EXPLORING FIELD TRAINING WITHIN
BRITISH COLUMBIA'S INDEPENDENT POLICE AGENCIES:
IT'S THE SINGER, NOT THE SONG

By

MIKE NOVAKOWSKI

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

In

LEADERSHIP AND TRAINING

ROYAL ROADS UNIVERSITY
August, 2003

National Library
of Canada

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services

Acquisisitons et
services bibliographiques

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Canada

Abstract

Police field training programs are vital to police officer development. Although the importance of field training officer selection has been emphasized by the literature, very little research has been done in determining what recruits perceive as important and whether this perception has any relationship to field training satisfaction. This study explored the question: what are the determinants of an effective field training experience in police recruit training? Using surveys collected from 242 recent graduates of the Justice Institute of British Columbia Police Academy, the relationship between the recruit field training experience, field training officer roles and attributes, and overall recruit satisfaction was investigated.

Study results suggest field training content had no significant relationship to overall satisfaction. Rather, overall satisfaction was determined by how well the field training officer fulfilled the identified roles. Furthermore, the recruits tended to overestimate the importance of some technical competencies while undervaluing the importance of interpersonal aptitude. Overall, recruit satisfaction of the field training process was high.

Acknowledgements

The researcher would like to thank the following people.

List of Tables and Figures

Figure   Page

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE - STUDY BACKGROUND

The Opportunity

"There is strong shadow where there is much light."
Gotz von Berlichingen (Bartlett, 1980)

Like most organizations, the future of policing lies within its people. The recruits of today will become tomorrow's leaders. This is a fact that the leaders of today's police organizations must continue to recognize. To this end the field training officer (FTO), in a real and palpable way, can impact the future of the police organization and the police profession at large. FTOs are crucial in taking a student recruit to the ranks of a fully operational police officer. They have the best teacher to student ratio; one-on-one. Through the field training process, organizations have an opportunity to capitalize on the relationship between the FTO and the recruit and to reap the rewards.

The field training experience is an important aspect of a police officer's training, integrating academy training with operational police work. In this process, the role of the experienced FTO is vital because of their long-term impact on the performance and behaviour of the recruit (McCampbell, 1987; Hurley, 1990; Glensor, Peak, & Gaines, 1999). Quite simply, recruits reflect what they are taught. The purpose of this project is to explore the field training experience. Specifically, the following research question was explored:

What are the determinants of an effective field training experience in police recruit training?

Benefits

Many police agencies and authors recognize the importance and lasting impact of field training (Bellan, 2001; Cordner & Sheehan, 1999; Virginia, 1999; Oppal, 1994; Kuykendall, 1975). For example, the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (1988a) identified the field training stage as the most "formative part of [a recruit's] career, providing a first and lasting impression" (p.8). Furthermore, it has been argued that "field training officers should be carefully chosen from among the best officers in the department" (Cordner & Sheehan, 1999, p.84). Trautman (1997) underscored the importance of the FTO program when he stated:

> The creation of Field Training Officer Programs is the single greatest advancement in the history of law enforcement professionalism. Countless mistakes, civil suits, injuries and heart wrenching tragedies have been prevented because new officers were quickly given crucial skills, knowledge and abilities through FTO training. (p.4)

In Ireland, the Garda Training Committee (1987) acknowledged the importance field training played in developing the organization. Field training enabled the leaders of an organization to monitor the progress of a recruit, aided in eliminating any apparent weaknesses, and assisted in developing the recruit's strengths. In addition, the FTO program allowed management to assess the recruit's suitability for a career in the department and to make appropriate recommendations where necessary.

Better trained officers also produce improved investigations which boost public confidence in the organization. Many FTOs themselves sustain tangible benefits as well. In addition to a boost in pay that normally accompanies such an assignment, "the excitement and fresh perspective that new employees bring to an agency invigorates even

the most veteran officers, renewing their commitment to their job and their profession"
(Williams, 2000, p.2).

Further benefits of a formal field training program have been identified. For
example, formal field training programs have been found to reduce the number of citizen
complaints (Cao, Ding, and Barton, 2000; McCampbell, 1987), affect ethical behaviour
within the department (Braunstein and Tyre, 1992), correct recruit selection errors made
in the applicant screening process (Eisenberg, 1981; Haider, 1990), facilitate recruit
socialization into the culture of the organization (Engelson, 1999), introduce job related
values and attitudes (Engelson, 1999; Sterling, 1972; Haarr, 2001; Whisenand and Rush,
1998; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), and impact civil liability issues (McCampbell, 1987;
Thibault, 1998; Institute for Law Enforcement Administration, 2001). In being cognizant
of these benefits, it becomes evident that it is important to explore and investigate the
field training experience.

Liability

As previously noted, one major advantage to the police organization of a
successful field training program is a reduction in civil lawsuits (Thibault, 1998). In many
judicial arenas, instances of alleged police misconduct or negligence often turn to an
examination of police training. In the United States for example, one of the most common
actions brought against police administrators is failure to train litigation where police
administrators can be held liable for inadequate or improper police training that results in
injury, damage, or Constitutional violations (Ross, 2000). In Canada, negligent training
and negligent supervision have become a prominent lawsuit against the police (Ceyssens,

1994). There is a possibility that a training academy will be joined as a defendant if it can be shown that the failure to adequately train caused the damage or injury (McDonell, 1993).

In negligence claims, compliance with policy and procedure is viewed as a very significant factor in determining whether the standard of care has been satisfied (Doern v. Phillips Estate, 1997). Civil liability issues such as failure to train, negligent retention, negligent supervision, and failure to direct may be mitigated by proper field training as part of the overall training process (Institute for Law Enforcement Administration, 2001). This is echoed by Harvey (1999) when he described an effective FTO program as a great liability-prevention program.

Kuykendall (1975) observed that the recruit's initial experiences in the police environment would strongly influence their future usefulness in the organization. These experiences will eventually shape their careers and define their service to the public. If the recruit has difficulties in adjusting to the police environment or acquires poor habits, these shortcomings may affect them later in their career, potentially impacting the organization. Rigidly developed habits and attitudes will be difficult to alter (Cordner & Sheehan, 1999). Similarly, FTOs have the difficult task of leading police recruits through the transition from the safe environment of the academy, where mistakes can be corrected, to street officers where errors may be costly (Williams, 2000) and thus lead to negligence lawsuits. The comments of Holden (1986) are apposite:

> The drawbacks [of field training] as they affect police lie in the learning-by-making-mistakes aspect of on-the-job training. Police officers make occasional errors; rookies make more than their fair share. Police mistakes often translate into mental or physical injury to some innocent person.

There is an old saying, "Doctors bury their mistakes while lawyers send theirs to prison." Police officers do a little of both. (p.243)

In a study conducted by Cancino (2001), "Survey results showed that officers learn physical force in the situational context from peers 89 % of the time, rather than from academy instruction and training (3 per cent)." (p.154) A similar observation was made nearly a decade earlier by the Independent Commission (1991) on the Los Angeles Police Department:

> The most influential and effective training received by a probationer comes from the example set by his or her FTO. If a probationer works with an FTO who is adept at "talking people into jail" and is courteous, that probationer is likely to acquire the same skills. Conversely, if a probationer works with an FTO whose usual conduct is to be rude or arrogant, the probationer may be taught by example to accept those attitudes as appropriate.
>
> The example set by the FTOs is particularly important in teaching appropriate use of force. Probationers enter the field from the Academy with substantial technical training about how to use force techniques, but with little practical experience in judging when force is warranted. Many FTOs have stated that probationers therefore tend to resort to the use of force too quickly. These FTOs said that they believe one of their most important tasks is to show probationers how to "calm down" and use effective communication as an alternative to force. (p.130)

Although the above comments were made in the United States, these same issues cannot be ignored in Canada. For example, there are presently 40 excessive police use of force lawsuits pending against the City of Vancouver and there have been 330 similar claims since 1990 (Howell, 2003). It is evident that liability is often tied to training and this relationship provides an impetus to examine the field training experience and the long term influence the FTO has on the recruit and the organization.

FTO Roles

In addition to full patrol officer responsibilities (McCampbell, 1987), a FTO takes

on several roles such as trainer (Eisenberg, 1981; McCampbell, 1987, Rankin, 1990;

Scialdone, 1994; Molden, 1986), evaluator (Eisenberg, 1981; Oettmeier, 1982;

Spielberger, 1979; Fagan and Ayers, 1985; Walker, 1981; Ministry of Attorney General:

British Columbia Police Commission, 1994; Molden, 1986), supervisor (Glensor, Peak,

& Gaines, 1999; *Police Act*, R.S.B.C. Reg. 1996), counsellor (Molden, 1991; Royal

Canadian Mounted Police, 1999), mentor (Royal Canadian Mounted Police, 1999) and

role model (Rothwell and Kazanas, 1994; Williams, 2000; Edmundson, 1999). The

California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (1988a) defines a field

training officer as "a peace officer assigned to general law enforcement duties who

provides one-on-one training to entry level field trainees" (p.3). As noted by Spielberger

(1979, p.23), "Typically the [field training officers] are experienced, well trained

officers". Although there is no doubt that a field trainer should be a "good cop", a deeper

understanding of the role of field trainer must be established. Being a good trainer

requires more than technical job knowledge, or 'street smarts'. By exploring the recruit

field training experience, this project will identify the degree to which the recruits expect

the FTO to fulfill these and other roles.

On the Job Training

Since there is little opportunity for a recruit to demonstrate the competencies

acquired in the academy environment in the real world at real time with real

consequences, the field training program is crucial to the development of an effective and

independently functioning police officer. Field training bridges the gap between academy training and operational police work by providing excellent supplemental training to the classroom and an opportunity to observe the recruit in actual situations (Holden, 1986). In fact, police recruits rated their field training experience more than twice as important as academy training in a study conducted in New South Wales, Australia (Chan, 2003).

McCreedy (1974; as cited in Spielberger, 1979) acknowledges there is an assumption in law enforcement that recruits who have successfully completed the academy classroom curriculum have the 'stamp of approval', or may be considered competent police officers. This bias can result in an under appreciation for the importance of on-the-job training if one concludes that successfully completing the academy classroom syllabus is the benchmark for a successful police officer. The Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc. (1994) confirmed the significance of field training:

> The field training program is an important adjunct of the formal recruit classroom training and should be as carefully organized, administered, and evaluated as classroom training. The field training program should be closely allied with the academy so that field training officers (FTOs) are aware of what skills and subjects have been taught and what roles the FTOs are to assume.

> The selection process for FTOs is crucial to a successful program as many of the values, tactics, and attitudes of FTOs are transmitted to inexperienced officers. Initial training, as well as periodic in-service training, should be provided to FTOs to prepare them for and keep them current with their assigned responsibilities.

> The successful integration of instruction acquired at the recruit academy with real problems encountered on a day-to-day basis through field training is critical to full competency development. (p. 33-4)

There are limitations to the Justice Institute of British Columbia (JIBC) Police

Academy setting as it applies to on-the-job training, or learning by doing. Police

Academy learning is restricted to the classroom environment. Other than loosely scripted

simulation exercises which evaluate the recruit's practical application of theory, there is

very little opportunity at the Police Academy for the recruit to demonstrate performance

in real time situations.

Selection of FTOs

Failure to properly choose a FTO can lead to poorly trained, screened, and

disillusioned officers (Kuykendall, 1975). As an example of this importance, the

California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (1988b) emphasizes that

"the selection of a field training officer should be approached with the same care that is

exercised in the selection of a supervisor" (p.1). The importance of a properly selected

FTO cannot be underscored enough, particularly in the areas of ethics and integrity. The

Ethics Training Subcommittee of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (1998)

made this clear when they asserted:

> FTOs are the most important link in developing a strong ethical foundation
> and culture within a police organization... FTOs must understand the
> critical position they fill. It is not uncommon that an ethical situation will
> surface within the first 60 minutes spent with a new officer...More than
> any level within a police organization, the very finest, most ethical
> employees must be recruited and retained as FTOs. FTOs should become a
> gateway to first-line supervision within an agency. (p.20)

Several reports and studies on field training have emphasized the necessity of a set

of FTO selection criteria (Fagan, 1985; McCampbell, 1987; Meehan, 2001; Oppal, 1994;

Radford, 2001). However, many of these studies have not readily identified what those selection criteria should be. One purpose of this study is to determine selection criteria.

Rationale for the Study

Field training is an integral part of a recruit's basic training and impacts four immediate stakeholders; the recruit, the FTO, the recruit's sponsoring police department, and the Police Academy. The Police Academy, as a prime stakeholder and integral part in the field-training system, has the potential to effect change within its circle of influence. Although the Police Academy does not choose the recruit or the field trainer, it does, by legislation (*Police Act*, R.S.B.C. Reg., 1996), have a monopoly on the delivery of the training as it relates to the FTO experience. The Police Academy is required by law to provide the initial training to the recruit and furthermore, to certify the FTOs. In this sense, the Academy plays a vital role in field training (see Figure 1).

Figure 1.1 Police Academy training flow chart
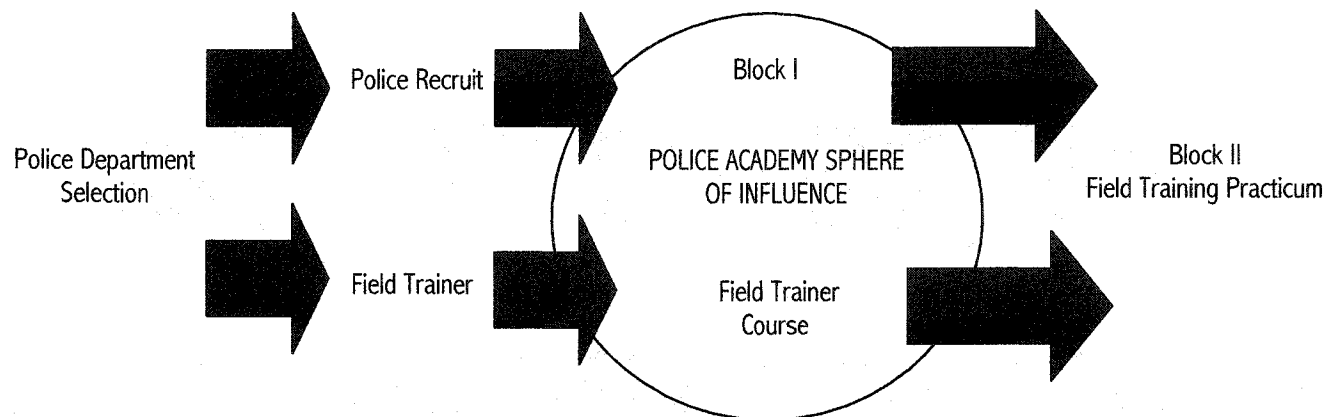
Further to these immediate stakeholders, the community also has a vested interest in well trained officers. Community policing is the predominant policing philosophy embraced by Canadian police agencies. Community policing has two primary components; community/police partnerships and the adoption of a proactive problem solving approach (Pricewaterhouse Coopers, 2001). This philosophy is taught and emphasized at the Police Academy. In a study of 446 Phoenix Regional Police Training Academy police recruits, Haarr (2001) found "the positive gains that the training academy had made in shaping police recruits' attitudes toward community policing and problem solving policing were lost by the end of the field-training process." (p.413) On the other hand, he reported that field training positively impacted the support for traditional policing and the perception of police/public relations. Haarr concludes that the field training process, along with the recruit's emersion into the workplace environment, is more powerful in shaping a recruits attitude or skills towards community policing than individual characteristics, pre-academy attitudes, or academy training:

> [The field-training phase] also represents an important training opportunity for reinforcing and further developing the gains the training academy had made in shaping recruits' attitudes toward community policing and problem-solving policing. At the same time, however, field training represents an opportunity to negate the gains achieved during academy training. (p.427)

In addition to informing the practice of policing and influencing policy, concrete action can be taken at the Police Academy. The current Police Academy FTO course only requires that persons applying should be serving certified municipal constables who are or are about to be assigned field-training duties. Identifying other pre-screening criteria, or qualities, will improve overall effectiveness and possibly "weed out" unsuitable FTO

candidates. These candidates can look to the identified expectations of a FTO's role and may use them as self-selection criteria.

The recruits do not have a structured field training orientation at the Police Academy. The results of this research may be useful in drafting a lesson plan which can be taught to the Block I recruits prior to their field training experience. A contractor previously used to provide the training materials for the field trainer program is no longer utilized. Internal Police Academy faculty are now responsible for the development of this course. This is an opportune time to explore the field training experience so the Police Academy can integrate any relevant findings into its course, thereby improving its own FTO program. At minimum, inclusion of the finding of this research could provide FTOs with an awareness of the expectations of recruits. This, in itself, would be a constructive outcome.

The Radford reports (1997; 2001) commissioned by the Director of the Police Academy, recommended that the Police Academy identify a set of competencies important for the role of field trainer. The Police Academy has not yet addressed this recommendation and its absence has also acted as an impetus for this research. The *Commission of Inquiry Into Policing in British Columbia* (Oppal, 1994) observed there were inadequate selection standards for field trainers. Again, these inadequate standards were a source of motivation to explore effective field training from which standards may be identified. The Police Academy has an opportunity to take a leadership role by identifying the qualities of an effective FTO and reporting these back to the agencies that select the FTOs.

Anecdotal stories related to the researcher by recruits also provided impetus for

this project. On one hand there were stories of excellence; FTOs who had a positive

impact on their recruits and whom the recruits looked to as role models. Unfortunately, it

seemed there were also many negative anecdotes; stories of FTOs who had no desire to

train. In one case it was reported to the researcher that a FTO would not eat at the same

restaurant as their recruit near the end of the Block II training. After reflecting on these

stories, and personal experience as a recruit, FTO, and Police Academy recruit instructor,

it was striking that in some cases field training is seen as a burden to experienced

members. This project provided an opportunity to explore the recruit experiences,

determine actual overall recruit satisfaction, understand the field-training relationship,

identify influencing components, and discover common themes to a successful field

training experience.

> *"Few people will have the same opportunity as F.T.O.'s to impact the*
> *future of the organization. The trainee will be the future of the*
> *Department. How he/she is molded has the potential for significant*
> *meaning in the organization down the road."*
> (Institute for Law Enforcement Administration, 2001, p.2.19)

The Organization

The JIBC, with its main campus located in New Westminster, British Columbia, Canada was established in 1978 as a public post-secondary educational institution and presently comprises ten divisions; Centre for Conflict Resolution, Centre for Leadership and Community Learning, Corrections and Community Justice Division, Courts Academy, Emergency Management Division, Fire and Safety Division, First Nations Programs and Services, Pacific Traffic Education Centre, Paramedic Academy, and Police Academy. Although all divisions strive to train persons in the areas of justice, public safety, and human services, the Police Academy develops and delivers training to British Columbia's independent municipal and tribal police personnel as well as provide advanced law enforcement training to the public and private sectors. The mission statement of the Police Academy reads:

> As a professional standards driven organization, devoted to excellence, we are dedicated to serving police, law enforcement, and security communities worldwide through the provision of training and education programs to enhance leadership, management and operational practices.

The Director of the Police Academy, reporting to the president of the JIBC, manages the Police Academy's four branches. These branches include:

- Police Training Programs

  - Assessment Centre

  - Police Recruit Training

  - Police Advanced Training

  - Police Auxiliary/Reserve program;

- Security Training Programs;

- Advanced Law Enforcement and Regulatory Training; and

- International Training Programs

The largest program area within the Police Academy is police recruit training, based on full time staff and financial cost. Each recruit who attends the Police Academy must first be selected by a municipal or tribal police agency. The recruit must undergo and successfully pass a selection process designed by their sponsoring agency. For the most part, this process will include a written examination, the Peace Officers' Physical Abilities fitness test, the Police Academy Assessment Centre, an interview (which may or may not include a polygraph examination), and a thorough background investigation. Once selected, the recruit becomes an employee of the agency, is paid an entry-level wage, and then must attend the Police Academy for the basic recruit training program. Recently, the Police Academy has begun to charge the recruit for part of the overall cost of their training. As of January 2003 the cost was $9500 per recruit.

The basic recruit training curriculum is presently structured around eight disciplines:

- Arrest and Control includes training in force options theory, officer safety considerations, handcuffing and searching prisoners, physical control tactics and techniques, and the use of intermediate weapons such as the baton, oleo capsicum spray, and Taser.

- Drill includes uniform turnout, saluting, inspection, and marching formations.

- Driver Training includes safe driving techniques and emergency vehicle operations such as pursuit driving.

- <u>Firearms Training</u> includes firearm safety, firearm and ammunition familiarization, cleaning and maintenance, mental and physical conditioning, shooting techniques, as well as tactical and active shooter training.

- <u>Fitness</u> includes nutrition and diet, physical training such as running, circuits, weight lifting, swimming and drown-proofing, and some team sporting events like soccer.

- <u>Legal Studies</u> includes an introduction to law, the Canadian *Charter of Rights and Freedoms*, the *Criminal Code of Canada*, the provincial *Police Act*, powers of arrest, search and seizure, an arrestee's legal right to a lawyer, the admissibility of statements, use of force legislation, courtroom and evidentiary procedures, and understanding common substantive offences such as assault, break and enter, theft, and weapons possession.

- <u>Professional Police Tactics</u> includes ethics training, notebooks and report writing, crime scene protection, drug identification, photo-lineup preparation, interviewing skills, leadership, and investigation and patrol procedures for common offences such as family violence, stolen vehicles, sexual assaults, and prostitution.

- <u>Traffic Studies</u> includes an introduction to provincial motor vehicle legislation and its regulations, emergency vehicle operation legislation, common traffic offences, traffic direction, licence suspensions, speed estimation and radar training, traffic court procedures, and investigations related to impaired driving, hit and run, and traffic collisions.

From 2000 to 2002 inclusive, a total of 303 police recruits (see Table 1.1) graduated from the Police Academy as qualified municipal constables. Female recruits

accounted for 28% of the graduates. This gender representation percentage is nearly twice the 2002 Canadian female officer percentage at 15% and well above British Columbia's 19%, the highest provincial rate in Canada (Canada, 2002). These 303 graduating recruits represented the following police agencies.

- Abbotsford Police Department

- Central Saanich Police Service

- Delta Police Department

- Esquimalt Police Department (now part of Victoria Police Department)

- Nelson Police Department

- New Westminster Police Service

- Port Moody Police Department

- Saanich Police Department

- Stl'imx'atl Tribal Police Service

- Vancouver Police Department

- Victoria Police Department

- West Vancouver Police Department

The only remaining independent municipal police agency in British Columbia, the Oak Bay Police Department with a 2002 authorized strength of 22 members, did not send any recruits to the Police Academy during this time.

Table 1.1   2000-2002 Police Academy graduating recruits (% female)

Department	2000		2001		2002		Total	
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female
Abbotsford	0	0	8	4 50%	10	2 20%	18	6 33%
Central Saanich	2	0	0	0	1	0	3	0
Delta	11	3 27%	5	0	12	1 8%	28	4 14%
Esquimalt	1	1 100%	4	2 50%	0	0	5	3 60%
Nelson	1	0 0%	0	0	0	0	1	0 0%
New Westminster	7	2 29%	5	1 20%	4	1 25%	16	4 25%
Port Moody	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0 0%
Saanich	6	2 33%	11	3 27%	5	1 20%	22	6 27%
Stl'atl'imx	1	0 0%	2	0 0%	2	1 50%	5	1 20%
Vancouver	70	24 34%	46	7 15%	58	19 33%	174	50 29%
Victoria	4	1 25%	5	1 20%	3	2 67%	12	4 33%
West Vancouver	0	0	2	1 50%	14	5 36%	16	6 27%
Total	103	33 32%	91	19 21%	109	32 29%	303	84 28%

Source: JIBC Police Academy

Profiles of Police Department/Service Study Sites

To better understand the policing and field training context in which the participants of this study were involved, agency profiles were developed. The profiles briefly describe each police department and their respective communities. Accompanying each description is a data table outlining statistical information including the geographical area policed, the population policed by the agency, the agencies authorized strength, the population per police officer, the number of *Criminal Code* offences reported to the police, the crime rate per 1,000 people, the *Criminal Code* case burden per police officer, and the number of the recruits from each agency graduating from the Police Academy from 2000 to 2002 inclusive. As a source of comparison, the 2002 Canadian average for population per police officer was 538 people per officer while the British Columbia average was 595 people per officer (Canada, 2003). The Canadian crime rate average in 2001, excluding traffic offences, was 77 crimes per 1,000 people while the British Columbia crime rate average was 114 crimes per 1,000 population. British Columbia's median family income was $54,840 in 2001. The 2002 authorized strengths of the independent police agencies participating in this study accounted for 2,015, or 29%, of British Columbia's overall 6,958 police officers (Canada, 2003). Statistics cited in each profile are 2002 figures unless otherwise noted.

Abbotsford Police Department

Incorporated in 1995 after the amalgamation of the districts of Matsqui and Abbotsford, the City of Abbotsford, one of the most productive agricultural areas in British Columbia, is located approximately 75 km. east of Vancouver in the Fraser Valley

Regional District. Abbotsford is the largest city in British Columbia outside the Greater

Vancouver Regional District, serving as the hub to the Regional District's 253,844

people. With a 2001 median family income of $51,498, the industries employing the most

people were manufacturing and construction, health and education, and wholesale and

retail trade. The city is bordered by the Fraser River and Mission City to the north, the

United States to the south, the District of Chilliwack to the east, and the Municipality of

Langley to the west. All three of its bordering Canadian communities are policed by the

Royal Canadian Mounted Police.

The Abbotsford Police Department is British Columbia's third largest

independent police department with a compliment of 158 sworn members. With its

population of 125,613 residents, Abbotsford is the second largest independently policed

population, behind the City of Vancouver. As well, it has the largest land area (359.18 sq.

km.) of any city or district municipality in the province. The population density of

Abbotsford essentially consists of a core city centre surrounded by rural properties.

Although it had the sixth highest crime rate of the department's participating in this

study, each officer carried a criminal case burden of 91 crimes per officer, ranking as the

second highest. Abbotsford's population per police officer ratio was 795 people to one

officer, well above the Canadian and British Columbia averages. Between 2000 and 2002,

18 Abbotsford police recruits graduated from the Police Academy.

Table 1.2 Profile of the Abbotsford Police Department

Area 359.2 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	119,414	121,930	125,613
Authorized Police Strength	143	148	158
Population per Police Officer	835	824	795
Criminal Code Offences	10,791	13,437	14,309
Crime Rate per 1,000 population	91	111	114
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	75	91	91
Graduating Recruits from Academy	0	8	10

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Central Saanich Police Service

Incorporated in 1950, the rural community of Central Saanich is located on the Saanich Peninsula on southern Vancouver Island in the Capital Regional District, approximately 21 km north of Victoria (British Columbia's capital city). Two thirds of the municipality is comprised of farmland within the agricultural land reserve. With a 2001 median family income of $67,573, most residents were employed by government, health and social services, or retail trade. The Central Saanich Police Service patrols this community of 15,995 residents with 21 sworn officers. It is the third smallest police agency involved in this study and has the lowest crime rate with 47 crimes per 1,000 people. Its *Criminal Code* case burden of 36 crimes per officer was also the lowest. Between 2000 and 2002, only three Central Saanich police recruits graduated from the Police Academy.

Table 1.3 Profile of the Central Saanich Police Service

Area 41.4 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	15,813	15,993	15,995
Authorized Police Strength	21	21	21
Population per Police Officer	753	762	762
Criminal Code Offences	850	784	751
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	54	49	47
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	40	37	36
Graduating Recruits from Academy	2	0	1

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Delta Police Department

Incorporated in 1879, the Corporation of Delta is located in the southwest corner of mainland British Columbia and is bordered by three water boundaries (the Fraser River, Boundary Bay, and Georgia Strait). Delta is part of the Greater Vancouver Regional District and is comprised of three distinct communities; North Delta (the most populated area), Ladner (originally a farming and fishing village), and Tsawwassen (named after its Native inhabitants). North Delta is also home to the 10,000 acre Burn's Bog while Tsawwassen is a departure and arrival point for British Columbia Ferry Services Inc. ferries bound for and returning from Vancouver Island and the Gulf Islands. With a 2001 median family income of $70,509, manufacturing, retail trade, transportation, and communication employ the most people.

