



# INTERPOL



## INTERNATIONAL POLICE TRAINING JOURNAL

Welcome to the fifth edition of  
INTERPOL's International police  
training journal

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The 5th edition of the INTERPOL International Police Training Journal brings you fascinating new insights from around the globe.

Our first article comes from a number of research studies done by Gregory P. Kratzig of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP), examining whether pistol shooting skills could be acquired in a simulated environment as effectively as in live-fire. They tested their theories out on new cadets, and their conclusions may prove very valuable for the future of firearms training.

Next, authors Kim Armstrong and Curtis Clarke explore the relationship between training and litigation. As litigation becomes increasingly a reality for most police agencies, they examine how training can reduce the risk of civil litigation and its more proactive role in broader risk mitigation.

Following this, the Police Psychological Services Division of the Singapore Police Force (SPF) brings us a discussion of how they developed the Leadership Competency Framework (LCF), and how the LCF was then translated into leadership development activities and leadership training. They cite several important lessons learned through this process which will be helpful to other countries seeking to follow suit.

Next is an article from China written by Li Yongtao, from the China Criminal Police University, and John Nixon from the School of Policing Studies, Charles Sturt University, which introduces the case study multi-dimensional teaching method, which has been implemented for many years in the police cadet training course of criminal investigation.

Finally, Ewa Wasiewski from the University of Alberta argues in favour of a developmental evaluation approach for the new Alberta Peace Officer Investigator Program, involving a continuous and ongoing evaluation throughout the curriculum process.

IGEPT would like to thank our editors – Dr Curtis Clarke (Canada), Norbert Unger (Germany), Kurt Eyre (UK), and Connie Patrick (USA) as well as all who contributed to this edition. Keep an eye out for our sixth edition, which will be published in the course of the year.



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# Simulated Pistol Training: The Future of Law Enforcement Training?

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## Introduction

Law enforcement officers have many tools at their disposal, whether it is a flashlight, OC-spray, their verbal communication skills, or their pistol. While these tools are all necessities for any police officer, they are not just given to a police officer without first being given extensive and formalized training on how and when to use each specific tool. Over time technological advances have improved the effectiveness of many of these tools (e.g., revolver vs. pistol), while other tools have seen subtle changes over time. One of the most significant advancements in the area of police training has been the development of simulation technology as an instructional tool; however, adoption of this technology has been slow. In an effort to determine the efficacy of simulation training the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) began a series of research studies designed to measure how they could use a simulated firearms range environment as a training tool. The following paper describes the outcomes of these studies.

In 2008 we began the first of several studies designed to determine if pistol shooting skills could be acquired in the simulated environment; however, we also investigated whether these skills could be acquired in the absence of both live-fire and recoil training, and the extent that these skills were transferable to a real-world setting. Typically pistol training occurs with the cadet shooting a specific number of rounds at a target placed a set distance away (3 - 25 m, depending on the stage), and for the vast majority of police organizations, their recruits are also trained in a similar fashion.

## Pilot Study

Before we began our research to see if simulation training could replace live-fire training, we decided to first conduct a pilot study with University of Regina, Police Studies students (MacLennan & Partyka, 2009). We chose this route because there was no empirical evidence to suggest that this type of training was effective, and as such did not want to risk RCMP cadets from this unknown method of instruction. However, at the conclusion of the pilot study we determined that pistol training can be conducted in a simulated range environment and that live-fire and recoil are not necessary to learn how to accurately shoot a pistol. In fact, training in this environment transfers directly to performance in a live-fire environment. The results of this pilot study laid the foundation for the next two studies.

## Materials

In order to become a regular member in the RCMP, each cadet is required to successfully complete an



Photo of 12 of 16 lanes of fire with cadets training in the simulated range

intensive 24-week training program, with pistol training occurring over eighteen-50 min sessions. Although this training traditionally occurs entirely on a live-fire range, these cadets would receive all of their pistol training in a synthetic range environment, shooting live rounds only during the three evaluation sessions (i.e., Benchmark 1, Benchmark 2, and Final Qualification). The pistol training was identical in every respect to live-fire training; however, they did all of their training with dry-fire laser-based pistols. The training system we used was the Advanced Interactive Systems PRISim trainer (AIS, 2010), who modified their existing software to recreate our RCMP pistol COF. The computerized system projects a digital 25 m range



Photo of 4 lanes of fire in the simulated range environment

complete with 16 lanes of fire (Illustration 1 and 2). Photos of our firearms range were taken and digitized to replicate, as close as possible, what the cadet would see if they were on the 25 m live-fire range at the academy (e.g., target carrier system, lighting, shadows, etc.). The targets used were jpeg images that were digitized to resemble the targets cadets use in training, but were resized to represent how they would appear when placed at distances of 3, 5, 7, 15 or 25 m. We used our standard Smith & Wesson model 5946 but modified it to emit a laser beam (e.g., all pistols were dry-fire weapons only). We also treated the simulated environment as if it was a live-fire range and adhered to all safety protocols including requiring the cadets to wear their duty belt, ear and eye protection, as well as body armor.

Pass/Fail Percentage as a Function of Live-fire Trained vs. Synthetic-fire Trained

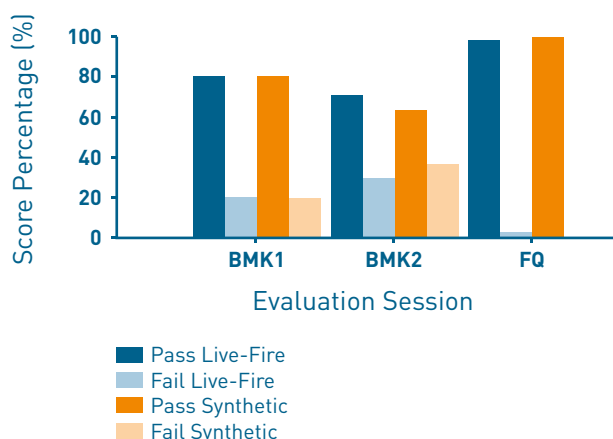


Figure 1. Note. BMK1 = Benchmark 1, BMK2 = Benchmark 2, FQ = Final Qualification

## Participants and Results

In order to measure the effectiveness of this type of training we compared their performance to three live-fire trained troops (Control) of cadets (N = 96) who were training at about the same time as the simulated trained troop of cadets (Experimental). Using the X2 statistic we calculated both the pass/fail rates between the two groups. To analyze the scores we conducted repeated measures ANOVA across the three evaluation sessions. There were no pass/fail differences observed between the two groups for Benchmark 1 and 2 and the Final Qualification, with 100% of the cadets in the experimental group passing their final qualification test (Figure 1). We also measured scores between the two groups (Control vs. Experimental). As evidenced with the pass/fail rates between the two groups, there were no score differences found (Figure 2).

Although the results of this study provided conclusive evidence that pistol training can be completed in a simulated range environment, and that these skills can be acquired in the absence of live-fire using only dry-fire laser-based pistols, we had two questions that remained unanswered. The first question centered on the first benchmark test. Cadets began their pistol training in the simulated range environment, and the first time they were exposed to live-fire was during their first benchmark test. Although we were encouraged with their results, we posited that if cadets were exposed to live-fire training before each of their benchmark tests, that this would increase the pass rate as well as increase scores. We had assumed that the unfamiliarity of the percussion blast and the recoil of the pistol may have «surprised» some cadets, eroding their confidence in their skills. The second question we had could not be answered for at least one year and will be discussed in turn. Even though we had determined that cadets could learn to shoot in this environment, we were unsure as to the effects of this training after a year. As for all RCMP officers, they are required to demonstrate annually that they can pass the pistol course-of-fire.

