and social work?

Step 3: Police officers and social workers report to the plenary what they have learned about the other profession. They may use flip charts, mind-maps, diagrams, etc.

Step 4: Final amendments are presented by lecturers with expertise on the subjects in policing and social work, on historical development, policies and practice.

Time: max. 20 minutes

At this point, **invited guest speakers** (or trainers themselves) may give additional information on the historical development of the professions and respective vocational training schemes in the country (and beyond). Social work and community policing shall be explained with regard to the national administrative vocational training schemes.

Teaching and training in social work

A short introduction to the history of social work as a profession may be built around these questions:

- What were the social, political and economic conditions at the origin of the profession of social work?
- How did the vocational training for social work (and related fields) develop as an academic subject?
- Is social work a science?

Special training in crime prevention and community policing

Training in crime prevention and community policing is a rather complex matter within the structure of police training. To some extent, crime prevention is part of every basic police training, but more specific issues of crime prevention are exclusively taught in continuous training courses within the police force. Also, police officers may take extra training at special institutions outside the police (e.g. prevention of addiction and substance abuse, security management, intelligence-led policing, etc.). Guest speakers may focus on these questions:

- To what extent is prevention part of the general police training?
- What subjects are taught in separate modules of crime prevention?
- What kind of expertise do crime prevention officers obtain and how do they apply this expertise in community policing?

4.6. Exercise 6: Field visit – Socio-spatial Analysis

Overall description:

Course participants should be sensitized to physical and social attributes of public places in order to be able to link social problems with local structures. In socio-spatial analyses, forms of use and appropriation of public space are to be observed in order to better understand the significance and evaluation of local structural problems. An observation protocol is drawn up according to the criteria of functionality and aesthetics of places and observations of social interactions are noted. At the same time, the problem of interpreting socio-spatial situations should become clear: What different interpretations can be found between the groups of social work and the police with regard to security problems?

Materials:

- Particular places in the local city shall be selected and visited in small teams.
- Prepare city maps that show how to get there and detailed plans of the localities
- Prepare a template for an observation protocol

Instructions:

Step 1: Field visit

Several places shall be selected to be visited in small teams (e.g. train stations, metro stations, city squares, parks, public toilets, etc.). Separate teams may be formed according to their profession: a) social workers; b) police officers (not in uniform!).

The **template for an observation protocol** may ask questions such as:

In relation to space:	In relation to the people within the space:
What kind of buildings are there in terms of size, volume, material? How do they look like?	Who is using these spaces?
Are there courtyards? How do they appear? What is there to see?	How long do people stay (is it a transit space or place to stay)?
Are there stores, bars, restaurants, sports grounds, housing complexes, public transport facilities, taxi stands, pedestrian zones, passages, playgrounds, etc.?	What are the people doing? Is there social interaction?
What is the general character of the place?	Are there different generations and cultures? Do certain groups predominate in this place?
What kind of furniture is there?	In what mood are people using this space?
Are there any signs of graffiti or tagging? Political statements, signs of sub-cultures?	Do you observe conflicts? Which kind of conflicts and what are they about?
Are there green spaces? What flora and fauna do you see?	Imagine this place in another time of year! What will change?

Step 2: Analysis of field visit in class

Observations will be shared with the plenary. Photographs taken at the field visit may be presented.

Discuss the socio-spatial nexus in small groups (mixed 2x2):

- In what way are physical and social features related? Does one cause the other?
- Are there crime hot spots? Are there "honey pots" (attractions to certain populations)?
- What kind of security and safety problems (may) occur?
- What are potential causes for conflict?
- What determines the way people act/behave in the observed space?

Alternatively:

- Imagine seeing the place in the eyes of the other profession. What would they see?

Final questions:

- What needs to be done to make this place better, nicer, safer?
- How can police and social workers act together to achieve this?
- Who else should be involved (public transport services, urban planners, product designers, landscapers, schools, etc.)?

Time: 4-6 hours (depending on location of selected places)

5. Questions for review

- What are the main differences in professional culture between police and social work?
- Which concepts in policing and in social work can help converge the two professions? Identify key elements in the concepts!
- Which social work / policing practices do you consider most effective for joint interventions in public space?
- Which (changes to) organizational structures are required to achieve a better cooperation between police and social work?
- Outline a situation where socio-spatial analysis can be applied as a useful method to solve conflicts in public space.

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Module 2:

Substance use among young people: Prevention and harm reduction in nightlife

1. Objectives

- Learn about substances and classification, harm reduction and drug prevention
- Consider different perspectives on nightlife activities (youth, social work, police)
- Improve collaboration between professions in the nightlife economy

2. Intended competences

- *Cognitive learning outcomes:*
 - Understand youth cultures and motivation for substance use among young people (curiosity, fun, frustration, etc)
 - Understand the relation between legalization / criminalization and health risk (harmfulness)
 - Understand regulations in the drug law and respective policing methods
 - Learn to recognise effects of drugs and understand the interaction between substance, users and social environment
 - Participants understand prevention methods (on the basis of risk factors and protective factors), and they can apply them in specific situations
- *Affective learning outcomes:*
 - Reconsider attitudes about the cultural framing of substance use (e.g. alcohol) and the effect of cultural and economic globalisation (e.g. music scenes).
 - Exchange ideas on the relationship between drug-related crime and substance use

- *(Psycho-)Motoric learning outcomes:*
 - Develop a new basis for collaboration in practice, e.g. collaboration projects on "repression + prevention + harm reduction"
 - Creating networks: local authorities, entertainment industry, police, social work and residents
 - Participants can act in critical medical situations of a possible overdose in nightlife settings.

3. Keynote themes¹⁴

This module focuses on the collaboration between social work and police in regard to the consumption of substances in nightlife. The SWaPOL training for better collaboration between the professions focuses on two aspects which are closely related: consumption of psycho-active substances; and the peculiarities of the nightlife as a particular feature of youth subcultures. First, the consumption of psycho-active substances is problematic from both perspectives, social work and policing, as a problem of health (addiction) and as a criminal offence (drug dealing). Second, substance use in the nightlife is often associated with violence and nuisance and becomes a general problem of public order. Nightlife comes along with fun, and most of the time this does not lead to problematic behaviour. In general, substance use is all part of the game. The most common substance in this context is alcohol, but substances such as cannabis, XTC, crystal meth and cocaine are used as well. Police and social work shall elaborate alternatives to zero tolerance policies and hence guarantee a safe and healthy environment for all people in public space.

Nevertheless, social work and police may have different views on the origin of the problem, on the problem itself, and on ways to tackle the problem. This module shall build on experiences and knowledge gained in module 1 of this training and shall encourage participants to apply their professional understanding to the special challenges arising from misuse of psycho-active substances. Again, the presentation of professional knowledge about substances and substance use shall be balanced with didactical exercises that encourage participants to exchange perspectives, tactics, and problem solutions. A good understanding of each other's work motif is the foundation for better cooperation in prevention and harm reduction.

The following key themes shall be addressed:

14 This section of the SWaPOL training handbook is closely linked to a manual published in 2019 by the EM-CDDA, the European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction, and it is recommended to consult that manual along with this handbook (see: "European Prevention Curriculum - A handbook for decision-makers, opinion-makers and policy-makers in science-based prevention of substance use"). https://www.emcdda.europa.eu/system/files/publications/11733/20192546_TDMA19001ENN_PDF.pdf

3.1. What substances?

Substances are defined by the European Prevention Curriculum (EMCDDA, 2019a: 23-24) as any psychoactive substance, including

- alcohol
- tobacco products (including e-nicotine delivery devices), and
- other, often illicit, drugs including cannabis, amphetamines and cocaine, or those that are legally produced but are used solely for their psychoactive or non-medical effects (e.g. licensed medicines and new psychoactive substances).

Talking about substances means talking about chemicals that alter the biological structure or functioning of the nervous system when administered and absorbed. When we talk about substances in this training module, we talk about those psychoactive substances that affect feelings and perceptions, thought processes and/or behaviour. These effects are achieved by altering the functioning of the brain and spinal cord.

Substances can be classified as follows (EMCDDA, 2019a: 27-28):

- Central nervous system (CNS) stimulants — e.g. amphetamines, cocaine, modafinil, nicotine, caffeine — increase the activity of the CNS. They tend to increase heart rate and breathing and offer a sense of excited euphoria, and some of them increase feelings of sociability.
- Empathogens (sometimes known as entactogens) — e.g. MDMA, mephedrone, 6-APB — have stimulant effects, but also produce experiences of emotional connectedness and empathy with others. Depending on the drug and dose taken, they may also have psychedelic effects.
- Psychedelics — e.g. lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD), dimethyltryptamine (DMT), psilocybin, mescaline — cause marked changes in thought, sensory perceptions and states of consciousness.
- Dissociatives — e.g. ketamine, nitrous oxide, dextromethorphan (DXM), phencyclidine (PCP) — cause changes in sensory perceptions and produce feelings of detachment (dissociation) from the environment, others and oneself.
- Cannabinoids — e.g. cannabis — have desired effects including a state of relaxation and improvements in mood, with mild sensory changes.
- CNS depressants — e.g. alcohol, benzodiazepines, gamma-hydroxybutyrate (GHB) — depress or reduce arousal or stimulate the nervous system to induce sleep and relaxation and to reduce anxiety. CNS depressants, such as alcohol, lead to improvements in mood and sociability.
- Opioids — e.g. heroin, morphine, tramadol — cause relaxation and sometimes improvements in mood.

This training does not primarily focus on epidemiological data, i.e. the nature and extent of recent substance use, in particular the prevalence and incidence rates of user groups by psychoactive substances by country. Information may be asked from official data sets provided by the EMCDDA and national authorities (for epidemiological data see: EMCDDA, 2019). Also, a collection will never be complete as new chemical substances are being constantly produced¹⁵. Rather, in this course for practitioners we focus on methods of prevention and harm reduction that can be applied by social workers and police officers together. Nevertheless, a minimum of understanding about substance use will be required for a good collaboration of the two professions.

3.2. Understanding substance use

In this section we recommend to first clarify existing prejudices about substance use; secondly, to inform about different phases of substance use as proposed by the diagnostic classification system in order to estimate the risk of developing a substance use disorder; and finally, to discuss risk factors and protective factors to understand the socio-cultural context of substance use disorders.