Its population of 101,299 residents was serviced by the 139 officer strong Delta Police Department, making it British Columbia's fifth largest independent police force. Delta has the ninth lowest crime rate of the departments studied as well as the ninth lowest *Criminal Code* case burden per officer. From 2000 to 2002, the Delta Police

Department accounted for 28 of the Police Academy's graduating recruits.

Table 1.4 Profile of the Delta Police Department

Area 183.8 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	101,388	101,520	101,299
Authorized Police Strength	138	143	139
Population per Police Officer	735	710	729
Criminal Code Offences	7,260	7,560	6,543
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	72	74	65
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	53	53	47
Graduating Recruits from Academy	11	5	12

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Esquimalt Police Department

Incorporated in 1912, the Corporation of the Township of Esquimalt is located in the Capital Regional District four km. west of Victoria. It is situated on the southeast end of Vancouver Island and is home to a Canadian Forces Base and largest employer in the area. Esquimalt's 2001 median family income was $51,074 and government services, health and social services, and retail trade employed the most people. The Esquimalt Police Department was comprised of 34 sworn members who responded to 1,908 criminal offences while policing its 16,903 residents. Esquimalt had one of the best population per police officer ratios of 497 residents to one officer, well below both the Canadian and British Columbia averages. From 2000 to 2002, only five Esquimalt recruits graduated from the Police Academy. Today, Esquimalt is policed by the Victoria Police Department after an amalgamation on January 1, 2003 between the Esquimalt Police Department and the Victoria Police Department. All five Esquimalt recruits were absorbed into the Victoria Police Department and now serve as regular Victoria Police

Department members.

Table 1.5 Profile of the Esquimalt Police Department

Area 7.0 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	16,784	16,984	16,903
Authorized Police Strength	33	34	34
Population per Police Officer	509	500	497
Criminal Code Offences	2,088	2,003	1,908
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	124	118	113
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	63	59	56
Graduating Recruits from Academy	1	4	0

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Nelson Police Department

Incorporated in 1965, Nelson is nestled in the Central Kootenay Region District on the shore of Kootenay Lake in the interior of British Columbia. The Central Kootenay Region District serves a population of 59,245. Nelson had a median family income in 2001 of $52,488 and retail trade, health and social services, and educational services are its major employers. The Nelson Police Department is one of British Columbia's smallest independent police forces. It is responsible for policing only 7.3 sq. km while servicing just over 9,500 Nelson residents. Its 17 members responded to 1,580 *Criminal Code* offences resulting in a case burden of 93 *Criminal Code* cases per member, the highest of all independents involved in this study. From 2000 and 2002, only one Nelson Police recruit graduated from the Police Academy.

Table 1.6 Profile of the Nelson Police Department

Area 7.3 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	9,596	9,746	9,571
Authorized Police Strength	17	17	17
Population per Police Officer	564	573	563
Criminal Code Offences	1,189	1,300	1,580
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	124	133	165
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	70	76	93
Graduating Recruits from Academy	1	0	0

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

New Westminster Police Service

Incorporated in 1860, the City of New Westminster is the oldest city in western Canada and is known as the "Royal City". It is the geographical centre of the Greater Vancouver Regional District and is located on the north bank of the Fraser River, 9 km southeast of Vancouver. New Westminster has a median family income of $55,399 and manufacturing, retail trade, and health and social services are its major employers. It is relatively small in area (15.4 sq. km) with 57,603 residents. The New Westminster Police Service is comprised of 106 police officers making it the sixth largest independent police agency in the study. It has a population per police officer ratio of 563 residents per officer. This is below the British Columbia average, but the city has the fourth highest crime rate and *Criminal Code* case burden per officer among the independents. Between 2000 and 2002, the New Westminster Police Service accounted for 10 of the Police Academy graduates.

Table 1.7 Profile of the New Westminster Police Service

Area 15.4 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	57,724	57,713	57,603
Authorized Police Strength	111	106	106
Population per Police Officer	520	544	543
Criminal Code Offences	8,120	8,913	8,398
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	141	154	146
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	73	84	79
Graduating Recruits from Academy	1	5	4

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Port Moody Police Department

Incorporated in 1913, the City of Port Moody is located on the east end of Burrard Inlet, 26 km. east of Vancouver. It is a growing suburb centrally situated in the Greater Vancouver regional District. Retail trade, health and social services, and transportation and communication employed the most people resulting in a median income of $70,239 per family in 2001. The Port Moody Police Department serves this community of 25,545 people with 32 police members. This results in a population per police officer ratio of 798 people per officer, the highest of the independents and well above the Canadian and British Columbia averages. It had one of the lowest crime rates of the independents at 65 crimes per 1,000, just over half the British Columbia average. With 1,653 criminal cases, each officer was burdened with an average of 52 cases. Only three Port Moody Police Department recruits graduated from the Police Academy from 2000 to 2002.

Table 1.8 Profile of the Port Moody Police Department

Area 25.6 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	24,460	25,047	25,545
Authorized Police Strength	30	30	32
Population per Police Officer	815	835	798
Criminal Code Offences	1,811	1,616	1,653
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	74	65	65
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	60	54	52
Graduating Recruits from Academy	0	3	0

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Saanich Police Department

Incorporated in 1906, the District Municipality of Saanich is located on the Saanich Peninsula in the Capital Regional District and is bounded by Victoria, Oak Bay, and Central Saanich. It is a major residential bedroom community and has the largest area (103.4 sq. km) of any community in the Capital Regional District. Saanich's major employing industries are government services, health and social services, and retail trade resulting in a 2001 median family income of $62,532. The Saanich Police Department patrols a population of 108,084 residents with 141 officers, making it the fourth largest police agency in this study. Saanich had 5,995 *Criminal Code* offences resulting in only 43 *Criminal Code* cases per officer. With the second lowest crime rate of participating agencies, less than half the British Columbia average, Saanich had the third highest resident per police officer population at 767 people per officer. From 2000 to 2002, 22 Saanich police recruits graduated from the Police Academy.

Table 1.9 Profile of the Saanich Police Department

Area 103.4 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	107,758	108,543	108,084
Authorized Police Strength	136	138	141
Population per Police Officer	792	786	767
Criminal Code Offences	6,942	6,175	5,995
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	64	57	55
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	51	45	43
Graduating Recruits from Academy	6	11	5

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Stl'imx'atl Tribal Police Service

On December 1, 1999 the Stl'imx'atl Tribal Police Service was granted full policing authority over its 10 participating First Nation Indian Bands; Cayoose Creek, Douglas, Fountain, Mount Currie, N'Quatqua, Pavilion, Seton Lake, Skookumchuck, Samahquam, and T'it'kit. The Stl'imx'atl Tribal Police Service is the smallest independent police agency and lone tribal service in this study with only 10 members, policing a population of 2,400 residents. The population per police officer ratio of 240 residents to one officer left Stl'imx'atl with the lowest such ratio of all independents, less than half the Canadian and British Columbia averages. With its 494 *Criminal Code* offences, Stl'imx'atl had the second highest crime rate of 206 criminal offences per 1,000 people, but only 49 cases per officer to investigate. From 2000 to 2002, only five Stl'imx'atl recruits graduated from the Police Academy, representing 50% of its 2002 strength.

Table 1.10 Profile of the Stl'imx'atl Tribal Police Service

Area sq. km. unavailable	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	2,661	2,416	2,400
Authorized Police Strength	10	10	10
Population per Police Officer	266	241	240
Criminal Code Offences	437	448	494
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	164	185	206
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	44	45	49
Graduating Recruits from Academy	1	2	2

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Vancouver Police Department

Incorporated in 1886, the City of Vancouver, located in the southwest corner of mainland British Columbia, is British Columbia's largest city (Canada's eighth largest) with a population of 581,207 residents. It is situated in one of Canada's fastest growing and third largest metropolitan area (behind Toronto and Montreal), the Greater Vancouver Regional District, home to approximately 2.1 million people. The median family income of Vancouver was $51,268 in 2001 while the major employing industries were business services, retail trade, accommodation, food, and beverage services. The Vancouver Police Department is the largest independent police service in British Columbia with an authorized strength of 1,096 members. It is the sixth largest police force in Canada behind Toronto, Montreal, Calgary, Peel Regional, and Edmonton (Canada, 2003). Vancouver's population per police officer was 530 residents to one officer, nearly equal to the Canadian average, but well below the British Columbia average. With the city's 72,510 criminal offences, Vancouver had the fifth highest crime rate among the independents resulting in a *Criminal Code* case burden per officer of 65,

also the fifth highest. Vancouver sent the most police recruits to the Police Academy with

175 successful graduates from 2000 to 2002.

At the time the project survey was distributed to the sample population, the

Vancouver Police Department's internal investigation section was probing into

allegations that six of its patrol officers had assaulted three suspected drug dealers. Four

of the six officers had three years or less on the department and the allegations had been

brought forward from a rookie police officer within the organization (Culbert & Fong,

2003). This rookie was a recruit in their field training practicum and one of the officers

alleged to have been involved in the assault was their FTO (Garr, 2003). This incident

received national (Mickleburgh, 2003; CBC News, 2003) and local media attention. It is

unknown if this investigation had any effect on the response rate for the participants in

general or the Vancouver recruits specifically, but is reported for information only. In

some cases, historical events may impede response (Hagan, 2003).

Table 1.11 Profile of the Vancouver Police Department

Area 114.7sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	571,069	578,636	581,207
Authorized Police Strength	1,066	1,096	1,096
Population per Police Officer	536	528	530
Criminal Code Offences	78,107	74,812	72,510
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	137	129	123
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	73	68	65
Graduating Recruits from Academy	70	46	59

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and
Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include
traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

Victoria Police Department

Incorporated in 1862, the City of Victoria is located in the Capital Regional District on

the southern end of Vancouver Island and is British Columbia's capital city and home to

the provincial legislature. More than 340,000 people live within the Capital Regional

District in and around Victoria. The primary employing industries in Victoria are

government services, retail trade, and accommodation, food, and beverage. Victoria's

medium income was $48,514 in 2001. The Victoria Police Department is the second

largest of British Columbia's independents with 184 members servicing 77,941 residents.

Its 16,825 *Criminal Code* offences gave Victoria the distinction of having the highest

crime rate among the independents, almost thrice the Canadian average. Victoria had the

second lowest population per police officer ratio of the independents at 424 residents per

officer, well below both the Canadian and British Columbia averages. From 2000 to

2002, the Victoria Police department had 12 recruits successfully graduate from the

Police Academy.

Table 1.12 Profile of the Victoria Police Department

Area 19.7 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	77,383	78,389	77,941
Authorized Police Strength	178	184	184
Population per Police Officer	435	426	424
Criminal Code Offences	16,355	15,895	16,825
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	211	203	216
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	92	86	91
Graduating Recruits from Academy	4	5	3

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and
Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include
traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

West Vancouver Police Department

Incorporated in 1912, the district municipality of West Vancouver is located on the North Shore of Vancouver. It is a residential community incorporating the villages of Horseshoe Bay (a departure point for British Columbia Ferry Services Inc. ferries to Vancouver Island, Bowen Island, and the Sunshine Coast), Ambleside, and Dundarave. West Vancouver had the highest median family income in 2001 of the independents at $94,986. The industries employing the most people were business services, finance, insurance, real estate, and retail trade. The West Vancouver Police Department services a population of 45,213 residents with its 77 officers. This provides the community with a population per police officer ratio of 587 residents per officer, just above the Canadian average but below the provincial average. There were 3,476 *Criminal Code* offences resulting in the eighth highest crime rate among the independents in this study at 77 crimes per 1,000 people. Similarly, the criminal case burden per officer is also relatively low, at 45 cases per officer, less than half of the Abbotsford, Nelson, and Victoria Police departments. Sixteen recruits graduated from the Police Academy from 2000 to 2002. These graduates represent 21% of West Vancouver's overall strength in 2002.

Table 1.13 Profile of the West Vancouver Police Department

Area 87.4 sq. km.	2000	2001	2002
Population Policed	45,190	45,350	45,213
Authorized Police Strength	77	77	77
Population per Police Officer	580	589	587
Criminal Code Offences	2,678	2,812	3,476
Crime Rate (per 1,000)	59	62	77
Criminal Code Case Burden per Officer	35	37	45
Graduating Recruits from Academy	0	2	14

Based upon data collected from the Police Services Division, Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General, Province of British Columbia. Criminal Code offences do not include traffic offences. Area figures were obtained from British Columbia statistics.

CHAPTER TWO – INFORMATION REVIEW

Review of Organizational Documents

Block II field training is the responsibility of four partners; the Police Academy, the police agency, the FTO, and the recruit. Consequently, the current FTO program is interdependent on a number of stakeholders, including the provincial government through the Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General Police Services Division, the Police Academy, the independent police agencies, and the police officer's bargaining agents. As a result, a rather broad, non restrictive review of organizational documents was undertaken. Therefore, the information review was not limited to Police Academy documents, but rather it includes organizational documents from the other stakeholders. The following eight areas were examined:

- Provincial Legislation

- Police Academy Field Trainer Course

- Police Academy Block II (FTO) Recruit Evaluation Report

- Provincial Field Training Standards

- Police Agency Policy and Procedure

- Employee Collective Agreements

- The Radford Reports (1997; 2001)

- The Oppal Commission of Inquiry (1994)

Provincial Legislation

The *Police Act*, R.S.B.C. 1996 (the *Act*) is a provincial statute that governs policing in the province of British Columbia. Under this *Act* there are three distinct classes of police forces; a provincial police force, a municipal police department, and designated policing units (s.1.1). Municipalities with a population of more than 5,000 people must provide an adequately sized police department to maintain law and order as well as enforce municipal, provincial, and criminal law (s.15). Of the municipalities that have more than 5,000 people, only 12 have elected to have an independent police department (11 of these municipal police departments participated in this study). The remaining 59 British Columbia municipalities with more than 5,000 people that have not elected to form their own municipal police department are policed under contract by British Columbia's provincial police force, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. The Stl'imx'atl Tribal Police Service, which also participated in this study, is a prescribed designated policing unit under the *Police Act: Prescribed Police Forces Regulation, B.C. Reg. 70/99*.

The Police Academy recruit training is a creature of statute. Under s. 74(u) of the *Act*, British Columbia's Lieutenant Governor in Council derives the power to make regulations governing, among other things, training. The *Police Act: Rules Regarding Training, Certification and Registration of Municipal Constables Appointed Under Section 26 of the Police Act, B.C. Reg. 109/81* (1981) (the *Regulations*) made pursuant to s.74(u) of the *Act* creates the statutory framework for police recruit training carried out at the Police Academy. Section 2(1) of the *Regulations* requires a municipal police board to ensure "that every municipal constable of the force it governs, with the exception of the

chief constable or the deputy chief constable, attains the status of <u>qualified municipal</u> <u>constable</u> prior to the first anniversary of [their] appointment" (emphasis added). A "qualified municipal constable" is defined in s.1 of the *Regulations* as including:

> ...a municipal constable who ... (b) was certified by the director [of the Police Academy] to have (i) successfully completed the <u>peace officers basic</u> <u>training program</u>... (emphasis added)

The "peace officers basic training program" encompasses three distinct training periods known as Block I, Block II, and Block III (s.4 of the *Regulations*). This basic training program is part of a broader "peace officer general training program". This basic training program occurs either "at or under the auspices of the [Police Academy]...during which the students [recruits] will acquire the knowledge, skills and understanding to function as peace officers in society" (s.1 of the *Regulations*). Blocks I and III are instructional training and occur at the Police Academy. The Police Academy (2003) Training Calendar describes Block I and III as follows:

> [The first block of training] places heavy emphasis on police skills (such as driver training, firearms, arrest and control, investigation and patrol techniques), legal studies, physical fitness, foot drill (dress and deportment), and an introduction to the social sciences. The intent of Block I is to develop a relevant knowledge base for the Block II field training. When a recruit enters the Police Academy, a personal training record through the Provincial Constable's Registry is started. This record is continually upgraded throughout the constable's training (recruit and advanced) that also assists in determining future training needs.
>
> ... ...
>
> In Block III...the recruit constable returns [from Block II] to the Police Academy, bringing experience from the "street scene." This block builds on the knowledge of Block I and the practical experience of Block II in preparing the recruit to function independently upon graduation....

The Block II ("street scene") period is a "practicum which is monitored by the director [of the Police Academy] or his designate and during which the trainee [recruit]

works under the direct supervision of a field trainer" (s.4 of the *Regulations*). This Block

II period is described in the Training Calendar (Police Academy, 2003) as follows:

> In Block II, the recruit constable returns to their home police
> department...During this field training component, the recruit works under
> the guidance and continuous assistance of an experienced, specially
> trained constable (known as a field trainer). The field trainer is responsible
> for ensuring that the recruit receives a wide exposure to general police
> work. As a result, the recruit has the opportunity to apply the knowledge
> gained in Block I within an operational setting.

Since there is little opportunity for a recruit to demonstrate the competencies

acquired in the academy environment in the real world at real time with real

consequences, this Block II training program is crucial to the development of an effective

police officer because it offers a learning environment the Police Academy cannot

reproduce.

For the most part, the recruit-learning path can be described as theory (Block I),

practice (Block II), and theory (Block III) (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1. Qualified Municipal Constable recruit learning path: Peace Officers Basic
         Training Program

Block I Police Academy	Block II Field Training with Sponsoring Agency	Block III Police Academy	Graduation: Qualified Municipal
11 weeks	13-17 weeks	11 weeks	Constable

The utility of this block training configuration was recognized by Oppal (1994):

> One advantage of a block system of training is that recruits have an opportunity to experience both the theoretical and practical aspects of policing during their early training. The first block is intended to provide the recruit with a foundation of knowledge and skills pertinent to general duty policing. The second allows the recruit to apply some of this information under the tutelage of an experienced officer—a field training officer. (p.E-40)

Radford (1997) noted a similar efficacy:

> The majority of the interviewees saw Block III as a useful opportunity to reflect and build on the practical experience gained in Block II. To return to the Academy environment in order to compare their experiences, various procedures and practices of their departments, and the differing styles of their field-trainers, was seen by the recruits as very worthwhile. (p.17)

And again in 2001 (Radford, 2001):

> The three block system developed by the Academy successfully integrates conceptual knowledge with practical field application. A number of the interviewees compared the JIBC model with the intensive six month boot camp system used predominantly in Police training internationally and in each case were clear that the JIBC block system was vastly superior. Most often the reasons expressed were related to the advantages of recruits receiving key training in Block III after receiving sufficient basic knowledge in Block I and being exposed to the realities of police work in Block II. Most recruits noted the value of returning to the Academy in Block III with the real police work experience as a basis for motivation and learning. (p.52)

The director of the Police Academy establishes the duration of these training periods, or blocks. At the time of this study the periods were designated as follows:

- Block I   11 weeks   (Academy instruction)

- Block II   13 to 17 weeks   (field training with sponsoring agency)

- Block III   11 weeks   (Academy instruction)

Following the successful completion of Block III the peace officers basic training

program is brought to an end and the recruit graduates as a "qualified municipal

constable", returning to their home police agency. At this time the recruit is eligible to

function independently as an operational police officer.

During the next 18 months, the recruit is monitored by their shift supervisor

during a probationary period known as Block IV. Block IV is "a continuation of and

complimentary to the peace officers basic training program" (s.1 of the *Regulations*)

where the recruit performs general patrol duties with minimal supervision. A successful

Block IV concludes when the recruit's supervisor submits a "Block IV Certification

Evaluation Report" summarizing the recruit's performance and recommending

certification by the Director of the Police Academy. In this report the supervisor will rate

the recruit as either "competent" or "needs development" in the following performance

categories; professional conduct, interpersonal relations and communication skills,

investigation and patrol skills, and legal knowledge. However, at this time no objective

evaluation standards are included in the Block IV report. At the conclusion of Block IV,

all recruit training is complete. The recruit now attains the status of a "certified municipal

constable" and no longer retains the "recruit" designation (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Certified Municipal Constable recruit learning path: Peace Officers General
           Training Program

Block I	Block II	Block III	Block IV	Certified
Academy	Field Training	Academy	18 months	Municipal
Peace Officers Basic Training Program			general patrol duties under minimal supervision	Constable
Peace Officers General Training program				
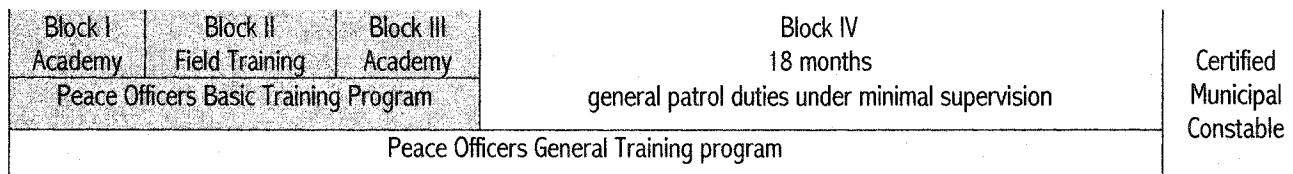
The other active participant of the field training experience is the FTO. Section 1 of the *Regulations* defines a "field trainer" as follows:

> "field trainer" means a certified municipal constable who has at least 5 years of police experience and who was appointed by his chief constable and was certified by the director to have the competence to supervise students of the peace officers basic training program during their practicum period. (emphasis added)

By definition a FTO must be a certified municipal police officer with a minimum of five years police experience, appointed by their Chief Constable and certified by the Police Academy Director as a FTO. The selection of the FTO is left to the discretion of the sponsoring agency, but training the officer selected as a FTO remains with the Police Academy.

Finally, the departments liaise with the Police Academy through the Training Officers Advisory Committee (TOAC). This committee consists of all departmental training officers who are appointed by their Chief Constable to administer the department's training obligations. The resolves of the TOAC are considered by the Police Academy Director in matters relevant to training curriculum and policy.

Police Academy Field Trainer Course

The certification of a FTO by the Police Academy Director is based upon successful completion of the Police Academy's three day (24 hours) Field Trainer Course (POL 661). As recently as 2000, this course was five days (40 hours) but has undergone some redesigning. In 2001 its length was reduced to four days (32 hours) and the course has since been reduced further to the current three days. This certification course is described in the Police Academy's Training Calendar (Police Academy, 2003b) as follows:

The purpose of this course is to provide police officers who are assigned field training duties with the knowledge and skills required to train a recruit constable during the Block II field training period. Topics include:

- Block Training Overview
- Performance Evaluation Report Summary
- Traffic Studies and Impaired Investigations
- Legal Update
- Personal Style and leadership
- Coaching and Counselling Skills
- Training Management Plans
- Tips/Tactics/Techniques
- Progressive Documentation
- Correcting performance Problems (p.19)

Admittance to the FTO course only requires that applicants be certified municipal constables currently assigned, or about to be assigned, field training duties. Certification as a municipal constable can occur in as little as two years, which includes the initial Block I to III training. The minimum five year experience threshold required by legislation is not mentioned in the Training Calendar's FTO criteria.

The original 40 hour Field Trainer Course was comprised of the following:

- Day 1: a summary of the recruit's training to date, the performance evaluations to be completed, an overview of the Block I and III legal studies curriculum, and a legal update.

- Day 2: personal style and situational leadership, a briefing on recruit simulations, practical exercises observing and evaluating recruits during their simulations, a group discussion, and report writing

- Day 3: leadership, coaching, and counseling skills

- Day 4: review and progressive documentation, field training tips, tactics, and techniques, developing and preparing a training management plan

- Day 5: group presentations of the training management plans and a course

  exam followed by a course evaluation

Training materials of this FTO course was primarily delivered by a contract

instructor. However, internal faculty is now responsible for content development and

delivery. Today, the 24 hour Field Trainer Course consists of the following:

- Day 1: participant introductions, teaching styles, one-to-one training process,

  ethics, and familiarization with the recruit evaluation reports.

- Day 2: legal update, performance evaluations, and practical exercises where

  Block I recruit simulations are observed and evaluations recorded

- Day 3: further simulation evaluations and an introduction to training

  management plans introduced.

The researcher audited the previous three Field Trainer Courses for the attendee's

number of years of police experience. It was found that of the 67 most recent police

officers certified as field trainers during the last three class offerings, 57% did not have

the minimum five years experience required by the *Regulations* (see Table 2.1). In fact,

36% had less than four years service and the most junior FTO candidates only had 26

months of total police experience. Nine of those 26 months of service were completed

during the Peace Officer's Basic Training Program. In other words, both of these most

junior FTO candidates had only 17 months of operational police experience as a qualified

municipal constable before they were certified by the Police Academy Director as a FTO.

It is not known how many of these certified FTOs with less than five years

experience went on to FTO assignments, but it is known by the researcher that some did

and are presently training recruits. Interestingly, 19 of the recruits who were sampled for

this project and who do not yet have five years service have already been certified as

FTOs by the Police Academy.

Table 2.1   Recent certified FTOs years of police experience

Years of service	Number	%
0 to <1	0	0
1 to <2	0	0
2 to <3	7	10.4
3 to <4	17	25.4
4 to <5	14	20.9
5 to <6	9	13.4
6 to <7	5	7.5
7 to <8	2	3.0
8 to <9	1	1.5
9 to <10	1	1.5
10 to <15	8	11.9
15 to <20	0	0
20+	1	1.5
Exempt (unknown service)	2	3.0
Total	67	

Source: JIBC Police Academy
Field Trainers Course (POL661) April 28, 2003; January 21, 2003; November 7, 2002

Police Academy Block II (FTO) Recruit Evaluation Report

The Police Academy Block II Recruit Evaluation Report (Police Academy,

2003a), or daily observation report as it is known in some circles, is a Police Academy

generated document that accompanies the Block I recruit into their Block II field training

experience. This report is to be completed by the FTO as the recruit progresses through

their Block II training. The purpose of the report is twofold. First, it provides a source of

feedback to the recruit. Second, it provides an evaluative instrument to monitor a recruit's progress. In it, the FTO records their observations of the recruit's performance. The report is divided into individual "work periods" (each work period being one set of shifts) and it is the responsibility of the FTO to observe, document, and evaluate a recruit's performance in the following eight categories:

- Dress and deportment

- Driving skills

- Interpersonal relations

- Investigation and patrol skills

- Legal studies knowledge

- Officer safety knowledge and skills

- Report writing and note taking skills

- Traffic studies knowledge

A three-point rating scale is used for evaluation purposes:

- Score of "1"— Unacceptable – the recruit fails to meet the minimum acceptable level of performance for a recruit that has completed Block I. He or she shows an inability to learn, or makes little or no attempt at improvement.

- Score of "2"— Needs development – The recruit barely meets minimum performance expectations for a Block II recruit. Further development is recommended prior to returning to Block III.

- Score of "3"— Acceptable – The recruit has attained or exceeded acceptable performance levels for a recruit in Block II. He or she is recommended to return to Block III for further training.

There is no explanation in the evaluation report that describes the standards for the eight performance categories or any objective criteria against which to base the

ratings. For instance, the category of "dress and deportment" does not explain in any

detail what the FTO is to evaluate or what a minimum acceptable standard is. To illustrate

this point by example, compare the above ratings to an evaluative seven-point rating

guideline established by the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and

Training (2000) on "general appearance":

- (1) Unacceptable—Overweight (in comparison to hiring standard), dirty shoes, and wrinkled uniform. Uniform fits poorly or is improperly worn. Hair not groomed and/or in violation of Departmental regulation. Weapon or equipment is dirty. Equipment is missing or inoperative. Offensive body odor or breath.

- (4) Acceptable—Uniform neat, clean. Uniform fits and is properly worn. Weapon, leather, and equipment is clean and operative. Hair is within regulations and shoes and brass are shined.

- (7) Superior—Uniform is neat, clean and tailored. Leather gear is shined, and shoes are spit-shined. Displays command bearing.

The California guideline clearly establishes a baseline for objective evaluation.