We had decided to answer the first question, rather than wait a year to measure the retention of the pistol skills of the first experiment troop. Using a second troop of cadets we trained them in an identical manner as we did with the first experimental troop with one exception. In the training session immediately before their three benchmark tests, we had the cadets complete their pistol training in a live-fire environment. We hypothesized that if cadets were exposed to the recoil, and percussion blast before their benchmark tests that they would be better prepared for these tests thereby improving the pass rates and overall scores. Following the

# ...THE EVIDENCE IS CLEAR THAT THIS TECHNOLOGY HAS PROVEN TO BE A SAFE AND RELIABLE...

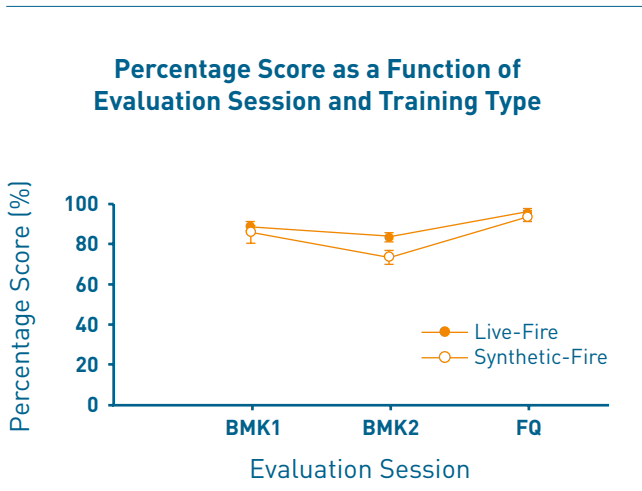


Figure 2. Figure 1. Note. BMK1 = Benchmark 1, BMK2 = Benchmark 2, FQ = Final Qualification

conclusion of their training we found their results mirrored those that were found in the first study. As with the first troop 100% of the cadets passed their pistol course-of-fire, and no score differences were found. In fact being exposed to live-fire before each of the benchmark tests had not positive or negative effects on overall performance.

The second question was answered shortly after the conclusion of the second troop experiment. We collected all the requalification scores for both the experimental and control troops, and we discovered an interesting result. Historically when cadets leave the training academy for the field, we find that pistol requalification scores decrease in each of the two years following graduation. When we looked at the scores for the control troops we found that their scores also were lower than their scores achieved in the training academy. However, when the scores for the experimental troop were examined we found that they not only maintained their skills, but in

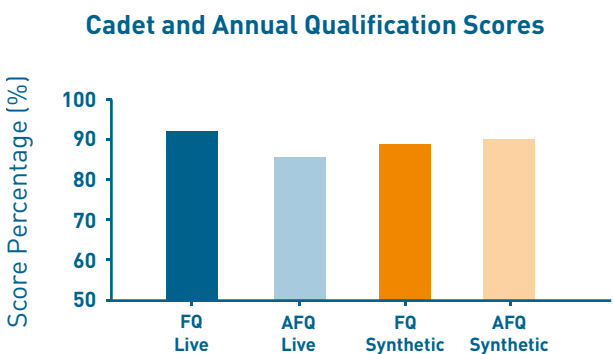


Figure 3. Note. FQ Live = Final score if trained in a live-fire environment, AFQ Live = Requalification score if trained in the live-fire environment 1 year after leaving the academy, FQ Synthetic = Final score if trained in a simulated range environment, AFQ Synthetic = Requalification score if trained in the simulated range environment 1 year after leaving the academy

fact their scores were nominally higher than their training academy scores (Figure 3). Although it is unclear at this point to the reason why, it is possible that the increased number of trigger pulls for those cadets who were trained in the simulated range environment further strengthened their muscle memory. A second hypothesis is that training in a dry-fire environment allowed the cadet and instructor to focus on the skill itself (e.g., trigger control, sight alignment, and grip) instead of having to worry about the recoil and the associated psychological implications. Planned follow-up studies will examine this issue.

## Discussion

The evidence is clear that this technology has proven to be a safe and reliable way in which to train cadets how to acquire their pistol shooting skills. However, the lack of scientific evidence required us to begin these research projects that would provide information which would be defensible if and when the technology was integrated into the cadet training program. Our results were further strengthened when researchers at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Centre (FLETC) in the United States (Glynco Georgia), replicated our experiment and found similar results.

The studies discussed in this paper revealed that a police officer can acquire all of their pistol skills in the absence of live-fire using only dry-fire pistols, that the skills are transferable to a real world setting, and that the skills are better maintained than their live-fire trained peers. It is also important to note that these studies examined only the acquisition and retention of the skill, and did not look at the decision making process (i.e., when and if to shoot). Although we are not trying to replace live-fire, we are looking for opportunities to train police officers in a more dynamic setting. One of our long term projects is to develop a course for the simulated firearms range that would require the cadet to shoot from a variety of positions, as well as shoot at moving targets while the target is shooting back. This is not a training option that is currently available due to safety reasons. It is believed that this type of high intensity training will better prepare our police officers if they should ever find themselves in a deadly use-of-force encounter. ■

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# Operational Change and Risk Mitigation: Rethinking the function of Training

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**The complex nature of the police occupation and dynamic changes that move through our society frequently make the job of policing extremely difficult and perhaps prone to civil litigation (Ross 2000, 169)**

### Introduction

Timely, relevant and effective training is critical for preparing law enforcement officials to deal with the operational complexities of modern policing. (H.M.I.C 1999) Otwin Marenin observes that police officers must continuously balance “every day, in every decision – legitimate yet conflicting values and rights: demands for effectiveness while still protecting individual rights, the maintenance of public order without unduly restricting liberty, the need to threaten or use force without deviating into abuse, being guided by law and professional expertise simultaneously” (2004,108). This occupational complexity is further complicated by organizational pressures to address stakeholder expectations of accountability, leadership, effectiveness, proactive service, morale and liability. This requires law enforcement organizations to be creative and engage in continual re-assessment.

They can no longer rely on antiquated structural and philosophical approaches consistent with what has been commonly referred to as the traditional or professional model of policing (Sklansky 2011, Stone and Travis 2011). An implication is that training should be conceived as a more strategic instrument for pursuing organizational performance, effective service delivery and risk mitigation. Training can no longer be considered in isolation to organizational change, but is inexorably tied to strategic and operational development. A further functional role for training involves mitigating risk, more specifically, civil litigation. Scott aptly argues that any agency concerned with quality, productivity, liability and morale must consider this training as a critical and significant function (Scott 2005).

Despite this changing, social, legal and operational environment, many agencies have been slow to cultivate training that embraces risk management. As Scott argues, “too many wait to be sued or to be threatened with other court action before instituting preventive measures” (2005, 2). Indeed, countering this trend will require those tasked with directing the development and delivery of training to view themselves as risk managers. They will also need to regard training as a means to an end and not, as has often been the case, as an end in itself.

This article examines how training can reduce the risk of civil litigation and its more proactive role in broader risk mitigation. While each is linked via the shared concept of training, the expected outcomes are distinctly different: when reducing litigation risk, the risk tends to be associated with a failure to train or negligence in adapting training to meet operational and legal requirements of policing; when training is understood as a critical aspect of risk management, it becomes a fundamental managerial responsibility and not simply a luxury (Ross 2000) or a knee-jerk reaction to pending litigation.

### Placing training and civil litigation in context

There can be no doubt that increasing litigation is a reality confronting most police agencies (Hughes 2001; Archbold and Macquire 2002; Scott 2002; Ceyssens 2004; Ransley, et al 2007). Archbold and Maguire note “Police managers in some of the largest law enforcement agencies have begun to hire in-house risk managers and police legal advisors to help them review department training... in an effort to manage and prevent police officer exposure to liability” (2002, 228). How training is aligned civil litigation and risk management should be top of mind for today’s police leaders. An analysis



of U.S. Chiefs of Police perceptions regarding civil liability observed “participants reported that better training was the second most important strategy for preventing lawsuits” (Vaughin, et al 2001, 20). Moreover, the importance of training was substantiated in an International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) survey that found training as the top priority issue facing police organizations. It was also the issue with the most relative importance to organizational effectiveness and risk (Wellford 2007). While not all civil litigation can be attributed to insufficient training, these studies highlight training as both a point of concern and a potential solution with respect to the risk of litigation.