Misconceptions about substances and substance users

A lot of misconceptions and myths exist in society when it comes to discuss psychoactive substances. For example, one of the prevailing fallacies about substances is that legal drugs are less harmful than illegal drugs. It is important to break down prejudices in order to get a clear view on substances and substance users. The Global Commission on Drug Policy (2017) counters some of the prejudices (selection):

- “Many citizens believe that drugs have been made illegal based on a rational analysis of the harm they cause. In fact, the decisions about what to ban and what to permit have generally not been made by scientific or medical panels alone.” (Global Commission on Drug Policy, 2017, p. 10)
- drugs cause harm simultaneously on several levels: physical harm (acute, chronic, intravenous harm), psychological harm, and social harm (including intoxication and health care costs)
- heroin is ranked as the substance that brings most risk of harm to an individual; but when we look at individual and social harm, alcohol is mentioned as the most harmful. So, the legal status of a substance does not tell anything about the potential harm
- when a substance is illegal, the risks in using the substance increase e.g. the amount of THC in cannabis in the Belgian illegal context of this substance
- not all substances are (il)legal in a country (e.g. alcohol is illegal in some parts of Asia, opium was legal in India and Pakistan);
- young people use illegal substances “... for much the same reasons as most of those who consume alcohol: to relax, socialize, for pleasure; and not because they have a dependency”. (Global Commission on Drug Policy, 2017, p. 21);

15 For latest developments of substances at this time see: <http://www.thedrugswheel.com/>

- problematic use of substances is not necessarily correlated to criminality. Most of those using drugs, do not engage in criminal activities. Some people engage in crime to pay for their own use of substances.

The risk of developing a substance use disorder

Not all substance use comes along with harmful consequences. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) calculated¹⁶ that in 2013 worldwide 247 million people, or 1 out of 20 people between the ages of 15 and 64 years, used an illicit drug. Of these 247 million users, 29 million suffer from a substance use disorder and from these 29 million only one out of six is in treatment for their problematic use. For those people who develop a substance use disorder, the consequences on their health, amongst other things like social function and wellbeing, can be huge (Van Havere, 2012). On the other hand, it is clear that not all substance users are problematic users. The UNODC figure shows that 11% of the users are problematic users and 89% is not. So, the most common pattern of use is non-problematic.

In general, three phases of substance use can be listed that are consecutive but independent (EM-CDDA, 2019a, pp. 28-29). This means that entering one phase does not necessarily mean that the substance user will progress to the next phase.

1. **Recreational and sporadic use**, in which substance use intake is moderate and sporadic, and still one among many recreational activities of the individual
2. **Intensified, sustained, escalated use**, in which substance use intensifies, becomes more sustained and frequent, and becomes the principal recreational activity of the individual. Although some decrement in social and personal functioning starts appearing, behaviour is still largely organised, and the individual can fulfil most of their roles and responsibilities
3. **Loss of control of drug use and the development of a substance use disorder** means that substance-related activities are now the principal focus of the individual.

In psychiatric circles, two major classification schemes are used that help diagnose substance use disorders: The WHO regularly updates the publication of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (latest version ICD-11); the American Psychiatric Association publishes the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders; latest version DSM-5).

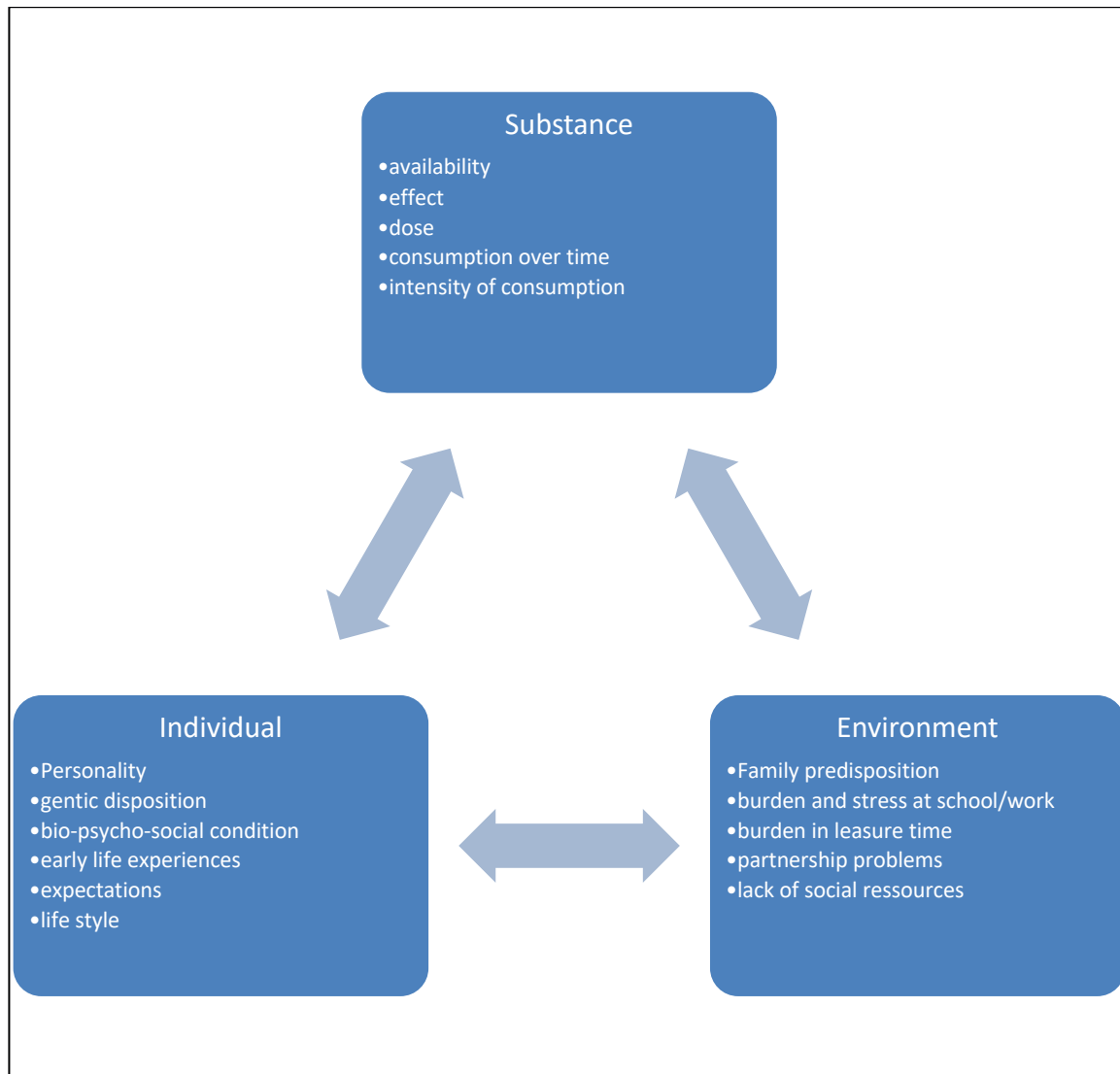
The risk of developing a substance use disorder from sporadic and escalated use is a complex matter and is often explained as an interplay of three major factors: the substance, the individual, and the environment (Zinberg 1984). Elements of these factors are presented in figure xy.

These factors may be discussed in line with the socio-cultural context, which refers to societal living conditions such as highly competitive economic conditions on the labour market that renders strain and the feeling of limited future perspectives. Also, the consumption of psychoactive substances may

16 See: <https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/statistics/drug-use.html>

be related to the particular features of the consumer culture together with a culture of entertainment and the craving for constant arousal.

Figure xy: Adapted from Kielholz and Ladewig (1973). See also: Zinberg (1984).

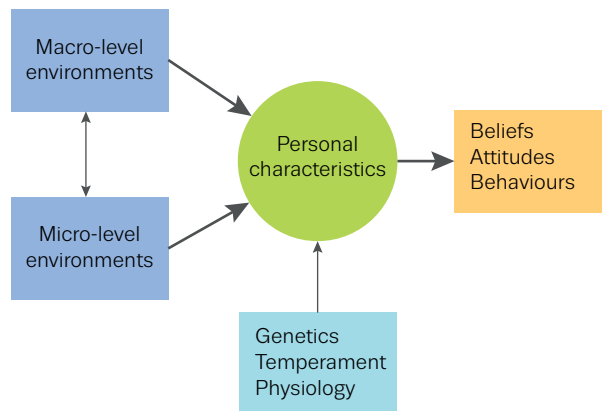


A second model (Figure xyz) lecturers may find useful in a keynote presentation to SWaPOL participants is the aetiology model, based on the International Standards on Drug Use Prevention (UNODC, 2013). This model is quoted in the EMCDDA European Prevention Curriculum: "Studies of the origins of risky behaviours such as substance use show that initiating substance use involves an interaction between individual personal characteristics, such as genetic predisposition, temperament and personality type, differences in how one actually sees, hears and 'feels' the surrounding environment or persons, and experiences outside the individual" (EMCDDA, 2019a ¹⁷).