In addition to the evaluation documentation, FTOs are also requested to ensure

that recruits complete the following nine assignments:

- Compile a list of at least ten possible "community partners" able to assist the police;

- Complete a ViCLAS report on a sexual assault investigation and submit it to the investigator;

- Prepare a 30 minute diversity project presentation;

- Identify a problem in the community and prepare a written problem oriented policing proposal to address the concern;

- Write a narrative on one aspect of the department's harassment policy that will have the greatest impact on the recruit;

- Complete an impaired driving investigation;

- Write a violation ticket for a motor vehicle offence and bring a copy to Block III;

- Complete a DISC (deter and identify sex trade consumers) stop;

- Attend the firearms range as often as possible during Block II training.

The departmental training officers are required to sign off each assignment.

Provincial Field Training Standards

In 1990 a joint venture between the British Columbia Police Commission and the British Columbia Association of Chiefs of Police established the Provincial Standards for Municipal Police Departments in British Columbia. The purpose of these benchmarks was to identify minimum acceptable standards for police. This would facilitate uniform policing standards among departments in the province benefiting both the police and the public (Ministry of Attorney General Police Services Division, 1995). These standards were subsequently endorsed by an Order of the Lieutenant Governor in Council in 1992 and formed the basis by which municipal police departments would be audited by the Police Commission (now Police Services Division). Each standard was mandatory and required each independent police department to develop a written policy pertaining to the established standard. Along with standard C1.1.1, which requires written job descriptions for every position in the department, standards C6.2.1 and C6.2.2 were specifically established to address field training issues:

C6.2.1 The department requires all newly sworn officers, other than challenge or exemption candidates, to complete the third period of training (Block III) of the peace Officers Basic Training Program at the Police Academy prior to any operational assignment, except as part of a formal field training program.

Notes: The intent of this standard is to preclude assigning persons to positions requiring the carrying of firearms, enforcing the law or making arrests until they successfully complete a structured basic training course. Challenge and exemption procedures are outlined in the Police Act

C6.2.2 Written policy establishes a field training program for recruits with provisions for the following:
- a selection process for field training officers;
- training and supervision of field training officer;
- liaison with the academy staff;
- guidelines for the evaluation of recruits by field training officers; and
- reporting responsibilities of field training officers.

Notes: The goal of field training is to provide recruit trainees with qualified instruction; and the department and the Police Academy with an objective appraisal of recruit performance.

The standards however, did not outline a selection process, nor the necessary training, guidelines, responsibilities, or job description. The standards simply required that a policy be established by the police agency.

Several *Police Act* inspections have been conducted by the former British Columbia Police Commission and the now Police Services Division. As part of these inspections, the auditing authority determined whether the agency under review had complied with the provincial standards. The findings were then published. A random examination by the researcher of 12 of these municipal police inspection reports found only three, or 25%, (Matsqui Police Department, 1994; Port Moody Police Department, 1998; Esquimalt Police Department, 1999) had complied with standard C6.2.2 establishing a written policy for a field training program. The remaining nine inspections,

or 75%, (Delta Police Department, 1990; New Westminster Police Department, 1990; Central Saanich Police Department, 1992; Victoria Police Department, 1992; Vancouver Police Department, 1994; Saanich Police Department, 1994; Delta Police Department, 1995; New Westminster Police Service, 1996; Oak Bay Police Department, 1998) found the audited agencies failed to meet the minimum standard. Both the Delta Police Department (1995) and the New Westminster Police Service (1996) each failed twice to meet the field training policy standards despite an earlier deficiency in policy recognized by the Commission and published in 1990.

In 1994, a Model Policy and Procedures Manual for Municipal Police Departments in British Columbia was published by the Ministry of Attorney General, British Columbia Police Commission (1994). This policy manual was written to reflect the mandatory and minimum acceptable provincial standards for police established earlier in 1990. The field training portion of the model policy recognized the need for police departments to:

> ...provide appropriate training for police recruits, through a training program that:
> - is described and maintained in writing,
> - establishes performance objectives for recruit training programs, and
> - includes a field training program (AB130 1.4).

Furthermore, this model policy required municipal police departments to:

> ...establish a field training program for recruits with provision for the following:
> - a selection process for field training officers,
> - training and supervision of field training officers,
> - liaison with the Police Academy staff,
> - guidelines for the evaluation of recruits by field training officers, and
> - reporting responsibilities of field training officers (AB130 1.5).

Again however, like the standards, the development of policy to address these needs was left with the individual departments.

Police Agency Policy and Procedure

The researcher made contact with representatives from 11 police agencies whose recruits were sampled for this project enquiring into whether they had any current policy and procedure on a selection process for FTOs. Of the 11 police agencies participating in this project, only four, or 36%, (Abbotsford, Central Saanich, Port Moody, Victoria (now includes Esquimalt)) had a policy and procedure outlining a selection process for FTOs. The remaining seven agencies (Delta, Nelson, New Westminster, Saanich, Stl'atl'imx, Vancouver, and West Vancouver) did not. The Abbotsford Police Department's (1999) policy is as follows:

> I.B.90(26) Members may be selected as Field Trainers by OIC Corporate Resources if they meet the following criteria:
> (a) have a multifaceted and wealthy volume of police experience;
> (b) able to analyze the job into the various tasks that must be performed;
> (c) able to separate the important issues from the superfluous;
> (d) have superlative communication skills;
> (e) are enthusiastic and have positive attitude toward the job and the organization; and
> (f) have successfully completed the Field Trainers program at the B.C. Police Academy.

The Central Saanich Police Service's (2000) FTO selection policy:

> 3.07(b) Selection
> The selection process for Field Training Officers will be done by the Training Officer, in consultation with the Watch Commander, with consideration given to the potential candidates possessing the following qualifications and attributes:
> i) members holding the rank of First Class Constable, with a preference for members with five or more years service,
> ii) members having a demonstrated desire to accept the responsibilities of a Field Trainer,

iii) members possessing the ability to communicate knowledge to others using approved methods and techniques,

iv) members having a demonstrated good job knowledge, work experience and quality enforcement, coupled with an understanding and practice of Service policy,

v) members having a good reputation within the Service and with the citizens of the community.

The Port Moody Police Department's (n.d.) FTO selection policy:

7.2 Selection

The selection process for Field Training Officers will be done by the Training Officer with consideration given to the potential candidates possessing the following qualifications and attributes:

- members holding the rank of First Class Constable, with a preference for members with five or more years service,
- members having a demonstrated desire to accept the responsibilities of a Field Trainer,
- members possessing the ability to communicate knowledge to others using approved methods and techniques,
- members having a demonstrated good job knowledge, work experience and quality enforcement, coupled with an understanding and practice of Departmental policy,
- members having a good reputation within the Department and with the citizens of the community.

The Victoria Police Department's (1994) FTO selection policy:

3.20 The selection process for Field Training Officers will be done by the Training and Career Path Sergeants of the Human Resources Division with consideration given to the potential candidates possessing the following qualifications and attributes:

- Members holding the rank of First Class Constable, with a preference for members with five or more years service;
- Members having a demonstrated desire to accept the responsibilities of a Field Trainer;
- Members possessing the ability to communicate knowledge to others using approved methods and techniques; and
- Members having a demonstrated good job knowledge, work experience and quality enforcement, coupled with an understanding and practice of Departmental policy,

The Delta Police Department follows the guidelines set by the Police Academy. Its relatively small size allows the decision makers to "know" each Block II recruit and hand select the "best fit" from available FTOs (Sgt. Rick Parent, personal communication, March 20, 2003). The Nelson Police Department does not perceive a FTO selection policy as necessary (Insp. H. Paivarinta, personal communication, April 25, 2003). The department has only sent two recruits to the Police Academy in the last 21 years. This reasoning is consistent with a British Columbia Police Commission inspection where the Commission (Nelson Police Department,1993) reported:

> As most members [of the Nelson Police Department] come via lateral entry, the role of field trainer does not have the same impact. If a recruit were hired, the position and the role of a field trainer would be identified. (p.41)

The New Westminster Police Service has a similar approach to that of Delta, relying upon the FTO guidelines provided by the Police Academy (Cst. Ted Usher, personal communication, March 19, 2003). When a seat becomes available on a FTO course, the senior management team selects a candidate. Occasionally, if an individual member learns of an upcoming FTO course, they may send a memorandum to the patrol manager for consideration.

When a FTO is required in Saanich, the training officer, in consultation with the shift watch commander, makes a selection based on experience and availability (Sgt. Mike Nedzelski, personal communication, July 3, 2003). Stl'imx'atl takes a similar approach. With only 10 members, most of whom are junior in service, Stl'imx'atl is limited in its selection. The best qualified and available officer is chosen (D/C/Cst. Butch Van Acker, personal communication, July 3, 2003).

The appointment as a FTO in the Vancouver Police Department is at the discretion of the patrol sergeant. However, the department does use a "Supervisor Checklist for Applicants to the Role of Field Trainer" where the FTO applicant's supervisor must rate, either as a "yes" or "no", whether the applicant possesses the qualities or competencies listed on the checklist (Cst. Teresa Buckoll, personal communication, March 31, 2003). Finally, like Delta and New Westminster, the West Vancouver Police Department uses the basic selection criteria set by the Police Academy in selecting FTO candidates (S/Sgt. James Almas, personal communication, March 19, 2003).

Employee Collective Agreements

Members of all 11 municipal police agencies participating in this study are represented by a collective bargaining agent; either an association or a union. All have a provision within their respective collective agreements that provide additional pay for the position of FTO. For most agencies, this extra compensation is equal to 7.5% of a first class constable's hourly rate of pay. Only West Vancouver (West Vancouver Police Board, 2000) has additional FTO collective agreement provisions. First, the West Vancouver collective agreement provides a contractual definition of a FTO. In the agreement a "field trainer" is defined as "a Member appointed by the Chief Constable to perform field training duties" (s.1.0). Second, s.12.4 prohibits a police member with a disqualifying disciplinary default on their service record of discipline from FTO duties. If the member had a reduction in rank, they cannot field train for a period of five years. A suspension without pay prohibits field training for three years, while two or more

reprimands within the last 12 months results in a one year FTO hiatus. The Stl'amx'itl

Police Service does not have a collective agreement and its FTOs are not paid an

additional allowance.

The Radford Reports

In 1997 the Director of the Police Academy initiated a comprehensive evaluation

of basic police recruit training conducted by an independent consultant. The report,

entitled *Evaluation of the Basic Recruit Training Provided by the Police Academy at the*

Justice Institute of British Columbia, was released the same year (Radford, 1997). At p.20

of the report, the author stated:

> Block II was viewed by almost all the recently trained police officers as
> being most beneficial. The main reason for this is that Block II provided
> an opportunity to put into practice the concepts and skills learned during
> Block I.

However, 21% of the interviewees "expressed concern about the loss of valuable

experience in Block II as a consequence of poor field-trainers." (p.20). The report

also identified a list of characteristics attributable to successful and unsuccessful

FTOs.

Table 2.2   Characteristics of successful/unsuccessful FTO

Successful FTO Characteristics	Unsuccessful FTO Characteristics
• Honest and detailed in feedback • Spends time on evaluation • Prepared to confront poor performance directly • Positive • Approachable • Patient • Prepared to let trainee do the work and make mistakes • Sets a good example • Sincere • Interested	• Do all the work without letting the trainee have an opportunity • Not prepared to confront poor performance directly/tends to "beat around the bush" • Difficult to talk to • Does not listen/impatient • Not prepared to let the trainee make mistakes • Not leading by example

Source: Radford (1997)

As a result of the 1997 evaluation, Radford made six field training recommendations, including:

- It is recommended that Block II be extended to 12 weeks, thereby enabling each trainee to be exposed to two different field-trainers. Ideally, these trainers should have different styles and approaches to professional police practice.

- Field-trainers should be carefully selected according to a set of competencies for this important role. It is suggested that the Police Academy identify these competencies for the departments.

- The existing training program for field-trainers should be modified to include a greater emphasis on coaching and mentoring competencies.

- Field-trainers should undergo re-certification training every three years. The field-trainers certificate should have an expiratory date.

- Departments should explore ways to link recruits with their field-trainers before the commencement of Block I or at least at some point in the first block. (p.21)

Again in 2001, the Police Academy released the results of another study into the

JIBC Police Academy initiated by the Director (Radford, 2001) entitled, *Evaluation of the*

Training Provided by the Police Academy at the Justice Institute of British Columbia.

This study examined the training provided by the Police Academy and included, among

other issues, the perceived effectiveness of field training. Although the report found that

the "role of field trainer is being taken seriously by the majority of [police] departments"

(p.57), 67% of police managers, 46% of police members, and 65% of JI Police Academy

leaders and instructors that were interviewed responded that there was "room for

improvement" in field trainer effectiveness (p.51). The author wrote:

> Field Trainer Effectiveness was viewed by most of the interviewees as
> satisfactory [room for improvement] or highly effective...Some
> improvements in field trainer selection were noted. However, 17% of the
> police officers interviewed felt that their field trainers were ineffective.
> This was attributed to them not setting a good policing example, poor
> feedback on their (the recruit's) performance, difficult to talk about
> concerns and afraid to confront performance problems. Of the 50% of
> police officers who felt the transfer could be improved the majority
> believed any improvement would be achieved through exposure to more
> than one field trainer and more detailed feedback from their field trainers.
> [table references omitted] (p.57)

The report also concluded that "Block II is key to the success of the recruit

training and recruits stand to lose a significant part of their learning through poor field

trainers." (p.57) Radford (2001) reiterated four of the 1997 field training

recommendations (p.57):

- That recruits be exposed to two field trainers during Block II

- Field trainers should be carefully selected according to a set of
  competencies identified by the Academy as important for this role.

- Field trainers should undergo re-certification training every three years. The field trainers certificate should have an expiratory date.

- Departments should link new recruits with their field trainers before the commencement of Block I or at least at some point during the first block.

The report also asked police officers to evaluate seventy four Police Academy courses to determine whether they were "essential for policing", "important but not essential" to policing, or "nice to have". Seventy three per cent of all the respondents perceived the field trainer course as essential, 21% as important, and the remaining six per cent indicated it was nice to have.

The Oppal Commission of Inquiry

In 1994, Justice Wallace Oppal released an expansive report after completing the *Commission of Inquiry Into Policing in British Columbia*. The mandate of the Commission was to inquire into and make recommendations regarding many issues including municipal police governance, operations, and policy. This broad mandate encompassed training issues, including field training. In its final report, the Commission (Oppal, 1994) observed:

> According to research into recruit training conducted for the Inquiry, the current selection standards for field trainers are, in some cases, haphazard at best...

> Because the field training officer plays such a vital role in the shaping of recruit attitudes and behaviour, a subcommittee of the proposed Police Training Advisory Committee should review the knowledge, skills and abilities required for field training. This review should lead to mandatory provincial standards for the selection, assignment and regular requalification of field training officers. The Police Academy may need to revise the current training for field training officers to ensure that the standards are met.

Field trainers should be respected in the police agency; should have demonstrated they have, and routinely practice, sound investigative skills; should be familiar with how the agency operates; and should have knowledge of the agency's philosophies, policies, procedures and strategic goals. They should be familiar with the agencies that assist the police agency to achieve its mandate. They should be committed to a community-based policing and problem-solving approach to policing and they should want to train recruits. (p. E-41)

In one of the research papers completed for the Commission, the authors Kean, Hess, and Ungerleider (1994) noted:

All of the respondents identified the need for field trainers to be carefully selected by their departments because of the critical role they play. In the past, not enough care was taken by administrators in deciding who would be a field trainer. In some cases cited by the respondents the results could only be described as field training nightmares. (p.90)

As a result of this inquiry, the Commission made four field training recommendations (p. E-41/42):

- The Police Training Advisory Committee, or a subcommittee thereof, review the learning objectives of police recruit field training and develop a substantive program of an appropriate length in order to accomplish these objectives.

- The Police Training Advisory Committee, or a subcommittee thereof, review the knowledge, skills and abilities required for the role of the police field training officer in order to establish:

  (a) mandatory provincial standards for the selection and use of field training officers; and
  (b) the requirements for mandatory requalification of field training officers to these standards every three years.

- Upon completion of the review of the role of the police field training officers and the establishment of standards for their selection and use, the Police Academy examine the current training of field training officers to ensure that these officers are adequately prepared to meet those provincial standards.

- Municipal police agencies ensure that police recruits are assigned to two field training officers, one of whom is designated as the primary trainer responsible for providing 75 per cent of the recruit's field training.

Conclusion

The examination of organizational documents discloses an array of parties having an interest in the field training program. The provincial government has created the legislative framework for municipal and tribal policing and training in British Columbia. The police departments initially select the recruits and FTOs to attend the Police Academy for the respective training programs and are responsible for meeting the established provincial field training standards. The Director of the Police Academy determines the content and evaluation criteria for the recruit and FTO training programs. Finally, police unions and associations represent their membership, which includes both recruits and FTOs.

Any concrete improvements to the FTO program will require the support of all stakeholders. However, the Police Academy is in a position to take a leadership role in addressing some of the issues identified as a result of the organizational document review. Ultimately, the Block II field training experience is a very important part of the Police Academy's peace officers basic training program and remains crucial to overall recruit competency development.

Review of Supporting Literature

Introduction

When looking at the field training experience, two obviously distinct but interdependent actors emerge; the recruit and the FTO. These persons, one experienced and the other a neophyte, connect with each other through a one on one *relationship*. The recruit, acting under the guidance of the more seasoned FTO, is the primary focus of the practicum. In this sense, it is designed to be a *learning* experience for the recruit. In creating an environment conducive to learning, an organization must realize that learning is learner driven and the needs of the individual learner must be recognized (Matthews, 1999). Although the recruits may not know what they should learn, they are knowledgeable about how they learn effectively (Rothwell and Kazanas, 1994).

The second actor, the FTO, takes on a *leadership* role in exposing the recruit to an array of field experiences. It is through this opportunity that the FTOs, as "professors of the street" (Fagan and Ayers, 1985), guide, or lead, the recruit at real time facing real events. This literature review will examine the three chambers at the heart of the FTO/recruit working alliance; learning, leading, and relationship (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1 FTO/recruit dynamic

LEARNER   LEADER

RELATIONSHIP

Recruit   FTO
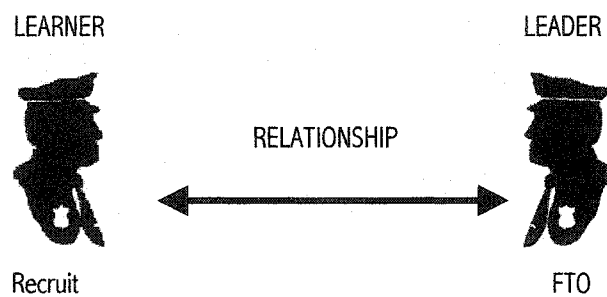
Learning

"Tell me and I'll forget. Show me and I'll remember. Involve me and I'll understand"
Confucius

At its simplest, learning can be defined as "the process of gaining knowledge and/or expertise" (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998, p.17). The formal structured training of recruits prior to their field training experience occurs in the institutionally based, or classroom, setting at the Police Academy. Like any vocational training program that occurs in this type of environment, it is difficult to create real experiences in the classroom. To better understand the learning context of the field training experience, workplace, adult, and generational learning will be examined.

Workplace Learning

Workplace learning can be simply defined as:

[T]he acquisition of knowledge and skills as individuals attempt authentic vocational tasks supported by more skilled peers or experts. (Billet, 1994, p.11)

This type of learning intentionally merges practice with theory and acknowledges that learning is acquired in the field (Raelin, 1998). This environment, in turn, provides a rich source of knowledge required for vocational tasks (Billet, 2000). Carnevale and Goldstein (1983, in Agashae and Bratton, 2001) point out that adults learn more at their jobs than anywhere else.

Field training experiences are not unique to policing. They occur in many vocations including medicine (internships), carpentry (journeyman), nursing (precepts), law (articling), teaching (practicum), and mechanics (apprenticeship). Rogoff and Gauvain (1984, in Billet, 1995) suggest that participation in authentic workplace experiences, with both direct and indirect forms of guidance, produces knowledge, which is at least as transferable as knowledge developed in other settings.

By using the field as the learning laboratory, it is not necessary to create any special conditions before it can be effective (Peters and Smith, 1998). The recruit simply engages with their surroundings without the necessity of lesson plans, overheads, or a structured syllabus. In effect, everyday duties become teachable moments. Interacting with co-workers, supervisors, and other professionals also provides access to expertise that is often unavailable in formalized training systems (Billet, 1994). As Agashae and Bratton (2001) suggest:

> Learning in the organization does not only happen formally in training classrooms, but is also a more informal co-creative process of interpretation situated in informal settings in the "hurly-burly" dynamics of daily work experience. (p.94)

Workplace learning can be formal, informal, or incidental (Matthews, 1999). Formal learning refers to "intentionally constructed learning activities", usually institutionally guided; informal learning is "unplanned, unintentional or "independent" learning acquired from daily life experience"; and incidental learning is a " 'by-product" of some other activity, such as trial and error" (Marsick and Watkins, 1990, in Agashae and Bratton, 1999, p.90). Billet (1995), an expert on workplace learning, argues that the authenticity of the workplace as a learning environment assists in the development and

transfer of knowledge. Both explicit knowledge (knowledge reportable through formal language) and tacit knowledge (knowledge transmittable through action and involvement) can be learned in the workplace (Raelin, 1998). Furthermore, the nature of the opportunities afforded the learner will also contribute to the quality of the learning experience (Billet, 2001).

The workplace creates opportunities for the learner to engage in vocational experiences of varying complexity. However, workplace experiences "need to be sequenced in such a way as to take the novice from engaging the peripheral through increasingly complex tasks, and those that allow the learner to access both the process and the product of those activities" (Billet, 1995, p.24). Expert others actively participate in the guidance of the novice. Billet (2000) defines guided workplace learning as follows:

> [A] more experienced co-worker (the mentor) using techniques and strategies to guide and monitor the development of the knowledge of those who are less skillful (the mentees). This approach places the onus on the learner to engage in thinking and acting required for rich learning. That is, the learners are encouraged and pressed into knowledge constructing and reinforcing activities by the more experienced co-worker. (p.274)

These expert others, or mentors, are analogous to the police FTO, while the recruits to the mentees. Billet (1995) further suggests that this guidance is parallel to cognitive apprenticeship, which involves the four-guided learning strategies of modeling, coaching, scaffolding, and fading. Billet (1994) describes modeling as the expert performing a function, which the learner observes. Goleman (1998) also supports this premise:

> In learning a new behaviour, having access to someone who exemplifies the competence at its best is immensely helpful. We learn by watching others; if someone can demonstrate a competence, they create a living classroom for us. (p.274)

Coaching consists of the expert observing and monitoring the learner's performance, providing guidance and feedback. Scaffolding involves the expert supporting the learner at a distance, such as creating the opportunity to learn. This could include asking probing questions. Finally, fading is the "gradual removal of support until learners are able to conduct the task autonomously" (Billet, 1994, p.12). In addition to the guided learning strategies, Billet (2001) identifies four elements needed to improve workplace learning. These include creating an inviting workplace environment, tailoring the workplace learning curriculum, encouraging learner and learning guide participation, and the appropriate selection and preparation of learner guides (FTOs).

Action learning, similar to workplace learning, mixes real issues encountered in field experience while integrating theory when appropriate (Peters and Smith, 1998). The action learning model asserts that "people can and should learn more effectively in real-time problems in their own work setting" (Koo, 1999, p.90). Koo (1999) states:

> The action learning approach suggests that people learn best about work, at work and through work, within a structure which encourages learning. (p.90)

Field based experiential learning is also closely related to workplace learning. Experiential learning is simply learning from experience or learning by doing (Lewis and Williams, 1994). Kolb (1984), widely recognized as an expert in experiential learning theory, has articulated a four-step cycle:

1. concrete experience (doing something)

2. observations and reflections (on the experience and the response to it)

3. formation of abstract concepts and generalizations

4. active experimentation in new situations (test and apply in different situations)

Field based experiential learning "forces trainees to not only respond with their minds but their bodies as well" (Rossi, 1995). It allows recruits to observe, learn about, reflect upon, and assimilate the new experience with their pre-existing experiences as they interact with others and their environment.

Adult Learning

Modern adult learning theory has received a great deal of scholarly attention. As a basic premise, adult learning theory recognizes that adults and children do not have the same learning characteristics. Pedagogy is defined as "the art or science of teaching" (The Canadian Oxford Dictionary, 1998, p.1071) and has come to be associated with child, or pre-adult, learning. Under the pedagogical model, the teacher has "full responsibility for making all decisions about what will be learned, how it will be learned, when it will be learned, and if it will be learned. It is teacher-directed education, leaving to the learner only the submissive role of following a teacher's instructions" (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998, p.62). Adult learning, on the other hand, is learner (or recruit) centred. As Birzer (2003) points out, "it is important for authorities that are involved in training police to have specific knowledge on the most effective teaching-learning methods so that trainees learn and conceptualize new information and tasks more effectively." (p.30)

In their book, *The adult learner: the definitive classic in adult education and human resource development,* Knowles, Holton, and Swanson (1998) reviewed the history of learning theory. Using a term coined by adult learning specialist and pioneer Malcolm Knowles, "andragogy", the authors explain the differences between adult

learning and the pedagogical, or trainer/teacher-centred, model. They make the following assumptions for adult learning:

- Adults need to know why they need to learn something. They are relevancy oriented and want to connect their experiences to their own lives. Learning must have meaning and familiarity.

- Adults need to be responsible for their own decisions and be treated as capable of self-direction. They want some degree of control over their own learning.

- Adults have a prior knowledge and experience bank. This bank provides a valuable resource that enhances and enriches learning.

- Adults are ready to learn what they need to know and do to cope with real-life situations. They are practical and may not be interested in knowledge for its own sake (Lieb, 1991). "Learning is a means to an end, not an end in itself" (Zemke & Zemke, 1984).

- Adults are life-centred learners. They are problem (process) oriented, rather than content oriented.

- Adults are motivated internally (increased job satisfaction, self-esteem, quality of life, etc.)

Are recruits adult learners? There are several approaches to defining an adult learner. Of the varying ways an adult can be defined (biologically, legally, socially, or psychologically), Knowles, Holtan and Swanson (1998) suggest that the psychological definition, reaching a self concept of being responsible for one's own life, is the most crucial consideration regarding learning. The average age of a recruit is 29 years old. Most have had full time employment in other jobs, many are in committed relationships,

and some have children. Many also have mortgages and other financial responsibilities

associated with leading one's own life. Therefore, the majority of recruits would have the

full fledged self-concepts of self-directedness that Knowles, Holtan, and Swanson (1998)

articulate, placing them into the definition of an adult learner.

Generational Learning

Another area of learning theory that is relevant to this study is generational

learning. This includes the police community. In her article, *Generation X Recruits and*

the field training experience, Fischer (2002) reports:

> The recruits now being hired and trained in most police agencies are
> being called generation X recruits. These recruits appear to be
> responding uniquely to several factors in the design of our current
> training programs due to their individual and generational
> characteristics. Law enforcement agencies want recruits to be well
> trained and enthusiastic about becoming police officers. When recruits
> experience training as a professional and supportive environment that
> focuses on safety and learning, the outcome of that training imparts
> both a successful transition for recruits into their new work
> assignments and underscores the importance and necessity of the
> substantial financial investment in the recruit by the local agency. (p.4)

The Encarta World English Dictionary (2002) defines a generation as "all

people who were born at approximately the same time, considered as a group, and

especially when considered as having shared interests and attitudes". In today's

workforce, including the police, there are four generations working along side each other:

veterans (born before 1940), baby boomers (born 1940-1960), generation X (born 1961-

1980), and generation Y (born 1980 onward) (Raines & Hunt, 2000). However, the exact

date ranges defining the generations may vary by a few years, including generation X, and

is open to some debate (Cordeniz, 2002). Veterans are largely extinct in police

organizations because most agencies have mandatory retirement at age 60. Nonetheless, as both a trainer and a leader, it is important that FTOs understand the learning style of the generation they are training. As Brown (1997) notes:

> Effective instruction requires the teacher to step outside the realm of personal experience and into the world of the learner. It is the learner who must be engaged for learning to occur, the learner who must make the commitment to learn. (p.2)

Describing each generation in detail is beyond the scope of this literature review. Rather, generation X will be the focus as this group accounts for nearly the entire sample of respondents. Generation Xers, 'baby busters', or the "13th generation", born between 1960 and 1980 would range from 23 to 43 years old. They saw their parents divorcing and working late hours while they became the generation known as the 'latch key kids'. They are at ease and comfortable with technology and are shaped by specialized knowledge (Rauch, 2000). Video games, television and computers were a staple in their lives. As a result, they became more independent than previous generations.