Civil litigation against police is often viewed as an important element of police accountability and stimulus for change. A cogent example of the interplay between litigation, training, renewed accountability and managerial action can be found in the analysis of training policy post the *City of Canton v. Harris*, [1989] decision. Alpert and Smith (1991) and Ross (2000) note there was a dramatic increase in operational training and the strategic focus on training employed by police organizations post *Canton*. Although there is comparably less civil litigation against police officers and police chiefs in Canada than in the United States, it is unquestionably a growth area. Police executives need proactively understand the risks and mitigate them where possible (Ceysens 2004).

### The landscape of liability

Every day, hundreds upon thousands of decisions are made across Canada by police officers on the front line (whether to use force, when to use it, what force to use, whether to charge, detain, arrest) and within headquarters (how to train, equip, discipline and supervise officers). Given the complex and dynamic nature of policing, combined with the frequent application of force and deprivation of liberties against citizens, and the highly visible nature of police work, policing is a fertile environment for civil litigation. Ross lays out this landscape of litigation in the following manner:

**First, the individual officer may be at risk of civil litigation for decisions he or she is frequently forced to make. Most civil suits arise when officers intentionally abuse their authority and, or, perform their duties in a negligent manner. The second level of exposure exists with police supervisors based on the notion that supervisors of the errant officer could have done something to prevent the misconduct (2000, 169).**

This awareness allows us to articulate points of departure for potential legal action. Ross suggests there are also central themes upon which litigation is based: policy, training and supervision (ibid). In the specific context of impugned conduct and its relationship to training, Ryan argues that:

**Failure to train cases can be established in two ways. The first involves a lack of training in an area where there is a patently obvious need for training, for example an officer who is untrained in deadly force unreasonably shoots someone. The second method of establishing a failure to train by an agency is to establish a pattern of conduct by officers that would put the final policy maker on notice and the policymaker failed to respond with training (2007, 2).**

While Ryan sets out a framework of how failure to train cases can be established. The following sections highlight particular instances in which the courts and judicial inquiries have responded to issues of negligent training.

### The issue of supervision

In the realm of liability, the torts of negligent supervision and negligent training are closely linked. A charge of negligent supervision stems from the principle that police officers owe a duty of care to people under their control. Supervisors do not have to actively participate in instances of officer negligence to be held liable. If the supervisor knew, or should have known, about a police officer’s incompetence or lack of fitness for duty, and should have done something to prevent the misconduct, they can be held liable.

With increasing frequency, plaintiffs frame complaints against the police alleging the misconduct or resulting harm was a result of a failure to supervise and or a failure to train officers. To succeed, the plaintiff requires evidence that the supervisor (or agency) knew of a need to train or supervise an officer in a particular area and that the supervisor/agency made a deliberate or negligent choice not to take action (Grossman 2004). A clear guideline comes from *Walker v. City of New York*, 974 F.2d 293(2d Cir.1992):

**When policy makers and supervisors know to a moral certainty that officers will confront a particular situation and where the situation presents a difficult**

**choice or there is a history of mishandling by employees and where the wrong choice frequently results in a deprivation of constitutional right (cited in Ryan 2007).**

Supervisors need not take an active role in the specific misconduct. If they were aware of or should have been aware of an officer's lack of training or incompetence, and this contributed to an officer's misconduct, they may be held liable for abdicating/neglecting their supervisory responsibility.

For example, *Clark v. Canada*, [1994] 3 FC 323 found several RCMP supervisors negligent for failing to prevent inappropriate conduct by other officers toward a female constable. Often, in cases of sexual harassment, as was the situation in this case, employers are also criticized for having failed to provide adequate training to their employees on sexual harassment.

While the above develops a generic understanding of potential circumstances leading to civil proceedings against an officer, a more accurate appreciation of the legal landscape of police training requires a more detailed analysis of related case law from the courts and administrative tribunals, inquiry findings and public commissions. By reviewing these analyses of police misconduct, we can deepen our understanding of expectations of service, responsibility, authority and negligence.

### **Judicial Decisions and Commentary (setting a framework)**

In Canada, there have been few cases where the tort of negligent training proceeded to trial. In *Berntt v. Vancouver (City)* [1997] 4 WWR 505, the Court determined that the test for the appropriate standard of care is what would be expected of a reasonable police force training a constable. The trial Judge provided a useful example of how the courts might examine an allegation of negligent training (Ceyssens 2003). Justice Cohen stated:

**The allegation of negligence in relation to training and supervision requires the establishment of a duty of care, and a comparison of the defendants' conduct measured against the appropriate standard. The onus is on the plaintiff to establish all elements of the negligence alleged against the defendants. ...**

**To succeed then against these defendants, the plaintiff must establish a duty of care,**

**a breach of a standard of care, and he must prove that the negligence was the cause of his injuries (*Berntt v. Vancouver*, [1997] 140, 141).**

In the United States, by contrast, this area of law is much more developed. In 1989, the US Supreme Court concluded in *City of Canton v. Harris* (1989) that the failure to train officers could form the basis of managerial liability. The court concluded that liability should be predicated on a "deliberate indifference standard" (Grossman 2006), which requires evidence that an agency knew of a need to train or supervise in a particular topic but made a deliberate choice not to take action with respect to the identified need (*ibid*). The *Harris* case set clear criteria by which a failure to train claim might proceed: a) violation of a federally protected right, b) inadequate training of employees and c) causation between the inadequate training and the plaintiffs injury. In the words of one observer, "It is only when these three factors converge that the governmental entity can be held liable for constitutional harm caused a citizen" (Sarvin 1999, 3).

These decisions indicate that failure to train liability requires evidence that the police service was, or should have been, conscious of the need for a certain level of training and made a choice not to provide that level of training, or to provide inadequate training. Police services must pay particular attention to training officers in skills and competencies in high-risk functionalities that they engage in: criminal law, firearms, use of force, and emergency vehicle operation. Training should correspond directly with the tasks that officers routinely perform. The training does not have to be "perfect", but it should be consistent with the training offered by other police services of a similar size.

The failure to train has been directly linked to the harm that the Plaintiff suffered. In the case *Johnson v. Adamson*, [1981] 128 DLR (3d) 470, the Ontario Court of Appeal allowed a claim against the Toronto Police Service for negligent supervision and training of police officers. The issue focused on the fatal shooting of A. Johnson by a constable. One allegation was that the Chief knew or should have known of racist attitudes and racial provocations by Toronto police officers, leading to racial violence, and that he was negligent for not taking steps through training and discipline to deal with the situation.

While training is not always the crux of a claim of inadequate service, it may feature prominently in the resolution of the issue or considered a contributing factor. In *Hill v. Hamilton-Wentworth*

Regional Police Services Board, [2007] 3 S.C.R. 129, the Supreme Court of Canada affirmed that the tort of negligent investigation exists in Canada. The majority held that police officers owe a duty of care to suspects and that their conduct during an investigation should be measured against the standard of how an officer in similar circumstances would have acted. The Court further stated that the standard of care must recognize the existence of discretion in police investigations and that minor errors or errors of judgment will not breach the standard. Finally, the Plaintiff must show that they suffered damages causally connected to the breached standard of care. While these tests do not relate directly to an issue of training, they highlight the need for consistent and standardized practices, and that the complex investigative knowledge required by police officers continues to increase. Failure to provide adequate education continuously over an officer's career may result in significant financial and other costs associated with inadequate investigations, including the withdrawal or dismissal of charges, civil litigation and complaints against the involved police officers.