17 The European Prevention Curriculum has been translated into German: <https://www.emcdda.europa.eu/system/files/publications/11733/FINDER%20Akademie%20%282019%29%20-%20Europ%C3%A4isches%20Pr%C3%A4ventionscurriculum.pdf>

Fig. xyz:

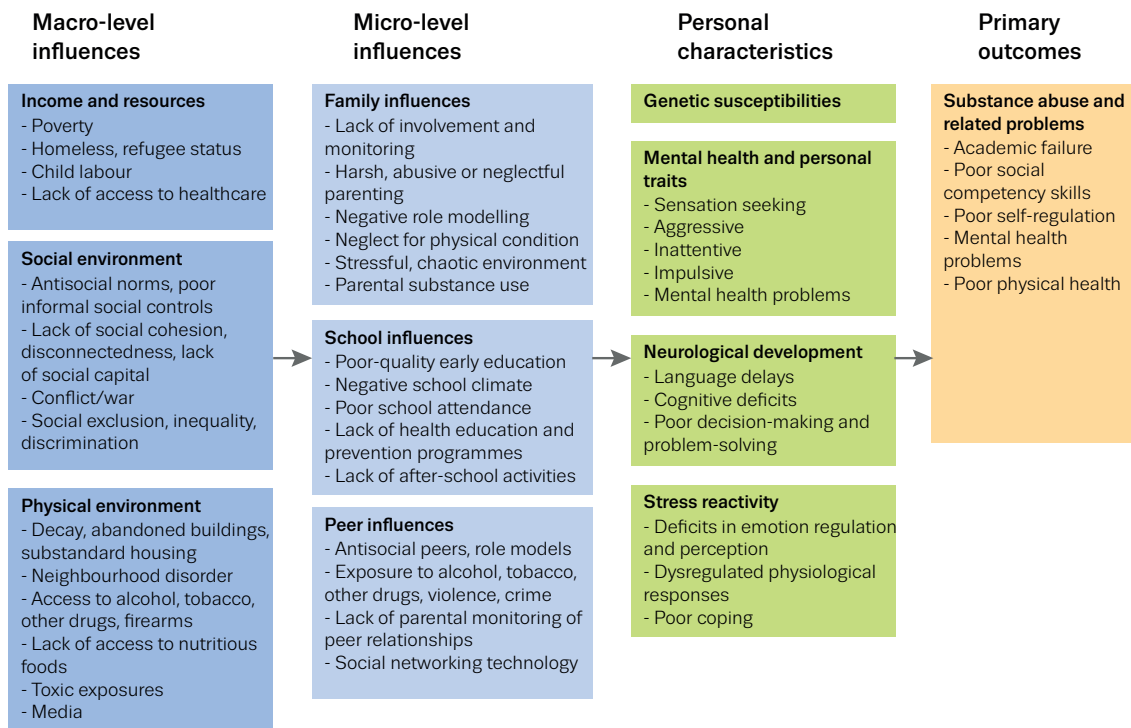
The aetiology model



Source: European Prevention Curriculum (EMCDDA, 2019a: 32), based on UNODC (2013).

Together, the Zinberg model and the aetiology model¹⁸ are useful for developing concepts of prevention, because they help identify those mechanisms at the onset of a variety of social problems. More particularly, the two models have been presented in more detail to identify risk factors that can be addressed by prevention interventions (figure wxyz).

Figure wxyz: Risk factors that can be addressed by prevention interventions.



Source: European Prevention Curriculum (EMCDDA, 2019a: 35), based on UNODC (2013).

¹⁸ Aetiology: The study that describes how diseases and other disorders are caused.

Risk factors are measures of behaviour or psychosocial functioning (including attitudes, beliefs, and personality) that are found to be associated with increased risk to use substances, including *contextual factors* like e.g. laws and norms favourable to substance use behaviours or economic deprivation and *individual and interpersonal factors*, for example, genetic predisposition and other physiological measures, family history of substance use and attitudes toward substance use, poor/inconsistent family management, family conflict and low family bonding (EMCDDA, 2019a, pp. 31).

Protective factors reduce the vulnerability of individuals and are characteristics that offset or buffer the impact of existing risk factors (ibid). Examples of protective factors are a good individual temperament, good self-control skills, good bonding as an individual with caregivers, and as a pupil: good engagement with school, good education quality, and positive social cohesion in the neighbourhood.

3.3. Prevention and harm reduction

In addressing risk factors and protective factors, prevention policies have been developed and interventions have been organised in four groups (EMCDDA 2019b):

Universal prevention: addressing entire populations, usually in school and community settings, with the aim of giving young people the social competences to avoid or delay initiation of substance use.

Selective prevention: intervention with specific groups, families or communities who are more likely to develop drug use or dependence because they have fewer social ties and resources. Early intervention approaches may have different goals, but generally aim to delay or prevent the onset of problems (including substance use), rather than respond when problems appear.

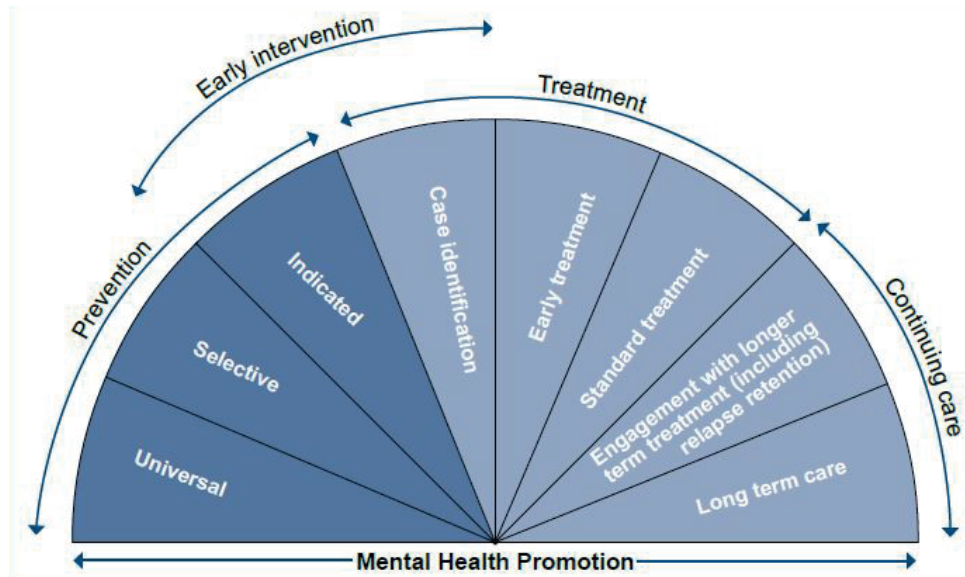
Indicated prevention: an approach that identifies individuals with behavioural or psychological problems that predict a higher risk of substance use problems later in life and intervenes with these individuals. In most European countries, indicated prevention continues to primarily involve counselling young substance users.

Environmental prevention: strategies targeting the contexts for behaviour through changing the prompts and cues that guide behaviour. Regulatory (opening hours, smoking bans, behavioural norms), physical (shape/size of glasses, crowd management in bars, school environment) and economic (pricing, taxation, incentives) measures are applied to prompt more adaptive, healthier, behaviours, or to prevent harmful behaviours.

EMCDDA (2019b): Drug prevention: exploring a systems perspective. Glossary, p.5.

This classification may be helpful and trigger a constructive discussion among SWaPOL participants and the level of intervention. Also, it may be discussed in relation to a wider spectrum of "mental health promotion" which stretches from "universal prevention" to "long term care" (see figure ...).

Figure : the mental health intervention spectrum for mental disorders (Mrazek and Haggerty, 1994: 23).



Early interventions are a form of indicated prevention intervention and link the categories of prevention and treatment.

Short notice for discussion: What works in prevention?



Evidence shows that a message such as “Just say no” is likely to be counterproductive. Children exposed to this message are more likely to use substances (Global commission on drug policy, 2018, p. 31). If we give this message, we have no opportunity to provide correct information on the real harms of the psychoactive substances. Also, there is no way to introduce the safest and healthiest way to use substances.

The global commission (p. 31) also states that the most efficient interventions on lifetime drug use are programmes that focus on early intervention (addressing close social environments such as family and school) and on social and behavioural development (e.g. social skills such as resisting peer pressure).

Harm reduction

A city nightlife policy should take a comprehensive strategy that combines different approaches in a reasonable way: Prevention and harm reduction. Harm reduction strategies are a useful complementary approach to reduce injury or death from drug use in the hope that the individual will seek treatment and other support at some stage. Harm reduction is grounded in the recognition that many people throughout the world are unable or unwilling to stop using illicit drugs. There is certainly an overlap in practice between strategies of prevention and harm reduction, but for analytic purposes harm reduction has been defined as this:

"Harm reduction encompasses interventions, programmes and policies that seek to reduce the health, social and economic harms of drug use to individuals, communities and societies. A core principle of harm reduction is the development of pragmatic responses to dealing with drug use through a hierarchy of intervention goals that place primary emphasis on reducing the health-related harms of continued drug use. It addresses the immediate health and social needs of problem drug users, especially the socially excluded, by offering opioid substitution treatment and needle and syringe programmes to prevent overdose deaths and reduce the spread of infectious diseases. Additional approaches include outreach work, health promotion and education" (EMCDDA <https://www.emcdda.europa.eu/topics/harm-reduction>).

According to the NGO "Harm Reduction International"¹⁹, "harm reduction is grounded in justice and human rights - it focuses on positive change and on working with people without judgement, coercion, discrimination, or requiring that they stop using drugs as a precondition of support" (<https://www.hri.global/what-is-harm-reduction>).

In short, according to the EMCDDA, "harm reduction gives clear primacy to a public health perspective in which the imperative is to reduce immediate harms, and the question of long-term abstinence from drug use is either unaddressed or left open".

How does this approach sit with law enforcement agencies? How can social work and the police establish a nightlife policy that integrates prevention, harm reduction and law enforcement?

3.4. The legal framework on substance use

Drug laws in European countries vary substantially:

- Which substances are legal and illegal?
- Is possession, consumption, passing on, or selling prohibited?
- Are there differentiations in the prosecution according to amounts of substances that are found?
- Is consumption generally tolerated or prosecuted?
- What is the relation between law enforcement authorities and health authorities on a regional/national level?
- Which alternatives to prosecution (deviation) do law enforcement agencies (police, prosecution, court) have to offer "treatment instead of punishment"? – To caution a perpetrator, conditional dismissal, probation periods, suspension of prosecution etc.
- Which health-related measures are laid down in the drug law and which agencies are entitled to carry out treatment for substance dependency?

The police will have to give an introductory lesson on the particular legal regulations (and practices) in the country.

¹⁹ <https://www.hri.global/about>

3.5. First aid in cases of problematic psychoactive substance use

Psychoactive substance use can show some very specific threats to health. We recommend a presentation by an expert guest speaker who tells about potential situations that may occur in relation to overdose of substances. First aid measures are very specific according to the kind and amount of substances taken.

For this part, we recommend consulting the manual that was produced by the consortium of the project "Club Health – Healthy and Safer Nightlife of Youth", funded under the EU Health Programme 2008-2013²⁰ (Mendes and Mendes 2011).