Wyess (2001) describes generation X as having the "why" chromosome; constantly questioning what is done. It's no longer "Yes Sir", but "Why Sir." This questioning can be perceived by members of the command and control model (the traditional paradigm of policing) as challenging authority or a sign of disrespect. Generation Xers also take a holistic, or 'big picture', approach to understanding an organization.

Generation Xers are "less likely to accept a 'because I said so' attitude from a supervisor" (Smith, 2002b, para. 4) and are not as intimidated by authority as previous generations. Again, this can be seen as a lack of respect for or insubordination towards a

superior. These common life experiences are what give the generation Xers their identity (Lankard, 1995). However, it is important to remember that the above description is only a generalization and as a group, generation Xers may not be as homogenous as some authors suggest.

Nonetheless, Caudron (1997) suggests a number of training strategies that can be deployed to address the characteristics of the generation X learner including (p.22-23):

- Learning must be meaningful. They must be shown how the learning will benefit them.

- Training must be experiential. Generation Xers learn best when they actually perform.

- Trainees must have control over their learning. Generation Xers "tend to resent and resist efforts to force-feed them training". (p.23)

- Their "ability to assimilate information quickly and focus on multiple ideas at once" must be recognized and respected. (p.23) Generation Xers can easily multitask and are non-linear or, as Caudron describes them, "parallel thinkers."

In research conducted by Bova and Kroth (2001), the authors concluded that generation Xers found relevance in three approaches to learning. The highest preference was action learning, or learning by doing, which "is centered about the need to find solutions to real problems" (p.60). The second preferred approach was incidental, or unintentional, learning. It includes learning by mistake and is a byproduct of action learning. It occurs when the learner tackles real problems during field experiences. The least preferred was formal or traditional classroom learning. Bova and Kroth (2001) state:

The most effective training activities with Generation Xers are those that give them an opportunity to sample and learn by doing…They want to get involved with what they're learning, experiment with it and get feedback. They aren't worried about "putting their ego on the line," they'll jump in and try something even at the cost of looking clumsy in front of others. (p.62)

O'Bannon (2001) also suggests that Xers need their style of learning and independence respected. Xers also want what O'Bannon refers to as fast feedback; frequent, accurate, specific, and timely communication. However, he cautions that this want for fast feedback should not be confused with a need for micro-management.

Conclusion

The literature review on learning confirms the legitimacy of the field training experience, as the most effective method of training police recruits. It is also clear that workplace, adult, and generational learning are all elements of the field training experience. The master/novice arrangement has been widely recognized as an authentic environment in which even intentional, unplanned, or incidental learning can occur. Police educators must be able to tap into this rich learning environment while understanding the learning styles of the recruits, thereby creating the most effective experience under which learning will flourish for the recruit officer.

Leading

"[T]he ultimate test of organizational learning capability is the extent to which leaders are able to...teach others to learn"
Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, and Kerr (1995, p.186).

In his book, *Every Officer is a Leader*, Anderson (2000) defines a leadership organization as follows:

> The leadership organization creates and sustains a leadership-centred culture where leaders are equipped to develop other leaders at all levels of the organization-from the top down and from the inside out.

Leadership in a police organization is not limited or bound by rank. Perhaps nowhere is it more important for an officer to demonstrate leadership qualities and competencies than within the FTO/recruit experience. Police educators must pay special attention to the field training experience and the leadership dynamics involved. Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, and Kerr (1995) argue that leaders must model the learning culture to foster movement of ideas from one learner to another. It is the role of the leader to create the necessary climate for success.

There is a plethora of contemporary literature on leadership (eg. transformational, servant, situational, democratic, and principle centered). However, it is not the intention of this review to provide a comprehensive examination of leadership, but rather to identify some common themes relevant to this study. For the purpose of this literature review, leadership will be examined as a tripartite function of character, competence, and attitude. Character is about who one is, competence is about what one does, and attitude is about why they do it.

Character

Character, or who one is, tells more about a person than what they say. The Gage

Canadian Dictionary (1997) defines character as:

> [T]he qualities that make a person what he or she is. Character applies to
> the moral qualities that determine the way a person thinks, feels, and acts
> in the important matters of life, especially in relation to the principles of
> right and wrong. (p.259)

A person's moral and mental constitution is vital to effective leadership. Ethics,

integrity, trustworthiness, honesty, humility, loyalty, and sincerity are but a few of the

collective qualities that distinguish a person of character. Although policy, procedure,

regulations, and rules can influence officer behaviour, they are by themselves insufficient

for meaningful change (Cao, Ding, & Barton, 2000). Police recruits need positive role

models.

Braunstein and Tyre (1992) found that police administrators in Florida considered

field training as "one of the most important factors in establishing and maintaining ethical

behaviour" (p.32). However, they also learned that many departments often minimize

high ethical standards as a significant selection criteria in choosing FTOs. In its

publication, *Police Integrity: Public Service with Honor*, the U.S. Department of Justice

(1997) quotes Janet Reno, the former Attorney General of the United States:

> It is important to emphasize…that training doesn't stop at the
> academy—that some of the best training in the world, some of the best
> integrity in the world, is learned from that field-training officer on the
> street. (p.20)

A leader's goal is to bring about the best in others. However, they must first bring

about the best leadership qualities in themselves before this can occur (Townsend &

Bennis, 1991). Personal development is a cornerstone of an effective leader (Covey, 1994; Kouzes, 1995; Bennis, 1999), requiring an intentional and unwavering commitment to developing a life of character. As English Historian James A. Froude once stated, "You cannot dream yourself into a character; you must hammer and forge yourself one."

As a character trait, integrity is essential to leadership (De Pree, 1992) and policing (U.S. Department of Justice, 1997). In leadership, integrity is knowing one's self, including personal strengths and weaknesses as well as demonstrating congruency in thoughts, words, and actions. This is an attractive quality for followers and, as Reichheld (2001) states, "outstanding loyalty is a direct result of the words and deeds...of committed [leaders] who have personal integrity"(p.76).

In policing, it is widely recognized that police officers are held to a very high standard as a result of their authority, accountability, public trust relationship, and oath of office. The most proficient way to learn these high standards, such as ethics, is by example of character, or modeling. By the nature of their role, effective FTOs need to demonstrate the behaviours of a good police officer (Lawson, 1999). The FTO must perform in an exemplary manner while the recruit closely watches (California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, 1988b). As Mahoney (1991) reports, "the initial FTO that a Trainee works with after completing the police academy can and will have a lasting effect on how the Trainee performs his or her duties as a police officer" (p.3).

Cohen (1995) identified role modeling as one of the six behavioural functions of the mentor role. Through the mentor sharing experiences and feelings as a role model, Cohen suggests that mentees are motivated to take necessary risks, make decisions

without certainty of results, and overcome difficulties in reaching goals. Likewise, Crane

(2001) emphasizes the importance of role modeling in his construct of 'transformational

coaching':

> People respect any coach who has the courage to follow his or her own
> convictions and advice. Conversely, people disrespect (and probably will
> not follow) the coach who says one thing and does another. Successful
> coaches are their messages. (p.188)

A key to meeting the needs of the learner is providing a model that the learner can

admire and emulate. The espoused values of the FTO must be demonstrated through

practice while exhibiting high standards for recruits. In the words of Bennis (1999),

leadership is "character in action". In the same vein, O'toole (1995) quotes popular Girl

Scouts leader Frances Hesselbein whose comments are apposite:

> [L]eadership is basically a matter of how to be, not how to do it. Leaders
> need to lead by example, with clear, consistent messages, with values that
> are 'moral compasses', and a sense of ethics that works full time (p.40)

Smith (1998) suggests that individuals within an organization will observe

whether the leader is committed to what they value. Not only must the leader talk the talk,

they must also walk the talk. The leader must act consistently with their values or they

will not be taken seriously by their followers (Nanus, 1989). The comments of Kaptein

and van Reenen (1998) are apt:

> When someone's integrity is in question or tarnished, the grounds for trust
> collapse...[A] spot on an apple can indicate that it is rotting inside. A
> person's lapse raises questions about the person's character and
> commitment. (p.283)

To this end, FTOs must correlate their behaviour with their moral and ethical

values. This congruity between a value centered view and high standards of emulation is

a cornerstone of leadership. However, as Bennis (1991) warns, leadership courses can teach skills, but they do not teach character. Thus, the development of character and integrity is a quest that requires personal exercise, reflection, discipline, and wisdom. The field trainer must set an example for the recruit. To this end, field trainers must be carefully selected from the best police officers available.

Competence

A FTO needs to be competent in two main areas. The first is practical expertise, experience, "intellectual horsepower" (Conference Board of Canada, 2002) or professional knowledge ('street smarts'). The second is social competence or emotional intelligence ('people smarts' including 'self smarts'). These two competencies are vital to effective leadership (Goleman, 1998).

The field training experience provides the opportunity for the FTO to engender their knowledge and experience onto the recruit officer. The FTO must facilitate the application of classroom theory into practice. Demonstrated professional ability and experience has been acknowledged as a foundation of the mentor/coaching relationship (Edmundson, 1999; Shea, 1999; Williams, 2000) and an important selection criteria for FTOs (Glensor, Peak, & Gaines, 1999; Walker, 1981; Hartman, 1979). The field trainer must, at minimum, be familiar with the current information taught at the Police Academy. There must be congruity between what is taught at the Police Academy and what is taught in the field (Walker, 1981).

Recruits must internalize what was learned at the Police Academy and have these principles reinforced through their field training (Cordner & Sheehan, 1999). In this

sense, field training officers must be operating from the 'same sheet of music' as their

trainee counterparts. The advice from a veteran officer of 'forgetting what one learned at

the Police Academy' was never and still is no longer acceptable:

> Police leaders must aggressively pursue an end to the "untraining" that
> takes place when young officers are taught to forget what they learn in
> the police academy in favor of "street smarts. The myth is that they
> learn practical tactics and street survival skills. The reality is that, while
> they may learn some practical approaches to police service not taught in
> the academy, they are also influenced negatively. Field training
> programs need to emphasize critical tasks for the patrol officer and
> ensure that field training and academy training are consistent in the
> requirement for those tasks. (U.S. Department of Justice, 1997)

The trainer must work from the prior knowledge and experiences of the recruit,

and build upon it in the practicum process. Because the field trainer must guide the recruit

through a comprehensive curriculum of knowledge, skills, and judgment, officers who are

technically competent in these areas must be chosen.

Simply assigning a technically competent officer to a trainee however, does not

guarantee success. As Bennis (1999) warns, if a leader only possesses expertise, they

become a technocrat. Recruits depart the academy with a great deal of technical

knowledge such as law and procedure, but no field experience. Field trainers must also be

competent in creating an environment in which the trainer can use their own experiences

to build upon what was learned at the academy (Mahoney, 1991).

Being an effective field trainer involves more than simply treating the recruit as a

partner. It involves providing challenging yet manageable opportunities for learning.

Good coaching focuses on the development of the trainee, not on making the trainer "look

good". The pressure on a recruit in going out every day under scrutiny and performing

their job effectively adds to the challenge of the trainer in creating an appropriate atmosphere in which learning can occur. Lawson (1999) identifies several people skills of effective coaches including patience, friendliness, a genuine concern for others, and empathy.

Field trainers must also be skilled communicators and motivators (Mahoney, 1991). They must understand and be proficient in the techniques of evaluation by providing timely feedback. It is not enough to only be a model of an effective police officer for the recruit to observe, although this is important. Field trainers must also offer constructive guidance and need to take a step back and explain to the recruit why they acted as they did.

Although cognitive ability and technical expertise is a baseline competence for most leadership roles, an aptitude for social competency is also necessary. More will be discussed about social competency in the relationship domain of this literature review.

Attitude

An attitude of commitment by the leader is the glue that brings the learner and leader together. A FTO must have the ambition to be selected for the position. Fulfilling the role of FTO must be a voluntary arrangement and, as Bromley (1982) notes, "It would be self defeating to select persons not interested" (p.37). Persons who wish to become field trainers should express a willingness to become a field trainer and endorse the program; they should not be ordered into the position without an intrinsic desire. Oppal (1994) recognized this when he stated, "[Field trainers] should want to train recruits" (p.E-41). Lacking innate desire to field train could lead to a FTO taking a "sink or swim"

attitude. Taking such an approach is counterproductive to the FTO program (Eisenberg,

1981). Haider (1990) emphasizes this point:

> Productive street-wise officers are what the field training program needs. But
> more that that, it needs officers who desire to be field training officers. The
> common misconceptions is that being a training officer is easy. Nothing could be
> further from the truth. It takes a lot of effort, patience, and concern. It sometimes
> requires spending extra time at the end of the day to explain items of importance
> that have come up during the shift. Simply put, to do the job right takes hard work
> and extra effort. (p.6)

Contemporary authors in business mentoring and coaching also recognize the

need for a voluntary commitment to participate in the relationship (Shea, 1999; Senge

1994). Edmundson (1999) examined a mentoring program started by the Fairfax County

Police Department and found the most important selection criteria for administrators in

choosing a mentor is that they volunteer for the job. Drafting, or using "prisoner" FTOs,

is clearly undesirable.

Generational Leadership

Like learning, some writers on leadership issues recognize generational concerns.

Gregory Smith (2002a) suggests that the traditional workplace was once defined by job

security and loyalty to the organization, while promotions were based on longevity,

seniority, and time served. Respect was attained by position or rank. These are also the

characteristics of any paramilitary organization, such as the police. Police departments are

highly regulated with policy and procedure and have a thoroughly delineated rank

structure.

Although these management practices may have worked in the 'controlling'

environment of the traditional workplace, police leaders must look beyond the status quo

if they seek to effectively manage across generational lines. Generation X employees gain security from within and are loyal to themselves, believe promotions should be based on performance and merit (not tenure), challenge authority, and feel respect should be earned (Smith, 2002a). The regulation and hierarchy enjoyed by the traditional workforce can be viewed by Xers as too constrictive, stifling the innovation and creativity that motivates them.

The X generation does not usually trust the organization or chain of command. They "tend to be less accepting of traditional hierarchy and traditional approaches to management" (Conference Board of Canada, 2002, p.5). Generation Xers believe in and trust themselves above the organization. They do not respond well to micromanagement (Gamonal and Williams, 2002), preferring to be given an objective with the freedom to innovate and create to meet that objective.

Conclusion

Leadership is about process, not just position. A FTO must not only exemplify the qualities and competencies of an effective leader, but also approach the training dynamic with an understanding of the recruit's generation X worldview. Character, competency, and attitude are three core capacities necessary for effective leadership. Who the FTO is, what they do, and why they do it are vital questions to be asked not only by police management in selecting FTOs, but also by the FTO themselves.

Relationship

"Relationships are the very heart and soul of an organization's ability to get any job done"
Short (1998, p.15)

Leadership and learning cannot be examined in a vacuum, independent of human interaction. Rather, learning and leading must be viewed in relationship. The leader/learner alliance is a circular, or team, process, brought together through the dynamics of the FTO/recruit relationship.

Early theories of leadership focused on personal traits and behaviour patterns of leaders. Today, the focus is on the interactions, or relationship, between the leader and the followers. As Kouzes and Posner (1995) point out, leadership is about dialogue. It is not a monologue. Moreover, an authentic leader treats followers as individuals, providing coaching, mentoring and growth opportunities (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Leadership requires open communication and trust with employees. The effective leader focuses on people, ensuring their wants are filled and that they have adequate resources to fulfill their goals. They encourage openness to diverse points of view and solicit valid feedback from as many sources as possible (Townsend & Bennis, 1991). It is through this process that a shared sense of community develops. Followers are provided, and enjoy, the opportunity to make a worthy contribution to the organization (O'Toole, 1995).

Bryans and Smith (2000) suggest learning is a function of relationships between persons, rather than a possession to be held by an individual. They argue that by being

attentive to relationships, organizations can foster trust, sociability, solidarity and commonality, which create the environment in which learning can occur. In fact, they suggest that "knowledge is created by people in combination with each other" (p.235) and "learning is often pleasurable and effective when it is a social activity" (p.233). Agashae and Bratton (2001) similarly emphasize that "leaders need to engage in relationships in order to achieve the goal of continuous learning" (p.94). They further assert that "informal learning in the workplace is a dynamic process that in part will be a function of leader-follower interactions" (p.98).

The relationship between the recruit and trainer can provide a number of benefits. Shea (1999) identified a number of benefits of a mentoring relationship. Although Shea examines the mentoring relationship in business organizations, without specificity to policing, one can surmise the same benefits would apply. He argues that the trainee can benefit from the experience and learning of the mentor, can gain insight into the culture, appropriate behaviour, and attitudes of the organization from the trainer's insider knowledge, experience a non threatening environment to test one's skills and viewpoints, and share an adult-to-adult relationship. Mentoring has often been perceived as a one-way street; the mentor giving and the mentee receiving (Shea, 1997). However, Shea points out:

> Today, mentoring may be viewed as a partnership with both parties freely contributing to the discussion as equals working together, based upon mutual respect. A mentor may still have greater experience, insight, and wisdom, but the relationship can be one of showing...rather than only top-down giving and receiving. (p.69)

As mentioned in the leadership domain, social competency is an important construct in leadership. Because of its intimate connection with relationships however, it

will be discussed here. People "need to be affective to be effective" (Bagshaw, 2003, p.64). Emotional intelligence, a broad concept, sometimes referred to as social competence, interpersonal relations, or interpersonal expertise, was first introduced to mainstream North America in a 1995 *Time* magazine cover story (Gibbs & Epperson, 1995), based on a best-selling book by Daniel Goleman, a Harvard PhD.

Traditionally, the standard concept of intelligence was measured cognitively, using intelligence quotients (IQ). Trainers often fixated on the mechanical aspects of training, seeing their role only as information provider (Dwyer, 2001). However, persons scoring high on cognitive tests often had difficulty in other areas of their life, including career, family, and marital situations. Goleman (1995) notes that, "At best, IQ contributes about 20% to the factors that determine life success, which leaves 80% to other forces" (p.34). Since a high IQ score did not guarantee success in life, the concept of emotional intelligence was introduced to explain other competencies beyond the scope of IQ.

After analyzing years of research, Goleman (1995) proposed an emotional intelligence model comprised of five domains, described as follows (p.43):

- Knowing one's emotions (includes recognizing a feeling as it happens and monitoring feeling from moment to moment);

- Managing emotions (includes handling feelings and the ability to recover quickly from upsets);

- Motivating oneself (involves marshalling emotions to reach goals, self control, and self discipline);

- Recognizing emotions in others (includes the ability to recognize, identify, and feel what another is feeling); and

- Handling relationships (includes the ability to manage emotions in others)

The first three domains, self awareness, self regulation, and self motivation, relate

to 'self smarts', or self-management. These competencies are internal, or intrapersonal.

The latter two, empathy and social skills, relate to 'people smarts', or effective

relationship skills. They are external, or interpersonal, competencies and include such

things as conflict management, communication (verbal and non-verbal), and reading

others' emotions.

One important role of a leader is to be aware of the importance of emotional

intelligence in learning (Cooper and Sawaf, 1996). The adult approach to learning

requires that the facilitator posses technical skill together with interpersonal skill (Birzer,

2003). As Dwyer (2001) explained:

> Setting an appropriate learning climate is critical for learning. When
> appropriate levels of emotion are engaged the learning experience is more
> meaningful, enjoyable, and lasting. (p.313)

As early as the late 1970's, Van Maanen and Schien (1979) found that what

people learn about their occupational roles is often a function of how they learn it. They

proposed that the effectiveness of transferring the skills, beliefs, and values from the

master to the novice was directly related to the emotional impact of the trainer on the

recruit:

> Since the responsibility [in apprenticeship modes of workplace
> socialization] is given to only one organizational member, the person so
> designated often becomes the role model whose thoughts and actions the
> recruit emulates. Police departments, craftlike trades, and architectural
> firms all make extensive use of the individual socialization strategy.
> Outcomes in these one-on-one efforts are dependent primarily upon the
> affective relationships which may or may not develop between the
> apprentice and master. In cases of high affect, the new member is liable to
> quickly and fully appreciate and accept the skills, beliefs, and values of his

or her mentor and the process works relatively well. However, when there are few affective bonds, the socialization process may break down and the hoped for transition will not take place. (p.235)

This concept of emotional intelligence remains relatively new and somewhat elusive. It also overlaps with other areas including personality theory and character development. However, the importance of emotional intelligence in learning and leadership should not be underestimated.

Conclusion

Relationship is the connection through which learning and leading occurs. If the connection breaks down it is difficult, if not impossible, for either process to occur effectively. At the basis of relationship is an understanding of oneself, others, and the relationship itself.

Literature Review Summary

The literature suggests that learning and leading capacities cannot be examined in isolation from each another, but also includes the relationship between the involved parties. The FTO/recruit alliance brings the teacher/learner and leader/follower dynamic together. Technical expertise is only one part of effective leadership and should not be overestimated. Emotional and social competencies are equally, if not more, important in leadership and teaching interactions because they form the basis to the relationship. The most effective approach to learning is to understand the individual actors and processes involved (generational, adult, workplace learning). Equally important is the need to

understand the qualities of effective leadership (character, competence, and attitude),

which includes understanding the worldview of the follower (generation X).

CHAPTER THREE – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Methods

An action research paradigm was used in addressing this inquiry. The action research paradigm, as its name implies, involves "action" and "research". It rejects the divide between abstract theory and concrete action, and attempts to reconcile this split in a specific context. Action research recognizes that not only experts, but also professionals and laypersons can develop solutions to problems or take advantage of opportunities in which they find themselves.

Unlike traditional research that achieves closure in the findings of the researcher, action research is interactive and aimed at ongoing development (McNiff, 2000). Reason and Bradbury (2001) postulate that "theory without action is meaningless" (p.2) and action research provides the conduit through which inquiry is performed in the field (not a laboratory) taking into account the perspectives of those intimately connected to the opportunity. Depoy and Hartman (1999) similarly argue that persons most closely connected to a situation are perhaps most qualified to examine it. Hence, participation by persons involved in the research is a cornerstone of action research. (Greenwood & Levin, 1998; Brannick & Coughlan, 2001; Dick, 1993).

Brannick and Coughlan (2001) suggest "good" research makes a difference to the researcher ('me'), the researched ('us'), and persons who know about the research ('them'), unlike traditional research which operates through a 'me-them' paradigm. To achieve the 'us' component of action research, all participants in the process engage in an authentic relationship (Stringer, 1996) and the research takes into account the views and

perceptions of those involved; not the symbolic or clinical relationship traditionally associated with conventional research (researcher and subject). Because the researcher is an equal participant in the process, the researcher as authoritarian associated with traditional research disappears in large part (Dick, 1997) and full and equal participation develops a shared sense of community empowering participants to engage in both change and learning (Dick, 1993).

Action research involves a cyclical process. Although the number of steps involved has been described in different ways, they all recognize a repetitive process of problem or opportunity identification, planning, action, and reflection. Unlike traditional research that usually begins with a precise question and progresses in a linear fashion, action research may begin with an imprecise question, which is honed through the cyclical, or "re-search" process. This project engaged an advisory group and recruits. The design employed is:

- an advisory group, and

- mail surveys

In their book *Improving on-the-job training: how to establish and operate a comprehensive OJT program,* Rothwell and Kazanas (1994) recommend building a solid foundation for an on-the-job training program by gathering information from experienced program participants (in this inquiry the recruits). It is from the perspectives of current recruits in the field training process that research information for this study was obtained.

In this project an advisory group was made up of individuals for the most part from the police community. This group assisted in formulating and drafting the survey questions. These members were:

- Inspector Mike Trump (Victoria Police Department)—Insp. Trump is a 24-year police member and is presently the Program Director of Police Training Programs at the Police Academy.

- Sgt. Keiron McConnell (Vancouver Police Department)—Sgt. McConnell is a 14-year police member and is currently a Professional Police Tactics instructor at the Police Academy.

- Sgt. Don Walden (Delta Police Department)—Sgt. Walden is a 32-year police member who is presently the coordinator of the Police Academy's Police Advanced Operational Training. At the time the survey was designed, Sgt. Walden was the Program Director of Education and Project Management.

- Ms. Leanne Novakowski (non-police)—Ms. Novakowski is a former public school teacher who holds a Master's Degree in Education (Counselling Psychology) from Simon Fraser University. She brings a research and learning theory perspective to this project.

The survey, along with the covering letter, was then pilot tested with a Block III Police Academy recruit class of 19 persons to ensure question clarity and explore interpretation (Neuman, 2003). During this process the questions and presentation were refined. As well, the pilot group was timed. The fastest completed survey occurred in about 15 minutes while the last survey was turned in just under 20 minutes. These times were consistent with the initial estimate and did not exceed the 20 minutes recommended for workplace surveys (Morrel-Samuels, 2002).

Each pilot survey had an identification number on the front cover. This number was used to track the survey returns and to facilitate follow up. An interesting issue arose

relating to the researcher's use of the term "ID#" on the front of the pilot survey. Several pilot test subjects expressed a concern that the term "ID" was too "strong" and had a negative undercurrent within police circles, such as one would use in identifying a suspect. These concerned test subjects reported that the "ID" terminology made them feel uncomfortable that their sponsoring police agency would be provided the information on an individual basis. After the purpose of the "ID#" was discussed with them, the test subjects reported that the term "survey #" would be less intimidating. The necessary changes were made.

The surveys were delivered, either through internal departmental mail or by Canada Post, to recruits who had graduated from the peace officers basic training program over the last three years (2000, 2001, and 2002). Each unfolded survey was accompanied by a cover letter and was paper clipped to a white return envelope (no postage provided) addressed to the researcher and the departmental contact person. These documents were then placed in a larger white sealed envelope addressed individually to each sample subject.

In cases where internal mail was used, the survey was sent directly to a contact person within each agency who distributed the surveys on behalf on the researcher. It was then requested, in both the cover letter and the survey instructions, that the surveys either be returned back to the contact person for return to the researcher or returned directly to the researcher using departmental outgoing mail.

The returned surveys were then subsequently analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Data Gathering Tools

Instrumentation

The instrument chosen to collect the information for this study was a mail survey. There are several advantages and disadvantages to using mail, or self administered, surveys. The advantages of these surveys include they are relatively inexpensive, offer anonymity (Kumar, 1999), require no field staff, avoid interviewer bias, afford privacy, offer time to think about responses (Hagan, 2003), can be completed when convenient for the respondent, and can be effective when targeting a population that has a strong interest in the topic (Neuman, 2003). Disadvantages include that there is generally a low response rate, there is no opportunity to clarify questions, it is possible to consult with others, a response cannot generally be supplemented with other information, responses may be influenced by other questions on the survey (Kumar, 1999), questions may be misinterpreted, a possibility that respondents and non-respondents may differ on the issues being investigated exists (Hagan, 2003), respondents' reaction to questions cannot be visually observed, and conditions under which the survey is completed cannot be controlled (Neuman, 2003). To overcome some of the response rate concerns, the researcher used personalization (addressing each cover letter to the individual recruit on Police Academy letterhead) and electronic or voice mail follow-up.

The survey was eight pages long, consisting of four 8.5" by 11", double sided pages, 'saddle stapled' in the form of a booklet (see Appendix A). Each survey was sequentially numbered and these numbers were recorded on a master log identifying each respondent. Thus, the survey was confidential but not anonymous. Accompanying the

survey was a letter individually addressed by rank and name to each prospective

participant (see Appendix B) personally signed in blue ink by the researcher. Also

included on the letter was a personal note addressed to the prospective participant by first

name and signed by the researcher. This personal note was also written in blue ink and

stated, "P.S. Hi [sample subject first name], Your assistance with this project is greatly

appreciated. Mike N."