In Regina v. Clayton and Farmer, [2004] 194 C.C.C. (3d) 289, while not the focal aspect of the claim, the lack of training was identified as a contributing factor or direct cause of concern, and contributed to an acquittal. In the judgment, Chief Justice McMurtry, stated:

**The testimony of these officers strongly suggests that their police force has made no effort to embed the approach to the ancillary power doctrine adopted by the courts into police training. This systemic failure would suggest that the court must deliver its message in a more emphatic way. The exclusion of evidence may provide that added emphasis... The systematic failings that underlie the conduct of Officers Robson and Dickson make the infringement of the rights of Farmer and Clayton serious. Police training that leaves officers in the field unequipped to engage in the balancing process required by the ancillary power doctrine invites police officers to ignore individual rights whenever those rights get in the way of the execution of police duties. If the rights guaranteed by the Charter are to have real meaning and shape the interaction**

**between the police and individuals, police forces must take those rights seriously. Officers must be trained to perform their duties in a manner that is consistent with those rights (Regina v. Clayton and Farmer, [2004] 89, 90).**

Justice McMurtry's decision shows that the failure to educate officers in important legal developments poses significant risk. It can undermine the quality of service delivery, negatively affect individual rights, as well as damage the reputation of the constabulary generally. Taking a similar tone, in R. v. Dornan, [2008], Justice Forestell, noted:

**In the case before me, the officers were properly asked about their source of a clearly mistaken belief in the state of the law. This is a critical area of inquiry in assessing the good faith of the officers on an individual level and on an institutional level. The inquiry in this case has disclosed improper training as a source for the mistake. Abella J. did not say, in Clayton and Farmer, that such evidence would never be relevant. In fact she said that police training is important. (R. v. Dornan, [2008] ON SC 40)**

**Justice Forestell went on to state:**

**In the instant case, there is not a 'single misguided police officer' but three police officers and their supervisor who all believe, based on their training, that they have authority for an act that violates the constitutional rights of the Applicant.... On an institutional level, the improper training of the officers raises greater concerns for the administration of justice (Ibid, 41, 43).**

Similar concerns have been drawn out in R. v. D. (J.) et al, [2007] ON CJ 154 and R. v. N.M., [2007] CanLII 31570 ON SC. These cases led to the exclusion of evidence and dismissal of charges due to Charter infringement.

Police governance boards and oversight agencies have also explored ongoing training, exposure to changing legal principles, and the failure to prepare police officers for a changing law enforcement environment. For example, the

Commission for Public Complaints Against the RCMP succinctly noted:

**RCMP officers need to keep up to date on developments in criminal law, especially those that affect the use of police powers, acceptable methods of gathering evidence, and the rights of accused persons. In reviewing complaints, the Commission frequently concludes that the police officer in question was unaware of an important element of the law he or she was attempting to enforce. This shortcoming is not confined to junior officers of the Force; some supervisors have given unsound advice to police under their command because they failed to consider all relevant provisions of a law. The commission notes that policing is becoming more complex as case law increases the detail of the legal regime that governs the rights of the accused and the admissibility of evidence. The Commission is concerned that resources be committed so that RCMP officers may be provided with regular opportunities to train and, thus, keep pace with the growth in complexity. (Commission for Public Complaints Against the RCMP, Annual Report, 1997-98, 21)**

Further guidance about the importance of training, and more specifically, the recklessness of undercutting funding for police training, was noted in recommendations of the 1996 Bernado Investigation Review.

**The bottom line in any discussion about training be it for new recruits, senior officers or specialty squads is that you can never have enough. Uniform officers, criminal investigators and case managers cannot be skilled if they are not properly trained. Initial training, specialized training and ongoing training must be available. The tendency to cut training when restrictions are placed on the police budget must be re-examined, for it is often a question of pay now or pay later when it comes to the education and**

**training of police officers. It is, to repeat, a form of institutional recklessness to reduce police training budgets below the essential requirements for good police work (Justice Archie Campbell, Bernado Investigation Review 1996, 315).**

More recently the November 2005 Report of the Auditor General of Canada stated:

**We found that gaps in training may be preventing the RCMP from meeting its clients' expectations of fully trained peace officers. It may also be leaving itself open to the risk of litigation (2005, 21).**

These are but a few examples of how and where training has been flagged, and concerns continue to arise, through case law or other mechanisms of oversight. This suggests that the legal environment of policing is constantly changing and, that agencies must provide a thorough regimen of training responsive to operational reviews, identified trends within professional standards, and other external pressures to mitigate the risk associated with inadequate training. Critics argue that there are vast areas of law (ones which continue to pose risks of litigation or other operational consequences) not adequately taught or absent from law enforcement curriculum. Paul Ceyssens argues:

**Police are regularly criticized by the judiciary and oversight bodies for their failure to provide adequate legal training on an ongoing basis, and police require annual "refresher" courses that address legislative and judicial developments that have occurred since the previous such course, not only in criminal law but in other areas of the legal regulation of the police as well (2003,6).**

Echoing Ceyssen's argument, Kinnaird suggests: "being constantly aware of new laws and legal procedures is of integral importance in the training process" (2006, 205).

### **Conclusion**

As Scott aptly notes: "inadequate training can have a negative impact on delivery of services, officer safety, police resources and the ability of police Executives to lead their agencies" (2005,1). Given this potential outcome, training cannot be taken for

granted nor considered a simple band-aid applied as needed. We argue that training should be woven into the operational model of the organization and garner the same strategic attention as any other facet of policing. It is not, as some would suggest, a necessary evil. While it does require strategic alignment with organizational outcomes, resources, logistical planning and a cultural shift there is little doubt of the long-term benefit. No agency can afford to ignore the risk of litigation and diminished public support due to ineffective training. Successful agencies must calibrate training to the changing realities and practicalities of police work. It must adapt not only to the changing social and legal environment but also to the pedagogical realm of training. George Kelling suggests that achieving a meaningful impact on the attitudes and actions of officers requires designing training courses that focus on the substantive content of police work; training should assist students to find and delineate the means to conduct police work morally, legally, skillfully and effectively (1999, 2).

The first Canadian case where the issue of negligent training was raised was Johnson v. Adamson [1981] 34 O.R. (2d) 236. In the United States the City of Canton v. Harris, 489 U.S. 378 [1989] was the watershed case. Here the U.S. Supreme Court held that failing to train police officers may be the basis for managerial liability under Title 42 United States Code Section 1983. ■

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# Leadership Competencies and Leadership Training in the Singapore Police Force (SPF)

## Introduction

### Genesis of the Leadership Competency Framework (LCF) in the Singapore Police

Under the direction of the Deputy Commissioner in 2002, a leadership development steering committee was organised to address the strategic issues pertaining to leadership assessment and development in the Singapore Police Force (SPF). This group comprised the Commander of the Training Command, the Director of Manpower and the Director of the Planning and Organisation Department with secretarial support from the Police Psychological Services Department.

This meeting, unanimously endorsed that investment into police leadership was to be seen as a strategic imperative for the SPF. It was agreed that good police leaders meant a safer and more secure Singapore. It was also recognised that police leadership, whilst similar to leadership in other contextual settings, had some aspects which made it quintessentially different as well. There are at least two differences. First, the outcomes of good police leadership can have life and death implications. While it can happen, it is rare for leadership in other domains like the education vocation, hospitality industries or food industries to have similar outcomes. In this sense, there is more in common between the police and the military or fire service. Secondly, whilst some lessons could be gleaned about police leadership from military leadership and leadership in the fire services, the former (police leadership) is different (IACP, 2005).

Policing has moved away from the traditional, centralised approaches of decision and control, towards community and problem-solving policing (Howard, Hesser, Halstead, n.d.) For instance, even the lowest ranking officer often working in didactic pairs or alone, is empowered by legislation to act with a considerable degree of discretion, and by doing so, demonstrates a take charge attitude, influences and hence demonstrates leadership. In comparison, the military soldier typically acts upon a command that is given. If the situation calls for it, the police officer acts first, and then informs his command.