To support a session on first aid, one may consult Annexes 5 and 6 from the manual "Club Health". Here, the following critical situations that can emerge in connection with nightlife, and respective first aid measures, are explained.

Situations that occur at nightlife events:

1. **Choking or suffocation:** On the balcony of a nightclub a couple are talking while eating peanuts. The lady starts laughing, and then suddenly and violently chokes, showing signs of a blocked airway.
2. **Stabbing or knifing:** At the entrance to a bar, two young men argue and one stabs the other in the chest and abdomen, leaving the knife in the body. The young man begins to breathe with difficulty and shows signs of losing consciousness.
3. **Cardiac arrest:** At a trance party a young person who was dancing wildly falls without apparent cause. He is not breathing and has no pulse.
4. **Fall:** A young woman who was dancing on top of a podium two meters in height falls and shows signs of having fractured her collar bone. After 20 minutes she violently vomits.
5. **Heroin Overdose:** In the doorway of a building near a nightclub two young people have been injecting. One appears very distressed telling you that the other is "not breathing or responding, will not wake up and may be dead".
6. **Alcohol Overdose:** A young lady has been participating in a drinking game, drinking shots with some friends. She looks confused, starts showing signs of illness then shows signs of losing consciousness.
7. **Haemorrhage (cut glass):** Two young people are leaving a bar when one of them cuts her foot on some broken glass that was lying on the floor. She starts to bleed profusely.
8. **Rape:** A door supervisor at a nightclub is approached by a distraught crying young woman. She reports having been raped by two men who followed her from this club.

See Annexes 5 and 6 of Club Health - Healthy and Safer Nightlife of Youth Project (Mendes and Mendes 2011). This manual can be downloaded here:

https://www.club-health.eu/docs/EN/Club_Health_training_of_staff_manual_EN.pdf .

20 For more information see the project website: <https://www.club-health.eu/>

Here is just one example taken from that manual:

Heroin overdose:

An overdose can occur when a dose taken is greater than what the user is used to. Taking an overdose may lead to an acute situation as consciousness may be lost. A tolerable dose for an addict could be fatal to a first-time user. Heroin works on the central nervous system and one of its effects is to slow down the heartbeat. Breathing rates also slow dramatically. Either of these effects can be fatal if the dose is too high.

Depending on purity and the user's tolerance levels, a lethal dose of heroin may range from 200 to 500mg, but hardened addicts have survived doses of 1800mg and over. However, with street heroin there is no absolutely certain 'safe dosage'. It depends on tolerance, purity and the amount taken.

The primary sign of heroin overdose is a depression of breathing which can result in death from suffocation.

The type of drugs that are used by medical professionals to treat someone undergoing a heroin overdose are called 'opioid antagonists'; common opioid antagonists are Naloxone and Naltrexone, which are non-scheduled prescription medication. While they are not currently available without a prescription, there are harm reduction programs that may distribute legal prescriptions of naloxone to heroin users (and their family and friends) as part of overdose prevention and education schemes. (Mendes and Mendes 2011; p. 48)

3.6. Collaboration of social work and police in a nightlife setting

With this background knowledge about substances, substance use, the complexity of risk factors for developing a dependency, and the different levels of prevention and harm reduction, police and social workers can begin to develop a common strategy for a better collaboration. Here, the challenge is to make an effort together to apply theory to practice. Of course, the chance to come to an agreement is based on legal standards, the political climate in a country, and respective policing policies: Will the possession and consumption of small amounts of illegal drugs be prosecuted? Will the police focus on the dogma of "zero tolerance" and pursue a repressive and reactive approach? Or: does the police concentrate on investigating large-scale drug dealing and practice non-intervention in a local drug scene? On the other side, the readiness to collaborate of social workers does not so much depend on national social policies, but rather on individual ideologies and general attitudes towards authorities.

It may be helpful to first encourage participants in the SWaPOL training to exchange different views and discuss the nightlife from different perspectives. How do different stakeholders interpret the situation of substance use in the nightlife? Why is the use of substances important to young people ("night owls")? What kind of problems do social workers report from their work in social care institutions?

And how do particular police operations in nightlife situations effect police officers' perception of young substance users?

In this debate we may expect to hear about young people who associate nightlife with freedom, socializing, and the absence of responsibilities and obligations. They seek quick and immediate experiences, and substance use fits perfectly in this urge for sensation (Calafat et al., 2003).

Young people consider the use of substances – particularly alcohol – as a normal habit when they go out. Whereas binge drinking is certainly problematic for several reasons of health, nuisance and violence, there is still a large number of youngsters who are moderate users or non-users. In regard to illicit substance use, Van Havere (2012) pointed out that half of those who go out at night use illegal substances, which gives the impression that using drugs is not dangerous for health. However, there are many triggers for adolescents to start using illicit substances, for example, rebellion, self-experience and edgework (Lyng 2008), relaxation and relief from strain, gaining energy. But in fact, curiosity is one of the strongest prompts for adolescents to get in contact with substances when they are together with peers.

Most young people will give positive reasons for substance use (Broekaert et al. 2010), but social workers and police officers will see experimentation with substances more problematic, although from different points of view: Social workers often consider substance users as victims of their circumstances, whereas police officers point to legal regulations and a number of negative side effects on the community and on public order and traffic safety.

This SWaPOL training shall provide an opportunity to determine practices at the interface of both professions. The interface between social work and policing may be defined as this:

1. **At the interface between social work and policing on the scene**, either police officers may consider non-intervention or social workers may consider a call for law enforcement.
2. **At the interface between social work and policing in general**, representatives of the two professions engage in planning and conducting prevention measures together.
3. **At the interface between social work and policing**, harm reduction and crime prevention must be concepts that both professions can accept as maxims in their contribution to public order management.

Police officers will have to discuss:

- When can they practice non-intervention?
- When do they need to practice law enforcement?
- How will legal regulations in the police act translate into decisions in practice?
- How will they apply the principle of proportionality on the scene?

- How do they contribute to harm reduction and individual health?
- What are the limits of confidentiality?

Social workers will have to discuss:

- Is there internal agreement about attitudes towards authorities?
- In which acute situations do they resort to police intervention?
- What is their contribution to public order management?
- How can they offer services to clients and also support the police in criminal investigation?
- How do they contribute to crime prevention?
- What are the limits of confidentiality?

In the context of prevention of substance use disorders, social work and police can work together in developing a policy towards a safer and healthier nightlife. Although social workers and police officers do not often meet at the nightlife scene, they can benefit from a positive attitude towards each other. What are some of the supporting and obstructing factors for collaboration?

"Police Assistants" in Belgium

Belgium has a long history of cooperation between welfare and justice institutions (Van Steenberg et al. 2015). From the introduction of a youth care system in 1912, the relationship between criminal justice institutions and welfare organisations has gone through various institutional changes until today. In recent times, collaboration and the allocation of professional roles between social work and the police has been subject to continuous research and evaluation.

Systematic joint training activities started with a pilot project from 2010 – 2014. This project investigated the quality of collaboration between social workers and the police in order to develop a training schedule dedicated to students of social work aiming for a placement in the police. The project highlighted the complexity of police work and various overlaps with social work in a wide range of topics such as youth care, social prevention and early intervention. The findings of the study are currently implemented in the curriculum of the bachelor's degree in social work at the University College Ghent (HoGent).

In a follow-up project in 2015, a particular training programme was designed for the special group of "Police Assistants". These officers have both a degree in social work and in policing. This extensive training schedule, including 4 modules and 310 hours, may be similar to special trainings in other countries, but it is outstanding for the fact that police officers in that training already hold a degree in social work. This seems to be unique in European policing organisations.

More recently, HoGent participated in an EU-funded project UPC-ADAPT²¹ (2016-2018) to further develop the original Universal Prevention Curriculum (UPC) and adapt it to European conditions. This 5-days training is dedicated to decision-, opinion- and policy makers such as local or regional prevention officers in leading positions, NGOs and other policy makers in public order management.

21 See: <https://upc-adapt.eu/>

Factors that support collaboration:

- Awareness about a symbiotic relationship for the benefit of the general public at nightlife: Social work and police need to find a good connection and at the same time avoid interference with the guiding principles of other professions.
- A good understanding of each other's work ethics, i.e. general goals, organisational constraints, working methods, single tasks and achievements.
- Clarity on mutual expectations - both in general prevention projects and on the scene.
- Awareness about potential prejudice in their own professional environment towards the other profession(s).

Collaboration sometimes requires a good facilitator, who coordinates activities, watches over processes, prepares conflicts for discussion, reviews and assesses progress in common activities (external evaluation).

Factors that obstruct collaboration:

- Political constraints
- Legal constraints
- Time constraints
- Organisational and bureaucratic constraints (lack of support) in decision making processes
- Unspoken prejudice, hostility and competition between the professions.
- Different cultures of proceedings: The police thinks that social workers take too much time to talk things through and respond too slow to current problems, whereas social workers think that police does not see the complexity of problems and acts too quick (Dewaele and Vander Laenen, 2014).
- Protection of professional confidentiality
- Lack of coordination and leadership in the collaboration process, e.g. in universal or selective prevention projects.

4. Learning activities

In this section of the handbook, we offer some ideas for an interactive design of the SWaPOL training. All of the following exercises have been developed and tested elsewhere, and we simply adopted and adapted them for this training.

4.1. Exercise 1: Perspectives on nightlife – Poster session and carousel

Overall description:

This exercise contributes to developing affective competences through new insights and mutual understanding of other points of view. Participants shall develop an empathy for young people in the nightlife and work out different responsibilities for control and support action.

Participants start from the assumption that they share the common goal of a safe and healthy nightlife. Participants discuss different perspectives on nightlife: How do young people, social workers and police officers describe the nightlife? In this exercise they examine similarities and differences in their perspectives on nightlife activities in the city and work out common solutions.

Materials:

- Flip charts
- Markers in green and red colours

Instructions:

Work on the following tasks in small mixed groups of 4 persons.