The survey instrument included a background (demographic) portion on the inside

cover asking the age of the respondent at the time of their field training, their level of

education prior to their field training, and whether they had any previous police

experience before commencing their field training. The remainder of the survey was

divided into 10 question areas (see Appendix A). Aside from demographic information,

this study invited respondents to perform essentially three separate tasks. They were

either asked to provide a rating, ranking, or answer an open-ended question. Five

questions involved ratings, three questions involved rankings, and four questions were

open ended.

For the purposes of data comparison, the researcher divided the respondents into

two groups. One group, which represents the majority of respondents, were recruits who

were satisfied with their overall field training experience. These participants rated their

overall satisfaction as either satisfied or very satisfied. In these research study results,

these persons will simply be referred to as "satisfied" respondents. The other group,

which will be referred to as "not satisfied" respondents, are those recruits rating their

overall satisfaction as very dissatisfied, dissatisfied, or neither.

The survey's 10 question areas were:

1. ***How your time was spent during field training (content)***

In part "1" of the survey, the following question was asked:

Compared to the amount of field training experience you believe a new recruit should receive regarding each of the following activities, how much experience did you personally receive in your BLK II field training?

The purpose of this question was to determine whether recruits were receiving adequate experience in each of the identified police activities and also to determine whether the content of their experiences influenced their overall satisfaction.

Thirteen police activities were identified and listed alphabetically; community policing initiatives, drug enforcement, interviewing suspects, investigating domestic violence, investigating impaired drivers, investigating property crime, investigating traffic accidents, investigating violent crime, liquor offence enforcement, processing exhibits/property, routine street checks, search warrants, and traffic enforcement. These activities were chosen from the Police Academy curriculum. They are common police activities encountered in the field and recruits receive instruction at the Police Academy in each area. The respondent was asked to select "not enough", "just right", or "too much" in response to the question by checking the appropriate corresponding box for each police activity.

2. ***Knowledge/skill areas.*** In this section of the survey, the respondents were asked to identify and *rank* the four most important knowledge and skill areas they considered that a FTO should be most proficient. The following question was asked:

A field trainer should have knowledge and skill in each of the eight (8) areas listed below. Considering this list, please choose four (4) that you

consider to be the areas in which a field trainer should be most <u>proficient</u>. Please rank these four knowledge/ skill areas in terms of how important you believe them to be.

The eight knowledge/skill areas were dress and deportment, driving skills, interpersonal relations, investigation and patrol skills, legal studies knowledge, officer safety knowledge and skills, report writing and note taking skills, and traffic studies knowledge. These knowledge and skill areas were listed in alphabetical order and designated by letter (eg. A, B, C,...), not number (eg. 1, 2, 3,...). Letter designation was used to avoid any ranking bias or influence.

These knowledge and skill areas were chosen because recruits are evaluated by their FTOs using the same eight areas during Block II training. The Police Academy considers performing at an acceptable level in these knowledge and skill areas as the benchmarks for a successful police officer. These evaluations are then recorded by the FTO in the Block II Recruit Evaluation Report. The purpose of this section was to explore the knowledge and skill areas the recruits perceived were most important , which may assist in identifying FTO selection criteria. The results should provide a "snap-shot" of what knowledge and skill areas are important to the recruits and how these areas may be weighted in selecting a FTO.

3.   ***Role of the field trainer.*** In this section, the respondent was first asked to *rate* on a five point scale ranging from very poor to very good how well their primary FTO fulfilled the eight identified field trainer roles:

Based on your field training experience, how well do you believe your primary field trainer fulfilled each of the following eight (8) roles?

The primary FTO was selected for the purpose of rating because it was presumed that this

is with whom the recruit spent most of their time and had the greatest influence. It also forced the recruit to focus on one specific individual, rather than rating more than one person on any given role. These roles were listed in alphabetical order and again designated by letter, not number. The respondents were then asked to identify and *rank* the four roles they considered to be most important.

> Considering the roles listed above, please choose four (4) that you consider to be the roles that were *most important* to you during your field training. Please rank these four (4) roles in terms of how important they were to you.

The eight roles chosen for selection were:

- Evaluator. This role recognizes the responsibility of the FTO in completing the Block II Recruit Evaluation Report and providing feedback.

- Friend/confidant. This role recognizes the FTO as a comrade to the recruit, someone to approach for personal issues.

- Mentor. This role recognizes the FTO as an experienced advisor and guidance provider.

- Partner. This role recognizes the peer relationship between police officers working together in a two person patrol unit. In a sense, they act as instant back up for each other and conduct investigations as a team.

- Role model. This role recognizes the FTO providing an effective and inspiring example for the recruit.

- Subject matter expert. This role recognizes the FTO as a skillful and well informed specialist at their job.

- Supervisor. This role recognizes the FTO as an overseer and director of work

activities.

- Teacher. This role recognizes the FTO's responsibility in identifying, creating, and facilitating learning opportunities.

The purpose of this section was to explore how well the FTOs were fulfilling their roles and to determine the relationship, if any, between role fulfillment and overall satisfaction. Furthermore, the study sought to identify which roles were most important to the recruits.

4.   *Attributes of a field trainer*. In this section, the respondent was asked to *rate* their primary FTO on a five point scale ranging from very poor to very good how in terms of 20 identified attributes.

> How would you rate your primary field trainer in terms of the following qualities?

These attributes, listed in alphabetical order, were communication skills, competence as a patrol officer, dress and deportment, empathy, enthusiasm for the job, fair, flexibility, initiative, integrity, job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training, leadership, open minded, patience, people skills, report writing skills, reputation among peers, respect/ courtesy, sense of humour, supportive, and willingness to be a field trainer. An "other" category with a blank line was provided allowing the respondents to add any other attribute not listed.

The attributes used in this project were chosen from a list derived out of an earlier survey. In November of 2001, the researcher surveyed 43 Police Academy recruits and asked them the following question; "What do you think are the five most important

qualities of an effective field trainer?" This survey was conducted on a voluntary and anonymous basis and each recruit was asked to independently answer the question. No examples or lists were provided nor was there any in class discussion regarding the task. Of the 43 respondents, 24 recruits had not yet experienced the field training practicum and 19 were in their Block III training having completed 17 weeks of field training experience. The results revealed that the most common qualities listed between both groups were knowledge (including legal, procedural, and street), patience, communication skills, work ethic, teaching ability (including providing adequate feedback), and people skills. In addition to this list, ideas generated by the research advisory committee and the test pilot group were used.

Once the rating was complete, the respondents were asked to choose the five attributes they felt were most important in a field trainer and to rank them by importance:

> Considering the qualities listed above and on page 6, please choose five (5) qualities that you consider to be the *most important* for your field trainer to possess. Please rank these five (5) qualities in terms of how important they were to you.

The rationale of this section was to investigate FTO selection criteria. Like role fulfillment, the question explored how well FTOs exemplified the identified attributes as well as determine the relationship, if any, between attribute embodiment and overall satisfaction. Moreover, the attributes perceived to be most important could be identified.

5. *Overall satisfaction.* This question asked the respondents to *rate* their overall satisfaction with their field training experience on a five point scale from very dissatisfied to very satisfied. The purpose of this question is to ascertain a general finding on this dimension of success in recent field training experiences. The responses to this question

would provide an overall satisfaction rate. These scores could then be correlated to the other areas of the survey to determine the most significantly influencing factors.

6.   *Comfort*. This question asked the respondents to *rate* on a five point scale from very uncomfortable to very comfortable, how they were made to feel by their primary field trainer. The purpose of this question was to determine whether recruits were being emotionally put at ease by their FTO, and then whether this feeling was correlated to overall satisfaction.

Open-ended questions

On the last page of the survey were four open-ended questions (see Appendix A). The purpose of these questions was to provide an opportunity for the respondents to identify and/or explain in their own words, without being forced into a choice. Open ended questions provide a valuable source for qualitative data. Their advantages include the discovery of unanticipated findings, reveal frames of reference and thought processes, permit response clarification and qualification, allow for an unlimited number of responses, and the respondent can be creative and detailed in their responses (Neuman, 2003). Disadvantages include irrelevant responses, coding difficulties, statistical comparison and analysis complexities, respondents provided varying degrees of detail, and the time required to complete the survey is increased (Neuman, 2003).

From the qualitative answers, predominant themes were identified and quantified into totals of negative and positive responses per theme. This allowed the researcher to determine what was important to the recruits from their perspective regarding the field

training experience. The open-ended questions were numbered seven to 10 inclusive:

7.   This was an open ended question asking the respondents, "What *impressed* you most about your field training/trainer(s)?"

8.   This was an open-ended question asking respondents, "What was the single most significant/impacting beneficial experience you had?"

9.   This was an open-ended question asking respondents, "What was the single most/impacting detrimental experience you had?"

10.   This was an open-ended question asking respondents, "Do you have any other comments about your field training experience?"

Sample

The population of interest in this research was British Columbia's independent police agency recruits of the new millennium. The researcher narrowed the scope of the population to recent Police Academy graduates. Although historical investigation of field training would provide some valuable information and identify certain trends in police training, for the purposes of this action research study, the perception and views of contemporary recruits were sought and deemed most relevant and feasible for today. The subjects used in this study were graduating recruits from 2000, 2001, and 2002 (Police Academy recruit classes #76 to #88, inclusive). All of these subjects had successfully

completed the peace officer basic training program at the Police Academy and had

attained the qualified municipal constable designation. In total there were 303 police

recruits who successfully graduated from these years.

The researcher believed that using the entire sampling frame of 303 was

manageable and not cost prohibitive. However, 13 recruits were excluded from the

sampling frame because of pending employment/performance issues or are no longer

employed by their sponsoring police department. When the 290 surveys were sent out,

only two were returned as undeliverable. This left a sample of 288 possible respondents.

Study Conduct

The following steps were used to conduct the research:

1. Members for an advisory group as described under research methods above were

   selected, approached, and their consent to participate was obtained.

2. The advisory group was convened and questions for the survey were created.

3. The mail survey was test piloted with a Block III recruit class.

4. The mail survey was delivered to recruits from the years 2000, 2001, and 2002.

5. Electronic and voice mail follow-up was conducted for non-respondents. This is

   recognized as an acceptable way to increase response rates (Hagan, 2003;

   Neuman, 2003)

6. The survey was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences.

CHAPTER FOUR – RESEARCH STUDY RESULTS

Study Findings and Conclusions

Sample

Findings

In total, 242 of the 288 possible respondents, or 84 %, returned their surveys. With the exception of departments with less than five graduating recruits, the individual departmental response rates were consistent with each other, ranging from a high of 96 % to a low of 80 %. Individual departmental response rates are reported in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1   Departmental sample response rate (descending order)

Department	Sample	Respondents	% Response rate
Central Saanich	3	3	100
Nelson	1	1	100
Delta	28	27	96
Abbotsford	18	17	94
Victoria	12	11	92
West Vancouver	16	14	88
New Westminster	15	13	87
Saanich	22	19	86
Esquimalt	5	4	80
Vancouver	161	128	80
Stl'atl'imx	4	3	75
Port Moody	3	2	67
Total	288	242	84%

Conclusions

A response rate of 84 % is considered very good (Babbie, 2001) and greatly increased study reliability. The response rate resulted in a confidence level of 95 % with a confidence interval of $\pm 3\%$. In other words, if this study were to be replicated the percentage results of this data can be considered accurate within plus or minus three percentage points, 95 times out of a 100.

Although the overall response rate was high, it was expected that some recruits would feel uncomfortable or be reluctant in evaluating the performance of their FTOs. Particularly since the responses were confidential only, not anonymous. This assumption was affirmed when the following message was left on the researcher's voice mail by one of the sample subjects:

> I'd rather not submit the survey. I am not at (U/I) here to really de-bone
> my field trainer. We got along well. There's obviously some issues every
> now and then but if its (pause) I don't feel its anonymous...

Another concern that arose in relation to the response rate was that this workplace mail survey "piggy backed" an earlier workplace mail survey conducted by another Royal Roads Masters student. It was suspected that the respondents may be subjected to a form of survey "burnout". Hagan (2003) noted this concern when he suggested, "Good timing for survey mailing includes avoiding competitive seasons." (p.158) This was apparent when the researcher received the following e-mail reply in response to an e-mail follow-up:

> Sorry it's taken me so long to respond! I have been handed so many
> surveys over the last few months I don't know which is which and most of
> them had nothing to do with me!!
>
> I'm glad to complete yours for you....if you still want the data at this point. I'll

sort through the ones I have and send yours out this week.

Demographics

Findings

The rationale for asking the respondents for demographic, or descriptive, information (age, gender, educational background, prior police service) was to :

- create an "average", or mean, recruit profile; and

- determine whether there was any bias in the findings.

Age

Two hundred and thirty one of the 242 respondents provided their age at the time of their field training. These ages ranged from a low of 21 years to a high of 44 years. The mean age was 29 years old. The majority, or 80% of respondents, ranged from 23 to 32 years. Males ranged from 21 years to 44 years with a mean age of 29 years, while females ranged from 21 years to 42 years with a mean age of 28 years.

Gender

Of the 242 respondents, 175, or 72%, were male. The remaining 67, or 28%, were female. These gender percentages were consistent with the overall graduating recruit output from the Police Academy (see Table 1.1).

Department

Most of the respondents were from the Vancouver Police Department (52.9%) followed by Delta (11.2%), Saanich (7.9%), Abbotsford (7.0%), West Vancouver (5.8%), New Westminster (5.4%), Victoria (4.5%), Esquimalt (1.7%), Central Saanich (1.2%), Stl'atl'imx (1.2%), Port Moody (0.8%), and finally Nelson (0.4%). These percentages were consistent with the overall percentage of Police Academy graduates (see Table 4.2)

Table 4.2   Comparison of departmental graduates to respondents in study

Department	Police Academy Graduates (%) N=303	Respondents in Survey (%) N=242
Vancouver	57.4	52.9
Delta	9.2	11.2
Saanich	7.3	7.9
Abbotsford	5.9	7.0
West Vancouver	5.3	5.8
New Westminster	5.3	5.4
Victoria	4.0	4.5
Esquimalt	1.7	1.7
Central Saanich	1.0	1.2
Stl'atl'imx	1.7	1.2
Port Moody	1.0	0.8
Nelson	0.3	0.4

Ranked in descending order by overall percentage of respondents to survey.

Education

Of the 234 respondents reporting their educational levels at the time of their field training, 51.7% had a university degree. Of those degrees, 48.3% were undergraduate

degrees while 3.4% were graduate degrees. Seventy one respondents, or 30.3%, reported

having a college diploma while 38 respondents, or 16.2%, reported having some college

or university which did not lead to a diploma or a degree. The remaining 1.7%, or 4

respondents, had only a high school education (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 Education levels all respondents

Education Level	Respondents (%) N=234
High School Graduation	1.7
Some College/University	16.2
College Diploma	30.3
Undergraduate Degree	48.3
Graduate Degree	3.4

There was no significant difference in the education levels when comparing males

to females (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Education levels by gender

Educational Level	Females (%) N=66	Males (%) N=168
High School Graduation	0	2.4
Some College/University	18.2	15.5
College Diploma	22.7	33.3
Undergraduate degree	56.1	45.2
Graduate Degree	3.0	3.6

Previous Police Experience

Of the 233 respondents reporting whether they had any previous police

experience, 76.4%, or 178 respondents, reported they did not have any previous police

experience. Of the 55 respondents (23.6%) that did have previous police experience, six were regular police members while 49 were reserve or auxiliary members. The number of years of previous police experience ranged from a low of one year to a high of 14 years. The majority, or 72.4%, had between one to four years of previous police experience (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Previous police experience all respondents

Previous Police Experience	Respondents (%) N=233
No	76.4
Yes: Regular member	2.6
Yes: Reserve member	21.0

Conclusions

The demographic results of the sample group in gender and department were an accurate representation, consistent with the overall police recruit percentages that graduated from the Academy. This finding, along with the high response rate, provides reliability and validity to the data. The data would suggest that the average recruit is a 29-year-old, university or college educated person without any prior police experience. Of these, approximately three out of every four recruits are male.

The vast majority of recruits could properly be described as both an adult and generation X learner. This consideration will become apparent and important as the remainder of the data is evaluated.

Content of Field Training Experience

Findings

The majority of the respondents found they received just the right amount of experience in ten of the 13 listed police activities. In the categories of interviewing suspects, investigating impaired drivers, and search warrants, the majority of respondents found they did not receive enough experience. Of particular significance were search warrants, where 85% of the recruits indicated they did not receive enough exposure. Also, more than a third of recruits found they did not get enough experience in drug enforcement, investigating violent crime, or liquor offence enforcement. (see Table 4.6). However, percentages were low in all categories of getting "too much" experience. The highest percentages in the "too much" category were traffic enforcement (7.9%) and investigating traffic accidents (7.1%).

Table 4.6   Field training content (%)

Police activity	Not enough	Just right	Too much
Search warrants	85.1	14.9	0
Interviewing suspects	63.1	36.9	0
Investigating impaired drivers	59.8	39.8	0.4
Drug enforcement	48.5	51.5	0
Investigating violent crime	39.2	60.8	0
Liquor offence enforcement	30.3	64.2	5.4
Routine street checks	20.4	79.6	0
Investigating traffic accidents	15.8	77.2	7.1
Community policing initiatives	13.3	81.3	5.4
Processing exhibits/property	12.4	85.9	1.7
Investigating domestic violence	8.4	86.6	5.0
Investigating property crime	8.3	86.3	5.4
Traffic enforcement	7.9	84.2	7.9

Conclusions

Overall, for most of the listed police activities recruits responded that they were receiving adequate experience. It is important to be cognizant of the fact that the respondents were answering this question after working independently as a police officer, some for as many as two years. In other words, these were not recruits fresh from their field training experience. Therefore, it can be assumed they were using both insight and hindsight in their responses.

From this data, it becomes apparent that FTOs should not be concerned about exposing their recruit to "too much" activity in any one area, except for perhaps traffic activities (enforcement and accidents). Traffic enforcement (stopping motorists and

writing tickets) and investigating traffic accidents (attending the scene and completing reports) could be considered routine, or mechanical, aspects of police work. Completing traffic tickets and accident reports are easily mastered.

The three categories that the majority of recruits identified as not receiving enough experience in (interviewing suspects, investigating impaired drivers, and search warrants) are usually legally arduous and time consuming. Interviewing suspects can be challenging and numerous admissibility issues arise in court connected to both the *Charter of Rights and Freedoms* and the common law confessions rule. Investigating impaired drivers can also be a complicated process. A large volume of case law has developed (McLeod, Takach, & Murray, 1986) and there are less onerous ways of dealing with the immediate threat that an impaired driver poses to the general public.

In British Columbia, a police officer can issue a provincial *Motor Vehicle Act* (R.S.B.C., 1996) 24-hour driver's licence suspension to an impaired motorist. This occurs at the roadside, takes about 10 minutes, involves no additional police resources, and addresses imminent concerns about the motorist continuing to drive while impaired. Processing an impaired driving charge, on the other hand, may take several hours, taking into account transportation to a police station, providing access to a lawyer, breathalyzer procedures and the completion of detailed police reports. Furthermore, it often involves additional manpower requirements in the taking of breath samples. Search warrants are also time consuming. They involve lengthy legal procedures and can take a police officer off the street for many hours.

In July 2003, the researcher polled a single Block III class by asking each recruit whether they were exposed to an impaired driving investigation. Only 50% of the class

reported that they did investigate an impaired driver, despite it being a required activity of Block II. This implies that survey results suggesting there was not enough exposure to impaired driving investigations are well founded. In fact, a response that not enough experience occurred could mean there was no exposure to the identified activity at all.

There are some police activities, suspect interviews, impaired drivers, and search warrants, where recruits are "crying out" for more exposure. Although labourious and demanding processes, they are clearly "practice wants". The emphasis for more exposure to these activities cannot be ignored. FTOs must be selective and intentional in exposing recruits to these experiences.

When comparing the data from this question to the overall satisfaction of the field training experience, there was no significant correlation. In other words, the individual amount of police experience encountered in any of the identified police activities did not significantly influence whether the recruit was satisfied or not satisfied with their overall field training experience.

Knowledge/Skill Areas

Findings

There was not an even spread in the rankings of importance of the listed knowledge and skill areas. Officer safety knowledge and skills was ranked to be the first most important proficiency area by more than half (50.4%) of the respondents and was ranked by approximately 90 % of respondents as being in the top four most important.

Investigation and patrol skills, the most highly ranked area overall (90.6%), legal studies

knowledge (82.8%), report writing and note taking skills (70.8%), and interpersonal

relations (57.5%) rounded out the top five perceived most important knowledge skill

areas. Driving skills, dress and deportment, and traffic studies knowledge were ranked

significantly lower than the top five areas (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7   Respondent rankings of knowledge and skill proficiency areas

Knowledge/skill area	Importance (%)				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Accumulative
Investigation and patrol skills	24.0	28.5	27.7	10.4	90.6
Officer safety knowledge and skills	50.4	21.9	10.7	7.1	90.1
Legal studies knowledge	11.2	30.2	29.8	11.6	82.8
Report writing and note taking skills	1.2	5.8	19.4	44.4	70.8
Interpersonal relations	12.4	12.4	10.7	22.0	57.5
Driving skills	0	0.4	0.4	2.9	3.7
Dress and deportment	0.8	0.4	0.8	1.2	3.2
Traffic studies knowledge	0	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.2

Knowledge and skill area rankings among both satisfied and not satisfied

respondents were substantially the same as the overall rankings and did not differ much

from each other (see Tables 4.8 and 4.9).

Table 4.8   Not satisfied respondent rankings of knowledge and skill proficiency areas

Knowledge/skill area	Importance (%)				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Accumulative
Investigation and patrol skills	31.3	31.3	28.1	3.1	93.8
Officer safety knowledge and skills	43.8	18.8	15.6	12.5	90.7
Legal studies knowledge	15.6	25.0	25.0	12.5	78.1
Report writing and note taking skills	0	9.4	18.8	43.8	72.0
Interpersonal relations	9.4	12.5	12.5	28.1	62.5
Traffic studies knowledge	0	3.1	0	0	3.1
Dress and deportment	0	0	0	0	0
Driving skills	0	0	0	0	0

Table 4.9   Satisfied respondent rankings of knowledge and skill proficiency areas

Knowledge/skill area	Importance (%)				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Accumulative
Investigation and patrol skills	22.9	28.1	27.6	11.5	90.1
Officer safety knowledge and skills	51.4	22.4	10.0	6.2	90.0
Legal studies knowledge	10.5	31.0	30.5	11.5	83.5
Report writing and note taking skills	1.4	5.2	19.5	44.5	70.6
Interpersonal relations	12.9	12.4	10.5	21.1	56.9
Driving skills	0	0.5	0.5	3.3	4.3
Dress and deportment	1.0	0.5	1.0	1.4	3.9
Traffic studies knowledge	0	0	0.5	0.5	1.0

Conclusions

It is clear that only the top five knowledge and skill areas (investigation and

patrol, officer safety, legal studies knowledge, report writing and note taking skills, and

interpersonal relations) are important to recruits. Driving skills, dress and deportment,

and traffic studies knowledge were not rated as important. Interestingly, these unimportant areas also received the least amount of instructional hours at the Police Academy (see Table 4.10). Could it be that the amount of time the Police Academy spends on a particular knowledge and skill area is reflected in the importance placed on these areas by the recruit? In other words, if the Police Academy stresses a knowledge or skill area by the amount of time devoted to the particular area, does this influence a recruit's perceived importance of the area? And if so, is the lack of importance in these areas reinforced by the FTOs on the street?

Table 4.10 2000 Basic Peace Officers Training Program hours by disciplines

Discipline	Block I	Block III	Total
Arrest and control and firearms training (includes officer safety knowledge and skills)	84	57	141
Investigation and patrol (includes report writing and note taking skills)	57	66	123
Legal studies	60	50	110
Professionalism and communication skills (includes interpersonal relations)	36	70	106
Traffic studies	30	34	64
Driver training	42	21	63
Foot drill (includes dress and deportment)	10	12	22

Source: Radford (2001) p.54

Dress and deportment standards provide an example of the incongruency that exists between the real world and the Police Academy setting. Under s.11of the *Regulations*, the Director of the Police Academy has the authority to set the standards of hygiene and deportment for officers attending the peace officers basic training program.

These standards (Police Academy, 1997) are quite regimented (polished footwear, pressed and lint free clothing, forge caps worn outside the Police Academy building) and strictly enforced. During Block I recruits are subject to a formal inspection parade by a senior officer at the beginning and end of the workweek. During Block III, recruits are subject to inspection only at the end of the week. A failed inspection can result in pushups, duty reports, or other appropriate disciplinary measures. On the other hand, in most departments patrol officers are not expected to have polished boots nor wear the forge caps outside the police building while on routine calls.

There may also be an assumption that proficiency is expected in the areas not ranked as important. As previously noted, traffic enforcement and investigating traffic accidents were the two police activities rated highest as receiving "too much" experience. The researcher suggests that these two activities may be considered as routine, and therefore become somewhat monotonous. Furthermore, it may be assumed that the average driving adult in Canada is aware of many of the traffic rules and regulations.

Driving a motor vehicle is a highly regulated activity and persons issued drivers licences have passed testing procedures in pursuit of those licences. Although non police personnel may not know the legislative section number (or legalese) prescribing a particular driving violation, the essence of the impugned conduct is commonly understood. The routine nature of traffic enforcement combined with a pre-police knowledge of common traffic offences may influence the rankings these traffic related domains received.

It is not surprising that report writing and note taking was rated high. Although the process of documentation may seem mundane and routine, proper report writing and note

taking is crucial to police work. There are three proverbs in law enforcement circles that underscore the importance of accurate and precise documentation:

- "Bad police reports have caused far more litigation than bad police work";

- "If something happens and you didn't write it down, then it didn't happen"; and

- "If you testify to something that isn't written down, then you are not telling the truth."

In this spirit, report writing and note taking are emphasized in all Police Academy disciplines.

Recruits prefer a generalist FTO. Specialization in any one area is not important. For example, no one individual knowledge/skill area dominated importance. Instead, a composite, or well-balanced, approach to knowledge/skill areas should be taken. When selecting a FTO, decision makers should focus on selecting a safe, technically and socially competent investigator demonstrating aptitude in documenting their activities. Appearance should be given little, if any weight.

FTO Roles

Findings

In rating their FTO, most respondents rated their primary FTOs as good (or very good) in each of the eight identified roles (see Table 4.11). The ratings (good or very good) were subject matter expert (91.4%), followed by partner (90.5%), evaluator

(88.8%), teacher (87.5%), mentor (86.8%), supervisor (85.9%), role model (85.2%),

while the lowest was friend/confidant (83.1%).

Table 4.11   Respondent ratings of FTO roles

Role		Rating (%)				
	r	Very poor	Poor	Neither	Good	Very good
Teacher	.76	1.7	5.0	5.8	39.2	48.3
Mentor	.75	1.2	5.0	7.1	35.3	51.5
Friend/confidant	.73	3.3	4.5	9.1	39.7	43.4
Evaluator	.72	1.7	4.6	5.0	46.1	42.7
Partner	.71	2.1	4.1	3.3	39.7	50.8
Role model	.69	2.1	3.7	9.1	36.4	48.8
Supervisor	.65	0.4	2.5	11.2	42.1	43.8
Subject matter expert	.51	0.8	0.8	7.0	48.8	42.6

R values correlate to overall satisfaction. Composite score of roles correlates .81 with overall satisfaction.

The vast majority of recruits who were satisfied with their field training experience rated their primary FTO good (or very good) in fulfilling all the roles identified. Of the not satisfied respondents, very few primary FTOs were rated as good (or very good) in fulfilling the identified roles, with the notable exception of subject matter expert. The subject matter expert role had the lowest percent difference between satisfied and not satisfied respondents. The highest difference between satisfied and not satisfied groups was the friend /confidant role (see Table 4.12).

Correlation coefficients (r values) were calculated to determine the strength of the relationship between overall satisfaction and fulfillment of each FTO role. The correlation coefficients of the roles show that there is a statistically significant correlation between a FTO fulfilling the role and overall satisfaction with the FTO experience. A

correlation coefficient between .60 and .80 is high and anything over .70 is almost always

statistically significant (Hagan, 2003).