Given this understanding, police management was certain of the need to look into the issue of leadership in policing. However, hitherto 2002, there seemed many issues surrounding the perceptions and administration of leadership within the SPF. First, there were many versions of police leadership and models (e.g. servant leadership, transactional

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leadership). Second, there seemed to be little alignment between the training, planning and manpower departments with regards to the issues of leadership. Third, there was no shared thinking or common language to talk about leadership and despite the many leadership development activities in the SPF, these were not premised upon a consistent notion of what SPF leadership meant. It was not uncommon for different departments to conduct their leadership initiatives quite independently of each other. Fourthly, given the long history of policing in Singapore (ever since 1819 when Singapore was founded), there was a sense that police leadership in Singapore had to be contextualised locally and built 'ground-up' rather than imported 'top-down' from an academic or theoretical Western/Anglo-Saxon leadership frameworks. Acknowledging these concerns, the leadership group unanimously agreed that there was value to develop an SPF leadership competency framework.

## Development of the SPF Leadership Competency Framework

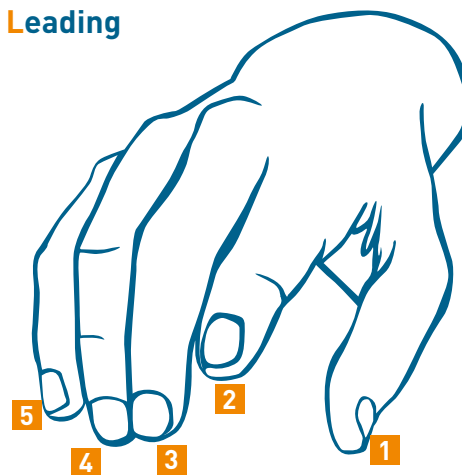
Led by the Police Psychological Services Department and the Manpower Department and championed by the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner of Police, the development of the SPF LCF took 3 main stages: Stage One: Initial Preparation and Strategic Leadership Clarification Process.

Stage One aimed to understand the existing leadership situation in the SPF. It was also a leadership culture audit and a review. A leadership clarification workshop was also held with the SPF's key stakeholders to discuss key challenges faced by the organisation, specific leadership challenges and their implications for future SPF leaders. For example, one leadership challenge was on how to deal with the changing demographics of the community and also of the SPF police officers. The different leadership levels in the SPF were broadly defined to aid subsequent data collection. Four leadership levels were conceived: in Leadership Level 1 were patrol officers; Level 2 had Team or Group Leaders; Level 3 included Assistant Directors, Commanding Officers and Heads of Branches; and Level 4 comprised Commanders, Deputy Commanders, Directors and Deputy Directors. Readers should also note that ranks were not used as a basis of structuring these leadership levels in the competency modeling exercise since it was acknowledged that one might don a leadership rank but may not necessarily always have a leadership appointment, even though in the large majority of instances that was actually so.

### Stage Two: Leadership Competency Modelling

In Stage 2, the objective was to develop a model of SPF leadership competencies. Internal SPF data on day-to-day and crisis leadership behaviours were collated from several methods – key stakeholders interviews with important leaders holding important leadership roles, electronic focus groups and using the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) interviews and leadership opinion surveys. First, key stakeholder interviews were conducted with ten of the SPF's key stakeholders, including the Commissioner of Police, Deputy Commissioner of Police and various directors and commanders of departments and specialist units. Second, for the component on electronic focus groups, 137 police officers of different leadership levels and job functions (land divisions, specialist [security] units, specialist [policy] units, and staff departments) were selected to take part in the electronic focus groups. These include commanders, deputy commanders, directors, assistant directors, commanding officers, head of branches, staff officers, team leaders, staff assistants, patrol officers, troopers. Each group had 5 to 11 participants and they were all from the same leadership level and job function, so that the participants could express themselves freely and were not pressured to perform. In total, 16 electronic focus groups were conducted. Finally, a leadership opinion survey or LOS was also conducted to create an awareness among the SPF staff that a leadership

### Leading



1. «Thumb» - **sElf**
2. «Index Finger» - **Action**
3. «Centre Finger» - **Deliberation**
4. «Ring Finger» - **Employees**
5. «Little Finger» - **Relationship Building**

(Figure 1: SPF Leadership Competency Framework: Leading the Way)

competency framework was being developed in the SPF and confirm the various competencies derived. 2226 officers, including regular police officers, civilian officers, full time Police National Service men (conscripted officers), from all leadership levels and job functions, completed the LOS which allowed for a weighing of the competencies in terms of perceived importance ratings.

### Stage Three: Completing the Singapore Police Force Leadership Competency Framework

The completed SPF Leadership Competency Framework was built upon 5 competency clusters and is best depicted by a hand "Leading" the way as shown in Figure 1. The central idea behind the hand was a) to summarize and depict the 5 main competencies clusters in a simple enough manner so that front line supervisors and officers could remember it and b) to promote the idea that leaders themselves must show the way to other leaders; so that the idea of leadership development is not merely leaders being developed alone but also carries a cascading multiplier effect.

The 5 competency clusters embodies the 12 SPF Leadership Competencies as follows (refer to Figure 2). Each of the 12 competencies is described in terms of its definition, basic constructs, and the behaviours expected of each of the 4 levels of leadership (ground officers, first line supervisors, middle management, and top management).



## Translating and mapping competencies into programs and activities.

With the LCF in place, police headquarters could now ensure greater alignment between the many leadership development programs, leadership training at the academy and at the front line police units, entry level/middle management level leadership assessment, 360-degree leadership development tools, leadership and talent management scheme, executive coaching programmes, mentoring programs and leadership fireside chat programme. All of these programs were now anchored upon the LCF, which was used as a conceptual bedrock.

## Translating the LCF into leadership training

Upon the finalisation of the LCF, one of the earliest initiatives was to undertake a training and development gap analysis. All training courses in the academy were examined to see if they were consistent with the LCF. In addition the leadership training for (internally promoted) Inspectors and Assistant Superintendants were also amended to include components of the LCF. The training for Command and Staff courses were further reviewed to include components of the LCF.

What follows is an elaboration on 2 main areas in which the LCF was translated into training and some of the learning lessons for the Singapore Police.

- Reviewing training for leaders at front line units (Unit LDPs). Despite the LCF, within the ground unit, leadership development practices and programs differed considerably. The PPSD and Manpower Department (working closely with the Training Command) initiated a review of the Unit level Leadership Development (ULDLP) Programme in recent years because it noted that there was a wide range of leadership development activities which lacked standardisation. Whilst aware of the

LCF, front line units found it difficult to translate the LCF into training activities. A wide variety of activities were being done at leadership camps and these included dialogues and tea with commander, boot camps, adventure camps, presentations to management amongst the many other activities and all of these were being done without a clear sense of whether these developed leaders or not. Using the conceptual framework developed by the Centre of Leadership Development (CCL) (Velsor, MaCauley, Moxley, 1998), the SPF worked closely to ensure that all leadership development activities followed a ACS model. ACS was an acronym for Assessment (the assessment of leadership competency gaps using the LCF to facilitate self understanding), Challenge (designing leadership activities that stretched the individuals to force them out of their comfort zone, especially since individuals varied in the degree of leadership readiness) and Support (how front line leadership can encourage and reinforce leadership learning of these individuals).