- Task 1 (group work): "What is the point of view on nightlife from the perspective of social work/ police/ youngsters? Look for positive (changes, opportunities), negative (annoying, bad) and challenging features".
- Task 2 (group work): "Mark in green the similar and in red the different perspectives"
- Task 3 (in plenum): "Discuss: How similar or different are our perspectives on nightlife?"
- Task 4 (group work): Create a poster using core words and drawings – be creative!
 1. "How can we overcome the differences in perspectives on nightlife?"
 2. "What are the responsibilities of each group towards a safe and healthy nightlife? Try to think out of the box and consider the different perspectives"
 3. "How can we achieve a situation that pleases everyone? What kind of responsibilities are there? Consider the different perspectives!"
- Task 5: Carousel: 2 persons stay with their poster; 2 persons visit other posters.
- Task 6: Conclusions: What do you "take home" from this exercise? Name at least one thing!

Time: 2 hours

4.2. Exercise 2: Classification of substances: The „Drugs Wheel“²²

Overall description:

This game has been professionally designed as a tool to help people understand the range and effects of some new psychoactive substances (NPS). It has been trialled in various settings with young people, adult substances users and a range of professionals working in various fields such as drugs workers, teachers and social workers.

Materials:

There are four elements to the game, the instructions, drug labels and descriptions (for you to cut out), and the board itself, which can be printed at A3 size. To download the material and instructions, visit the official page. A training video can be consulted.

*Instructions:*²³

The board has an outer and inner ring which allows for drugs to be split into different categories according to your needs: for example, legal/illegal, prescribed/non-prescribed etc.

Round 1: Ask participants to place the seven drug group definitions around the wheel and discuss each of the categories (a completed version is provided in the official instructions document). Make sure to highlight/elicit that many drugs overlap between categories.

Round 2: Ask participants to stick the drug labels on the wheel, placing them in the correct category, and inner or outer ring for the drug. Explain/elicit how prescription drugs can be both legal and illegal depending on whether you have a prescription.

Points can be given to each team; for example, one point for placing the drug in the right category, and a second point for placing the drug correctly in the inner or outer ring.

Discussion:

At the end of this exercise, the participants discuss the substances in the plenary:

- Which substances do you know from your professional work?
- Which substances are most dangerous? (This provocative question will trigger a discussion on forms of addiction, polydrug use, legal/illegal substances and behaviour etc.).

Time: 1 hour

22 Licensing Information: The Drugs Wheel by Mark Adley is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License. Based on a work at www.thedrugswheel.com.

For further licensing details visit www.thedrugswheel.com/?page=licence

23 http://www.thedrugswheel.com/game/DWG_Instructions_2_3.pdf

4.3. Exercise 3: Quiz on substance use

Overall description:

This exercise can be applied when high proficiency and high expertise in the field is assumed. The quiz can be arranged on the model of a "Pub Quiz": Traditionally, a quiz master poses questions in relatively fast flow and teams of max. 8-10 persons have only a short time to answer before the next question is asked. Also, traditionally the pub quiz is played with pen and paper. In this case teams should keep a copy of their answer sheet, to check their answers against the correct answers in the end. There should be a strict no-cheating rule (no smart-phones!).

At the SWaPOL training the online tool Kahoot (<https://kahoot.com/>) may be used. In that case working in pairs may be preferable. For example, this tool is well suited for asking for guesses about national, international and global prevalence and incidence rates.

Materials:

Participants should log in on kahoot and type answers into their smart-phone / tablet when prompted. Alternatively, other online communication platforms such as bigbluebutton also offer the function of surveys.

Example questions:

Question	Answer
How many % do you think, of the people worldwide used at least 1 illegal substance over the last year?	5 %
Of those users, how many % do you think use in a problematic way?	12%
Of those problematic users, how many of them get treatment for their substance use disorder?	2 out of 12
What is the most common party drug in your country?	Alcohol
What is the second most common party drug in your country?	Cannabis
What is the third most common party drug in your country?	XTC (?)
True or false? Alcohol is the substance that causes most health- and safety risks during nightlife.	True
True or false? Sporadic substance use leads to problematic substance use	false, whether someone gets in trouble with his use, depends on the interactions between several factors
True or false? When substance use increases, is sustained and escalates, a person can still fulfil most of his roles and responsibilities	True
True or false: The most common pattern of use is non-problematic	True

The quiz master should be able to give (scientific) evidence for his/her correct answers.

Alternative exercise:

Use a Kahoot Quiz at the end of a day in a review session to check how much participants remember from lectures during the day (without marking).

Time: 45 minutes

4.4. Exercise 4: Case analysis on collaboration

Overall description:

Participants work on real life situations towards a good practice collaboration of social work and police. These situations shall be discussed, first, in terms of "traditional policing", and second, in terms of "community policing and harm reduction". Participants in mixed groups work out prevention plans and refer to the given models presented above.

Materials:

Copies of particular graphics used in the lecture are distributed to the class:

- The Zinberg (1983) model "risk of developing a substance use disorder"
- The aetiological model of risk
- The EMCDDA (2019a: 35) risk factors model
- Definitions of harm reduction and prevention levels (environmental, universal, selective, indicated prevention)

Instructions:

The class is separated into groups, and each group receives a "case" (see below).

On the basis of risk models and prevention levels, each group shall work out a strategy that integrates prevention, harm reduction and problem solving.

Course leaders can make up new cases, but here are some examples:

- Case 1: The city council receives regular complains about a local youth hostel: Young people, clearly under influence of alcohol or other substances, make a lot of noise until late at night; cars are driving on and off the venue; loud music is played until late; allegedly there is drug dealing around the youth hostel. During the last month, the police have been called several times at

weekends, and last week a young woman was admitted to hospital due to alcohol misuse. The city council has contacted the police and the local youth services in order to deal with this problem.

- Case 2: The police has received many complaints about incidents in and around the night club "Dancing Queen": Drunk driving, drug dealing, nuisance, affrays. Recently a concerned mother of a 17-year-old girl reported that her daughter has been sexually harassed by a young man at the club. Further investigations have shown that the young lady was at the night club for many hours, very much engaged in the scene, drinking, taking XTC pills, and having unsafe sex with a man in the park nearby. She was embarrassed to come home late and made up that story of sexual harassment as an excuse for staying out all night. How do you interpret the situation? What will you do?
- Case 3: Over a long time, people have complained to the police about the place in and around a metro station, which is a regular meeting place for the drug scene. This metro station is nearby a drug counselling centre, where people with a drug dependency can go for treatment and where needle exchange is offered. People complain about highly intoxicated persons hanging around in the station, about harassment and open drug dealing. After the recent elections, a zero-tolerance policy for drug dealing is pronounced by the new city government. What will you do?
- Case 4: There is a notorious rave club in town. Every night the club is crowded with people dancing to psychedelic trance music. The venue is famous for its special light and sound effects and artistic live shows. However, this is connected with the consumption of illegal "new psychoactive substances" (NPS), and regularly there are cases of sickness and overdose. A social work organisation has established a mobile drug testing service near the entrance where users can get their substances checked anonymously. On the other hand, the police drug unit claims that the police must do their job and investigate drug dealing. As a social worker, you hear there are secret plans about a police-raid next Friday night. What will you do?

The cases will be discussed in the groups with reference to the risk models and prevention levels. A step-by-step strategy shall be elaborated and then presented to the plenary.

There should be sufficient time for presentation and discussion of the cases in the plenary.

The moderator will sum up and draw conclusions from the single cases.

Time: 3 hours or more

- Repetition of risk models and prevention levels (if needed): 10 minutes
- Work on cases: 40 minutes
- Group presentations: 2 hours (30 minutes each case)
- Conclusions: 10 minutes

5. Questions for review

- Please describe the aetiological risk model and explain the main factors that influence the development of substance use disorders.
- Discuss the main differences between universal, selective and indicated prevention.
- Please make a suggestion for developing a partnership to address substance use in the public transport system. What are the challenges for that partnership? How should the information sharing process be coordinated?
- What is the role of the police in a cooperation with social workers regarding substance use in nightlife?

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Module 3: Homelessness

1. Objectives

- Explore the multidimensional processes of exclusion and marginalisation in public space
- Introduction to „Problem-oriented policing“: Case management, conflict resolution, care work
- Focus on risk factors: Housing, gentrification, displacement, mental illness

2. Intended competences

- *Cognitive learning outcomes:*

Know the categories of the European typology of homelessness and housing exclusion (FEANTSA)
Ability to critically discuss forms and consequences of social exclusion, marginalisation and homelessness

Understand the codes of conduct of police officers in cases of complaints against homeless persons
Understand the formal responsibilities and ethical codes of conduct of professional groups working with homeless people

Ability to enhance or redefine channels of communication with other professions

- *Affective learning outcomes:*

Show understanding for duties of other professions

Be aware of verbal and body language of vulnerable people as well as their daily rituals and routines in street life

Develop empathy and tolerance towards homeless persons and their appropriation of public space

- *(Psycho-)Motoric learning outcomes:*

Understand and use the vocabulary of other professions

Develop skills in conflict management between user groups in public space

Ability to develop a manual of common procedures in coping with homeless persons in terms of ethics and modes of conduct.

3. Keynote themes

3.1 The problem of homelessness

Homelessness appears simple to define but is in fact a multifaceted and complex problem. In a simple definition, a homeless person is someone without a home, caused by a multitude of factors concerning his/her life trajectory. It may be someone without a job, someone with a mental health issue, someone with an addiction problem, or simply someone without any financial resources. However, what is actually understood as a homeless person varies from country to country. In fact, in many cases the official definition reflects political currents rather than actual reality of homeless people.

This module recognizes four major problems that need to be addressed by professionals in police and social work together:

- First, the problem of homelessness cannot be defined in simple terms such as “persons without a home”. Instead, it has to be acknowledged that homelessness is a multifaceted and complex issue that must be addressed in a multidisciplinary approach.
- Second, the last decade in Europe has witnessed the rise of socio-economic constraints – migration, the economic crisis, political unrest, the COVID19 pandemic – that have aggravated the risk of homelessness for social groups that are most vulnerable to social isolation.
- Third, some people experience direct confrontation with poverty as uncomfortable, intimidating or frightening, and therefore homeless persons are reported to the police as a sign of social disorder.
- Fourth, there is a lack of collaboration between authorities and social welfare institutions to address issues of homelessness in a consensual and humane way.