Table 4.12   Comparative role ratings between satisfied and not satisfied respondents

Role	% of not satisfied recruits rating FTO as good or very good	% of satisfied recruits rating FTO as good or very good	Difference (%)
Friend/confidant	15.7	93.3	77.6
Mentor	21.9	96.7	74.8
Teacher	28.1	96.6	68.5
Partner	34.4	99.1	64.7
Supervisor	31.3	94.2	62.9
Evaluator	34.4	97.1	62.7
Role model	31.3	93.3	62.0
Subject matter expert	62.6	95.7	33.1

There was a positive relationship between how well the recruit rated their FTO

and how satisfied the recruit was with their overall field training experience. The role

with the strongest relationship to overall satisfaction was that of teacher ($r=.76$), followed

by mentor, friend/confidant, evaluator, partner, role model, supervisor, and finally subject

matter expert (see Table 4.11). As a composite score, all eight roles correlate .81 with

overall satisfaction.

In ranking the importance of the various roles, recruits selected the role of teacher

as being the most important, followed by subject matter expert, mentor, role model,

partner, and evaluator. The role of friend/confidant and supervisor were ranked the least

important (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.13   Respondent rankings of FTO roles

Role	Importance (%)				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Accumulative
Teacher	27.7	23.1	16.9	14.1	81.8
Subject matter expert	15.7	22.3	17.8	14.9	70.7
Mentor	21.1	16.9	16.1	12.0	66.1
Role model	18.6	15.7	11.6	9.5	55.4
Partner	8.3	11.2	11.6	16.6	47.7
Evaluator	5.0	5.8	15.3	17.4	43.5
Friend/confidant	2.5	2.5	7.9	10.8	23.7
Supervisor	1.2	2.5	2.9	4.6	11.2

There was no difference when comparing role ranking order between satisfied and not satisfied respondents (see Tables 4.14 and 4.15)

Table 4.14   Not satisfied respondent rankings of FTO roles

Role	Importance (%)				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Accumulative
Teacher	31.3	18.8	18.8	15.6	84.5
Subject matter expert	15.6	18.8	18.8	9.4	62.6
Mentor	15.6	12.5	15.6	18.8	62.5
Role model	18.8	15.6	6.3	15.6	56.3
Partner	9.4	15.6	12.5	12.5	50.0
Evaluator	6.3	3.1	21.9	9.4	40.7
Friend/confidant	3.1	6.3	6.3	9.4	25.1
Supervisor	0	9.4	0	9.4	18.8

Table 4.15   Satisfied respondent rankings of FTO roles

Role	Importance (%)				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Accumulative
Teacher	27.1	23.8	16.7	13.9	81.5
Subject matter expert	15.7	22.9	17.6	15.8	72.0
Mentor	21.9	17.6	16.2	11.0	66.7
Role model	18.6	15.7	12.4	8.6	55.3
Partner	8.1	10.5	11.4	17.2	47.2
Evaluator	4.8	6.2	14.3	18.7	44.0
Friend/confidant	2.4	1.9	8.1	11.0	23.4
Supervisor	1.4	1.4	3.3	3.8	9.9

Conclusions

It is not surprising that teacher was ranked as the most important role. Recruits are taught at the Police Academy that their Block II is designed to be a learning experience under the tutelage of the more experienced police trainer. However, there appears to be conflicting data emerging from the friend/confidant role. It was ranked as one of the least important roles by not satisfied respondents, yet this role emerged as having the greatest difference in rating between the satisfied and not satisfied groups. The not satisfied recruits did not recognize friend/confidant as an important role for the FTO, however in looking at Table 4.12 it was the role in which the FTO was least likely to receive a good (or very good) rating from not satisfied respondents.

From this data, it appears that, individually, the recruits do not realize the importance of the friend/confidant role on their overall satisfaction. Collectively however, the data demonstrates that the friend/confidant role has a strong (statistically significant)

correlation to overall satisfaction (r=.73). Similarly, subject matter expert ranked as the second most important role, yet it had the weakest correlation to overall satisfaction (r=.51). Individually the respondents over stressed the importance of subject matter expert, but collectively the relationship of this role (r=.51) to overall satisfaction is low-moderate (Hagan, 2003).

FTO Attributes

Findings

Most FTOs were rated as good (or very good) in terms of the listed qualities. The highest rated attribute was integrity (97.5% as good or very good) while the lowest rated attribute was being open minded (84.6% as good or very good) (see Table 4.16). In the "other" category, 29 recruits listed an additional attribute. The most common "other" attribute reported was experience, which was mentioned on three occasions. Of the 29 "other" attributes identified, only six were ranked in the top five. Experience was ranked in the top five three times, while leading by example, honesty in assessment, and morality were also ranked in the top five, each once. The other additional attributes mentioned in the survey were:

- Ability to transfer knowledge
- Advisor/counselor
- Approachable
- Confidence
- Consistent

- Knowledge of district
- Motivation: using field training as a step towards promotion
- Outstanding
- Political advisor

- Creativity
- Efficiency
- Fitness
- High expectation
- High work ethic/pride in work
- Honesty about my work
- Keep inappropriate comments to self
- Knowledge of department members

- Positive
- Put recruits needs above their own
- Reliability
- Time spent as acting sergeant rather than FTO
- Willingness to let recruit learn from mistakes
- Work ethic

Correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the strength of the relationship between overall satisfaction and how well the FTO was rated in terms of each attribute. The correlation coefficients of the attributes show there is a statistically significant correlation between some, but not all, of the attributes and overall FTO experience satisfaction.

Like role relationship, there was a positive relationship between how well the recruit rated their FTO and how satisfied the recruit was with their overall field training experience. The attributes with the strongest relationship to overall satisfaction were open minded and supportive. Both had r values of .69. The three attributes with the weakest relationship to overall satisfaction were dress and deportment ($r=.27$), report writing skills ($r=.35$), and job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training ($r=.42$). The remaining 15 attributes had correlation coefficients ranging from .67 to .49 (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.16   Respondent ratings of FTO attributes

Attribute	r	Rating (%)				
		Very poor	Poor	Neither	Good	Very good
Open minded	.69	1.7	7.5	6.2	48.5	36.1
Supportive	.69	0.4	4.2	8.3	38.3	48.8
Communication skills	.67	1.7	4.6	4.1	47.7	41.9
Leadership	.67	0.8	4.1	9.1	42.3	43.6
Fair	.66	1.3	2.1	5.8	45.8	45.0
Sense of humour	.66	0.8	4.1	4.6	36.1	54.4
Willingness to be a field trainer	.66	0.4	2.9	9.6	32.2	54.8
Empathy	.62	1.3	5.8	7.9	47.1	37.9
Flexibility	.60	1.2	3.3	6.6	38.2	50.6
Reputation among peers	.59	1.2	3.7	6.2	34.9	53.9
People skills	.58	1.2	5.0	6.2	45.2	42.3
Respect/courtesy	.58	1.3	2.1	5.9	41.0	49.8
Competence as a patrol officer	.57	0.8	0.4	2.9	29.5	66.4
Enthusiasm for the job	.57	1.2	2.1	10.4	40.7	45.6
Patience	.54	2.9	4.6	5.4	43.3	43.8
Initiative	.52	1.2	2.9	9.5	37.8	48.5
Integrity	.49	0.8	0.4	1.3	22.6	74.9
Job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training	.42	0.4	2.5	4.6	45.4	47.1
Report writing skills	.35	0	0.4	6.3	45.8	47.5
Dress and deportment	.27	0	1.7	6.6	49.0	42.7

r values correlate to overall satisfaction.

The vast majority of recruits who were satisfied with their field training

experience rated their primary FTO good (or very good) in terms of the qualities

identified. Of the not satisfied respondents, there was an even split between attributes

being rated good (or very good). Ten FTO attributes were rated by 50 or more percent of

the not satisfied group as being good (or very good). The highest of these was integrity

(87.1%) followed by dress and deportment, report writing skills, competence as a patrol

officer, patience, job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training, flexibility,

initiative, enthusiasm for the job, and respect/courtesy. The remaining ten attributes were

rated by less than 50 % of not satisfied respondents as good (or very good). The lowest

rated attribute was open minded (21.8%) followed by supportive, leadership,

communication skills, empathy, fair, people skills, sense of humour, willingness to be a

field trainer, and reputation among peers. The attribute of integrity had the lowest percent

difference between satisfied and not satisfied respondents. The highest difference

between satisfied and not satisfied groups was the open mindedness attribute (see Table

4.17).

In ranking the most important attributes, competence as a police officer ranked

highest (see Table 4.18). Out of the 20 listed qualities, more than 25 % of respondents

ranked this attribute the most important, while more than 50 % ranked it in the top five.

Willingness to be a police officer, people skills, report writing skills, and supportive

rounded out the top five attributes. Dress and deportment received the lowest ranking

with only one respondent placing it in the top five (0.4%). The "other" category, empathy,

open mindedness, and fairness were the attributes rounding out the least importance.

Table 4.17   Comparative attribute ratings between satisfied and not satisfied respondents

Attribute	% of not satisfied rating FTO as good or very good	% of satisfied rating FTO as good or very good	Difference (%)
Open minded	21.8	94.2	72.4
Supportive	25.0	96.7	71.7
Leadership	24.9	95.2	70.3
Communication skills	34.4	98.1	63.7
Empathy	31.3	93.3	62.0
Fair	40.7	98.6	57.9
People skills	37.6	95.2	57.6
Sense of humour	40.6	98.1	57.5
Willingness to be a field trainer	40.6	94.2	53.6
Reputation among peers	43.7	95.7	52.0
Respect/courtesy	54.8	96.2	41.4
Enthusiasm for the job	53.1	91.4	38.3
Initiative	53.1	91.4	38.3
Flexibility	56.2	93.8	37.6
Job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training	65.6	96.7	31.1
Patience	65.6	93.3	27.7
Competence as a patrol officer	75.0	99.0	24.0
Report writing skills	75.0	96.1	21.1
Dress and deportment	78.1	93.8	15.7
Integrity	87.1	99.1	12.0

Table 4.18 Respondent rankings of FTO attributes

Attribute	Importance (%)					
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	Accumulative
Competence as a patrol officer	27.5	11.3	6.7	4.6	3.8	53.9
Willingness to be a field trainer	17.9	6.3	6.7	7.9	9.6	48.4
People skills	11.3	9.2	8.8	11.6	7.1	48.0
Report writing skills	1.7	8.8	7.9	11.6	10.8	40.8
Supportive	5.4	6.3	9.2	10.0	6.7	37.6
Enthusiasm for the job	5.4	7.9	9.6	5.8	4.6	33.3
Integrity	8.8	9.2	6.7	4.6	2.5	31.8
Sense of humour	1.3	2.9	5.0	6.2	13.3	28.7
Patience	3.8	4.6	4.2	8.3	7.1	28.0
Communication skills	4.2	7.5	6.7	4.6	4.2	27.2
Flexibility	2.5	6.3	9.6	4.1	2.5	25.0
Respect/courtesy	2.1	4.6	5.4	4.1	4.6	20.8
Reputation among peers	1.7	2.1	3.3	5.4	6.3	18.8
Initiative	0.8	4.6	3.8	4.1	2.9	16.2
Job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training	3.8	3.8	1.3	0.8	4.6	14.3
Leadership	0.8	2.9	2.5	1.2	5.4	12.8
Fair	0	0.8	1.3	1.2	2.1	5.4
Open minded	0	0.8	0	2.1	1.3	4.2
Empathy	0	0.4	1.3	1.2	0	2.9
Other	0.8	0	0.4	0.4	0.8	2.4
Dress and deportment	0.4	0	0	0	0	0.4

There was notable difference when comparing the attribute rankings between satisfied and not satisfied respondents (see Tables 4.18 and 4.19). Although 19 of the 21 categories (including other) did not jump more than five intervals in importance, fairness and competence as a police officer jumped substantially. Fair was ranked 18th in

importance by satisfied respondents, but jumped to the 4th important position on the not

satisfied list. Competence as a police officer jumped from the most important attribute

listed by the satisfied group to 7th position of those not satisfied.

Table 4.19 Not satisfied respondent rankings of FTO attributes

Attribute	Importance (%)					
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	Accumulative
People skills	25.0	25.0	12.5	3.1	6.3	71.9
Supportive	9.4	9.4	12.5	6.3	9.4	47.0
Willingness to be a field trainer	6.3	3.1	9.4	21.9	6.3	47.0
Fair	0	0	9.4	0	3.1	43.7
Report writing skills	0	9.4	3.1	15.6	12.5	40.6
Patience	6.3	9.4	3.1	6.3	6.3	31.4
Competence as a patrol officer	18.8	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	31.2
Enthusiasm for the job	9.4	3.1	12.5	3.1	3.1	31.2
Reputation among peers	6.3	3.1	3.1	6.3	9.4	28.2
Communication skills	3.1	0	9.4	3.1	6.3	21.9
Integrity	6.3	12.5	3.1	0	0	21.9
Sense of humour	0	3.1	0	6.3	12.5	21.9
Flexibility	0	6.3	9.4	3.1	0	18.8
Initiative	0	6.3	0	3.1	6.3	15.7
Respect/courtesy	3.1	0	3.1	0	9.4	15.6
Empathy	0	0	6.3	3.1	0	9.3
Job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training	3.1	3.1	0	0	3.1	9.3
Dress and deportment	3.1	0	0	0	0	3.1
Leadership	0	3.1	0	0	0	3.1
Open minded	0	0	0	0	3.1	3.1
Other	0	0	0	3.1	0	3.1

Table 4.20   Satisfied respondent rankings of FTO attributes

Attribute	Importance (%)					
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	Accumulative
Competence as a patrol officer	28.8	12.5	7.2	4.8	3.8	57.1
Willingness to be a field trainer	19.7	6.7	6.3	5.7	10.1	48.5
People skills	9.1	6.7	8.2	12.9	7.2	44.1
Report writing skills	1.9	8.7	8.7	11.0	10.6	40.9
Supportive	4.8	5.8	8.7	10.5	6.3	36.1
Enthusiasm for the job	4.8	8.7	9.1	6.2	4.8	33.6
Integrity	9.1	8.7	7.2	5.3	2.9	33.2
Sense of humour	1.4	2.9	5.8	6.2	13.5	29.8
Communication skills	4.3	8.7	6.3	4.8	3.8	27.9
Patience	3.4	3.8	4.3	8.6	7.2	27.3
Flexibility	2.9	6.3	9.6	4.3	2.9	26.0
Respect/courtesy	1.9	5.3	5.8	2.9	3.8	19.7
Reputation among peers	1.0	1.9	3.4	5.3	5.8	17.4
Initiative	1.0	4.3	4.3	4.3	2.4	16.3
Job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training	3.8	3.8	1.4	1.0	4.8	14.8
Leadership	1.0	2.9	2.9	1.4	6.3	14.5
Open minded	0	1.0	0	2.4	1.0	4.4
Fair	0	1.0	0	1.4	1.9	4.3
Other	1.0	0	0.5	0	1.0	2.5
Empathy	0	0.5	0.5	1.0	0	2.0
Dress and deportment	0	0	0	0	0	0

Conclusions

It is not surprising that competence as a police officer was ranked by respondents as the most important attribute. This is consistent with the high ranking the role of subject matter expert received and the rankings of the knowledge and skill proficiency areas. It is also not surprising that dress and deportment received the lowest ranking. This is consistent with its rating in the knowledge and skill area proficiency rankings.

However, again like the role analysis, there appears to be conflicting data emerging. Many of the interpersonal skills were ranked low in importance but had the strongest correlation coefficients. For example, the attribute of open mindedness was only ranked in the top five important attributes by just over 4% of respondents, but had the highest r value at .69. Similarly empathy was ranked in the top five by only 2% of respondents but had a value of r=.62. On the other hand, report writing and note taking skills was ranked 4th most important, but only had a r value of .35. Competence as patrol officer was ranked most important, but only had a r value of .57.

Open mindedness was ranked as one of the least important roles by not satisfied respondents, yet this role emerged as having the greatest difference in rating between the satisfied and not satisfied groups. The not satisfied recruits did not recognize open mindedness as an important attribute of an the FTO, however in looking at Table 4.17 it was the quality the FTO was least likely to receive a good (or very good) rating from the not satisfied respondents.

From this data, it appears that, individually, the recruits do not realize the importance of the some of the attributes to their overall satisfaction. Collectively however, the data demonstrates that some of these attributes (eg. open mindedness,

empathy, leadership, fairness) have a strong correlation to overall satisfaction. Similarly, some of the highest ranked attributes (eg. report writing, competence as a police officer) had the weakest correlation to overall satisfaction. Individually the respondents over stressed the importance of some of the technical aspects of the job, but collectively the data suggests these technical aspects were not as important to overall satisfaction as some relational skills, which ranked lower.

Overall Satisfaction

Findings

Overall, the majority of respondents (86.7%) were satisfied with their field training experience (see Table 4.21).

Table 4.21 Respondent overall satisfaction ratings (%)

Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
3.3	5.0	5.0	32.8	53.9

The overall demographics of the not satisfied group did not differ in any significant way from the overall survey respondent demographics (see Table 4.22). The gender makeup of the 32 not satisfied respondents was 72% male and 28%. Their ages ranged from a low of 22 years to a high of 40 years with a mean age of 29 years. The educational history of the unsatisfied group consisted of 50% university degrees (46.9% undergraduate degrees and 3.1% graduate), 37.5% college diplomas, 9.4% some college or university, and 3.1% had only high school education. The majority (67.7%) of unsatisfied respondents did not have any prior police experience. The number of years of

previous police experience, regular or reserve, ranged from one to 10 years.

Table 4.22 Demographic comparison between all respondents and not satisfied respondents

	All respondents	Not satisfied respondents
Gender	28 % female	28% female
Mean age	29 years	29 years
Age range	21 to 44 years	22 to 40 years
Graduate degree	3.4%	3.1%
Undergraduate degree	48.3%	46.9%
College diploma	30.3%	37.5%
Some college/university	16.2%	9.4%
High school	1.7%	3.1%
Prior police experience	2.6% yes, regular	6.5% yes, regular
	21.0% yes, reserve	25.8% yes, reserve

Conclusions

From the recruits' perspective, the FTOs have done an excellent job at field training. Radford (2001) reported a satisfaction rate of 83 % in overall field trainer effectiveness when sampling 43 police members. Therefore, these results are not surprising.

Despite the overwhelming satisfaction rate, however, there still remain a number of recruits (13.3%) who were not satisfied with their field training experience. This reveals that there is room for improvement in field training. The makeup of the not satisfied recruits in gender, age, educational level, and prior police experience were generally consistent with the overall respondent group (see Table 4.22). From this, it can be inferred that there is no bias towards any particular group of recruits. For example, it

cannot be said that females were more likely or less likely to be satisfied with their field training experience than their male counterparts. Neither can any bias be found concerning age, educational level, prior police experience, or police department that would skew the results.

Comfort

Findings

The majority of respondents (85.8%) reported that they were made to feel comfortable (or very comfortable) by their primary FTO (see Table 4.23).

Table 4.23 Respondent comfort ratings (%)

Very uncomfortable	Uncomfortable	Neither	Comfortable	Very comfortable
4.2	5.0	5.0	33.9	51.9

Of the not satisfied respondents, only 16.1% reported they were made to feel comfortable by their FTO (see Table 4.24).

Table 4.24 Not satisfied respondent comfort ratings (%)

Very uncomfortable	Uncomfortable	Neither	Comfortable	Very comfortable
19.4	35.5	29.0	16.1	0

The correlation coefficient between how comfortable a recruit was made to feel and overall satisfaction was statistically significant at $r=.73$.

Conclusions

Being made to feel comfortable by another is a relational aptitude. The ability to make one feel comfortable is therefore a 'people skill'. Its not surprising that very few not satisfied respondents were made to feel comfortable. This suggests that again, people

skills are an important determinant to field training satisfaction.

Open Ended Questions

Due to the comprehensive nature and richness of the information obtained from the open ended questions, the researcher has chosen to combine the findings with the conclusions. Earlier data and information from the organizational document and literature review will also be incorporated into the analysis.

Response rates to the open ended questions ranged from a high of 97 % on question 7 to a low of 71 % on question 10 (see Table 4.25).

Table 4.25   Response rates to open ended questions (of 242 respondents)

Question	Responses	%
#7 What impressed you most about your field training/trainer(s)?	231	97
#8 What was the single most significant/impacting beneficial experience you had?	210	88
#9 What was the single most significant/impacting detrimental experience you had?	202	85
#10 Do you have any other comments about your field training experience?	169	71

The responses to the open ended questions were evaluated by the researcher and a member of the advisory committee. It became apparent that several general themes emerged. The responses were then coded into 14 themes (see Table 4.26). Each comment was then given a positive or negative designation. A positive designation was given when the comment reinforced the theme in a favourable manner and its reference to the theme

tended to enhance the field training experience. A negative designation was given when the comment reinforced the theme in an unfavourable manner and its reference to the theme tended to detract from the experience.

Table 4.26 Dominant themes identified from responses to open ended questions

Theme	Comments (number)		
	Total	Positive	Negative
Practical experience and professional knowledge	96	92	4
Specific job experience/critical incident	51	38	13
Love of the job	48	42	6
Patience	44	38	6
Exposure to multiple FTOs	43	27	16
Support/encouragement	41	34	7
Variety of calls	38	31	7
People skills	37	25	12
Being treated like a partner	33	31	2
Trust/independence	33	28	5
Willingness to be a FTO	27	19	8
Feeling like part of the shift team	24	18	6
Ethical behaviour of FTO	7	3	4
Reported concerns about FTO not addressed	5	3	2

The values shown by the data are not absolute and will not result in 100 %. Not all comments from all respondents could be coded into the above 14 categories. Some comments were unreported. For example, in response to question 9 one respondent answered, "Cannot recall any experience that was negative." This response still provides valuable information but could not be coded into one of the above themes. Themes that had less than five references from respondents were not included in the data. Where responses by one participant reflected both a positive and negative comment for a single theme, the comment was scored both a negative and positive designation. It is believed that every significant theme referenced by the respondents is included in the data.

Practical experience and professional knowledge ("street smarts")

The theme of practical experience and professional knowledge was the most commented upon topic. This was not surprising since learning the technical aspects of police work is important to recruits in the field training experience. The majority of respondents, even among those not satisfied, felt that their FTOs were knowledgeable in the art of policing. There were very few negative comments.

The predominance of this theme was consistent with earlier findings. The role of subject matter expert received the highest rating with 91.4 % of FTOs rated as good or very good in fulfilling the role. Subject matter expert was also ranked as the second highest important role behind teacher. As an attribute, competence as a police officer received the second highest rating with 95.9 % of FTOs rated good or very good and was ranked as the most important attribute:

> Their knowledge base on varied aspects, policy/procedure, legal, traffic, etc. [impressed me]. They made the job look easy.
> * * *
> His varying experiences and expertise in several areas of operational experiences [impressed me].

Several respondents indicated that they believed some FTOs lacked the experience necessary for the FTO role. They suggested there should be a minimum number of years of experience for the FTO position. The following comments captured this concern:

> A field trainer should have a minimum of 5-7 years patrol experience. Any less and the recruit would be cheated out of an important and impacting learning experience.
> * * *
> I had two competent trainers. The only comment I would make is to ensure that those persons becoming trainers have the same or similar competence. It seems, more and more, that very junior members are becoming trainers.

These officers may be good at their job, but they do not have the wealth of experience and knowledge to draw from, and it's the recruit that suffers.

This observation is supported by the evidence. As earlier noted, 57 % of the FTOs taking the Police Academy's Field Training Course had less than five years police service.

Eisenberg (1981: in Kaminsky, 2002) suggests, "Inadequately developed and administered FTO programs are more likely to attract energetic and young, but inexperienced, personnel." (p.9) He contends that FTOs with a couple of years of police service, in the absence of other police or maturity developing experiences, is often inappropriate and counterproductive. The *Report of the Independent Commission on the Los Angeles Police Department* (Independent Commission, 1991) came to a similar conclusion. The authors of that report examined use of force issues in the Los Angeles Police Department in the wake of the Rodney King incident. As part of their research, the Commission observed:

> Virtually all of the FTOs interviewed expressed concern that police officers have been promoted to FTO positions too quickly, a practice either created or exacerbated by the 1989-90 hiring expansion…Most stated that officers with only two or three years' experience lack the maturity and patrol experience necessary to train probationers. To the extent the available pool of officers permits restricting FTOs to officers with four or five years of experience, the Commission agrees that additional experience should be required. (p.128)

The Independent Commission went on to recommend that a minimum five years' field experience should be required for FTO selection. The five year minimum experience threshold recommended by the Independent Commission already exists in British Columbia. It is a requirement for FTOs under the *Regulations*, but is evidently not being followed in all cases.

There were also occasions, although rare, where recruits felt more capable

than their FTO or that their FTO was poorly prepared for the FTO assignment:

> Feeling that I was more competent and able to deal with a situation than
> my field trainer and having to accept her course of action. After over one
> year of experience after Block 3, I realize I was correct in my assessment.
> * * *
> Working plain clothes [with] one officer who was not a field trainer—very
> sloppy work and I felt at a loss as I knew more about law/RPG [reasonable
> and probable grounds] than he did.
> * * *
> I was my trainers 1st recruit. He had little if any prior teaching experience.
> The [field trainer] course did not prepare him adequately in this respect.

The quantitative and qualitative data suggest that FTOs more than adequately

fulfill their role as technical expert.

Specific job experience/critical incident

It became evident that several respondents were influenced by specific job

experiences that occurred during their field training. Many of the open ended questions

concerning the most significant (or impacting) beneficial or detrimental experiences were

answered by an isolated work event. Most occurrences that were beneficial could be

characterized as "exciting" or "adrenalin pumping" incidents such as serving search

warrants, vehicle pursuits, arrests, and saving lives of suicidal persons.

Other positive experiences included investigating specific cases, usually serious in

nature, and taking them to a successful conclusion. Involvement in internal discipline

complaints or witnessing the perceived use of inappropriate force, although rare, were

detrimental. Emotionally surviving a critical incident was also seen as beneficial. One

recruit who responded to a shooting and home invasion call made the following

comment:

Incidents of danger…gave me opportunity to find out how I react under pressure and how I cope with it afterwards. This is important in knowing that I will handle myself well/cope well in the future. Before you start the job you can only guess how you will do in these circumstances.

Some recruits mentioned that they felt unnecessary pressure from there FTOs during emergency driving tactics. One respondent experienced "extreme pressure" during an emergency response in rush hour traffic while another was "screamed at" to drive beyond what the recruit believed was their driving ability.

Love of the job

A FTO's enthusiasm for police work often is what impressed the recruit most about their trainer. This was often reflected in the effort put forth by the FTO during training as well as their overall attitude towards the job:

Working with people who love the job even after many years of service. Their enthusiasm really transferred over to me which made learning the job easier.

* * *

He loved coming to work and he liked teaching me. He was honest, humorous, encouraging, selectively complimentary, a friend.

* * *

I think that my trainer's maturity and love of his work made my experience very positive and beneficial.

* * *

The fact that he really took pride in [field training] and that he put forth more effort than was necessary [impressed me].

A FTO's love for the job was particularly impressive when the FTO had a significant amount of police experience:

Nearly 30 years of police service and [my FTO was] still willing: 1) to stay late on calls; 2) respond to every type of call; 3) be proactive and look for "crime".

* * *

Their willingness and passion they both had for the job. My first trainer had 17 years and my second had 13 years on the road and they still loved it.

* * *

[My FTO] was a terrific field trainer who enhanced my already bursting enthusiasm for the job. I was very lucky.

* * *

Both of my field trainers had approximately 9-10 years experience and were enthusiastic and willing to work hard. I was able to learn from their experience and knowledge.

By contrast, a lack of FTO motivation set the stage for a negative experience:

Being paired up with a squad mate who wasn't very motivated, except when it was time to head into the barn. This only occurred a couple of times when [the FTO] was away.

* * *

How easily he could get away with doing nothing all shift long and he was proud of it.

