THE SUPERVISION OF APPLIED POLICE SCIENCES FACILITATORS AT THE ROYAL CANADIAN MOUNTED POLICE TRAINING ACADEMY

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By

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SUPERVISORY AND EXAMINING COMMITTEE

Scott L. Burko, candidate for the degree of Master of Education, has presented a thesis titled, ***The Supervision of Applied Police Sciences Facilitators at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Training Academy,*** in an oral examination held on September 1, 2006. The following committee members have found the thesis acceptable in form and content, and that the candidate demonstrated satisfactory knowledge of the subject material.

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Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine the current system of supervision in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy and how it compares to the Clinical Supervision Model.

The Commanding Officer of the RCMP Training Academy, Depot Division, was contacted to request permission to interview all five of the training coordinators in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the Academy. An analysis of the data indicated that there were two themes central to this study. There were inconsistencies within the supervisory system currently in use and there existed a desire for senior management to provide more empowerment to the training coordinators over their work processes.

The findings of the study revealed numerous inconsistencies between the training coordinators in regards to the purpose and practice of facilitator supervision. Reasons cited for performing facilitator supervision included: an accountability measure for senior management, professional development of the facilitators, the completion of annual assessments, consistency in messages given to cadets from facilitators, ensuring corners do not get cut by facilitators, and making sure there is control in the classroom. Inconsistencies in the practice of facilitator supervision were found in the frequency of in-class observations, what the training coordinators look for when observing a facilitator as they work, and the processes used in the supervisory process with respect to pre and post conference meetings. There were also marked differences between the training coordinators with respect to the competencies facilitators are assessed against based on their overall performance.

An additional theme identified was that of empowerment. The training coordinators' believed that they possessed the knowledge and ability to positively contribute to decisions concerning the Cadet Training Program, but that senior management at the Training Academy did not appropriately empower them to make such contributions.

The methods of facilitator supervision employed at the RCMP Training Academy were compared to the Clinical Supervision Model as a means of providing possible direction in the improvement of instruction at the Academy.

Recommendations were made to both the training coordinators and to senior managers at the Training Academy regarding potential improvements to the current supervisory system practiced in the Applied Police Sciences Unit. The system of supervision currently in place requires further examination if instructional improvement is the goal at the RCMP Training Academy. Some processes used in the Clinical Supervision Model may be useful in achieving this objective.

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Without the unconditional support of my wife Lisa, my son Nicholas, my daughter Samantha, and my mother Irene, I would never have completed my graduate work.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this thesis to the memory of my father, Lorne V. Burko, who was unable to see the completion of my graduate degree.

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY

Introduction

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) Training Academy, a division of Canada's national police force situated in Regina, Saskatchewan, has been the depot of training for all RCMP members for the last 130 years. This training site, also known as Depot Division, has graduated thousands of police officers who enforce provincial, territorial, and federal laws across Canada. Hundreds of men and women are trained to become regular members of the RCMP each year. They come from across Canada to join troops of thirty-two men and women who undergo a rigorous training regime called the Cadet Training Program (C.T.P.) Currently, fifty troops per year pass through the entrance gates to endure this intensive twenty-four week basic training program.

These men and women who come to the Training Academy are called cadets until successful completion of the Cadet Training Program, at which time they become regular members of the RCMP. Cadets experience an integrated curricula, composed of academic and skill-oriented programs. Nearly half of their time is spent in the classroom in the Applied Police Sciences building, while the other half of the program occurs throughout the grounds and is composed of firearms training, driver training, defensive tactics, fitness and lifestyles, and drill, deportment, and tactical troop training. Those who graduate from the Cadet Training Program are sent to their new posting at an RCMP detachment at one of many locations across Canada, where they undergo six months of additional training in an operational environment under the supervision of experienced police officers in the field.

My current assignment at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Training Academy is that of an Educational Methodologist. I work with a team of subject matter experts and instructional designers in the Training Program Support and Evaluation Unit. We are responsible for the production, maintenance, and supervision of the Cadet Training Program curricula and its evaluative procedures. Our unit has a vested interest in the appropriate realization of the curricula that we produce. We depend upon the facilitators of the Cadet Training Program, who are regular members of the RCMP at either the constable or corporal rank, to effectively deliver the curriculum that we design. We also rely upon their training coordinators, those members at the sergeant rank who supervise the work of the constables and corporals, to ensure that the curriculum is being delivered in the most effective manner possible.

The Program

Prior to 1995, all those hoping to become members of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police entered the Training Academy as regular members to complete a twenty-six week basic training program. Topics covered in the program were taught by instructors at the corporal rank using the lecture or demonstration method of presentation. Little integration occurred between areas of study. For instance, issues discussed in law class were rarely integrated into training in the self defense or firearms area of study.

In 1995, the RCMP underwent a significant change to their time-honored methods of training future constables. The RCMP Training Academy dispensed with the lecture-style method of instruction in its Applied Police Sciences (A.P.S.) classrooms, (formerly known as the law classrooms) and adopted a problem-based learning format. Instructors

in the previous program were now compelled to make the sudden shift from the lecturer role to that of the facilitator role. It was no longer permissible to stand at the front of the class and dispense knowledge for memorization by the learners; now the lecturers were required to work alongside their students to facilitate their learning. Instruction changed from lecturing to a classroom of individuals to facilitating small groups of learners as they worked through a variety of real-life scenarios. Law instructors came to be called Applied Police Sciences facilitators (A.P.S. facilitators), as "facilitator" became the appropriate title for all those who taught cadets at the Training Academy.

Training Academy facilitators, until recently and with few exceptions, have always been corporals in the RCMP, as it is believed that a member of this rank has attained the requisite policing knowledge and skills required to effectively instruct at the Academy. Although corporals have remained the preferred rank to become facilitators, constables have also been placed in the facilitator role as the demand for personnel increased. Once selected for a Training Academy facilitator position, the member must participate in a two week Instructional Techniques Facilitation Course to become familiar with the role he or she will fill at the RCMP Training Academy and to learn some instructional and evaluative techniques. The new facilitators spend approximately one day learning about delivery techniques, questioning techniques, lecturing, demonstrating, teaching tips, and training aids. They then spend part of their second week giving presentations to their peers, while being provided with feedback to improve future performance. Further development in facilitation can be attained through informal means, by acquiring assistance from more experienced facilitators, or through more formal means such as by registering in university level courses.

Training Academy facilitators are supervised by one of five sergeants in the A.P.S. Unit, who are referred to as training coordinators. The sergeants, or training coordinators, have varying levels of experience within the program, but all have taught the curricula at some point in their career. One of the many responsibilities of a training coordinator is to supervise the instruction provided to cadets by the facilitators and to recommend areas of further development. Compounding the challenge of supervising as many as fifteen facilitators, is the fact that the training coordinators, while receiving extensive operational training, have received limited, and most often, no training in the supervision and development of members in an academic setting. As a result, training coordinators have limited expertise as it pertains to the appropriate supervision of teaching skills. It would be of particular interest then to conduct research into the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit. A comparison to a widely accepted model of supervision in learning institutions, such as the Clinical Supervision Model, may indicate areas of strength and areas requiring further development in the supervision of facilitation staff at the RCMP Training Academy.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the current system of supervision in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy and how it compares to the Clinical Supervision Model. The research question was: What is the current supervisory system in place at the RCMP Training Academy and how does it compare to the Clinical Supervision Model?

Significance of the Study

To date, a study has never been conducted concerning facilitator supervisory practices in the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. As an Educational Methodologist in Training Program Support and Evaluation with the RCMP, I have the unique opportunity to observe facilitators as they work with troops of cadets. I am also in a position to offer advice to training coordinators that may improve the quality and effectiveness of their teaching skills. Through improved facilitator supervisory practices it is likely that the Applied Police Sciences curriculum will be taught in a more effective manner. The information gathered from this research will inform the researcher about the supervisory system currently in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit. If the supervisory system is found to be lacking, strategies may be developed to enhance the processes necessary for the improvement of the supervisory system. With the development of improved supervisory skills in an academic setting, the training coordinators may become more knowledgeable in assisting the facilitators with facilitation techniques. Improvements made to facilitation skills are likely to benefit the learning of future members of the RCMP.