- Reviewing training at the Command and Staff level training. After a strategic review of the Command and Staff course, it was decided that there was a need to refine the translation of the LCF into the C&S course. One challenge with the use of competencies is that whilst they spell out clearly the behavioural indicators of leadership, they do not succinctly point out how to develop these skills. For example, the LCF suggested that Personal Mastery was important (and even suggested the books, videos and developmental activities one should work on to build this), but did not explain in a comprehensive training session how to develop skills. Therefore, in a revised training course, the PPSD redesigned the course to not only teach the LCF competency but also to train in some depth on how to go about doing it. For example, the current training takes every trainee through a process of discovery on their values, beliefs systems, and gives some practical case studies on how to remain calm in a crisis.

sElf	Action	Deliberation	Employees	Relationship Building
<b>Personal Mastery</b>	<b>Planning &amp; Prioritising</b>  <b>Focusing on Mission &amp; Vision</b>  <b>Facilitating Change</b>	<b>Solving Problems</b> The SPF top management commitment to leadership development is	<b>Unleashing People Potential</b>  <b>Performing as a Team</b>	<b>Using Heartskill</b>  <b>Communicating Effectively</b>  <b>Building Partnerships</b>

(Figure 2: SPF LCF 12 Competencies)

## Summary

In summary, this brief article elucidates how the SPF had developed the Leadership Competency Framework and how the LCF was then translated into leadership development activities and leadership training. With the benefit of time and experience, several important learning lessons were drawn from this experience of developing and translating the LCF into training and these are listed below for easy reference.

1. Leadership competencies have to be championed by the top leader of the organisation and not outsourced to the planning, training or manpower department, if there is to be traction within the organisation. In this sense, leaders must lead the profession and practice of police leadership.
2. Having a leadership competency framework is useful because it results in a common language and a shared mental model. This brings about over time a clearer communication platform and discussion on topics related to leadership assessment, training and development.
3. 'Leader development' is not the same as 'leadership development'. Many leadership development programs inevitably develop individual leaders but failed to develop collective leadership. Leadership development relates to the leadership group level competency, such as the collective leadership development for the senior management team. Both are important.
4. In large organisations, there is need to translate leadership competencies into various systems such as HR performance, training, promotional outcomes and selection. If this is not done, these systems may end up contradicting themselves and often have reduced impact.
5. Defining leadership using the competency framework carries with it many advantages such as behaviourally anchored terms, greater clarity, the focus on visible behaviours as opposed to subjective attributions of personal qualities such as character. However, there is a need to continually review, refine and revalidate the competency framework to keep it current.
6. Translating the leadership competencies into training can be challenging. The very advantages of behavioural items in the LCF which allows for the explication of detailed, concise chunks of behaviour can become a problem since leadership behaviour is rarely delineated and spliced in real time and in the real world. Real world leadership behaviour is a seamlessly integrated set of multiple behaviours intertwined within one another to produce an effect and outcome. For example, a leader giving a pep talk under crisis is combining various competencies such as personal mastery, communication, decision making under stress and team work all rolled in one.

7. Competency frameworks cannot be the catch all to leadership and its development in the organisation. It needs to be integrated with the organisational mission and vision to be relevant, and supported by the organisational values and culture – which will influence the style in which it is demonstrated. ■

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# Case study multi-dimensional teaching method: Using real criminal cases in Chinese police cadet training

This paper, based on the empirical research of using real criminal case studies in police cadet training programs in the China Criminal Police University, systematically introduces the case study multi-dimensional teaching method (CMTM) which has been implemented for many years in the police cadet training course of criminal investigation. To begin with, the paper briefly introduces the use of case study teaching as a methodology and discusses its acceptance as a viable method of teaching by universities in other parts of the world as well as in China. For a full copy of this work please contact the authors.

## Introduction

The use of case studies as a teaching method can be seen in use worldwide. Harvard University is usually considered a leader in the development of the theory and practices of case study teaching methods (Center for Teaching and Learning, 1994; D'Souza, 2011; Harvard Law School, 2012b; Foran, 2001). The Harvard Law School has outlined a clear definition of case studies.

Case studies are educational tools that engage readers in active learning by putting them squarely in the shoes of real people wrestling with real dilemmas. As students read a case, prepare assignments, and actively participate in class discussions and exercises, they learn how best to approach the problems described in the case. Cases are used to illustrate a particular set of learning objectives, and (as in real life) rarely are there exact answers to the dilemma at hand. The case study will provide readers with an overview of the issue, background on the setting (typically the individual, company/institution, industry, and larger environment), the people involved, and the events that led to the problem or decision at hand. (2012a: website, n.p.)

The Center for Teaching and Learning (CTL) at Stanford University produced further detailed information on teaching with case studies, including the concept, the goals, the functions, the creation, the implementation and the assessment of case study teaching methods (Center for Teaching and Learning, 1994). According to their information, case studies can help 'assess students' ability to synthesize, evaluate, and apply information and concepts learned in lectures and texts' (ibid.: 1). Teaching with case studies usually embodies three basic steps: preparing a case study, class discussion of the case study and summarizing the result of the

class discussion. Preparing an effective case study can be time consuming. To help limit the initial investment of time, CTL suggested alternatives of 'basing cases on actual events or experiences', 'experimenting and sharing cases with colleagues for comments and suggestions', and borrowing some from the published cases (ibid.: 2). Harvard Law School also emphasised the importance of this use of team work in creating case studies (Harvard Law School, 2012a). As well as preparing a case study, there is also a need to give students clear instructions on what their responsibilities are in preparing to discuss a case in class and what major concepts they should know and rely on (Center for Teaching and Learning, 1994).

When dealing with case studies, keeping the class discussion alive is essential for the success of case study teaching and learning practices. The case study teaching method is 'a student-centered highly-interactive pedagogy that changes the classroom process into a collective search for an analysis and/or solution to a specific problem based on a case' (Foran, 2001: 45). Therefore, the

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interaction between the teacher and students, along with cooperative interaction between students is essential for the success of employing the case study method. Teachers should act as facilitators instead of being didactic, while the students should play the major role in the learning. As a facilitator, the teacher should be adept at asking good questions 'to make sure that all the angles of the case are carefully considered' (Center for Teaching and Learning, 1994: 3), knowing when and how to present students with more information and encouragement to push the discussion forward, just like using the accelerator at the right time and with the right strength to keep a car moving smoothly. Teachers should be good at identifying opposing views, asking questions to stimulate debate(s), encouraging input from others on either side until the students uncover most or all of the learning points. The dynamic interaction and cooperation between students is an important hallmark of an excellent case study discussion, where students actively participate in presenting, debating and role-playing (Harvard Law School, 2012a).

To add more insights into case study teaching methods, this paper, systematically introduces the case study multi-dimensional teaching method (shortened as CMTM) that has been employed in Chinese police training. First, the paper introduces the aims and objectives of the CMTM. Then it focuses on the stages of implementing the CMTM, including the preparation of case studies, organization of the class, and the summation of the class discussions. Following that, the results and efficiency of the CMTM is analysed in accordance with first-hand data collected during the teaching process. Finally, it proposes suggestions for improving the CMTM in police training and education.

### **The Aims and Objectives of the CMTM**

Criminal investigation science is an applied subject that studies the laws and features of crimes so as to learn how to effectively solve future criminal cases. This involves the summation and abstraction of the experiences gained through former successful and unsuccessful criminal investigations as theoretical guidance for frontline criminal investigation practice. In the practice of criminal investigation, on one hand, various cases share many commonalities that are worthy of being concentrated into theories for guiding practice; on the other hand, each case has its own particularities that require specific reflections. Therefore, in the process of criminal investigation teaching and training, it is of high significance to effectively and reasonably analyse criminal cases from multi-dimensional

perspectives so that they can play an instructive role in developing and improving police cadets' capacities for observing, analysing and solving criminal investigative problems.

### **The Organization and Implementation of the CMTM**

Preparations before teaching are the prerequisite and basis for the success of conducting the CMTM. Without sufficient and logical teaching designs, there will be much less chance of high achievements in the teaching activities. The preparing stage mainly includes two tasks: collecting real criminal cases and making CAI (computer-assisted-instruction) designs.

The criminal cases used in the CMTM mainly come from three sources: first-hand case materials provided by the frontline police agencies, video materials downloaded from the TV and the internet, and some classical cases collected in written documents. Among these three types of data, the first two take up of 40% respectively because of their attributes of visibility, vividness and reality. The last type of data makes up approximately 20%, focusing on those very famous cases. All these cases focus on crimes committed within China, with well-known cases committed in some foreign countries as a complement.