Patience

Patience was a common term used to describe a positive attribute of a good FTO.

For some recruits, patience included the awareness that the recruit was only in their Block

II stage. Several comments reflected patience in a general sense, while others were more

specific:

My primary field trainer had a lot of patience working with me. He gave me the opportunity to make a mistake, realize I had done so, then listen when I talked about it afterwards.

* * *

Patience, allowing me to move through a call at my pace. Letting me think about important areas; officer safety, legal knowledge, …

There were also isolated incidents reported when FTOs lost their patience with

recruits. In one case, a FTO became inpatient and told the recruit they were a "burden" to

teach. In another, a FTO became upset and angry at a recruit during a pursuit. It was the

recruit's first time operating the prisoner wagon. In yet another example, the recruit

observed the FTO lose their patience during a volatile situation, thereby causing what was

described as an avoidable confrontation.

Exposure to multiple FTOs

Exposure to more than one FTO, but not too many, was viewed as beneficial. As

one recruit found, "working with a variety of people gives different perspectives." This

multiple exposure often provided a base line for FTO comparison. In some cases, FTOs

were compared to each other and recruits would have rather not been exposed to the

"poor" trainer. On the other hand, some recruits felt this beneficial because it exposed

them to "how not to do the job". In one case, a recruit felt his field training experience

was "useless" because he had only one FTO, who he described as lazy and one

dimensional. Others enjoyed the experience of seeing different approaches to completing

the same job:

> It was excellent to have two primary field trainers and additional
> secondary trainers. Each person has valuable information to offer and can
> provide alternative methods for completing the job.
> * * *
> I am pleased to have the opportunity to work with two field trainers.
> Although it came about in a somewhat negative way (being taken away
> from my 1st trainer due to incompetent issues) I liked having the
> opportunity to see different training styles, (not just one trainer).
> * * *
> I had a very positive experience. My first trainer was a four year member
> and I was his first recruit. He was very dedicated and I very much felt I
> was his priority. I learned excellent report writing habits from him. My
> second field trainer was a 13 year member in the downtown eastside. He
> helped me develop my 'street' skills and officer safety practices. The
> balance of the two trainers turned out to be very beneficial.
> * * *
> Due to circumstances, I had the opportunity to have four field trainers over
> four months. I found this to be very positive as all four had different styles

and ways of accomplishing the same thing. I think working with more than
one field trainer gives a more rounded Blk II experience.

* * *

Overall, it was a very good experience. [I] had two field trainers, both
worked hard to offer me a varied experience with different working styles.
I know that I was lucky with two good field trainers. I've heard some real
horror stories.

* * *

Working with four different field trainers gave me that many more
policing styles to pick and choose from.

* * *

Having been with more than one field trainer made me appreciate my
primary field trainer and also gave me a role model I felt was similar to the
type of officer I wanted to be.

However, as the following comments suggest, a lack of organization and

continuity transitioning from one FTO to the next can make it frustrating and disrupt the

training process:

My primary field trainer was excellent but my secondary was a major
disappointment. I had a total of 10 people that I rode with because of
disorganization.

* * *

I had two FTOs and was flipped between the two every two blocks which
made it difficult to follow through and complete investigations from start
to finish.

* * *

I had five different field trainers...There was no consistency with the
training and no feedback for the first 2/3 of my block II.

Similarly, some recruits felt like they were "being passed around the squad" to

officers who were standing in for properly trained FTOs:

[I] didn't like having multiple field trainers. ie: During primary trainer's
absence, I went through about 8 other non-field trainers.

* * *

I got bounced around a fair amount. It was tough to maintain consistency.
This study suggests that the FTO experience can be enhanced through multiple

FTO exposure. Kaminsky (2002) similarly argued the importance of FTO rotation in

suggesting the following benefits:

- FTO objectivity increases when it is known others will evaluate the same trainee;

- Trainees are exposed to different ways of doing the job;

- FTOs and trainees may not have the same teaching/learning styles and rotation allows for exposure to varied approaches; and

- In the event that termination is recommended, multiple opinions carry more weight.

The optimal number of different field trainers seems to be two or three. This is consistent with both the Oppal (1994) and Radford (1997; 2001) recommendations.

Support/encouragement

It was evident from the responses that a supportive and encouraging FTO was important to the recruits. When recruits received compliments for a job well done, this was very satisfying. However, as equally important was recognition that mistakes also provided a teachable moment. This finding is consistent with the learning by doing approach characteristic of adult learning and generation Xers:

> It was important to have a field trainer who was able to provide me with everything needed to ensure success including recognizing learning experiences that may not have felt like a success at the time.
> * * *
> [My FTO] allowed me to learn from my mistakes, without criticizing me. Always supportive even if the "call" did not go well.
> * * *
> A supportive, encouraging environment allowed me to feel easy in asking questions of my trainer without feeling "under the microscope" and continually being assessed. Constructive challenging of decisions made and field trainer's flexibility to realize that a specific course of action chosen may be different from one police officer to the next. That every situation has many ways of dealing with it effectively.
> * * *

A mistake was made one night by my field trainer and myself. We talked with each other, squad, and [sergeant]. I learned that policing is a learning experience and it is acceptable to screw up as long as you learn from mistakes.

<center>* * *</center>

[My FTO] let me learn hands on versus watching him do it. If needed he would step in and help out.

In one case, a respondent found "the field trainer's persistent lack of encouragement and continuous failure to demonstrate supportive behaviour" initially tainted their perception of policing. In another, the recruit felt they were subject to constant criticism:

> You do 99% of the things right and you only hear about the 1% you did wrong.

Call variety

Exposure to a variety of different files and investigations was seen to be very beneficial:

> [My FTO] was extremely patient and self sacrificing (in that he wouldn't hesitate to volunteer us for more than our share of "undesirable" calls for my benefit, so I could be exposed to a huge variety of calls). He never treated me (or made me feel) like I knew essentially nothing, and was 100% approachable for any questions (even stupid ones).

This became especially important when a recruit had only one FTO:

> Although I had only one field trainer (as opposed to switching half way through) I felt I was exposed to many various situations and incidents.

In one case, the FTO deliberately had the dispatcher send them to specific calls to ensure the recruit was exposed to a variety of situations. This was described by the recruit as the most beneficial experience of his field training. Some recruits also reported the opposite to be true. A lack of exposure to a diversity of calls was seen to be a hindrance

to maximizing the experience. Unlike what one might suspect, lack of call variety was not restricted to the smaller departments, but arose in larger police agencies including the Vancouver Police Department. Although it appears call variety was important enough to be mentioned in the open ended questions, in the overall finding content did not significantly correlate with overall field training satisfaction.

People skills

Strong interpersonal skills were mentioned by several respondents as impressing them most about their FTO:

> Both field trainers were very patient, knowledgeable. They were easy to get along with. Very good personalities. They made the field training experience fun and yet I learned a great deal about policing from them.

The term "friendly" was used several times in describing a positive FTO characteristic. Comments about people skills were not, however, restricted to FTO recruit interactions. Some respondents were equally impressed by their FTOs ability to interact with the public:

> [My FTO] could empathize with anyone in any situation building trust with victims.

As one respondent noted, although pleased with his FTOs knowledge, he would have had a "more rounded" Block II if not for his FTOs poor people skills. For some recruits, their FTO lacked communication skills. This proved to be a barrier to effective feedback.

Partnership

Many recruits observed that they appreciated being treated like a partner, even though they understood that their FTO occupied other roles such as evaluator and supervisor. The recruits realized they were not equal to their FTO in terms of professional competence in performing the job, but they did feel they were peers equally deserving of respect:

> [My FTO] never made me feel like I was "beneath him" i.e. even though I was brand new and learning, he treated me as an equal
>
> * * *
>
> Both field trainers treated me with respect and made me feel as a partner and part of the team. This made my learning experience very positive and gave me the confidence necessary.
>
> * * *
>
> Although both of my field trainers were fairly senior, both always made me feel like a "partner", not a "recruit".
>
> * * *
>
> Once my field trainer was satisfied that I was safe and semi-competent he treated me like a partner, which made the training easy and very natural.

Not all field training alliances, however, were viewed as partnerships:

> I was made to feel like an outsider. Excluded out of conversations, I felt like a worthless person most of the time.
>
> * * *
>
> [My field trainer's] expectations were unrealistic for where a new recruit should be at, coming out of the Police Academy. I also felt as though she was field training for extra cash and maybe thought it would be less work for herself. It was clear to me from the beginning that we were not partners. I feel this was extremely detrimental to my experience. I was afraid to ask questions as I would be belittled.

Haider (1990) recognized that a partner relationship between a recruit and a FTO can develop over time. However, he also suggests that a FTO considering their recruit as a partner may have a difficult time evaluating recruit performance objectively.

Trust/independence

Trust and independence as a general theme went hand in hand. When FTOs had

the trust in the recruit's ability to manage a call or investigation independently, this

provided a boost in confidence to the rookie. Handling a call without being interrupted

instilled a sense of self assurance within the recruit. For example, one respondent

reported an increase in confidence when allowed to drive the police car at the beginning

of Block II despite unfamiliarity with the area.

Several respondents reported independence as the most beneficial experience they

had:

> Allowing me to work through a call the long way so that I could learn and
> figure out for myself how to be more efficient the next time (vs.
> interjecting and taking over the call)
>
> * * *
>
> Being the first unit on scene at a serious stabbing call (nearly a homicide)
> and remaining the "assigned/primary unit". [I] was able to observe the
> incident in its entirety and how the call was run (ie. Procedures...
> containment, suspect description, [K-9] unit, EHS, etc...) Despite being a
> very serious call my field trainer didn't take over and allowed me to
> participate.
>
> * * *
>
> Confidence instilled in my abilities through support of field trainer and
> freedom to make decisions—initiate investigations and take a leading role
> ie. Drug search warrant investigation.
>
> * * *
>
> Being the first unit on scene at a serious stabbing call...and remaining the
> "assigned/primary unit". [I] was able to observe the incident in its entirety
> and how the call was run....Despite being a very serious call my field
> trainer didn't take over and allowed me to participate.
>
> * * *
>
> The field trainer allowing me to make all decisions, to perform all duties
> during an entire shift and then say "good job".
>
> * * *
>
> The last two weeks of my field training. My field trainer pretended he was
> invisible and allowed me to be contact officer for each and every call we
> attended.

There were also reports of negative experiences when FTOs would

"micromanage" the recruit:

> My second field trainer had a tendency to stand over my shoulder while I
> typed a report (she was always in a hurry). This caused me to make silly
> mistakes because I just wanted to get her off my back, so I would hurry
> through reports.
>
> * * *
>
> When my field trainer interrupted my investigation and embarrassed me.
>
> * * *
>
> Field trainer was a bit of a control freak [and] didn't allow the progression
> of taking over files (primary) quick enough.
>
> * * *
>
> Generally on most calls, despite the fact that I had been handling
> everything okay, the field trainer always had to jump in and opinionate on
> something. It would have been much more beneficial to let us do
> everything and then get feedback afterwards.

Micromanagement is one of the management methods disliked by generation Xers.

Willingness to be a FTO

A concern that a FTO be a willing participant, and not a draftee, to the field

training experience was made evident by many respondents. One respondent found that

his placement with an officer not wanting a recruit was the most detrimental experience

of his field training. Other respondents made similar remarks concerning the importance

of selecting volunteers, rather than forcing people into the position of FTO:

> I think it is very important that you have people field training who want to
> take on the field trainers role. It makes for a positive experience.
>
> * * *
>
> Our department is so desperate for field trainers that they are being forced
> to be in a position (training) when they don't want to be. Or else they are
> using the position as a means or promotion. People aren't field training
> because they genuinely want to teach recruits.
>
> * * *
>
> One concern I have developed in my short term in policing is that many
> field trainers are being forced into the position which may impact their
> performance when training recruits.

143

* * *

I believe officers shouldn't be pressured into being a field trainer. Recruits are way too vulnerable and would sense this immediately.

* * *

Make sure they want to be there. Being forced or doing it for the money is the wrong reason.

As one recruit noted, a person's desire to be in the FTO position is easily read and a lack of ambition to be with the recruit is fertile soil for a negative experience:

> It is so important that a field trainer wants to be field trainer. It is very obvious and discouraging when a trainer is assigned the task of field training, but would rather be on his own. I've seen this happen to others in their Block II and it really has a negative effect on the recruit.

In another situation, a respondent believed that successful completion of the FTO training course should not be the yardstick by which FTO selection is determined:

> A field trainer I feel has to be in that position because they want to be, someone should not be a field trainer just because they have the course.

Teamwork

Acceptance by the shift as a contributing member, despite being a rookie, was reported as a beneficial experience. Recognition from officers other than the FTO, such as supervisors and shift mates, was also a welcome and appreciated occurrence:

> Working on a platoon in which every person helped/assisted me and had some input into my training. Very supportive co-workers and sergeants/staff sergeants.

In one case, social activities with the shift outside work made the recruit feel like "part of the team." In another case, a recruit was most impressed by his shift's ability in coming together and functioning cohesively during a serious incident. However, in some

instances recruits were exposed to poor morale amongst their shift mates. In fact, one respondent was "surprised to see how unhappy and sour the senior constables were on the job." In another case, the FTO was described as a "gossip spreader" for speaking poorly of other police members. Naturally, these experiences were considered to be detrimental. Still others were disillusioned by the lack of respect they received. This disenchantment was compounded by senior members feeling entitled to respect without regard to their competence.

Ethical behaviour of FTO

There were comments related to ethics and integrity suggesting a negative impact on the field training experience. One recruit was disappointed that "all police officers don't necessarily hold themselves to the same ethical/moral standards". However, the exposure to FTOs of contrasting ethical standards nonetheless provided a learning experience for some:

> My field trainer participated in activities that were contrary to the Police Act as well as department code of conduct. My first field trainer was extremely knowledgeable of the criminal law, policies and procedures, but lacked integrity. My second field trainer had significantly less knowledge regarding legal issues/policies, but had strong morals and ethics and very positive attitude. I decided to model my policing behaviour after my second field trainer.

One respondent noted that their FTO belonged to a group of officers who had the reputation of being an "aggressive clique". This was reported as their most detrimental experience. Integrity was also a concern of one recruit who felt their FTO "operated" using a double standard when their FTO was observed doing things that were not right.

Reported concerns about FTO not addressed

Some recruits felt they should have the opportunity to evaluate their FTOs.

Perhaps more frustrating for the respondents was when they brought FTO competency

concerns forward to police administrators, without result:

> Concerns were raised about the competence of my field trainer and yet she
> still receives recruits.
>
> * * *
>
> I feel all field trainers should want to do it, and negative comments by
> "Block 2ers" should reflect whether or not trainers continue to train.
>
> * * *
>
> He was extremely lazy, avoided all calls, and would teach me how to do
> the same thing. I complained about him to recruiting after graduation;
> however he has since had more recruits after me.

"Deselection" of FTOs was raised as a concern in the Report by the Special

Counsel on the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department (1992). In a two-year period,

40 of the department's 275 FTOs were deselected largely because existing FTO

performance standards were suddenly enforced and FTOs with marginal qualifications

were selected to address the large number of trainees. The Special Counsel observed poor

FTO performance cannot be tolerated because of the irreparable damage done to a

recruit's development.

Discussion

Through the eyes of the trainees, British Columbia's municipal and tribal police agencies are doing an admirable job field training. Overall, most officers are satisfied with their Block II experience. By examining these successes, as well as the disappointments, information can be obtained which would allow police educators to sustain the strengths and improve the weaknesses of the FTO program. The following is a summary of the researcher's observations, taking into account quantitative and qualitative data as well as the organizational and literature review.

FTO occupational knowledge or technical competence (street smarts) were rated high by recruits. Recruits also ranked these competencies as highly important. Subject matter expertise and patrol function competencies however, did not have the highest correlation to overall satisfaction. The role of friend/confidant was ranked lower in importance than subject matter expert, but had a much stronger correlation to overall satisfaction. A similar result can be found with the attributes of empathy, communication skills, open mindedness, and supportiveness (people smarts). They all were ranked lower in importance than patrol officer competence, but had a high correlation to satisfaction.

The data suggests that the recruits overestimate the importance of technical skill and attributes, or street smarts, and underestimate other forces, such as interpersonal skills, social competencies, and emotional intelligence. Eisenberg (1981) emphasized a similar notion:

> It is not unusual for a FTO program to become occupied with, those technical skills inherent in police work, in contrast to what may be referred to as the "soft" or interpersonal skills....This overemphasis on technical skills may be due to the seemingly greater ease with which these skills are

taught in contrast to the "softer" skill areas. Should this be the case, it is not surprising then, that the more rewarding aspects of recruit training to the FTO would be in the technical skill areas where improvement is more easily achieved and clearly revealed. (p.51)

Eisenberg's assertion may explain the recruit's perception. It is possible that the technical areas were perceived more important because they are systemically over emphasized and easier to learn and evaluate than interpersonal skills. Seven of the eight categories the recruit is evaluated on during their Block II training are knowledge or technical skill areas. Only the "interpersonal relations" domain would unambiguously fall into a soft skill category.

In reviewing the literature, there is little doubt that the FTO has a long term impact on the recruit. It is this researcher's experience that the emphasis on police knowledge and technical aspects begins at the Police Academy and is reinforced by the FTO. As Dwyer (2001) suggests, people often train the way they were taught. The recruit adopts the emphasis placed on these technical aspects in police training. The recruit then gives these mechanical and technical facets of police work significant weight, even in some cases after two years of being on their own.

The researcher is not asserting that occupational competence is not important and should be sacrificed for people skills. They are not mutually exclusive. Rather, people skills are a necessary component to effective field training. Police educators must recognize the importance of these competencies to the field training experience. Perhaps, it was said best by one of the respondents:

> Being a field trainer is about leadership, mentoring, providing a positive example, and training, which includes evaluation. It is not simply about being a good police officer. It is that and much more.

Most of the not satisfied respondents rated their FTOs as competent patrol officers. Despite the respondents' perceived importance of these 'street smarts' to the FTO experience, the data bears out a somewhat different picture. The recruits individually rank skills of a technical nature more important than most relational skills, or 'people smarts'. However, it is evident that the FTOs' ratings in terms of people smarts had a positive correlation to overall satisfaction. It can be inferred from the data that recruits do not realize the importance of a FTOs people smarts to the satisfaction of their experience.

This assertion is reinforced when examining other aspects of the data. The field training content had very little, if anything, to do with overall satisfaction. FTOs should continue to provide a variety of experiences, being cautious of over emphasizing traffic related duties. If the content of the field training was called the "song", and the FTO the "singer", the data shows that the song doesn't matter to the overall satisfaction of the performance. It's the singer's "stage presence" that engages the audience.

Fulfilling stage presence in the case of FTOs equates to fulfilling the various roles of the recruit/trainer relationship. A FTO takes on many roles including the ones identified in this study. No one role dictated overall satisfaction. Rather, fulfillment of all the roles had the strongest relationship to overall satisfaction.

From the data, a satisfying field training experience involves a three-prong approach. The FTO must engage, empower, and encourage the recruit.

Engagement includes:

- demonstrating a positive and enthusiastic outlook to training and police work;

- inspiring the recruit by modeling the way, setting high standards, and leading by example (character, competence, and attitude);

- creating learning opportunities tailored to the recruits learning style;

- treating the recruit with respect and dignity;

- allowing the recruit to try newly acquired skills; and

- ensuring a welcoming and comfortable environment.

Empowerment includes:

- providing challenging opportunities for recruits to exercise independent judgment;

- supporting decisions or courses of action taken by recruits which may be a different approach to what the FTO may have taken. This increases individual responsibility and discretion;

- increasing recruit competence by exposing them to a variety of experiences; and

- enabling action and learning from mistakes

Encouragement includes:

- recognizing recruit performance, innovation, and creativity;

- providing effective feedback;

- creating opportunities for testing acquired abilities;

- seeking recruit input in decision making; and

- avoiding a sink or swim approach. Use a scaffolding approach, taking the recruit from a crawl to a walk to a run.

Up until now it appears field training is product driven, which has been quite successful. The outcome of the experience is focused towards producing a technically competent police officer. However, there is room for improvement in the FTO

experience. This improvement must focus on process driven forces such as engagement, empowerment, and encouragement. This includes FTOs building relationships with recruits by fulfilling various roles and developing interpersonal capacities. Concentration in these areas should improve overall recruit satisfaction and make the field training experience a better learning opportunity.

Study Recommendations

The recommendations of this report to the sponsoring agency, the Justice Institute of British Columbia Police Academy, are as follows:

- The Police Academy integrate the research findings into the Field Trainer Course (POL 611), including the learning and leadership styles of Generation Xers. As "Generation Y" persons enter police training, research into their learning and leadership style is also recommended.

- The Police Academy create a training module in the Block I recruit training syllabus. This module would prepare recruits for the training experience and many of the findings from this project could be incorporated.

- The Police Academy create selection criteria for FTOs attending the Field Trainer Course. These selection criteria should include the attributes and knowledge/skill areas identified in this study as being important to the recruit learner. FTO course should also include a requirement that course applicants have a minimum five year service as established by the *Regulations*.

- The Police Academy include the Block II experience on the Basic Peace Officer

  Training Program evaluation form sent to all graduating recruits. Responses in this

  area could be the topic of discussion at the Field Trainer Course and also be shared

  with the Training Officers Advisory Committee.

- Since the independent police agencies are responsible for establishing their own FTO

  selection policies, the Police Academy should provide a copy of this report to each

  agency through the Training Officers Advisory Committee.

The following recommendations are not a direct result of the survey but arise from the

organizational document review:

- The Police Academy examine and outline acceptable performance standards for

  FTO recruit evaluations during their Block II training. At present there are no

  objective standards in the Police Academy Block II (FTO) Recruit Evaluation

  Report for FTOs to assess recruits (see for example the California standards).

- The Police Academy liaise with the Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor

  General to propose amendments to the police training *Regulations*. This

  legislation has not been updated even though changes to the Peace Officers

  General Training program were made. For example, the *Regulations* still require a

  Block IV and Block V period of training occur at the Police Academy. Block IV

  presently occurs in the field while Block V no longer exists.

CHAPTER FIVE – RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

Organizational Implementation

This author proposes that the importance of the role of field trainer has been at times underestimated and undervalued by police organizations. Recommendations for field training improvements have been somewhat vague and many not followed. For example, Oppal (1994) and Radford (1997; 2001) recommended that a set of FTO selection or competency criteria be identified. They further recommended FTOs be re-certified once every three years. Neither of these recommendations has been followed.

Field trainers must be carefully selected. Because of the significant impact field training has on the future of the police organization and profession, it needs to be given the recognition and consideration it deserves. Implementation of these recommendations requires the support of all FTO program participants. These include the Police Academy, the Training Officers Advisory Committee, and the individual police agencies. However, the Police Academy, as the central police training institution in British Columbia, must take a leadership role in improving FTO training.

Future Research

This research project surveyed only one stakeholder (the recruit) in the FTO experience. There are many more interested parties with other viewpoints that may assist in painting a clearer picture of the FTO/recruit dynamics. Because of the limitations of this research project, the following future research could be conducted:

- Interview FTOs for their perceptions of an effective field training experience;

- Historical research examining trends in field training;

- Interview FTOs and other police officers to discover what incentives would motivate officers to pursue FTO positions;

- Examine what influence, if any, the Police Academy has on a recruit's perceived importance of the various knowledge and skill areas.

CHAPTER SIX – LESSONS LEARNED

Research Project Lessons Learned

During the course of completing this research project several important lessons have been learned. Although many of the lessons may have resulted from the researcher's inexperience, they are important lessons nonetheless. Reporting on them may assist other researchers considering similar projects.

When conducting the test pilot survey, the surveys were initially to be returned to the researcher back through the departmental contact person. A few test subjects reported that they would prefer that there be a direct mailing route back to the researcher. These subjects suggested that they did not want personnel within their department having the opportunity to review the responses.

The researcher encountered some problems with the internal mail system of the Vancouver Police Department. After conducting electronic mail follow up, several respondents indicated they did not receive the surveys. To rectify this problem, the researcher sent PDF versions of the survey electronically along with the covering letter and had the respondents print off the surveys and mail them back to the researcher through departmental outgoing mail. Several other respondents stated they received the surveys well after the requested return date. This problem could be addressed by having a longer time frame for the return of the surveys. None of these problems were encountered with other departments.

Another challenge that arose is that several replies to the follow up indicated that respondents had been on leave when the surveys were sent out, only to receive them on

their returned from leave. Unfortunately, this was after the due date that they received them. Although February is usually not a peak holiday period, new police employees often receive these off season times for leave, as veteran employees usually book the summer holiday periods. Again, providing a longer time frame for the return of the surveys may have addressed this challenge.

Major Project Competencies and Evaluation Plan

During this research project, the following 5 required RRU competencies and 5 additional competencies were evaluated. The 5 required competencies include:

1c. Provide leadership.

This competency was demonstrated by:

- Completing the project;
- Facilitating the Research Advisory Committee meetings and conducting the interviews;
- Treating participants with respect and dignity;
- Valuing others.

2b. Apply systems thinking to the solution of leadership and learning problems

This competency was demonstrated by:

- Integrating systems thinking into the project, including the recruit/FTO relationship;
- Engaging participants in systems thinking during the research.

5a. Identify, locate and evaluate research findings

This competency was demonstrated by

- Using quantitative and qualitative action research;
- Collecting and analyzing research data;

- Conducting surveys and interpreting quantitative and the qualitative data.

5b. Use research methods to solve problems

This competency was demonstrated by

- Using qualitative and quantitative research to explore the question;

- Providing deliverables.

7b. Communicate with others through writing.

This competency was demonstrated by

- Completing the survey and covering letter;

- Completing the final report.

The following 5 additional program competencies were evaluated:

1b. Demonstrated leadership characteristics

This competency was demonstrated by

- Treating participants with dignity and respect;

- Leading Research Advisory Committee meetings;

- Professionalism during project.

1e. Recognized ethical considerations and values and took them into account when making decisions

This competency was demonstrated by

- Complying with ethical practices during research;

- Anticipating possible ethical considerations in consultation with others.

4c. Created learning opportunities for others.

This competency was demonstrated by

- Permitting participants to engage in learning.

4f. Managed own learning to achieve maximum added value.

This competency was demonstrated by

- Open to learning experience;

- Contained own learning to relevant and realistic levels during project.

7a. Listened effectively and valued others' different opinions.

This competency was demonstrated by

- Integrating Research Advisory Committee meetings and interviews as well as survey results into final report.

REFERENCES

Abbotsford Police Department. (1999). *Policy and Procedure Manual*. Abbotsford, BC: Abbotsford Police Department.

Agashae, Z. & Bratton, J. (2001). Leader-follower dynamics: developing a learning environment. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 13(3), 89-102.

Anderson, T. (2000). *Every officer is a leader: transforming leadership in police, justice, and public safety*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press LLC.

Ashkenas, R., Ulrich, D., Jick, T., & Kerr, S. (1995) *The Boundaryless Organization*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Babbie, E. (2001). *The Practice of Social Research, 9th Edition*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Thompson Learning.

Bagshaw, M. (2003). Emotional intelligence-training people to be affective so they can be effective. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 32(2), 61-65.

Bartlett, J. (1980). *Familiar Quotations*, 15th Edition. Toronto, ON: Little, Brown and Company.

Bass, B. & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, Character, and Authentic Transformational Leadership Behaviour. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 181-217.

Bellan, R. (2001). *Ross Township Police Department Field Training Officer Program*. Retrieved November 14, 2001, from http://trfn.clpgh/rosspd/fto.html.

Bennis, W. (1991). *On Becoming a Leader*. Boston, MA: Addison-Wesley

Bennis, W. (1999). *Old Dogs, New Tricks*. Provo, UT: Executive Excellence.

Billet, S. (1994). Situating learning in the workplace-having another look at apprenticeships. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 26(11), 9-16.

Billet, S. (1995). Workplace learning: its potential and limitations. *Education + Training*, 37(5), 20-27.

Billet, S. (2000). Guided learning at work. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 12(7), 272-285.

Billet, S. (2001). Learning though work: workplace affordances and individual engagement. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 13(5), 209-214.