FEANTSA (the European Federation of National Organizations Working with the Homeless) supports the change from a simplistic to a wider definition, taking into account a wide spectrum of social circumstances. It is claimed that there is a continuum between the state of homelessness and a stable home, that contains and conceals many facets of the problem (Toro & Janisse, 2004). The purpose of accepting an understanding of homelessness as a continuum rather than as a straightforward definition is to widen the scope of possible responses and to embrace aspects such as housing policies, welfare policies and migrant integration policies.

The European Typology of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion (ETHOS), developed by FEANTSA, describes three dimensions that are necessary for secure housing and clearly reflects this wider definition: "Having an adequate dwelling (or space) over which a person and his/her family can exercise exclusive possession (*physical domain*); being able to maintain privacy and enjoy relations (*social domain*) and having a legal title to occupation (*legal domain*)" (see table xy). The typology defines 4 broad categories according to a person's living situation: "rooflessness, houselessness, insecure housing, and inadequate housing".

- First, the ETHOS typology describes rooflessness as “people living rough and people in emergency accommodation”.
- Second, houselessness which includes those who live in institutions or shelters and cannot, for various reasons, acquire a home. ETHOS describes them as “people in accommodation for the homeless, in women’s shelters, in accommodation for migrants, people due to be released from institutions and people receiving long-term support due to homelessness”.
- The third type is insecure housing, relating to those people who, despite having a home, live in vulnerable or extreme conditions. For example, occupation of dwelling with no legal tenancy, illegal occupation of a dwelling and people living under threat of eviction.
- The fourth typology relates to inadequate accommodation, for example, in mobile homes, homes unfit for habitation and living under extreme conditions of over-crowding.

Many other (national) institutions define categories that revolve around these four major categories. In Portugal, for example, ENIPSSA – the National Strategy for the Integration of People in a Homeless Situation 2017-2023, defines two typologies that can roughly be translated as, precisely, rooflessness and houselessness (ENIPSSA, 2018a). Similar to the categories defined by ETHOS, for ENIPSSA roofless people are those who live on the streets, under bridges, in railway stations, in parks, but also in emergency shelters or in precarious locations (factories, cars, abandoned houses). People without a home are those living in temporary quarters, and who require a social response by Social Security entities. The Institute of Social Security in Portugal (2005) further divides chronic rooflessness (those living in the streets for years, characterized by acute helplessness, physical and mental illness, and physical degradation) and new rooflessness (those new to the streets after personal, family or professional losses, and who require quick mediation mechanism to rebuild their life projects) (ISS, 2005: 15).

Miguel, Ornelas & Maroco (2010) call attention to the fact that the way homelessness is defined is crucial to determine the amount of the homeless population, and consequently to the development of response strategies. Hence the need to reach a global definition of homelessness, transversal at national and international scales, something that is still not happening today.

The rise of socio-economic constraints in Europe

For the past decade Europe has been under socio-economic pressure caused by both continental and global threats. Even though official Eurostat data reports a decrease in the number of people at risk of social exclusion in Europe, global phenomena such as the health crisis or political unrest (African and Middle East countries) have led to the increase of social vulnerabilities (Ranci et al., 2014). Austerity policies (including cuts in welfare, wages and pensions) and the recent economic crisis has led to the rise of unemployment, led many families and business to bankruptcy, and caused the emergence of new types of poverty. Housing conditions have declined, and so have access to basic services and socio-economic benefits (Frazer and Marlier, 2011). Along with a growing inflow of underprivileged

migrant population, such succession of events has contributed to increasing poverty concentration, spatial segregation and social inequalities (Madanipour and Weck, 2015).

The most vulnerable groups, such as low-skilled people, migrants, the elderly and the homeless, have been particularly affected by a social crisis that has occurred in many European countries, following the political, economic and health crisis, particularly where welfare support is heavily based on family networks and social capital. Recent data shows that

- every night around 410,000 persons are sleeping in the streets of European cities (considering both roofless and houseless)
- around three million homeless persons in Europe are supported by social welfare systems, and
- an astounding 4.1 million people at the risk of homelessness every year (FEANTSA, 2019).

The data also reveals that homelessness has increased in Europe with the economic crisis and that between 2008 and 2014 the number of people at risk of poverty or social exclusion in the EU27 increased from 116 million to 121 million. Furthermore, in 15 out of 21 European countries analysed by Project "HOME_EU - Homeless as unfairness", homelessness has increased in the last 5 years; in particular, women, youth, families and migrants are experiencing homelessness²⁴.

Furthermore, the last twenty years have seen an increase of the migration fluxes towards European countries. The UN estimates that over a million migrants have arrived in Europe on the last years via the Mediterranean Sea. 362,000 crossed it in 2016, over 100.000 in 2017, 134.000 in 2018 and 106.200 in 2019²⁵. This has led to population growth and increasing pressure in the social fabric and on job and housing markets. With the COVID19 health crisis, many of the expectations and hopes of these immigrants have turned into failure. Thus, it is estimated that approximately 10% of immigrants live in a situation of homelessness, noting their failure to be included in the foster society (Fitzpatrick et al., 2012). Studies consider that we are facing a new wave of homelessness or 'neo-homelessness' (Theodorikakou et al., 2013).

Case-study example: Facts and figures from Portugal

According to the Portuguese 2011 National Census, there were just about 696 homeless people in Portugal, with Lisbon leading as the city with the greatest number (INE, 2014; PORDATA, 2019). However, a survey conducted by the Portuguese Social Security Institute in 2009 identified 2,133 homeless people on one night in Portugal (63% were located in Lisbon and Porto) and that out of this total, 922 were sleeping rough, 1,088 were living in homeless shelters, 43 were institutionalised (in mental health centres and prisons) and 80 were uncategorized (FEANTSA). In Lisbon, more recent and comparable data provided by Santa Casa da Misericórdia de Lisboa (the entity responsible for social action in the city), collected in a two-night counts of people sleeping rough and people sleeping in homeless

24 <https://cordis.europa.eu/project/id/726997>

25 https://ec.europa.eu/info/strategy/priorities-2019-2024/promoting-our-european-way-life/statistics-migration-europe_en#illegalbordercrossings

shelters, in 2013 and 2015, identified 852 and 818 homeless people respectively. Regarding Porto, the Planning and Intervention Centre for Homeless People (NPISA) provides data for 2013, reporting 1,300 homeless people in accommodation and around 300 homeless sleeping in the street per night. Also in 2013, the organisation AMI (International Medical Assistance) supported 1,679 people who were in a homeless situation, of which 546 were being supported by AMI for the first time (76% were men, 50% were aged between 40 and 59 years old, 20% were between 30 and 39 years old, 79% were born in Portugal). The latest evaluation report on the implementation of the Portuguese National Homelessness Strategy (ENIPSA) for the period 2009-2015 indicates that the social security services registered in 2016 a total of 4,003 beneficiaries of “active homelessness case files” in Portugal.

In terms of gender, there is a prevalence of males around 40 years old (Monteiro et al., 2013). Another relevant aspect for the characterization and understanding of this phenomenon in Portugal is the fact that the majority of homeless individuals in Portugal are of Portuguese nationality. With regard to educational levels, the vast majority of homeless people only have basic education (complete 1st or 3rd cycle), and it should be noted that only a minority (8%) have Secondary Education and 13% classified as having no education level. Regarding the reasons that led to the homeless lifestyle, the main ones were the situations of unemployment (129 individuals), retirement (87 individuals) or the presence of some kind of disability (57 individuals).

Considering the incidence of migration on the homeless population, we can highlight in Portugal the presence of homeless immigrants from PALOPs (Portuguese-speaking African countries), followed by individuals from Ukraine or other eastern countries such as Romania (6%) (Monteiro et.al., 2013). Although Brazilian immigration is currently quite pronounced, at the time of this report, only 6% were homeless, therefore in this field we can again question the roles of agencies responsible for social integration, as individuals of other nationalities have greater difficulties vis-à-vis the community. Factors such as language, skin colour or levels of education matter.

The authors also mention that 4% of homeless people have Eastern origins, namely India, Pakistan or Bangladesh, and only 5% come from European countries such as Italy, Spain or Germany. Considering the findings of this report of the Immigration Observatory (2013) regarding the length of staying of homeless individuals in Portugal, it should also be noted that most of the interviewed individuals refer to be in Portugal over 5 years ago (Reis & Gomes, 2016). Individuals from PALOP are those who remain in a homeless situation for the longest (30% have been homeless for over 5 years) as opposed to individuals from Brazil, Romania and Western European countries – these were the ones who were in a homeless situation for less time, ie less than 6 months.

Since many homeless immigrants have very poor health conditions (the most common diseases are diabetes and HIV, combined with alcohol abuse or psychotic outbreaks), the role of health institutions is again at stake here, as these issues are also of the public health domain (Monteiro et al., 2013).

3.2 What has the police got to do with homelessness?

Homelessness appears to many people as a straightforward phenomenon that can be found in cities around the world. It has become a normal fact, and citizens have become indifferent to people who live in the streets. This general blasé attitude is also played out towards obvious poverty in society. In 1903, the German sociologist Georg Simmel wrote:

"There is perhaps no psychic phenomenon that has been so unconditionally reserved to the metropolis as has the blasé attitude. ... The essence of the blasé attitude is an indifference toward the distinctions between things. Not in the sense that they are not perceived, as in the case of mental dullness, but rather that the meaning and the value of the distinctions between things, and here-with of the things themselves, are experienced as meaningless. They appear to the blasé person in a homogeneous, flat and grey colour with no one of them worthy of being preferred to the other" (Simmel 1903; in: Bridge and Watson 2010, p. 103ff.).

Moving through the city has become anonymous and there is little personal communication between strangers in public space. This introverted silence can cause odd situations: Some people are irritated when confronted by a stranger who asks for the way. In direct confrontations with homeless persons (also with beggars, mentally impaired, and intoxicated persons) this irritation converts to discomfort, and some people experience this kind of confrontation as fear. In their reaction during direct confrontations with homeless persons, many people react in a disparaging and demeaning way. Alternatively, many people turn to the police and complain about signs of social disorder, including homelessness, drunkenness, begging, racketeering and noisiness.

From this we conclude that social disorder is a multi-dimensional *social* problem. In this particular case, it is not only a matter between the police and the homeless, but rather a matter between three parties: the police, the homeless, and the general public who raise complaints about the homeless.