In the process of collecting cases, the criterion of variety must be followed. The cases must embody those where the criminal investigation activities have been expertly conducted and those that have not been; those that have been successfully solved and those that criminals are still unknown or at large; those that occurred in China and some typical ones from abroad; those that represent the commonality of the same category of crimes and those that reflect the particularity of a specific case; those that manifest the new investigative technology and those that prove the enduring usefulness of traditional 'gumshoe' and 'flatfoot' (Monheim, 2006) measures.

After the cases have been collected, it comes to the stage of editing cases and designing CAI. This stage is considered to be the key stage that determines the success or failure of a training class using the CMTM. In the process of CAI designing, we need to maintain the wholeness and realness of the collected cases as well as to consider the particular teaching objects and the limitations of practical conditions. Generally speaking, the cases are edited in accordance with the following six case-solving stages and relevant teaching measures and goals (see table 1):

These six stages are based on the basic steps in real criminal investigation, being conducted step by step, which will not only manifest each respective chronological stage of criminal investigation process, but also ensure the continuity and integrity of the whole process. Each chronological stage may put stress on different teaching goals, but as a whole, the teaching process always aims at cultivating the trainees' abilities of solving criminal cases in the real world. The CAI designs must integrate with the content of theoretical lectures, and the appropriate use of selections from the case materials, avoiding the practice of replacing lectures by over use of video materials. Video and photo materials serve as the means of reconstructing case scenarios and the premises for leading students into the scenarios; the ultimate purpose is to improve students' abilities and skills through guiding them to discuss and analyse real cases; the teachers' comments and interpretations are those last important touches that could bring 'a painted dragon to life'.

### Concluding Remarks

The CMTM is one of our exploratory trials in the criminal investigation discipline teaching reform programs at the China Criminal Police University. The CMTM creates an open, dynamic and interactive teaching environment. In the process of teaching with case studies from multi-dimensions, teachers give students guidance, encouragement and critique to help them probe further in investigative practices. Students 'experience' personally the process of criminal investigation through 'investigating' real criminal cases which put them in the shoes of real police detectives. Meanwhile, the feedback and responses of the students give the teachers some inspiration for improving case study teaching methods which will help improve the overall effect of police cadet training and cultivate more qualified future police officers.

The CMTM does have many advantages in training police cadets, because 'using cases can be an invigorating approach to teaching, and can help your students take much more responsibility for their own learning in your class' (Center for Teaching and Learning, 1994: 3). But case studies should never totally replace theoretical lectures because 'cases are not necessarily the best way to communicate large amounts of new information' (ibid.: 3). Furthermore, students usually need to grasp certain amounts of professional background knowledge before they are able to adequately employ theoretical knowledge to effectively solve a real case. In our teaching programs, the CMTM are usually employed for training those students in year 3 or 4 who have learned at least primary law disciplines and have mastered certain police professional knowledge and skills.

In other words, the CMTM must be integrated with theoretical lectures, but the latter goes first. Lectures tell students about the basic principles that have been accumulated and abstracted in criminal investigation practice. The major purpose of case studies is to test whether students are capable of employing these basic principles to the practice of criminal investigation. The purpose of mastering any principles or theories is to use them to solve practical problems. As Mao Zedong says, 'If we have a correct theory but merely prate about it, pigeonhole it and do not put it into practice, then that theory, however good, is of no significance' (Mao, July, 1937: 304). Alfred North Whitehead also notes, 'The details of knowledge which are important will be picked up ad hoc in each avocation in life, but the habit of the active utilisation of well understood principles is the final possession of wisdom' (Center for Teaching and Learning, 1994: 3). The CMTM has also proved to be an effective way for testing the capacities of police cadets in connecting their criminal investigation theoretical

**Table 1: Case study multi-dimensional teaching method CAI design standards**

<b>Case solving stages</b>	Crime report and response	Crime scene investigation	Case circumstances analysis	Employ investigation measures	Break though deadlocks	Dig out hidden crimes
<b>Teaching measures</b>	Video and/or text data	Photo and/or video data	Mock police squad discussion	Video, photo, text data	Mock police squad discussion	Mock interrogation, video, or text data
<b>Teaching goals</b>	Emergency response abilities	Observation and analysis abilities	Analysis and problem solving abilities	Employ investigation measures abilities	Analysis and problem solving abilities	Combining serial crimes and evidence collection

knowledge obtained from lectures and books with 'investigating' the criminal cases in the real world to show that they have possessed the 'wisdom' needed in criminal investigation. ■

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# A Developmental Evaluation Approach for Piloting the New Alberta Peace Officer Investigator Program

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Vocational training in adult education has become a driving force behind various new training programs within the field of law enforcement in Alberta. The Alberta Justice and Solicitor General Staff College provides training and curriculum development for peace officers, including corrections, sheriffs and investigators. The need for a standardized training program for peace officers responsible for investigations in various Alberta government ministries was identified in 2011. The Alberta Peace Officer Investigator Program (APOIP) was developed out of a need to create mandatory standards in training, accountability, and professionalism for all peace officers in Alberta. Due to the collaborative nature that APOIP was conceptualized, a developmental evaluation approach embedded a continuous and ongoing evaluation throughout the curriculum process. "Developmental evaluation supports innovation development to guide adoptions to emergent and dynamic realities in complex environments" (Patton, 2011, p.1). To capture all of the innovative ideas, a five-phase process was followed in preparation for the first pilot: initial consultation with stakeholders, validation of scope and depth of the potential program, curriculum development – which included consultation with subject matter experts (SMEs), pilot delivery, formative and summative evaluations, and a redesign phase as needed.

Developmental evaluation maximizes goal identification by facilitating discussions with primary stakeholders and identifies clear goals and objectives for developing a program (Patton, 2011). In total ten different government ministries and two government affiliated agencies collaborated and identified the potential scope and depth of this new program. The Staff College established a

curriculum design team (CDT), which consisted of three curriculum designers and six subject matter experts. The SMEs shared their content knowledge and were also instrumental in the facilitation of the pilot delivery and the evaluation process. This paper will explain how a developmental evaluation approach was used to support collaborative curriculum development of APOIP while embedding evaluation throughout the process to ensure accuracy and consistency within provincial policies.

## Methodologies

The identified scope and depth of the APOIP project was first to standardize training for Alberta peace officer investigators, and secondly assist in developing a community of investigators from various ministries and agencies. This target group of investigators have different authorities, appointments, and enforce different legislation from one another, which posed a challenge for the CDT. A developmental approach allowed the CDT to work collaboratively and outline specific content information within a problem based approach as per the scope and depth of the program. Patton (2009) describes developmental evaluation conditions as being: high innovations,

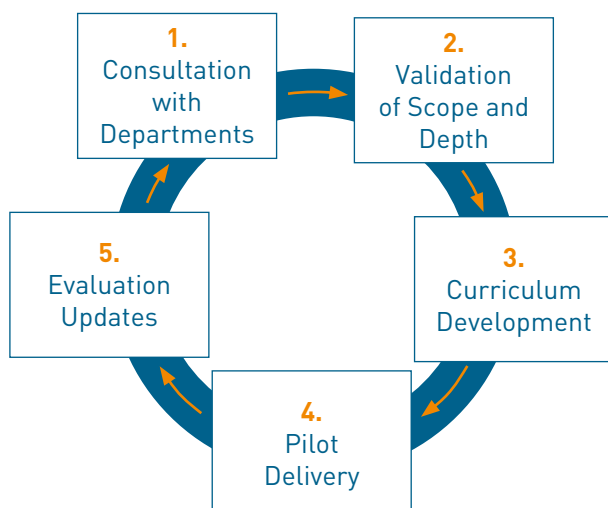


Figure 1. Five Phase Process

development, high uncertainty, dynamic and emergent. He later identifies five key components that need to be present for a successful application of a developmental evaluation approach: ongoing development, adapting effective general principles to a new context, developing a rapid response, performative development of potential scalable innovation and major systems change and cross-scale developmental evaluation (Patton, 2011).