The RCMP Training Academy is world-renowned for its training practices and the opportunity exists to readily share the information obtained in this study with other police forces throughout Canada, and with other countries, in the development of training programs for their own facilitator supervisors. The results of this study will provide a description of present supervisory practices, beliefs, and values as they are perceived by training coordinators at the RCMP Training Academy in Regina, Saskatchewan. This

description may be used to compare and contrast supervisory practices with other police training institutions throughout Canada and the rest of the world.

Limitations

Five current training coordinators in the Applied Police Sciences Unit completed a qualitative interview. The accuracy of the findings is dependent upon the candidness of the participants in their responses and their willingness to accurately and completely respond to the questions asked of them.

My ability to accurately analyze and interpret the data provided by the respondents and to draw proper conclusions from the information gathered may prove to be a limitation in this study. Also, I cannot entirely separate my own personal beliefs from the phenomena under investigation. "Interviewers are not neutral actors, but participants in an interviewing relationship. Their emotions and cultural understanding have an impact on the interview" (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, p.19).

Delimitations

This study is limited to a small sample size, involving five training coordinators in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at one police training institution in Canada.

Assumptions

An assumption within this study is that the training coordinators are fully aware of the supervisory practices that they employ and that they are able to explicitly state them.

Definitions

Facilitator supervision: a process inclusive of the practices which promote facilitator growth and development, as well as, practices which are used to make evaluative judgements about a facilitator's performance.

Facilitator: a corporal or constable in the RCMP who instructs cadets in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy.

Training Coordinator: a sergeant in the RCMP who is responsible for supervising and evaluating facilitators at the RCMP Training Academy.

Applied Police Sciences Unit: the unit responsible for facilitating the academic portion of the Cadet Training Program.

Cadet Training Program: the overall program taught to cadets at the RCMP Training Academy composed of both an academic program and a skills program.

Chapter Two

LITERATURE REVIEW

Definition of Supervision

In their article, "Supervision: Needed Research," Alfonso and Firth (1990), declared their disappointment with the lack of serious research about supervision, especially in light of the significant claims of its importance in the field of education. They speculated that the reason for this lack of research is due to the fact that there may be no clear definition of supervision and, as a result, an inability to identify who supervisors are. The topic of supervision often takes a back seat to other educational interests, such as administration and curriculum, resulting in a lack of research in this area. Alfonso and Firth (1990) stated that "with the exception of a handful of universities, supervision is not taken seriously in most graduate programs in education" (p. 181).

Oliva and Pawlas (2001) acknowledged that creating a sharp, clear-cut definition of supervision is extremely difficult. Researchers in the past have attempted to define supervision in many ways. Burton and Brueckner (1955), viewed supervision as "a technical service requiring expertise with the goal of improving the growth and development of the learner" (p. 11). Neagley and Evans (1980), considered supervision to be "any service for teachers that eventually resulted in improving instruction, learning, and the curriculum" (p. 20).

Contemporary definitions of supervision stress service, cooperation, and democracy (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). Harris (1985) defined supervision as "what school

personnel do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching process employed to promote pupil learning" (p. 1). Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) stated that supervision is "behavior officially designated by the organization that directly affects teacher behavior in such a way as to facilitate pupil learning and achieve the goals of the organization" (p. 43). Beach and Reinhartz (1989) defined supervision as "the process of working with teachers to improve classroom instruction" (p. 8). Krey and Burke (1989) offered a comprehensive definition of supervision:

> Supervision is instructional supervision that relates perspectives to behavior, clarifies purposes, contributes to and supports organizational actions, coordinates interactions, provides for maintenance and improvement of the instructional program, and assesses goal achievements (Krey & Burke, cited in Oliva & Pawlas, 2001, p. 11).

John Daresh and Marsha Playco (1995) viewed supervision as "the process of overseeing the ability of people to meet the goals of the organization in which they work (p. 26)." Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (1998) labeled supervision simply as "assistance for the improvement of instruction (p. 8)." Finally, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) described supervision as "a service to teachers, both as individuals and in groups. To put it simply, supervision is a means of offering to teachers specialized help in improving instruction (p. 11)."

To further complicate the meaning of supervision, researchers have added modifiers such as administrative, clinical, consultative, developmental, differentiated, educational, general, instructional, and peer to their definition of supervision (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). As well, perceiving teaching as a science or as an art colors the

supervisor's role. The scientific approach presumes that teaching skills can be described, observed, and analyzed. The artistic approach believes that teaching is a highly individualized activity, highly influenced by the personality of the teacher. The artistic approach also presumes that the entire setting for instruction must be considered, including the general atmosphere of the classroom. Some experts in the field maintain that supervisors should devote all or most of their emphasis to a single approach or type of supervision. Other experts would suggest a blending of approaches to supervision (Sergiovanni, 1982). This paradigm envisions teacher supervision as a function which includes gathering, analyzing, and interpreting both objective and subjective data.

Some specialists within the field of supervision attribute the difficulty in defining supervision to a "lack of understanding of the teaching process, impreciseness of the criteria for assessing teacher performance, and lack of agreement on what should be taught" (Mosher & Purpel, cited in Oliva & Pawlas, 2001, p. 12). While some supervisors look at process others look at product. Those focused on process look at the demonstration of teaching skills, while those focused on product look at such things as student test scores. Others include the teacher's personal and professional attributes in their descriptions of effective teaching. Finally, some supervisors prefer certain models of teaching over others. All of these differing perceptions of what constitutes effective teaching make the supervisory process difficult for both the supervisor and the teacher.

What do Supervisors Need?

Supervisory training and development continues to be a major concern in organizations of all types and sizes (Kirkpatrick, 2001). Very few organizations are

satisfied with the performance of their first level supervisors. In his book Developing Supervisors and Team Leaders (2001), Kirkpatrick stated that the main reasons cited in research for such limited effectiveness are that supervisors lack a clear understanding of what is expected of them, they lack the proper attitude and motivation to do their best, and supervisors lack the necessary knowledge and skills to do the job. Not understanding what is expected of them is a communication problem, as opposed to a training concern. Poor attitude and motivational problems can be addressed, in part, through training and development. Supervisors lack of knowledge and skills to do an effective job can most certainly be corrected through effective training (Kirkpatrick, 2001).

Those responsible for supervision must have certain prerequisites to facilitate instructional improvement (Glickman, Gordon & Ross- Gordon, 2001). Robert Katz (1974) identified three essential management competencies (technical, interpersonal, and conceptual) that many contemporary studies draw from in their description of supervisory functions (Robbins, De Senzo, Condie & Kondo, 2002).

Technical abilities, or the ability to apply specialized knowledge or expertise, has great relevance for first-level supervisors (Robbins, De Senzo, Condie & Kondo, 2002). Supervisors spend more time on training and developing their employees than do other managers. It's very difficult to effectively manage people with specialized skills if you lack understanding of their jobs. In a learning institution, a supervisor must be skilled in observing, planning, assessing, and evaluating instructional improvement (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001).

Supervisors must also possess the interpersonal skills to work with, understand, and to motivate other people, both individually and in groups (Robbins, De Senzo, Condie & Kondo, 2002). Supervisors must listen well, speak well, and understand the needs of others. They must provide effective feedback, resolve conflicts, and confront unacceptable behavior. Supervisors must also be aware of how their own interpersonal behaviors affect others and then study ranges of interpersonal behaviors that might be used to promote more positive and change-oriented relationships (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001).

Strong conceptual skills allow a supervisor to see the larger picture of the organization and its interrelated parts. Conceptual abilities allow a supervisor to anticipate events, plan more thoroughly, understand priorities, and make better decisions (Robbins, De Senzo, Condie, and Kondo, 2002).

Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2001) would add the need for a knowledge base to the supervisors' tool kit if instructional improvement is the goal. Supervisors need to understand the potential of their teachers and institutions. They must also understand how knowledge of adult and teacher development and alternative supervisory methods can improve their institutions overall.

Dimensions of Supervision

I. The Structural Dimension

Two dimensions of teacher supervision have been identified in the literature: the structural dimension and the cultural dimension (Clark, 1998). The structural dimension is the formal system for teacher evaluation, the procedures to be followed and the

instruments to be used. The cultural dimension involves the beliefs, values, and norms which guide and shape the interactions of teachers and supervisors throughout the evaluative process. Together these dimensions of teacher evaluation contribute to the effectiveness of the evaluation system in achieving the desired goals.

With respect to the structural dimension of teacher evaluation, there is a set of common structural components for effective supervisory systems (Clark, 1998). These components include: clear standards for teacher performance, teacher goal setting, observation cycles (pre-observation conferences, in-class observations, and post observation conferences), a total performance evaluation, and differentiated supervision processes for competent and unsatisfactory teachers.

Standards for teacher performance serve to communicate to teachers what is expected of them, the criteria by which their performance will be assessed, the differentiation between competent and unsatisfactory performance, and provide for goal setting for growth and development (Acheson & Gall, 1992). McGreal (1983) and Patrick and Dawson (1985) identified the use of standards as an important characteristic of effective supervision systems.

Danielson (1996) published a framework for teaching which divides teaching into four component parts: planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. Planning and preparation involves demonstrating knowledge of content, pedagogy, students, and resources, selecting instructional goals, designing coherent instruction, and assessing student learning. The classroom environment involves creating an atmosphere of respect, establishing the appropriate

culture for learning, managing classroom procedures, managing student behavior, and organizing physical space. Instruction includes communicating clearly and accurately, using questioning and discussion techniques, engaging students in learning and providing feedback to them, and demonstrating flexibility and responsiveness. Finally, professional responsibilities includes reflecting on teaching, maintaining accurate records, growing and developing professionally, and demonstrating professionalism.

Teacher goal setting is a process wherein teachers establish goals for their own professional growth and performance improvement, design strategies to achieve their goals, and identify criteria and methods for assessing their progress on the goals (Brandt, 1996). McGreal (1983) identified goal setting as essential to an effectively functioning teacher supervision system and emphasized its importance in establishing mutually agreed upon focus for the supervision process between the supervisor and the teacher. Patrick and Dawson (1985) also identified teacher goal setting as a factor contributing to the success of the supervision systems they studied.

Data about the teacher's classroom performance is collected through the three part process of pre-observation, classroom observation, and post-observation conferences. The information collected can be used to inform the teacher's professional growth and improvement efforts (Acheson & Gall, 1992). The supervisor assumes the role of coach in the first and third parts of the process and the role of observer in the second part. The presence of this three part cycle has been identified by researchers as essential to successful teacher supervision systems (Patrick & Dawson, 1985; McGreal, 1983).

The total performance evaluation, or summative evaluation, involves the evaluation of the multiple domains of the teacher's performance in relation to set performance standards (Acheson & Gall, 1992). As suggested by Danielson's (1994) framework, these domains would include the teacher's planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. Wolf (1996) advocated teacher input through the use of a portfolio compiled by the teacher for summative evaluation purposes. An additional approach to summative evaluation involves developing the evaluation through the joint efforts of the supervisor and the teacher (Tesch, Nyland & Kernutt, 1987). Together, the supervisor and teacher develop an evaluation summary which both believe accurately reflects the teacher's performance.

A supervision system must serve several functions including facilitating the growth of teachers, assisting the performance improvement of teachers having difficulty meeting the standards, and appropriately dealing with teachers who have failed to meet the standard after having been given assistance (Brandt, 1987). Supervision systems provide differentiated supervision processes for competent and incompetent teachers. Additionally, supervision is different for tenured teachers than for those who are non-tenured (McGreal, 1983). Tenured teachers tend to have less frequent observations and the focus is on goal setting and professional development, while non-tenured teachers have more frequent observations with a focus on both goal setting and contract renewal decisions. Teachers whose performance is deemed to be less than adequate are placed on a detailed improvement plan that specifies the improvement objectives, the strategies for

reaching the objectives, the criteria for successful fulfillment of the objectives, and the evidence that will provide proof of the successful attainment of the objectives (Acheson & Gall, 1992; Tesch, Nyland & Kernutt, 1987).

II. The Cultural Dimension

The cultural dimension of supervision is comprised of the beliefs, values, and norms which guide the supervision practices and shape the experiences of the participants (Clark, 1998). Beliefs about the purposes of supervision, the nature of teaching, and the nature of teacher learning generate corresponding supervision practices.

In the past, the purpose of teacher supervision was to observe how closely teachers complied with the strict requirements placed on them by supervisors (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Ebmeier & Nicklaus, 1999). As time passed the focus changed from looking for deficiencies to helping teachers overcome difficulties. More recently, the purpose of teacher supervision has come to be viewed as a mechanism for school improvement, as well as for teacher self-examination, leading to better classroom instruction and improved student learning (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001).

Pfeifer (1986) described supervision and professional development as inter-related, mutually enhancing processes. Supervision can be used to assist in the selection and planning of appropriate professional development activities. Professional development activities can then be used to enhance the participation of teachers and supervisors in the supervision process by fostering a clearer understanding of the supervision process among teachers and supervisors, enhancing the capacity of teachers and supervisors to maximize the benefits of the supervision process, and by creating a climate conducive to effective supervision.

Costa and Garmston (1994) believed that supervision should assist teachers' exploration of the thinking that guides their practices. Their cognitive coaching model of teacher supervision includes the cycles of pre-observation conference, observation, and post observation conference, as seen in the Clinical Supervision Model, but also focuses on the development of the teachers' capacity for reflecting on teaching. Cognitive coaching is a means for engaging teachers in discussions which help them to become consciously aware of their cognitive or mental maps. Through interacting with their supervisors, teachers become aware of the assumptions, rationale, and thinking behind their instructional decisions, make changes to their thinking, then associated changes to their teaching behaviors.

The tension that arises when individuals become aware of the gap between their vision of how they would like things to be and the reality of how things actually are is the source for the motivation to change (Senge, 1990). In an effort to reduce the tension, the individual establishes goals and takes actions designed to bring the reality closer to the vision. Teachers' visions include images of the teachers they want to be, the impact they hope to have on their students, and the actions and responses they hope to bring about in their students. The disparity between these images and the reality of their present situation becomes the motivating force for teachers to change their beliefs and instructional behaviors. The teacher's present reality becomes apparent through the observation data collected by the supervisor. The supervisor's role is to assist the teacher in the analysis of the observation data in the post conference dialogue with the teacher. Nolan, Hawkes, and Francis (1993) found that teachers' reflections on their teaching

focused on three particular areas: the match between their desired practices and their actual practices as revealed through the data, the match between their thinking about students and the actual student behaviors reflected in the data, and the match between their desired impact and the impact the data suggested they had actually had on the students. "The cognitive dissonance that arose when teachers did not see a match between their thinking and actual events seemed to be the most powerful impetus to teacher reflection and change" (1993, p. 56).

In the past, two different paradigms of thought have defined the nature of teaching. The first paradigm viewed teaching as a science, whereby teaching was believed to be an act made of discrete, predictable, observable, standardized skills and teacher supervision was perceived as a process of assessing the skills of teachers (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). The second paradigm viewed teaching as an art. Teaching was believed to be a very unique process for each teacher and teacher supervision was viewed as an individualized process of enhancing the teacher's unique talents. The synthesis of these two paradigms later combined to form a two-dimensional view of teaching (Sergiovanni, 1982). This paradigm views teacher supervision as a function which includes gathering, analyzing, and interpreting both objective and subjective data.