Birzer, M. (2003). The theory of andragogy applied to police training. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 26(1), 29-42.

Bova, B. & Kroth, M. (2001). Workplace learning and Generation X. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 13(2), 57-65.

Brannick, T. & Coughlan, D. (2001). *Doing action research in your organization.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Braunstein, S. & Tyre, M. (1992). Building a more ethical police department. *The Police Chief*, 59(1), 30-35.

Bromley, M. (1982). A structured field training officer program. *Campus Law Enforcement* Journal, 12(2), 36-39.

Brown, B. (1997). New learning strategies for generation X. Eric Digest No. 184. Retrieved July 8, 2003, from http://www.ericfacility.net/ericdigests/ed411414.html

Bryans, P. & Smith, R. (2000). Beyond training: reconceptualizing learning at work. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 12(6), 228-235.

California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. (1988a). *Field Training Officer Course: A Model POST Field Training Program.* CA: Training Program Services Bureau.

California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. (1988b). *Field Training Management Guide: A Model POST Field Training Program.* CA: Training Program Services Bureau.

California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. (2000). California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. Retrieved July 15, 2003 from http://www.post.ca.gov/train/dorchapter1.htm.

Canada. (2002). Police Resources in Canada, 2002. Ottawa, ON: Statistics Canada. Catalogue no. 85-225-XIE.

Canada. (2003). Police officers, provinces and territories. Statistics Canada. Retrieved June 27, 2003, from http://www.statcan.ca.

Cancino, J. (2001). Walking among giants 50 years later: an exploratory analysis of patrol officer use of violence. *Policing*, 24(2), 144-161.

Cao, L., Ding, X., & Barton, S. (2000). A test of Lundman's organizational product thesis with data on citizen complaints. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 23(3), 356-373.

Caudron, S. (1997). Can generation Xers be trained? *Training & Development*, 51(3), 20-24.

CBC News. (2003, January 24). *Six B.C. officers accused of beating suspects*. Retrieved July 9, 2003, from http://www.cbc.ca.

Central Saanich Police Department. (1992). *Central Saanich Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Inspection: May, 1992*. Victoria, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

Central Saanich Police Service. (2000). *Policy and Procedure Manual*. Central Saanich, BC: Central Saanich Police Service.

Ceyssens, P. (1994). *Legal aspects of policing*. Saltspring Island, BC: Earlscourt Legal Press, Inc.

Chan, J. (2003). *Fair cop: learning the art of policing*. Toronto, ON: University of Toronto Press.

Cohen, N. (1995). *Mentoring Adult Learners. A guide for Educators and Trainers*. Malabar, FL: Krieger Publishing Company.

Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc. (1994) *The Standards Manual of Law Enforcement Agency Accreditation Program, Third Edition*. Fairfax, VI.

Conference Board of Canada. (2002). *Developing business leaders for 2010*. Conference Board Inc.

Cooper, R. & Sawaf, A. (1996). *Executive EQ: emotional intelligence in leadership and organizations*. New York, NY: The Berkley Publishing Group.

Cordeniz, J. (2002) Recruit, retention, and management of generation X: a focus on nursing professionals. *Journal of Healthcare Management*, 47(4), 237-249.

Cordner, G. & Sheehan, R. (1999). *Police Administration*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing Co.

Covey, S. (1994) *First Things First*. (Cassette Recording). New York, NY: Simon & Schuster Inc.

Crane, T. (2001). *The Heart of Coaching: Using Transformational Coaching to Create a High-Performance Culture*. San Diego, CA: FTA Press.

Culbert, L. & Fong, P. (2003, March 22). Six VPD officers face 33 charges after beatings: offences include assault with a weapon and obstruction of justice. *The Vancouver Sun*. Retrieved March 22, 2003, from http://www.canada.com.

De Pree, M. (1992). *Leadership Jazz*. New York, NY: Currency Doubleday

Delta Police Department. (1990). *Delta Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Inspection: 1990*. Victoria, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

Delta Police Department. (1995). *Delta Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Inspection: April-June 1995*. Victoria, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

DePoy, E. & Hartman, A. (1999). Critical action research: A model for social work knowing. *Social Work*, 44(6), 560-569. Retrieved January 17, 2002, from Academic Search FullText EBSCOhost.

Dick, B. (1993). *You want to do an action research thesis?* Retrieved January 15, 2002, from http://www.scu.edu.au/schools/sawd/arr/arth/arthesis.html.

Dick, B. (1997). *A beginner's guide to action research*. Retrieved January 15, 2002, from http://www.scu.edu.au/schools/sawd/arr/guide.html.

Doern v. Phillips Estate, (1997) 43 B.C.L.R. (3d) 53 (B.C.C.A.)

Dwyer, B. (2001). Successful training strategies for the twenty-first century: using recent research on learning to provide effective training strategies. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(6), 312-318.

Edmundson, J. (1999). Mentoring programs Help New Employees. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 68(10), 16-18.

Eisenberg, T. (1981). Six potential hazards in developing and implementing programs for field training officers. *The Police Chief*, 48(7), 50-51.

Encarta World English Dictionary (2002). Retrieved November 24, 2002, from http://encarta.msn.com/encnet/features/dictionary.html.

Engelson, W. (1999) The organizational values of law enforcement agencies: the impact of field training officers in the socialization of police recruits to law enforcement organizations. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 14(2), 11-19.

Esquimalt Police Department. (1999). *Esquimalt Police Department Section 40 (Police Act 1996) Inspection Report Standards Compliance Examination: January 1999*. Victoria, BC: Police Services Division.

Ethics Training Subcommittee of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (1998). Ethics training in law enforcement. *The Police Chief*, 65(1), 14-24.

Fagan, M. & Ayers, K. (1985). Professors of the street: Police mentors. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 54(1), 8-13.

Fagan, M. (1985). How police officers perceive their field training officer. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 13(2), 138-152.

Fischer, M. (2002). Generation X recruits and the field training experience. *IACP Big Ideas for Smaller Police Departments*. Summer 2002. Retrieved March 13, 2003, from http://www.theiacp.org/documents/pdfs/Publications/genxrecruits.

Gage Canadian Dictionary. (1997). Toronto, ON: Gage Educational Publishing Company.

Gamonal, P. & Williams, J. (2002). *Leading generation x: Getting in touch with the energy*. Retrieved November 21, 2002, from http://www.ravenwerks.com/leadership/genx.htm.

Garda Training Committee. (1987). *Report on probationer training*. Dublin, Ireland: Stationery Office, Government Publications Sale Office.

Garr, A. (2003, February 2). 'Starlight tour' puts Graham in spotlight. *Vancouver Courier*. Retrieved July 11, 2003, from ProQuest.

Gibbs, N. & Epperson, S. (1995, October 2) The EQ Factor. *Time*. 146 (14), 60-68.

Glensor, R., Peak, K. &Gaines, L. (1999). *Police supervision*. San Francisco, CA: McGraw-Hill College.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Greenwood, D. & Levin, M. (1998). *Introduction to action research. Social research for social change*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Haarr, R. (2001). The making of a community policing officer: the impact of basic training and occupational socialization on police recruits, *Police Quarterly*. 4(4), 402-433.

Hagan, F. (2003). *Research methods in criminal justice and criminology, 6th Edition*. Toronto, ON: Allyn and Bacon.

Haider, J. (1990). *Field training police recruits; Developing, improving, and operating a field training program.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas Ltd.

Hartman, T. (1979). Field training officer: the Fairfax County experience. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, April 1979, 22-25.

Harvey, W. (1999). Build support for community policing through FTO programs. *Police*, 23(10), 38-40.

Holden, R. (1986). *Modern Police Management.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Simon & Schuster, Inc.

Howell, M. (2003). Crossing the thin blue line. *The Vancouver Courier*. 13(28), 1,3.

Hurley, K. (1990). The legal and rational basis for field induction training. In Peter C. Unsinger & Harry W. More (Eds.) *Criminal justice induction training: the field training process* (pp.3-18). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas Ltd

Independent Commission. (1991). *Report of the Independent Commission on the Los Angeles Police Department.* Los Angeles, CA. Retrieved June 22, 2003, from http://www.parc.info/reports/pdf/christophercommision.pdf.

Institute for Law Enforcement Administration. (2001). *Centre for Law Enforcement Ethics: Ethics train the trainer.* Richardson, TX: Centre for American and International Law.

Kaminsky, G. (2002). *The field training concept in criminal justice agencies.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Kaptein, M. & van Reenen, P. (2001). Integrity management of police organizations. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 24(3), 281-300.

Kean, D., Hess, S., & Ungerleider, C. (1994). *Police Recruitment and Preparation in British Columbia: 2001 and Beyond.* Victoria, BC: Policing in British Columbia Commission of Inquiry.

Knowles, M., Holton, E., & Swanson, R. (1998). *The adult learner : the definitive classic in adult education and human resource development.* Woburn, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Koo, L. (1999). Learning action learning. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 11(3), 89-94.

Kouzes, J. & Posner, B. (1995). *The Leadership Challenge*. San Franscisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Kouzes, J. (1995). *Achieving Credibility: The Key to Effective Leadership*. (Cassette Recording). New York, NY: Simon and Schuster Inc.

Kumar, R. (1999). *Research methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: SAGE Publications Inc.

Kuykendall, J. (1975). *Community Police Administration*. Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall Inc.

Lankard, B. (1995). *Career development in generation X: myths and realities*. Retrieved July 19, 2003, from http://icdl.uncg.edu/ft/081399-09.html.

Lawson, K. (1999). *Coaching: The Key to Improving Staff Performance*. Lanham, MD: American Correctional Association.

Lewis, L. and Williams, C. (1994). Experiential learning: past and present. In L. Jackson & R.S. Caffarella, *Experiential learning: A new approach* (pp.5-16). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Lieb, S. (1991). Principles of adult learning. Retrieved July 8, 2003, from http://www.hcc.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/FacDevCom/guidebk/teachtip/adults-3.htm

Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department. (2002). *A Report by Special Counsel James G. Kolts & Staff*. Los Angeles, CA: Retrieved June 22, 2003, from http://www.parc.Info/pubs/pdf/Los%20Angeles%20County%20Sheriff%27s%20Department.pdf.

Mahoney, T. (1991). *The Successful Field Training Officer*. West Covina, CA: Future Focus Publishing.

Matsqui Police Department. (1994). *Matsqui Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Audit: February, 1994*. Vancouver, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

Matthews, P. (1999). Workplace learning: developing a holistic model. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 6(1), 18-29.

McCampbell, M. (1987). *Field training for police officers: the state of the art*. U.S. Department of Justice. National Institute of Justice. Research Report.

McDonell, L. (1993). *Recruitment and training: employment equity: liability for failure to adequately train*. Victoria, BC: Policing in British Columbia Commission of Inquiry.

McLeod, R., Takach, J., & Segal, M. (1986). *Breathalyzer law in Canada*. Toronto, Ont.: Thomson Carswell Publishing.

McNiff, Jean. (2000). *Action research in organizations*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Meehan, M. (2001). Performance Evaluations of Field Training Officers. *The Police Chief*, 68(11), 25-30.

Mickleburgh, R. (2003, January 25). Vancouver police accused of brutality. *The Globe and Mail*. Retrieved March 23, 2003, from http://www.glogeandmail.com

Ministry of Attorney General, British Columbia Police Commission. (1994). *A model policy and procedures manual for municipal police departments in British Columbia*. Victoria, BC: Ministry of Attorney General.

Ministry of Attorney General: Police Services Division. (1995). *Provincial Standards for Municipal Police Departments in British Columbia*. Vancouver, BC: Ministry of Attorney General.

Molden, J. (1986). FTO programs high on interest list. *Law and Order*, 34(11), 16, 77.

Molden, J. (1989). FTO liability: a practical approach. *Law and Order*, 37(7), 16, 18.

Molden, J. (1991). The FTO as counsellor. *Law and Order*, 39(5), 16.

Morrel-Samuels, P. (2002). Getting the truth into workplace surveys. *Harvard Business Review*, 80(2), 111-118.

Motor Vehicle Act, R.S.B.C. 1996 (1996). *Queen's Printer*. Retrieved May 22, 2003, from http://www.qp.gov.bc.ca/statreg/stat/M/96318_00.htm.

Nanus, B. (1989). *The Leader's Edge*. Chicago, IL: Contemporary Books, Inc.

Nelson Police Department. (1993). *Nelson Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Inspection: November 1993*. Vancouver, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

Neuman, W. (2003). Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. Toronto, ON: Allyn and Bacon.

New Westminster Police Department. (1990). *New Westminster Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Inspection*: 1990. Victoria, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

New Westminster Police Service. (1996). *New Westminster Police Service Section 42-B.C. Police Act Inspection:* September, 1996. Victoria, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

O'Bannon, G. (2001). Managing our future: the generation X factor. *Public Personnel Management*. Retrieved July 8, 2003, from EbscoHost.

O'Toole, J. (1995). *Leading Change: Overcoming the Ideology of Comfort and the Tyranny of Custom*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Oak Bay Police Department. (1998). *Oak Bay Police Department Inspection Report. Section 42 (Police Act, 1989) Section 40 (Police Act, 1996) November, 1998*. Vancouver, BC: Ministry of Attorney General: Police Services Division.

Oettmeier, T. (1982). Justifying FTO terminations. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 10(1), 64-73.

Oppal, Justice W. (1994). *Policing in British Columbia Commission of Inquiry. Closing the Gap: Policing and the Community. The Report*. Victoria, BC: Minister of Attorney General

Peters, J. and Smith, P. (1998). Action learning and the leadership development challenge. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 10(6/7), 284-291.

Police Academy. (1997). *Recruit Instructor Orientation Manual*. New Westminster, BC: Justice Institute of British Columbia Police Academy.

Police Academy. (2003a). *Police Academy Block II Recruit Evaluation Report*. New Westminster, BC: Justice Institute of British Columbia Police Academy.

Police Academy. (2003b). *Police Academy Training Calendar 2003*. New Westminster, BC: Justice Institute of British Columbia Police Academy.

Police Act, R.S.B.C. 1996.(1996). *Queen's Printer*. Retrieved May 22, 2003, from http ://www.qp.gov.bc.ca/statreg/stat/P/96367_01.htm.

Police Act: Prescribed Police Forces Regulations, B.C. Reg. 70/99. (1999). *Queen's Printer*. Retrieved May 22, 2003, from http://www.qp.gov.bc.ca/statreg/reg/P/Police/70_99.htm.

Police Act: Rules Regarding Training, Certification and Registration of Municipal Constables Appointed Under Section 26 of the Police Act, B.C. Reg. 109/81. (1981). *Queen's Printer*. Retrieved May 22, 2003, from http://www.qp.gov.bc.ca/statreg/P/Police/109_81.htm.

Port Moody Police Department. (1998). *Port Moody Police Department Section 42 Inspection Report: July 1998*. Vancouver, BC: Police Services Division

Port Moody Police Department. (n.d.). *Policy and Procedural Manual*. Port Moody, BC: Port Moody Police Department.

Pricewaterhouse Coopers. (2001). *Strategic human resources analysis of public policing in Canada*. Canada: Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police & Canadian Police Association.

Radford, J. (1997). *Evaluation of the Basic Recruit Training Provided by the Police Academy at the Justice Institute of British Columbia*. Vancouver, BC: Consulting Resource Group, Ltd.

Radford, J. (2001). *Evaluation of the Training Provided by the Police Academy at the Justice Institute of British Columbia*. Vancouver, BC: TGIM Group Inc.

Raelin, J. (1998). Work-based learning in practice. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 10(6/7), 280-283.

Raines, C. and Hunt, J. (2000). *The Xers and the Boomers: From adversaries to allies-a diplomat's guide*. Berkley, CA: Crisp Publications, Inc.

Rankin, B. (1990). A new approach to FTO training. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 59(8), 19-21.

Rauch, W. (2000) How to keep gen x employees from becoming x-employees. *Training and Development*, 54(4), 40-43.

Reason, P. & Bradbury, H. (2001). *Handbook of action research: Participative inquiry and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc

Reichheld, F. (2001). Lead for loyalty. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(7), pp.76-84.

Ross, D. (2000). Emerging trends in police failure to train liability. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 23(2), 169-193.

Rossi, G. (1995). Field Training and Evaluation. *Law and Order*, 43(3), 57-59.

Rothwell, W. & Kazanas, H. (1994). *Improving on-the-job training: how to establish and operate a comprehensive OJT program*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Royal Canadian Mounted Police. (1999). *Field Coaching Program: Program Training Standard*. RCMP GRC 3738eng (2000-03) (FLO).

Saanich Police Department. (1994). *Saanich Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Audit: November, 1994*. Vancouver, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

Scialdone, F. (1994). What will the scope of field training programs be by the year 2002? *Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST)*. Sacramento, CA.

Senge, P. (1994). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. New York, NY: Bantam Double Day.

Shea, G. (1997). *Mentoring: A Practical Guide*. Menlo Park, CA: Crisp Publications, Inc.

Shea, G. (1999). *Making the Most of Being Mentored: How to Grow From a Mentoring Partnership*. Menlo Park, CA: Crisp Publications, Inc.

Short, R. (1998). *Learning in Relationship*. Bellevue, WA: Learning in Action Technologies, Inc.

Smith, G. (2002a). *Baby boomer versus generation x managing the new workforce*. Retrieved November 23, 2002 from http://www.businessknowhow.com/manage/genx.htm.

Smith, G. (2002b). *How to manage generation x employees*. Retrieved November 21, 2002 from http://www.chartcourse.com/articlegenx.html.

Smith, P. (1998). *Rules and Tools for Leaders: How to Run an Organization Successfully*. Garden City Park, NY: Avery Publishing Group

Spielberger, C. (1979) *Police selection and evaluation*. New York, NY: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation.

Sterling, J. (1972). *Changes in role concepts of police officers*. Professional Standards Division of the International Association of Chiefs of Police.

Stringer, E. (1996). *Action research: a handbook for practitioners*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

The Canadian Oxford Dictionary. (1998). Don Mills, ON: Oxford University Press.

Thibault, E. (1998). *Proactive police management*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Townsend, R. & Bennis, W. (1991). *Reinventing leadership: Strategies to empower the organization*. (Cassette Recording). New York, NY: Simon and Schuster Inc.

Trautman, N. (1997). *The Field Training Process*. Longwood, FL: Advanced Field Training Institue, National Institute of Ethics.

U.S. Department of Justice. (1997). *Police Integrity: Public Service with Honor. A partnership between the National institute of Justice and the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services*. Retrieved June 22, 2003, from http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/163811.pdf.

Van Maanen, J. & Schein, E. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization. *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, 1, 209-264.

Vancouver Police Department. (1994). *Vancouver Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Inspection: May-July, 1993*. Victoria, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

Victoria Police Department. (1992). *Victoria Police Department Section 42-B.C. Police Act Inspection:* November, 1992. Victoria, BC: B.C. Police Commission.

Victoria Police Department. (1994). *Policy and Procedural Manual*. Victoria, BC: Victoria Police Department.

Virginia. (1999). *Review of Regional Criminal Justice Training Academies. Joint Legislative Audit and Review Commission of the Virginia General Assembly*. House Document No.28

Walker, P. (1981). Effective field training. *Law and Order*, 19(3), 32-37.

West Vancouver Police Board. (2000). *Collective agreement between the West Vancouver Police Board and the West Vancouver Police Association for the period 2000 January 01 to 2002 December 31*. Retrieved June 22, 2003, from http://www.lrb.bc.ca.

Whisenand, P. & Rush, G. (1998). *Supervising police personnel: the fifteen responsibilities*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Williams, J. (2000). Mentoring for law enforcement. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 69(3), 19-25.

Wyess, P. (2001). *Understanding the new breed of cop: Generation x in policing*. Retrived November 23, 2002, from http://63.238.99.136/le_newsstand_5GenXtraits.asp

Zemke, R. & Zemke, S. (1984) 30 things we know for sure about adult learning. *Innovation Abstracts*. Vol. VI, No 8, March, 1984. Retrieved July 8, 2003, from http://www.hcc.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/FacDevCom/guidebk/teachtip/adults-3.html

Appendix A

JI
JUSTICE
INSTITUTE
OF B.C.

POLICE ACADEMY

FIELD TRAINING SURVEY

Research Advisory Committee
Insp. Mike Trump—Victoria Police
Sgt. Keiron McConnell—Vancouver Police
Sgt. Don Walden—Delta Police
Ms. Leanne Novakowski, MEd.

Researcher
Sgt. Mike Novakowski – Abbotsford
Police/Royal Roads University

Project Sponsor
Mr. Steve Watt – Director, JIBC Police
Academy

Project Supervisor
Dr. Darryl Plecas-UCFV

Survey #:

Instructions
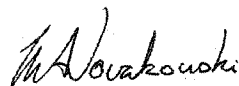
The primary purpose of this survey is to identify the determinants of an effective field training experience. I expect that you will find this survey easy to complete and should take only about 15-20 minutes of your time.

As you have been advised in the covering letter, your participation is voluntary and your responses will be held in the strictest confidence. In this regard, individual responses will not be revealed to anyone.

I would be grateful if you could complete the survey, seal it in the envelope provided, and return it to **[enter contact]** by **February 21st, 2003**. Your survey will then be forwarded in the sealed envelope to me at the JIBC. In the alternative, please place the completed survey in the enclosed envelope and return it directly to me through your departmental outgoing mail. If you have any questions about this survey please do not hesitate to call me at [enter number].

For the purposes of this survey, your *"primary field trainer"* was your <u>first regular field training officer</u> assigned to you by your department's Training Section. This does not include a police officer filling in for your primary field trainer while he/she was on leave at the beginning of your Block II.

Thank you,

Mike Novakowski

Mike Novakowski
JIBC Police Academy

Some background on you

What was your age at the time of field training? _____ years old

What level of education did you complete prior to entering field training? *Please check (✓) the appropriate box.*

High School	**Some college/ university**	**College Diploma**	**Undergraduate degree**	**Graduate degree**
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Did you have any previous police experience before commencing your Block II field training? *Please check (✓) the appropriate box.*

Yes	**No**	**If yes:**	**Regular Member**	**Reserve Member**	**# of years:** _____
☐	☐		☐	☐	

1. How your time was spent during field training

Compared to the amount of field training experience you believe a new recruit <u>should</u> receive regarding each of the following activities, how much experience did <u>you</u> personally receive in your BLK II field training? *Please check (✓) the appropriate box.*

Police Activity	Not enough	Just right	Too much
Community policing initiatives......	☐	☐	☐
Drug Enforcement....................	☐	☐	☐
Interviewing suspects.................	☐	☐	☐
Investigating domestic violence....	☐	☐	☐
Investigating impaired drivers.......	☐	☐	☐
Investigating property crime.........	☐	☐	☐
Investigating traffic accidents........	☐	☐	☐
Investigating violent crime...........	☐	☐	☐
Liquor offence enforcement..........	☐	☐	☐
Processing exhibits/property.........	☐	☐	☐
Routine street checks..................	☐	☐	☐
Search warrants.......................	☐	☐	☐
Traffic enforcement...................	☐	☐	☐

2. Knowledge/Skill Areas

A field trainer should have knowledge and skill in each of the eight (8) areas listed below. Considering this list, please choose four (4) that you consider to be the areas in which a field trainer should be most <u>proficient</u>. Please rank these four knowledge/ skill areas in terms of how important you believe them to be.

Eight (8) knowledge/skill areas

A. Dress and deportment

B. Driving skills

C. Interpersonal relations

D. Investigation and patrol skills

E. Legal studies knowledge

F. Officer safety knowledge and skills

G. Report writing and note taking skills

H. Traffic studies knowledge

Ranking of importance (*note letter only, e.g. A, B, C, ...*)

1st most important   _____

2nd most important   _____

3rd most important   _____

4th most important   _____

3.Role of the Field Trainer

Based on your field training experience, how well do you believe your primary field trainer fulfilled each of the following eight (8) roles? *Please check (✓) the appropriate box.*

	Very poor	Poor	Neither	Good	Very good
A. Evaluator………………	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
B. Friend/ Confidant……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
C. Mentor………………	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
D. Partner………………	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
E. Role Model………….	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
F. Subject matter expert...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
G. Supervisor…………..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
H. Teacher………………	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Ranking of importance

Considering the roles listed above, please choose four (4) that you consider to be the roles that were *most important* to you during your field training. Please rank these four (4) roles in terms of how important they were to you. (*note letter only, e.g. A, B, C, ...*)

1st most important _____

2nd most important _____

3rd most important _____

4th most important _____

4. Attributes of a Field Trainer

How would you rate your primary field trainer in terms of the following qualities? *Please check (✓) the appropriate box.*

		Very poor	Poor	Neither	Good	Very good
A.	Communication skills..........	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
B.	Competence as a patrol officer..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
C.	Dress and deportment............	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
D.	Empathy (understanding, good listener)............................	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
E.	Enthusiasm for the job...........	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
F.	Fair...............................	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
G.	Flexibility (exposing recruit to a variety of situations)..........	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
H.	Initiative (self motivated)......	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I.	Integrity (honest, trustworthy)..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
J.	Job knowledge congruent with Police Academy training........	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
K.	Leadership........................	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
L.	Open minded.....................	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
M.	Patience..........................	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. (cont'd) Attributes of a Field Trainer

How would you rate your primary field trainer in terms of the following qualities?
Please check (✓) the appropriate box.

		Very poor	Poor	Neither	Good	Very good
N.	People skills (personable, friendly)........................	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
O.	Report writing skills.............	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
P.	Reputation among peers.......	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Q.	Respect/Courtesy...............	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
R.	Sense of humour................	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
S.	Supportive (encourager)........	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
T.	Willingness to be a field trainer...........................	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
U.	Other: _____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Ranking of importance

Considering the qualities listed above and on page 6, please choose five (5) qualities that you consider to be the _most important_ for your field trainer to possess. Please rank these five (5) qualities in terms of how important they were to you. (*note letter only, e.g. A, B, C, ...*)

1st most important   _____

2nd most important   _____

3rd most important   _____

4th most important   _____

5th most important   _____

5. Overall, how satisfied were you with your field training experience? *Please check (✓) the appropriate box.*

Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither	Satisfied	Very satisfied
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. How comfortable were you made to feel by your primary field trainer? *Please check (✓) the appropriate box.*

Very uncomfortable	Uncomfortable	Neither	Comfortable	Very comfortable
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. What impressed you most about your field training/trainer(s)?

_____

_____

_____

8. What was the single most significant/impacting <u>beneficial</u> experience you had?

_____

_____

_____

9. What was the single most significant/impacting <u>detrimental</u> experience you had?

_____

_____

_____

10. Do you have any other comments about your field training experience?

_____

_____

_____

Thank you.

Appendix B

Date

Dear [name of recruit]

RE: FIELD TRAINING SURVEY

Greetings from your JIBC legal studies instructor! I hope everything is going well for you in your policing career. The JIBC Police Academy is sponsoring a field training research project I am conducting as part of my Royal Roads University Masters of Arts degree in Leadership and Training. As part of my project I am surveying police officers to identify the determinants of an effective field training experience. You were selected to participate in this study because you have, within approximately the last 3 years, completed your Block II field training and have now had experience as a qualified municipal police officer.

By completing this survey, you will assist British Columbia's municipal police departments and the JIBC Police Academy in selecting field trainers, in determining how field training time is spent, and how the Police Academy can best prepare field trainers and recruit police officers for this experience.

As you should expect, your responses will be kept confidential and accessed only by the research team. Responses will be amalgamated and then studied as a group. There is no need to write your name on the survey and responses will not be reported on an individual basis. Furthermore, your department will not receive individual survey responses. Participation is, of course, voluntary—but I encourage you to take part. Your response is important.

I would be grateful if you could complete the questionnaire, <u>seal it</u> in the envelope provided, and return it to your training officer [enter name of contact] by **February 21st, 2003**. This envelope will then be forwarded to me at the JIBC. In the alternative, please place the completed survey in the enclosed envelope and return it directly to me through your departmental outgoing mail. On completion of the research project, I will send a summary of the survey results to all participants.

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey please do not hesitate to contact me at [enter number].

Thanks for the help.

Yours sincerely,

Mike Novakowski