For discussion:

- Why do you think complaints to the police about social disorder are increasing? Is social disorder aggravating? Have people become more sensitive to social disorder? Has the function of the police changed? Are there other institutions to solve problems of disorder?
- Discuss the term fear of crime in relation to other feelings such as discomfort, unease, anxiety, worry, stress, perceived risk, perceived threat (Farrall et al. 2009).
- (How) do studies on fear of crime contribute to criminalizing anti-social behaviour? (Rodger, 2008).

The police are dealing with problems of social disorder in two ways: First, they need to react to complaints ad hoc. Second, they take part in systematic problem-solving interventions in a multi-agency approach.

Ad hoc reactions

In the first place, the police will assess the situation with regard to the law. Here, the police will refer to the police act, to the federal administrative law, to the general penal code, or to local security codes enacted by local councils.

Examples from Austria:

- The police are required to offer first aid in situations of danger for life, health, freedom and property. This also means that they need to call for professional help, and this includes – next to ambulance and fire brigade – also institutions of social work.
- Nuisance and annoyance are defined in the criminal code as disturbances of public order, which comprises the totality of informal rules for behaviour in public. These nuisances are relevant to the police if they affect the normal happenings on a public place.
- More particularly, disorderly conduct is included in the Vienna Security Code in terms of acting against "public propriety" and "undue noisiness".
- Next, the police code regulates the reaction of a police officer to the persistence of a disorderly behaviour and to individual resistance to warnings. Persistent aggressive behaviour against a police officer may lead to arrest.
- "Aggressive behaviour against the police" is defined as "aggressive gestures" or "shouting with the police officer".
- The police code offers a lenient approach when a perpetrator is severely under the influence of substances (e.g. alcohol: >3‰) and impose the minimum penalty of 500,- € (§83 SPG).
- Begging is regulated differently in Austrian cities: In Vienna, begging must not be "intrusive", "aggressive", "commercial" or "organised in a group". In the city of Salzburg, in addition to these rules, begging from door to door is prohibited, and begging may be forbidden altogether, if the communal wellbeing is likely to be disturbed.

Police officers must have these and other regulations in mind when they are confronted with public disorder, including begging and anti-social behaviour. It is then up to the police officer to assess the situation and decide what to do about it, and in many cases the law enforcement approach is given precedence over the problem-solving approach. On the other hand, law enforcement in connection with poverty is also frustrating for police officers since fines often cannot be collected and the same person will return to the same place after a short alternative prison sentence. Here, the collaboration with social workers can contribute to a de-escalation in critical situations.

Community policing and prevention partnerships

The introduction of "community policing" has prompted the police in many countries to establish special units to cope with social conflict in a systematic way and to guarantee safety and security for all

on a local level. In this way, community policing officers take the role as conflict managers and work towards a reconciliation of interests in the society. These partnerships include institutions of social work, but also invite local residents, representatives from housing associations, shopping malls, municipal services, medical centres, gastronomy, public transport services and local residents. In regard to the problem of homelessness, a number of welfare institutions shall be included to reduce the number of people who live under precarious circumstances.

In many countries community crime prevention partnerships have been established on a local level to tackle problems of social disorder systematically, and this sometimes means to call for more tolerance towards the most vulnerable in society. Crime prevention partnerships provide a platform to discuss solutions to social conflicts on a general level, aloof from single cases that call for urgent solutions. These platforms may serve as bridges between the professions of social work and police. Unfortunately, we see that building these bridges is more complicated than it seems. But why are these bridges so important? And why is a partnership approach to tackle homelessness so important?

First, we see from the discussion above that two approaches can be distinguished: individualistic and systematic. On an individual level, low-threshold work of social workers is indispensable to give homeless persons immediate support. However, we see that ad hoc police intervention on that level is problematic as they often (must) act as legal authorities to control public order. Therefore, we may conclude that it is most effective to collaborate systematically on a structural level, where policies to tackle homelessness can be developed in a shared responsibility by various institutions.

Secondly, prevention partnerships can help qualify the general (negative) picture of homeless persons that may exist in the police. The perpetuation of stereotypes associated with homelessness such as mental illness, alcoholism, drug use, and criminality are detrimental to positive and constructive approaches of prevention and problem solving in a community.

All players in community partnerships should be committed to look at homelessness as a social process with multiple risk factors: personal vulnerability, broken family networks, poor education, unemployment and economic limitations on the housing market. This approach is more akin to the design of local, regional and national public policies on integration of people who experience homelessness in one form or another.

3.3 The three-steps approach

The SWaPOL module on homelessness shall encourage participants to elaborate effective forms of cooperation and networking for multi-professional interventions in order to integrate homeless people in the community. In this way the group shall follow a *selective prevention* methodology to work with vulnerable groups and address risk factors for homelessness and social isolation. These risk factors include, among others, housing conditions, gentrification, displacement, alcoholism, drug consumption, and mental illness.

As a starting point, we suggest a three-step approach that covers *prevention, intervention and community integration*.

Prevention

The first step, prevention, relates to a close monitoring of the risk factors that may affect or have already been proven to affect homelessness. This includes, first, the definition of homelessness as well as the political and socio-economic contexts and multidimensional processes that lead to situations of homelessness, social exclusion and marginalization. The model will cover a set of statistical indicators of the past decade, related to aspects such as migration, the economic crisis, the COVID19-pandemic, unemployment, poverty, housing conditions, behaviours of risk and dependencies or mental health. Mapping the statistical trends and the risk factors will help participants understand the social but also the regional contexts of these phenomena. Monteiro (2013) notes, that both homeless persons and migrants are often invisible in society and difficult to reach, and a segment of the population for whom information is often unreliable or not available at all.

This part of the module will answer questions related to the risk factors of specific countries/ case-studies where the module is being implemented as:

- What are the recent political and socio-economic trends of the country?
- Has there recently been a recession?
- How has it affected the social sphere?
- Has there been an inflow of migrants?
- Has unemployment and poverty increased?
- •Have social benefits decreased? Have risk behaviours increased?
- How many homeless persons are counted in a certain district, city or region?
- How are they distributed to sub-groups of roofless and houseless?
- How are they distributed/concentrated in the country and in a particular urban area?
- How many persons are at risk of becoming homeless?

These questions will help practitioners collect information on a macro level to establish an inventory of homelessness in the country, which will then allow them to highlight policy deficits in the collaboration of several sectors such as housing, health insurance and social work.

For discussion: Where in your city / region do you think this information is collected? Which institutions would you turn to in order to obtain this information?

Intervention

The second step, intervention, relates to the set of procedures aimed at helping homeless persons in their current situation. Here, more specific questions related to profiles of homeless persons and life trajectories need to be answered, at least considered by the students. These are, for example:

- Where do the homeless currently live (poor housing conditions, non-conventional dwelling, living with relatives, social housing)?
- What is the predominant risk of becoming homeless in this community or region: unemployment, bankruptcy, lack of family or state support, eviction, victim of domestic violence?
- What are the socio-demographic determinants for homelessness in this community or region: age, gender, level of education, relationship status, employment?
- What is their residency status?
- What is their daily routine?
- •Where to they sleep, eat, use sanitary facilities?
- Where do they get support, if any?
- What are their ambitions for reintegration? Do they accept assistance?
- How do they experience their daily living? – Loneliness, exclusion?
- What is their personal territory in public space?
- What is their perception of time?
- What is the role of animals?
- What is their major health problem? Do they suffer from sleep deprivation?
- What is their relationship with the police and social workers?

As participants reflect on these questions it will become apparent how difficult it is to obtain data about the homeless. Participants should therefore be aware of the role of police and social workers also as data collectors, to further support research, action and policies.

For discussion: Where in your city / region do you think this information is collected? Which institutions would you turn to in order to obtain this information?

Community integration

The third step, community integration, relates to the multidisciplinary intervention that is required to provide homeless persons with the necessary resources to stimulate their social integration. It is crucial in this module to develop and train professional competences that allow social workers and the police to work together in partnership. By exploring simulated and real scenarios of intervention (through didactical exercises and a case study visit) common grounds for action should be devised. The purpose is to encourage participants from the police and from social work to understand that collaboration is more effective than the sum of individual actions. Furthermore, this step also aims to explore and identify, in a specific national/regional/local context, the underpinning conditions to implement effective partnerships between social workers and police officers. Questions arise such as:

- What are the best channels of communication – personal, electronic?
- Is there agreement on a common language, e.g. what is prevention?
- Is it possible to develop a kind of routine in the cooperation? Regular meetings, workshops, casual visits, etc.
- What modes of intervention exist or should be established to reverse the trend in homelessness in the city/region?

This module not only intends to raise discussions about consensus, challenges and constraints that may occur between professions in their work or confrontation with homeless persons. It also aims to fine-tune the competences in interventions. What is the role of each profession? And how can they coordinate their interaction (together or separately) with homeless persons in order to foster their integration?

These are perhaps the most crucial step in the SWaPOL training in a highly dynamic environment:

1. The commitment to work together in an institutional context
2. problem analysis
3. decision on interventions
4. coordinate actions

The module aims at exploring these dynamics, opening pathways for professional interaction and fruitful cooperation in the future.

Good practice: The Lisbon Community Policing Model

The community policing strategy implemented by the Municipal Police of Lisbon Municipality was built from the necessity of having a policing model which focuses on a more preventive approach and more open to the citizen's participation. Through a preventive approach and an effective and trustful relationship between police, citizens and local partner associations, it aims to reach more efficient and sustainable responses when addressing security problems at local level.

The community policing model developed in Lisbon is a model of policing focused on the analysis of causes of community problems identified by citizens, trying to understand why they occur (sometimes continuously), and mobilizing police and community resources to mitigate and prevent them. In this sense, the police put priority on working together with community representatives to have a better knowledge about the concerns on insecurity felt by citizens. As a consequence, community partnerships develop responses together with the police to solve problems, and to contribute to reduce feelings of insecurity. Therefore, through this model of policing, focused on strategic partnerships and on

problem solving, both police and citizens/partners work together to not only identify the community problems, but to reflect and understand why they systematically occur and to mobilize community resources for mitigation and prevention.