More recently, a multi-dimensional paradigm presents teaching as a complicated function requiring the ability to make judgements and decisions on highly sophisticated matters (Nolan & Francis, 1992). This paradigm notes that within the classroom, teachers are required to make numerous decisions on complex matters in order to successfully match instructional techniques to varied levels of student development, prior knowledge, and the multitude of student learning needs (Danielson, 1996).

The nature of teacher learning and its effects on supervisory practices has been the focus of recent educational theory and research (Clark, 1998). New knowledge is being generated with respect to how teachers learn, how they develop, how their development affects their learning and performance, and how their learning and development can be facilitated. The origins of this knowledge lies in the many theories of adult development.

Levine (1995) categorized theories of adult development into either stage theories or phase theories. Stage theories are those that represent individual development as progressing through an ordered progression of stages. Movement through these stages occurs independently of the individual's chronological age. In contrast, phase theories are those that represent development as progressing through age-related phases. Both theories work hand-in-hand in describing adult development and offer new ways for viewing and understanding adult learning, abilities and behaviors, and have significance for those who are involved in encouraging the professional growth of teachers. To be most effective, efforts to support teacher growth must be compatible with the teacher's developmental stage and life phase.

Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2001) pointed out the need to individualize teacher learning. They state that supervisors treat teachers as if they were all the same, rather than individuals in various stages of adult development. Supervision provides the opportunity to discover the levels, stages, and issues of adult development in the educational setting and assists in fostering the professional development of teachers. The challenge for the supervisor is to treat teachers as individual adult learners to enable them to use their potential. Teachers' learning should be related to "their experiences, needs,

and learning strengths: should include opportunities for collaborative action, reflection, and critical thinking" (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001, p. 89).

Formative and Summative Evaluation

Michael Scriven (1967) first distinguished between formative and summative evaluation, declaring that the two are very different types of evaluation. Oliva (1993) defined formative evaluation as an assessment of teacher performance by an instructional supervisor for the purpose of improving instruction. Summative evaluation is an assessment of teacher performance for the purpose of determining worth and quality in making decisions related to such things as tenure, promotion, and retention, among other things. Supervision is often interpreted to mean summative evaluation so many believe the process of supervision to be less about improving classroom instruction and more about making decisions about a teacher's career (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 1995). Weidmer (1995) stated that teachers prefer systems designed to help improve their performance in the classroom. Formative evaluation then, would be better suited to the professional development of the teacher as it focuses more on instructional improvement. The Clinical Supervision Model is a means of formative evaluation that can be used in the classroom to promote instructional improvement (Weidmer, 1995). As well, Pearce-Burrows (1994) declared that the Clinical Supervision Model is better for formative, rather than summative evaluation.

The Clinical Supervision Model

Weidmer (1995) stated that "clinical supervision offers a successful means of thinking about teacher learning, professional growth, and instructional improvement" (p.

17). The model is widely used, accepted, and respected in many countries throughout the world (Nolan, Hawkes & Francis, 1993; Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 1995). The Clinical Supervision Model represented "the first clearly delineated model of instructional supervision in which the supervisor was not seen merely as the inspector" (Spurrell, 1993, p. 7).

The Clinical Supervision Model began in the Master of Arts in Teaching program at Harvard University around 1961 in a joint effort by Morris Cogan, Robert Goldhammer, Robert Anderson, and later by Robert Krajewski (Weidmer, 1995). In the late 1950's it was believed by many supervising teachers, student teachers, and university supervisors that current processes were not sufficient to help teachers as they worked in the classroom. New methods were needed if instructional improvement was to be realized. Many years of hard work ensued until the Clinical Supervision Model began to take shape. Delineations were made between the terms "general supervision" and "clinical supervision." General supervision takes place outside the classroom and denotes activities such as writing and revising curricula, the preparation of units and materials of instruction, and the development of instruments for reporting to parents. Clinical supervision, on the other hand, occurs inside the classroom and is focused upon the improvement of the teacher's classroom instruction. It includes records of classroom events and is "supplemented by information about the teacher's and student's perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge relevant to instruction" (Cogan, 1973, p. 9).

Eventually, Cogan defined clinical supervision as

> . . . the rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom

> performance. It takes its principle data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor for the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teacher's classroom behavior (1973, p.9).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) defined clinical supervision as "face to face encounters with teachers about teaching, usually in classrooms, with the double-barreled intent of professional development and improvement of teaching" (p. 305). Lovell and Wiles (1983) believed clinical supervision to be a problem-solving approach to instructional supervision in which the observation and analysis of teaching is the basis for feedback as a framework for change and the improvement of performance.

Weidmer (1995) believed the primary goal of clinical supervision is to give teachers an opportunity to receive information that would enable them to improve existing good teaching skills. Acheson and Gall (1997) stated that the aim of clinical supervision can be analyzed into more specific goals. More specifically, these goals are to provide teachers with objective feedback on the current state of their instruction, to diagnose and solve instructional problems, to help teachers develop skill in using instructional strategies, to evaluate teachers for promotion, tenure, and other decisions, and to help teachers develop a positive attitude about continuous professional development. Acheson and Gall (1997) believed that clinical supervision acknowledges the need for teacher evaluation, under the condition that the teacher participate with the supervisor in the process. However, the primary emphasis of clinical supervision is on

professional development, and the primary goal of this supervision is to assist the teacher in improving his or her instructional performance.

Characteristics and Assumptions of Clinical Supervision

The Clinical Supervision Model has several characteristics and is based on a number of assumptions that distinguish it from other models of supervision (Acheson & Gall, 1997, p. 12). Each characteristic and assumption is listed here to assist the reader in better understanding the Clinical Supervision Model.

1. To improve instruction, teachers must learn specific intellectual and behavioral skills.
2. Supervisors should take responsibility for helping teachers develop (a) skills for analyzing the instructional process based on systematic data; (b) skills for experimentation, adaptation, and modification of the curriculum; and (c) a broader repertoire of teaching skills and techniques.
3. Supervision emphasizes what and how teachers teach. The aim is to improve instruction, not change the teacher's personality.
4. The planning and analysis focus on making and testing instructional hypotheses based on observational evidence.
5. The conferences deal with a few instructional issues that are important, relevant, to the teacher, and amenable to change.
6. The feedback conference concentrates on constructive analysis and the reinforcement of successful patterns rather than on the condemnation of unsuccessful patterns.

7. It is based on observational evidence, not on unsubstantiated value judgements.
8. The cycle of planning, observation, and analysis is continuous and cumulative.
9. Supervision is a dynamic process of give-and-take in which supervisors and teachers are colleagues in search of mutual educational understanding.
10. The supervisory process is primarily centered on the analysis of instruction.
11. Individual teachers have both the freedom and responsibility to initiate issues, analyze and improve their own teaching, and develop personal teaching styles.
12. Supervision can be perceived, analyzed, and improved in much the same manner as teaching can.
13. Supervisors have both the freedom and the responsibility to analyze and evaluate their own supervision in a manner similar to teachers' analysis and evaluation of their instruction.

The Process of Clinical Supervision

The initial design of the Clinical Supervision Model contained eight well-defined steps (Cogan, 1973). Smyth (1986) reduced the eight steps to four readily identifiable stages and this was further simplified to only three stages by Acheson and Gall (1997). While there is sometimes a difference of opinion as to how many stages are involved in clinical supervision, each revision contains three essential elements: communication with a teacher before an observation, a classroom observation, and communication with the teacher after an observation. Today, the widely accepted model of clinical supervision consists of five stages as presented by Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1993). These stages, which make up one cycle of clinical supervision, are as follows (see Figure 1: The Five Stages of the Clinical Supervision Model):

1. a pre-observation conference that is designed to provide a framework for the observation that is to follow,
2. an observation that establishes a sound factual basis for helping the teacher and for planning future supervisory behavior,
3. an analysis and strategy stage that allows the supervisor to organize the observational data and make plans for the conference that is to follow,
4. a post-observation conference that gives the teacher an opportunity to share in the analysis of the collected data, request specific assistance or suggestions, and make decisions about his or her own professional growth, and
5. a post-conference analysis that enables the participants to reflect on the contribution each has made to the professional growth of the other through the process.