For the APOIP pilot, qualitative data was collected to inform changes to the curriculum based on participant feedback, facilitator feedback and the curriculum designers' reflections. The first step in data collection was a training needs analysis (TNA) to identify the stakeholders' skill competency requirements at the investigator and departmental level. A TNA is not only part of a developmental evaluation practice (Patton, 2011), it also adheres to vocational adult education best practices (Poonwassie & Poonwassie, 2001). Next, ongoing meetings and discussions with SMEs and facilitators provided insight into the curriculum and content development. Finally, after the completion of the pilot the ten participants were asked to fill in staggered feedback forms as well as participate in a focus group.

### Phase 1 & 2 Stakeholder Consultations and Validation of Scope

The intent for initial stakeholder consultations was to identify the specific knowledge, skills, and behaviors required to demonstrate competency while performing investigative duties that are both lawful and purposeful. From the TNA four modules were identified that would serve as the guide to the development of specific learning outcomes for the program. This included three core modules: foundational, procedural, investigation, and advanced skills- field training officer program (FTO).

Research shows that 75%-85% of performance issues that occur on the job are due to the work environment and not due to training or individual performance issues (ASTD, 2003). In an effort to neutralize this issue, a twelve-month FTO program that integrated experienced investigators and supervisors into the training process was developed.

### Phase 3 Curriculum Development

The next phase in the process was the development of core learning outcomes for each of the modules. A "blueprint" for the program was created that revealed a three-week time period was needed for participants to learn, understand, and demonstrate the skills required as an investigator before beginning the FTO phase. The Foundational module

consisted of the following units: ethics, legal studies, officer safety, and risk effective decision making. The Procedural module included: note taking, report writing, and search warrant/production orders. Finally, the Investigation module encompassed: evidence collection/handling, interviewing, and judicial process. At this point of the process the CDT expanded to include two Crown Prosecutors who were well known in the field, and volunteered their time to assist with the development of the legal studies portion of the program.

The FTO program was then developed to ensure transferability of skills from the classroom to the field. Not being able to transfer skills from the "artificial" world to the "real" world exposes individuals and organizations to serious consequences (Pagonis, 2012). The FTO consisted of a two-tiered approach. The first tier consisted of performance supports and rubrics to assess mentee performance. This included procedures and methods of the administration of performance evaluations. The second tier was a «train-the-trainer» program for the FTOs. It focused on mentorship skills as well as provided information on the policies and procedures of the twelve-month program. The main learning outcome was to teach FTOs how to increase competence in their mentees. A blended learning approach was also integrated by utilizing the Staff College's learning management system - SharePoint. An online community for FTOs and mentees was created to communicate and have access to performance supports.

### Phases 4 & 5 Pilot Delivery and Evaluation

During the early stages of phase three, the SMEs/ instructors were asked to attend the Staff College's Effective Facilitation/Curriculum Design Course. This was needed in order to ensure they possessed the skills to design and develop curriculum, as well as instruct according to adult learning principles. During the three week pilot, participants were asked to fill in a short evaluation after the delivery of each unit to assist with specific improvements

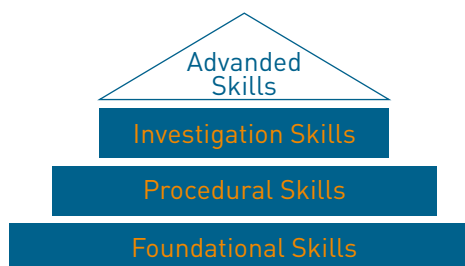


Figure 2. Identified Curriculum Progression



of content and delivery. At the end of the three-week course, all of the participants were asked to participate in a focus group to collect final thoughts about the program, which included initial opinions on areas of strength and improvement. Samples of four different participant verbal responses are listed below:

"The content was very relevant to our role and job as an investigator."

"The lead instructors were excellent. They were very knowledgeable and taught using plain, everyday language that made it easier to understand complex topics such as, production orders."

"The legal instructors made law interesting and enjoyable to learn. They gave many relevant examples and approached us from the perspective that investigators and the crown need to work as a team."

"We learned a lot from courtroom testimony. It was great to actually be in a courtroom with the Crown, Defense and Judge. We learned about the judicial process."

Overall, the participants reported they were highly satisfied with the delivery and content of the program and that the instructors were enthusiastic and knowledgeable. The participants noted the material was very relevant, which provided a basic foundational understanding for new investigators within Alberta. Areas of improvement were identified as logistical issues regarding the facilitation of scenarios. For example, there was a lot of "down time" as participants waited their turn to participate in a scenario. Some of these issues could have been avoided with better planning of resources and scheduling. When asked if they would recommend the course to new investigators in the department, there was a unanimous 'yes' from all participants.

### Implications

Program evaluation methodologies are based on a desire to increase accountability of programs and services (Alkin & Christie, 2004). This developmental evaluation embedded accountability discussion at each of the five identified phases with an intent to continue accountability check during future discussion. "Alkin (1972a), in a paper defining accountability, refers to goal accountability, process accountability, and outcome accountability" (Alkin & Christie, 2004, p. 14). Evaluating for accountability throughout the curriculum development process took longer than anticipated, but the CDT noted more support for the program from the various ministries and agencies. Program evaluation can

consist of quantitative, qualitative, or mixed method research approaches to identify the usability of a program (Alkin & Christie, 2004). The developmental evaluation approach (Patton, 2011) was selected specifically for this program based on the collaborative and innovative nature of APIOP. This provided a framework to streamline collaborative work for the development of the program. Since the completion of the initial five phases, a modified repetition and ongoing evaluation will continue with all subsequent offerings of the programs.

In conclusion, using a developmental evaluation approach provided government ministries and agencies a training program that ensures accountability, legitimacy and professionalism for all peace officer investigators in the province of Alberta. ■

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Greg Kratzig joined the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) Training Academy in 2009 and is responsible for investigating the most effective means of integrating simulator technology into training, and whether the skills transfer into a real world setting. He received his Master's Degree in Experimental and Applied Psychology from the University of Regina (2006) and is nearing completion of his PhD, also at the University of Regina. His dissertation topic is investigating what the effects of training in synthetic environments have on skill acquisition and retention, and the transferability of those skills to a real world setting. During his tenure with the RCMP he has led research projects investigating; 1) skills acquisition during simulator exercises measured against real world tests, 2) video-based use-of-force training, and 3) pistol skills acquisition in a synthetic range environment.

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Kim Armstrong has received her Bachelor of Arts (Honours) in Political Studies and her Bachelor of Laws. She has also completed a Police Management Certificate. In 1997, she joined the Edmonton Police Service as a legal Advisor and was later promoted to the position of manager in charge of the Professional Standards Branch and Legal Services. She has been with the Government of Alberta since 2006 as the Executive Director of Law Enforcement and Oversight Branch, then the Assistant Deputy Minister of the Justice Services Division and is currently the Deputy Clerk of Executive Council and the Deputy Secretary to Cabinet.

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Prior to joining Alberta Justice and Solicitor General, Curtis Clarke held the position of Associate Professor and Coordinator of the Criminal Justice program at Athabasca University. He has carried out empirical studies on the implementation of community based policing, police organizational/managerial change, intelligence led policing and the shifting boundaries between private and public policing. Dr Clarke is the past President of the Canadian Association of Police Educators, a member of the INTERPOL Group of Experts on Police Training (IGEPT) and is on the board of directors of the Canadian Police Sector Council.

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## John Nixon

John Nixon has extensive experience at all levels of teaching from primary through to university. He has been a full time lecturer with Charles Sturt University since 2001. His particular area of interest is communication (frontline communication). He has been involved in developing, coordinating and teaching communication courses for the School of Policing Studies, the Centre for Investigative Studies and Crime Reduction and the NSW Police Force. He is Chair of the School of Policing Studies learning and Teaching Committee.

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