The community policing in Lisbon integrates the concept as a philosophy promoting organizational strategies that support the systematic use of partnerships and problem-solving techniques to proactively address the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime (COPS, US Department of Justice, 2014). In this sense, with the goal of diminishing neighbourhood incivilities and to increase the sense of safety of the citizens, the community policing addresses security concerns felt by the community with a main focus on: i) crime prevention; ii) public space intervention; iii) non-crime anti-social behaviour and iv) improvement of police-citizen relationship. To this end, the Community Policing Team, in close articulation with local partners and residents - the “Security Group partnership” - identifies and contribute to solve various problems of insecurity in the territory, namely public space interventions that meet the residents’ concerns (e.g. land clearing of shrubbery in areas where there was traffic and drug use nearby schools or the improving and replacement of lighting in public space). The “Security Group” is a police-community security partnership, where police, local partners and residents meet on a monthly basis (e.g. police; resident’s associations from social and private housing; health centres; charities; parent’s associations; schools; non-profits; municipality services).

Following the pilot-experience on developing a community policing in Lisbon in Alta de Lisboa, since 2009, in close cooperation with citizens and local partners, the model is being transferred to other districts in Lisbon, embedding these approaches that have been crucial to set in place collective responses to tackle local security concerns, by engaging citizens and local partners to work with the police as co-producers of community safety. In 2017 the Lisbon Municipal Council for the first time incorporated in the city goals a measure to “Extend the Community Policing projects of the Lisbon Municipal Police to more neighbourhoods in the city based on a participatory approach of local partners and citizens, aiming to increase the security in the neighbourhoods.” (CML, 2018-2021 Multi-year Plan of Lisbon City).

Working in partnerships with social and health care organisations allows community policing officers in Lisbon to develop personal, technical and communication skills that are needed to jointly address situations of greater complexity. Therefore, networking with outreach teams that work with drug users and homeless people further supports these skills and facilitates the delivery of more effective and sustainable responses over time.

4. Learning Activities

In this section of the handbook, we offer some ideas for an interactive design of the SWaPOL training. All of the following exercises have been developed and tested elsewhere, and we simply adopted them for this training.

4.1 Exercise 1: "Improvisation Theatre"

Overall description:

Mixed groups of participants develop real scenarios from their professional experience and then perform these scenarios in front of the class. The scenario includes a conflict situation of public disorder (e.g., homelessness, substance abuse, drunkenness, vandalism, rowdiness, etc.), involving different groups of people (elderly, youth, homeowner, shop assistant, bar keeper, dogs, social worker, police, neighbours, etc. etc.). At the moment when the situation seems to escalate the group will "freeze", and the audience will make suggestions on how to continue the scene and bring it to an ending. The exercise may be repeated with different groups of actors.

Materials:

- Separate rooms for the groups to prepare their scenarios secretly
- Inventory available and as needed
- A "stage" for playing the scenario

Instructions:

Step 1 (max. 30 minutes):

- Form mixed sub-groups of 5-6 persons
- Each sub-group develops one scenario from their professional experience
- Different roles are distributed within each group to play the scenario

Step 2 (max. 10 minute):

- All groups return to the plenary room and one group begins to perform their scenario. The actors stop ("freeze") at the moment when the situation seems to escalate.

Step 3 (max. 10 minutes):

- The audience now makes suggestions how to continue the scene and how it could end

Step 4 (max. 10 minutes):

- The group of actors perform their original ending to the scenario.

Repeat with scenarios from other groups

Time: 60 – 120 minutes

4.2 Exercise 2: "Media report – documentary, newspaper article etc."

Overall description:

Participants listen to a radio/TV documentary on homelessness in the city and discuss the problem to find a solution that is consistent with the idea of community policing and working in partnership.

Materials:

- Radio documentary on homelessness
- TV documentary on homelessness
- Newspaper article on homelessness

Instructions:

- Listen to the documentary / read the article
- Groupwork to discuss major arguments, data, stereotypes in the documentary
- Discuss solutions to the problems presented in the documentary in the plenary

Time: Depending on the length of the documentary: max. 60 minutes

4.3 Exercise 3: "Wishful thinking" in a fictional press conference

Overall description:

At the end of a successful day in a partnership meeting on the problem of homelessness, police and social workers are invited to a press conference to report on the findings and conclusions from their meeting. Social workers and police officers prepare their statements about an agreement separately. Each group will present a set of measures that will be taken together in the near future to mitigate the problem of homelessness: What did you agree, and what did you decide in the meeting?

Then the conference is performed, and the statements will be read out to the public. The journalists as observers of the press conference will then report on the two statements. Do the statements complement each other, or did the two groups come up with different conclusions?

The purpose of this exercise is to discover and exchange between the professional groups "wishful thinking" about solutions to a problem. This will also reveal certain images about working in partnerships and applying community policing.

Materials:

- Separate rooms
- High tables, microphones and cameras (or simulation dummies) to play a press conference

Instructions:

- Three groups are formed: (1) Social workers, (2) Police, (3) journalists
- Each professional group sends one person to the fictional press conference to announce a positive outcome from a full day of work in a community policing / partnership meeting on the problem of homelessness in the city.
- Participants from the police and social work prepare their statement on a successful agreement in separate rooms. They make notes for their presentation – either keywords or prepare a full text.
- The press conference takes place – the representatives read out their statements.
- Two journalists speak to each other: Person 1 in the TV studio; person 2 at the press conference. Person 2 will report about the similarities and differences of the two statements.

Time: 60 minutes

4.4 Exercise 4: Develop a "code of conduct" for collaboration in partnership between social work and police

Overall description:

The development of a "code of conduct" helps participants to get started with a real partnership on a local level. Before they start a political debate on WHAT shall be done, they elaborate on the way HOW to communicate with each other. A "code of conduct" for communication will prepare the basis for a polite and constructive collaboration between different interest groups. The SWaPOL training may be the right environment to develop these communication rules.

Participants present a kind of "wish list" on fair and constructive interaction with one another.

Mixed groups shall guarantee the focus on communication skills and avoid at this point content-related demands from the other profession. Also, working in mixed groups in this exercise already activates communication skills between the professions and helps overcome antagonisms.

Materials:

Flip charts and pens

Instructions:

- In groupwork, participants work out basic rules on communication:
 - Language used in the field towards clients
 - Language of communication between professionals in the partnership
 - Timing (formal / informal meetings)
 - Channels of communication: personal meeting, telephone, electronic correspondence
 - External consultancy and moderation
 - Place of meeting (neutral place?)
- One group starts presenting their "rules of conduct" (flip charts)
- Other groups add what they think is missing

Time: 45 minutes

4.5 Exercise 5: Excursion

Overall description:

Participants walk together through problem areas in the city to observe real life situations of homelessness. Then, participants visit care organisations in small groups to get an impression of the characteristics of daily work with people in precarious situations.

These visits are combined with short introductions of leading officials and care workers at these locations. Meeting volunteer personnel at the institution is important to break down communication barriers (e.g. surprise effect in unannounced contact with police authorities).

These presentations shall be combined with an introductory lecture on the concept "housing first"²⁶. Education videos are available on the European website: <https://housingfirsteurope.eu/>

Materials:

Individual paper-notebooks and pen

²⁶ An overview of the strategy and implementation in European countries can be found here (evaluation, reports, research, tools, and video material): <https://housingfirsteurope.eu/>

Instructions:

Step 1: Observation study

- Split up in small mixed groups and walk through a neighbourhood together
- Talk about signs of physical disorder (graffiti, broken windows, vandalism, quality of lighting, public toilets)
- Talk about signs of social disorder (features that may be considered as irritating, discomforting, frightening)
- When passing through, take note of the homeless and think about the biggest health problems of homeless persons; where they sleep; where they can use toilets; the quality of clothing; etc.

Step 2: Visit a care institution for the homeless

- Prepare questions you want to ask on numbers, changes, long-term care, daily routines, contact persons in particular problem situations
- Discuss particular action (and responsibilities) in situations when police need to contact this institution

Step 3: Back in class

- Discuss what you have learned
- Discuss what you have gained for the cooperation in the future

Time: 4-5 hours

5. Questions for review

- Homelessness is a multi-faceted phenomenon. Which policy areas are involved in the issue of homelessness?
- Make a suggestion for developing a partnership to address the problem of homelessness in the city where you live. What are the challenges for that partnership? Who should be included in that partnership?
- What is the role of the police in regard to homelessness?
- Does homelessness count as "anti-social behaviour"? Why / Why not?
- Explain the program Housing First and give examples.

Further reading:

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Annex: Collection of Keynote Themes and Learning Activities

	KEYNOTE THEMES	LEARNING ACTIVITIES
Module 1	Conditions of cooperation	Meet-and-greet at the marketplace
	Occupational cultures in policing and social work	"The Derdians" (game)
	Converging concepts: Multi-agency policing and principles of social work	Exchange of professional self-images
	Work methods in policing: Community policing, problem-oriented policing, proximity policing, place-based crime prevention	Word cloud
	Work methods in social work: Outreach work, single case work, social group work, community work, street work, socio-spatial analysis	Exchange educational training schemes for police officers and social workers
	Contact with and expectations from clients	Field visit: Joint socio-spatial analysis
Module 2	Introduction to substance use and the nightlife	Perspectives on nightlife – poster session and carousel
	Understanding substance use: risk models	"The Drugs Wheel" (classification of drugs)
	Prevention and harm reduction	Quiz on substances
	The legal framework on substance use (country specific)	Case analysis and collaboration
	First aid and overdose	
	Collaboration of social work and police in nightlife settings	
Module 3	The problem of homelessness: The complexity of policy fields (housing, health, unemployment, migration, etc.)	Improvisation theatre
	Typology of homelessness (FEANTSA)	Input: Media report – TV, radio programme, newspaper, social media etc.
	Socio-economic constraints in Europe	"Wishful thinking" – a fictional press conference
	What has the police got to do with homelessness?	Develop a "code of conduct" for good collaboration
	Ad hoc reactions in critical situations	Excursion: Observation and visit to facilities for the homeless – Introduction to "Housing First"
	Community policing and prevention partnerships for problems of social disorder	
	The "Three Steps Approach": Prevention, Intervention, Community Integration	



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