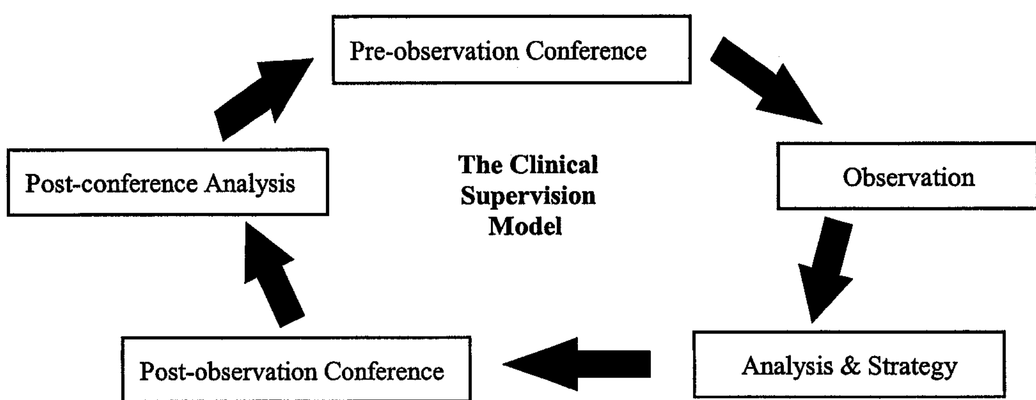

Figure 1. The Five Stages of the Clinical Supervision Model

According to Smyth (1984) the pre-observation conference involves the teacher and a colleague seeking to arrive at a shared understanding about what is to occur in the lesson to be observed. The aim is to uncover the teacher's intentions and see how these are to be translated into practice. The intent of this stage is to assist the teacher in raising his or her awareness of details about how a particular lesson will be taught and why the lesson needs to be taught. The other major purpose of the pre-observation conference is to establish precisely what it is that the teacher would like the colleague to observe during the lesson. During the observation stage the teacher aims to deliver the lesson according to the agreement made in the pre-observation conference (Smyth, 1984). The colleague or supervisor observes to see what is happening so that he or she can talk about it with the teacher afterwards. A variety of observational methods may be used: observation schedules or checklists, diagrams or interaction patterns of classroom distribution networks, verbatim notes of actual conversations, audiotapes, or videotapes. The supervisor arranges the data in a manner that will be easy to interpret in the analysis stage.

During the analysis stage both the teacher and the supervisor separately attempt to discern themes, identify patterns, or collect their impressions of the classroom observation experience. The role of the supervisor is to give the teacher an appreciation of a situation from which he or she may find it difficult to distance himself or herself. The supervisor prepares to present the collected data in a manner that highlights the teacher's strengths and the areas requiring further development. Growth areas can be determined with analytical data to support the given recommendations (Nolan, Hawkes & Francis, 1993).

The teacher and supervisor meet in a post-observation conference to discuss the observation and create a plan for improvement. The supervisor offers assistance to the teacher in a non-judgmental manner that assists the teacher in reflecting on the learning that occurred during the lesson. Specific ways a teacher can improve his or her teaching should arise from this stage (Smyth, 1984).

Finally, in the post-conference analysis the supervisor reflects on his or her own performance as a supervisor (Cogan, 1973). The supervisor compares what actually happened with what was planned for the observation and the post-observation conference. Appropriate adjustments can then be made in order to improve the next cycle of supervision.

The Need for Clinical Supervision

Teachers need to learn the profession of teaching and at various points in their professional development they need the skillful assistance of a clinical supervisor to do so (Acheson & Gall, 1997). Weidmer (1995) stated that "all teachers have the potential for growth" (p. 14). The Clinical Supervision Model has as its primary aim to improve teachers' classroom instruction and is a key technique for promoting the professional development of teachers (Acheson & Gall, 1997).

Smyth (1984) believed "that teaching processes can be improved when the teacher is provided with timely and relevant feedback on aspects of teaching that are of interest and concern to that teacher" (p. 5). Clinical supervision amounts to an interactive encounter between two colleagues who are collaborating in the analysis of data about their own teaching in order to extract meaning and understanding (Cogan, 1973). The

clinical supervision process produces the kinds of conversations about teaching and learning that leads to real instructional improvement (Spurrell, 1993). The exchange of ideas, suggestions and constructive criticisms by both parties can be beneficial to the teaching-learning process. Weidmer (1995) believed that clinical supervision has the potential to identify the competencies needed by teachers to increase the probability that students will learn and that "it gives teachers opportunities to experience self-renewal and revitalization" (p. 17).

The Clinical Supervisor

Acheson and Gall (1997) contended that any educator responsible for the professional development of teachers can use the techniques of clinical supervision. As clinical supervision is built around the processes of speaking, listening, influencing, and observing the model has universal application.

Weidmer (1995) stated that an individual must receive training to be a competent supervisor within the Clinical Supervision Model. Supervisors trained in the model are able to help teachers make significant improvements in a variety of teaching behaviors (Acheson & Gall, 1997). The supervisor must develop his or her skills in reliable data gathering, effectively analyzing data, conducting instructional conferences, problem solving, and establishing a climate conducive to shared planning and honest deliberation. Oliva (1993) believed that the clinical model requires the supervisor to possess skills in observing, diagnosing, prescribing, and conferencing. As well, the supervisor should have knowledge of the content area he or she is supervising (Bennet, 1993). Supervisors

with appropriate content knowledge give improved feedback because he or she knows what teaching strategies to suggest based on their knowledge of the subject matter.

Concerns With the Clinical Supervision Model

Cogan (1973) recognized immediately that the use of the word "clinical" in and of itself would lead to some resistance from his colleagues at Harvard. His co-workers pointed out that the word "clinical" led to allusions of "sickbeds, hospitals, and mortal illnesses" (p. 8). However, he retained this word for this model of supervision as it "was designed both to denote and connote the salient operational and empirical aspects of supervision in the classroom" (p. 9).

The Clinical Supervision Model requires that to participate in the process, teachers must desire to improve their performance in the classroom. The model assumes that the teacher recognizes and accepts the need for improvement of his or her teaching. Sometimes teachers are unwilling to examine their own behavior and engage in a process of self-evaluation (Symmes, 1998).

One of the most persistent problems with the Clinical Supervision Model is the dilemma between evaluating a teacher in order to make decisions about promotion, retention, or tenure and working with the teacher as a friendly colleague to help develop skills the teacher wants to use (Acheson & Gall, 1997). Supervising and evaluating teachers requires a delicate balance. Some educators feel that to evaluate them as teachers is to evaluate them as persons, so a high level of trust is required between the teacher and the supervisor.

Another enduring problem of clinical supervision is that it is labour intensive (Smyth, 1984). Teaching can only be improved by providing the teacher with direct feedback on aspects of teaching that are of interest or concern to that individual. This process takes time if one is to meet with the teacher prior to the lesson being taught to discern the exact nature of the observation that is to take place, to decide on a method of collecting the necessary data, to actually observe the lesson, to analyze and discuss the collected data, and to meet to discuss the results of the collected data and suggest future goals for instructional improvement.

Smyth (1984) discussed the persistent questions about clinical supervision. He wondered if teachers have to admit to having problems in the classroom if clinical supervision is to work. Smyth also asked if clinical supervision should be used to evaluate teachers or to evaluate teaching. There also exists the question of whether or not clinical supervision can work if there are status, experiential, and subject-content differences between the teacher and colleague.

Finally, Peterson (2004) concluded that principal reports of teacher classroom performance are inaccurate because of inadequate reliability and validity. He reported that unrepresentative sampling, biased reporting, and disruptions caused by the classroom visit all serve to make the collected data inaccurate and unreliable.

Empowerment

Empowerment began to appear in the education literature in the late 1980's with the advent of school site-based decision making (Edwards, Green & Lyons, 2002).

However, there is no single, universally agreed upon definition of empowerment accepted within the literature (Klagge, 1998). Nevertheless, there is considerable agreement across many fields that begins to define the notion of empowerment.

Patterson (1995) described empowerment as authority that is delegated from those who have positional power to lower levels within the organization. Shearer and Fagin (1994) and Crawford (1995) spoke of increasing the accountability of lower level employees to help these individuals achieve their full potential. Empowerment is also defined by Vecchio (1995) as a set of motivational techniques that are designed to improve employee performance through increased levels of employee participation and self-determination.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined empowerment by the existence of four components:

1. Choice: providing employees with the genuine job enrichment and opportunities to have not only their voice heard, but giving them real power for control and influence over work processes.
2. Competence: enabling the people to be confident in their capacity to make these choices. Enhancing their self efficacy as a pre-condition to make decisions and stand for them.
3. Meaningfulness: valuing the work being done by the empowered people.
4. Impact: letting the people have actual influence over what is going on in the organization, ensuring their decision makes a difference.

Regardless of how empowerment is defined, it is believed that the desire of employees to be empowered will only grow over time and organizations that do not take this concept seriously are ultimately at risk (Silver, 2001). Glickman (1990) emphasized the importance of teacher empowerment by stating, "I believe that the movement to improve schools through empowerment may be the last chance in many of our lifetimes to make schools institutions that are worthy of public confidence and professional respect" (p. 69).

The benefits to empowerment are numerous. Morris (1995) reported that one extensive comparison study found empowered employees were 88% more motivated, 146% more satisfied with training opportunities, and 99% more satisfied with organizational change than other employees. Umiker (1992) listed a wide variety of benefits attributed to empowerment on the individual level, including increased productivity, enthusiasm, morale, and creativity. Organizational benefits include higher quality products and services, improved teamwork, increased speed and responsiveness and lessened emotional impact of demoralizing organizational changes and restructuring. Teacher empowerment may be a way to change teacher efficacy and then, indirectly, to affect student learning (Edwards, Green & Lyons, 2002). White (1992) stated that with increased teacher empowerment morale improves, teacher communication with each other improves, and student motivation increases as a result of expanded opportunities for influence.

Unfortunately, however, attempts to empower employees have been met with varying degrees of success (Appelbaum, Hebert & Leroux, 1999). There appears to be a

significant disparity between the perception of empowerment as viewed by management and the reality as viewed by employees (Messmer, 1990). A study of two hundred managers in Fortune 1000 companies demonstrated that 88% believed they were giving employees more authority to make decisions and take actions than they had in years prior. However, only 64% of employees felt they were more empowered to make decisions and take action. Other studies have found similar results leading to the perception that empowerment is more of a myth than a reality in so-called empowered organizations.

Honold (1997) proclaimed that employee empowerment is unworkable and that empowerment is incompatible with strong leadership, as well as an inefficient way to control an organization. Cresie (2003) also painted a dark picture of employee empowerment when he reminds us of the high level of accountability necessary for this concept to be effective. He stated that 80% of a supervisors time is taken up with 20% of substandard employees. It is this 20% that will use employee empowerment as an opportunity to undermine the program and pursue personal agendas, causing the empowerment program to fail.

Cresie (2003) also cautioned that an employee's leadership maturity level must be assessed prior to determining the amount of input an employee has into the decision making process. He divided employees into four categories of leadership maturity: willing and able, willing but unable, unwilling but able, and unwilling and unable. An employee who has demonstrated the ability to be willing and able to do the right thing for the organization should have a voice within the organization. An employee that has the

ability to do the right thing and yet does not demonstrate the willingness to meet organizational goals cannot have much voice within the decision making process. Of course those employees that are unable to demonstrate either ability or willingness should also have little voice in the organization.

Cresie (2003) reminded us that the concept of building high performance organizations through employee empowerment and pushing decision making to the lowest possible level within the organization does not relieve the leadership within that organization from their responsibilities. The vision of the organization remains the responsibility of the leaders in an organization. Once outlined, it becomes the responsibility of management and employees to help determine how best to achieve that vision. When the leaders within the organization empower employees and give them a voice in the decision making process, it does not give employees the right to determine the direction of the organization. When management empowers employees with "little or no direction or accountability, and then steps aside to await the outcome, the program is doomed to failure. The organization will lose direction as unguided employees drift around pursuing unfocused goals and personal agendas" (p. 3).

Klagge (1998) stated that significant effort is required to implement empowerment strategies into an organization and the substantial amount of training necessary may or may not pay off. The organization must provide new competencies to all members, managers and employees alike. Managers fear a loss of control and the balance of power in the manager/employee relationship shifts. He prescribes conducting an organizational assessment before deciding when and where various levels of

empowerment will be given. Then both general and specific training must be provided to all employees prior to implementing empowerment strategies.

Wright and Belcourt (1996) agreed that if empowerment is to be taken from theory to practice employees need solid and practical on-the-job training, as "without on-the-job competence employees cannot be empowered to do anything" (p. 1). On-the-job training is the "design and application of a series of steps that enable the trainee to perform a job while either working on the job, or preparing to work on the job in the immediate future" (p. 2). Organizations should train and develop their employees prior to empowering them and rely on middle managers to provide two-way communication and coaching for employees as they are trained for empowerment (Klagge, 1998).

It would seem that the concept of empowerment comes with "mixed blessings" in the literature, bringing with it both good and bad news. The good news about empowerment comes from its benefits to organizations and its employees, such as; increased strategic effectiveness, productivity, operations, cooperation, morale, professional development, and personal growth. The bad news about empowerment falls mostly on management. The implementation of empowerment brings "increased confusion requiring greater communication, decreased competencies necessitating more training, and reduced productivity" for a period of time (Klagge, 1998, p. 7). All of these changes require time, attention, and energy from the organization's top managers. Great gains can be made from the implementation of empowerment, but not without significant costs. The literature suggests that empowerment be implemented "over a significant

period of time with clear expectations, good communications, full participation, meaningful education, and appropriate consultation" (Klagge, 1998, p. 4).

Cresie (2003) believed that creating high performance organizations through employee empowerment is possible and highly effective if implemented properly. "Delegating the responsibility for input into the decision making process, while holding employees accountable for their actions, will not only help the organization reach its goals, it will prepare the next generation of leaders for their role within the future of the department" (Cresie, 2003, p. 3).

Chapter Three

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a description of the research design and methodology used to determine the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy and how it compares to the Clinical Supervision Model.

Rationale for Employing a Qualitative Research Design

According to Whitt (1991), there is general agreement on the principles that support qualitative research and the research methods encompassed by this form of inquiry. Fundamental principles of qualitative research include: a search for understanding, insider perspectives, investigator proximity and natural settings, holistic perspectives, context sensitivity, inductive analysis, human instruments for data collection and analysis, and an appreciation of the value- laden nature of inquiry (Whitt, 1991).

The primary objective of qualitative research is understanding, rather than the ability to generalize or the identification of causes and effects (Merriam, 1988). The qualitative researcher seeks to understand the ways in which participants in the setting under study make meaning of their experiences (Whitt, 1991). As well, the researcher's findings and interpretations of the findings must be presented in a manner that can be understood by both the participants within the setting under study and by outsiders (Schein, 1985).

The researcher must also study behaviors where and as they occur and hear the thoughts and words of participants firsthand (Crowson, 1987). In an attempt to

understand what one is studying, the qualitative researcher investigates the setting from the viewpoint of the people within the environment (Fetterman, 1989). Fetterman (1989), contended that immersing oneself in the setting under study is one of the best methods of achieving understanding. In this way, researchers can acquire a multitude of insider perspectives, witness many and varied events and behaviors, and consequently, obtain an accurate picture of what is going on in the setting.

Unlike quantitative research, qualitative forms of inquiry seek to understand the phenomena under study as comprising a whole and complex system (Patton, 1990). This is known as the holistic perspective, where parts come together to form a whole. Whereas quantitative research attempts to control those elements of a research situation that are considered irrelevant to the study, qualitative research deems all aspects of the phenomena to be relevant (Sears, Marshall, Moyer & Otis- Wilborn, 1986).

Context sensitivity is another important principle of qualitative research. The context in which the group or organization under study exists, its unique social, temporal, historical, and geographic contexts, is essential to understanding the phenomena (Patton, 1990). Acknowledging the importance of context in creating the uniqueness of the setting under study reduces the ability to generalize from the findings, but the aim of qualitative research is not to generalize, but to understand (Crowson, 1987).

Building inductive understanding of the research data is one intention of qualitative research (Merriam, 1988). Qualitative researchers are unlikely to be aware of all of what is to be known at the outset of their investigation, so preconceived notions of the phenomena are likely to inhibit the inclusion of all possible meaningful occurrences in

the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Approaching the study in an inductive manner assists the researcher in using his or her increasing knowledge of the phenomena to direct their data collection, analysis and interpretation (Merriam, 1988).

Qualitative research requires a human instrument, the researcher, to collect and analyze data (Patton, 1990). Effective qualitative inquiry requires that the researcher be familiar not only with qualitative research methods, but also with the phenomena under study (Crowson, 1987). Familiarity with the phenomena helps the researcher be prepared for at least some of what might be encountered and may assist in establishing credibility with the insiders in the setting and so less time may be required in gaining their cooperation and trust (Crowson, 1987).

The decision to use qualitative research methods should be based on the desired outcomes of the research, the nature of the phenomena being studied, the conditions under which the research will be conducted, and the skills and interests of the researcher (Merriam, 1988). Research questions that ask "why?" or "how?" rather than "how many?" are well suited to qualitative methods (Merriam, 1988). Qualitative methods are considered to be superior to other research methods for achieving in-depth understanding of complex organizations (Marshall & Rossman, 1989).

Patton (1990) identified two types of studies for which qualitative research methods are especially appropriate: studies of processes and studies of quality. Studies of processes ask how something happens and includes the perceptions, experiences, and interactions of people involved in the process. Studies of quality consider how well something is done or occurs.

Qualitative methods enable the researcher to discover, understand, and describe everyday, as well as unique, events, processes, activities, and behaviors, in depth, as they occur, and from the perspectives of those involved (Patton, 1990).

This study uses a guided interview approach in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the processes employed by training coordinators in the supervision of facilitation staff. An insider perspective on the ways the participants make meaning of their supervisory experiences are of particular importance in understanding both the how and the why of facilitator supervision in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with a former facilitator, who is also a former training coordinator in the Applied Police Sciences Unit, to test the interview questions (see Appendix D) for content and ease of understanding. Feedback was elicited on the interview technique employed, thereby providing direction for future interviews. A pilot study also served as practice in the delivery of interview questions.

The pilot interview was audio taped and transcribed. Field notes were made and reviewed to authenticate the pilot study. The pilot participant reviewed and provided direction for changes, which further enhanced the efficacy of the study.

Ethics Considerations

An application was submitted to the University of Regina Research Ethics Committee for approval of this research study. The participants in this study were aware that their anonymity could not be guaranteed, due to the fact that the training coordinators

in the Applied Police Sciences Unit are well known at the RCMP Training Academy. Each participant signed a consent form clearly stating this fact prior to becoming involved in this study (see Appendix E). Pseudonyms have been used in this thesis for the participants to assist in protecting identities.

Participant Selection and the Sample Site

The RCMP Training Academy served as the site for the participant selection of this study. In particular, the Applied Police Sciences Unit, where the academic portion of the Cadet Training Program is conducted, provided the subjects for this qualitative research inquiry.

A letter was sent to the Commanding Officer of the RCMP Training Academy, seeking permission to conduct this research study requiring the participation of members of the RCMP under his command (see Appendix B). Upon approval, the selection of the participants began.

Participants for this study were invited from the entire population of the sergeants whose current job function is that of a training coordinator in the Applied Police Sciences Unit. The five training coordinators in this unit are responsible for the supervision of corporals, and some constables, who facilitate the troops of cadets at the Training Academy. All five training coordinators were sent a letter explaining the purpose of the study (see Appendix C) and this letter also served as an invitation to participate in the interview process. Each candidate received a follow-up phone call to provide the candidate the opportunity to accept or decline his participation in the study. Upon acceptance, an interview date, time, and place were arranged. If any of the candidates

chose not to participate in the study the most recent training coordinator, who was previously in this particular job function, would have been contacted.

Data Collection

Participants were provided with the guided interview questions one week in advance of the face-to-face interview (see Appendix D). This process allowed the participants the opportunity to properly prepare for the questions they were asked in a formal setting and permitted any clarification of the material before the actual interview took place.

Just prior to the start of the interview, participants were asked to sign a consent form allowing their responses to be recorded in this research study (see Appendix E). All interview questions were asked of each participant and the interview was recorded with an audio taping device and transcribed to a print format. Handwritten notes were taken immediately following the interview as well to capture any of the nuances of the subject that may not be effectively recorded by a mechanical recording device.

Upon completion of the transcription, the subjects were provided with a copy of their responses in order to enable them to edit, change, add, or delete items as deemed appropriate. Finally, a journal was kept by the researcher to record sources of information, miscellaneous items, thoughts, or notes that proved to be useful in completing a study of this nature.

Analysis of the Data

Qualitative data analysis brings order, structure, and meaning to the collected information (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Upon completion of the interviews, the

collected data was used to develop larger categories, patterns, themes, interpretations and findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The audio tapes were reviewed repeatedly, as were the documents and journal entries, to identify and synthesize trends in the information provided by the participants.

Chapter Four

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The literature review on this topic revealed that no research has been conducted into the supervisory role of a training coordinator in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) Training Academy in Regina, Saskatchewan. Among many other duties, training coordinators supervise the facilitators that work directly with cadets in the classroom, transforming civilians into police officers. Training coordinators are regular members of the RCMP at the sergeant rank possessing an operational policing background, coupled with some experience in the classroom with cadets. Currently, no specific training is offered to training coordinators as they make the transition from the classroom to that of a supervisor of facilitators. Training coordinators are promoted to this supervisory role based primarily on their knowledge, skills, abilities, and expertise in policing and not on their knowledge or ability to facilitate groups of learners. Of interest to the writer is how police officers in a supervisory role are able to supervise classroom facilitators without specific training in this particular realm.

The purpose of this study was to examine the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy and how it compares to the Clinical Supervision Model. The information gathered from this research will better inform the researcher about the supervisory system currently in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit. If the supervisory system is found to be lacking, strategies may be developed to enhance the processes necessary for the improvement of the supervisory system.

All five training coordinators in the Applied Police Sciences Unit were participants in this qualitative study. Each participant individually answered a series of guided interview questions relative to their experience as a training coordinator. Valuable information was obtained during the interviews that will assist in understanding the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit.

Profiles of the Participants

All five participants are regular members of the RCMP currently posted as training coordinators at the RCMP Training Academy in Regina, Saskatchewan. As experienced members of the Force, each has an interesting and unique profile. Each profile includes a brief description of the participant's professional background. The participant profiles indicate that while each participant possesses some supervisory experience, none has a background in the supervision or development of personnel in an academic setting. In order to maintain anonymity in this study, each participant was given a pseudonym.

Sergeant George French has been a member of the RCMP for sixteen years. He has completed a multitude of classes from the University of Regina, the University College of the Cariboo, Dalhousie University, the Open Learning Agency, and the College of New Caledonia. Most of his classes are within the realm of business, adult education, and French. As with many members of the Force, Sergeant French has completed numerous courses specific to the RCMP in such areas as: the Senior Police Administration Course, Interview and Interrogation, and the Investigators' Course, to name a few. He has spent more than three years as a training coordinator, supervising

eleven facilitators, and approximately one year as an acting staff sergeant in charge of the Applied Police Sciences Unit directly supervising six sergeants and close to sixty other staff. Previous to these duties Sergeant French was a facilitator within the Cadet Training Program for almost three years. Prior to coming to the Training Academy, George worked as a General Duty Constable and on the Serious Crimes Unit. He has also worked on high profile investigations and task forces over the years.

Sergeant Sam Steele has been a regular member of the RCMP for fourteen years. He attended the University of Manitoba in the criminology degree program prior to joining the Force. He began his career with the Mississauga Drug Section, then transferred to the Federal Enforcement Section working in Mississauga then Milton, Ontario. Sam also worked in the London Customs and Excise Mobile Response Unit. He spent four years in a two man detachment in Newfoundland before transferring to a plain clothes unit in the General Investigations Section where he worked on major crimes such as homicides, arsons, major frauds, and missing persons. Sam instructed several Public and Police Officer Safety Courses, sparking his interest in facilitating groups of learners. Sergeant Steele had facilitated six cadet troops at the RCMP Training Academy prior to being promoted to one of the training coordinator positions.

Sergeant Lawrence Herchmer joined the RCMP in 1986. After basic training in Regina, he was posted to Norway House in Northern Manitoba to begin his policing career. Three years later he was transferred to Portage La Prairie. His next transfer took him to the Winnipeg Drug Section, where he conducted both national and international drug investigations. Lawrence was also a member of the Division Emergency Response

Team and the Explosive Disposal Unit. Sergeant Herchmer completed a United Nations Mission to Bosnia in 1997. In 2000, he was transferred to the RCMP Training Academy where he facilitated cadet troops for a year before being seconded to the Physical Security Unit for one year. Lawrence was promoted to a training coordinator position in 2002, where he spent approximately two years before being transferred to supervise the Communications and Events Management Services Unit.

Acting Sergeant James Macbrien has been a member of the RCMP for more than twenty-six years. He has worked in several locations in Alberta, both as a General Duty Constable and as a member of the Highway Patrol. James was a member of the security team for the Royal Family at the Commonwealth Games in Edmonton. He has facilitated many troops in the Firearms Training Unit and the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy.

Sergeant James Macleod joined the RCMP in 1979 after attending the University of Ottawa. He spent the first four years of his career conducting general detachment duties before transferring to the Security Service where he worked on the Front de Liberation du Quebec (FLQ), the Politically Motivated Violence Unit and the Counter Subversion Unit. James left the RCMP for two years to join the Counter Terrorism and Counter Subversion units with the Canadian Security Intelligence Service (CSIS). He returned to the Force to conduct general policing duties and joint task force activities in New Brunswick. A transfer to Ottawa led to becoming a project coordinator overseeing investigations into organized crime prior to his move to become second in-charge of the National Operations Centre. James also became the national and international training

coordinator for the Criminal Intelligence Directorate. Sergeant Macleod has been a facilitator at the RCMP Training Academy in the Applied Police Sciences Unit, the Drill, Deportment and Tactical Unit, and for the Canadian Law Enforcement Training Unit prior to becoming a training coordinator.

The Findings

The findings of this study are divided into five categories and are written in narrative form. The five categories presented are: The Purposes of the Supervisory System; The Present Supervisory System; The Role of a Training Coordinator and the Skills Required for this Role; The Effectiveness of the Supervisory System; and, Suggestions for the Development of Applied Police Sciences Training Coordinators.

1. The Purposes of the Supervisory System

Conversations with the subjects of this study focused on their perceptions of the reasons for supervising regular members of the RCMP in a teaching role at the Training Academy. Sergeant George French stated that "without supervision the service delivery of the program would be compromised and we would not achieve our goal of making Mounties." He explained that one of the many tasks of an Applied Police Sciences Training Coordinator is to ensure that the Cadet Training Program is being delivered in the way that it is supposed to be delivered in order to protect the integrity of the program. George also noted that supervision forms part of a check and balance system. Cadets must receive the training they need in order to fulfill their mandate when they get to the field and any behaviour, attitude, or performance issue that is not consistent with the expectations of that particular job role must be corrected. Sergeant French went on to

discuss the fact that supervision is important in terms of accountability to senior management at the Training Academy and is a part of ensuring the professionalism of the facilitators teaching within the program. He added that supervision of facilitators ensures "that the raison d'etre is met."

Sergeant Sam Steele also stated that one of the purposes of supervising facilitators is to ensure the integrity of the program. Information given to the cadets "must be consistent and policy compliant." He believed that it was important to be in the classroom observing facilitators to ensure that curriculum objectives are being met. Sam noted that facilitator supervision was important in the professional development of facilitators and that the observation of facilitators within the classroom provided information that he could use to prepare a facilitator's annual assessment.

Ensuring that "the training program is being delivered properly," is one of the main purposes of facilitator supervision for Sergeant Lawrence Herchmer. He also stated that through supervision, facilitators within the Applied Police Sciences Unit could be more consistent in the important messages they deliver while teaching cadets. Lawrence noted that "sometimes the messages that the cadets receive are not consistent with the course training standard." Deviations from the standard would not be beneficial for the cadets, the community, or the RCMP as a whole, and could lead to lawsuits. He stated that "one of the best ways to keep track of it is to actually be in there." Sergeant Herchmer expressed his concern that "if you're not in there monitoring, sometimes corners get cut."

Acting Sergeant James Macbrien had many comments similar to his colleagues concerning the purposes of facilitator supervision. He stated, "...we have to make sure that the members are teaching the program and are teaching it in a way that we're not going to get ourselves into some problems down the road." James went on to remark, "I think from a vicarious liability standpoint we have to see that our facilitators, in a well-meaning fashion, aren't going in and saying it's always okay to shoot fleeing villains, and things like that." He expressed the importance of ensuring that facilitators are "sticking to the program." It is also important that there is control in the classroom so that students get the maximum benefit from the session. Like Sergeant Steele, James also saw the benefit of member development arising from facilitator supervision.

Sergeant James Macleod was the only training coordinator not to mention the need for ensuring that the training program was being delivered in a consistent fashion from one facilitator to the next. He saw the purpose of facilitator supervision to be one of "assisting facilitators in improving themselves professionally." The results of supervision within the classroom can be used by the facilitator in the development of his or her annual learning plan. James saw his role as "helping them develop supervisory skills so they can get promotions or become better members back in the field."

II. The Present Supervisory System

The participants were asked to respond to several questions regarding the present supervisory practices employed within the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy. Participants discussed the frequency of supervision, what they look for when supervising facilitators in the classroom, documents or checklists they use, the

process they go through with each facilitator, the competencies that facilitators are assessed against, and the varying tracks of supervision used with the multitude of facilitators within the unit.

All participants expressed concern over the lack of time available to sit at the back of the classroom and observe facilitators with the learners. Sergeant French stated, "We set ourselves up to fail as a management team" when it comes to facilitator supervision. Acting Sergeant Macbrien noted that the training coordinators "don't spend enough time in the classrooms, but there's only so many hours in a day." He described it as often "hit and miss" when it comes to getting into the classroom to observe a facilitator in action. Sergeant Herchmer stated that his schedule permitted the observation of little more than the "mandatory sessions like the Use of Force session, the Notebook session, and the Officer-Violator Contact session." Sergeant Sam Steele explained that he "would like to see them more often, as it makes doing assessments easier" when commenting on the frequency of facilitator supervision. Sergeant Macleod stated that "there is no policy" when it comes to the frequency of supervision in the Applied Police Sciences Unit, but he employs the "walk-around management style" as a method of keeping in touch with those he supervises. Responses concerning the number of times a training coordinator may formally observe a facilitator in a session with cadets ranged from twice to four times per year. Informal visits or discussions with those they supervise ranged from weekly to monthly encounters to determine if the facilitators had any issues or concerns that needed to be addressed.

All training coordinators interviewed in this study looked for very similar things when formally observing facilitators within the classroom. Sergeant George French focused on "the actual physical presentation, how the lesson is articulated from the lesson plan to the class, controlling of the cadets, and the setting up of the environment." He also stated that "it goes into the preparation for the delivery, the actual delivery itself, and any follow-up afterwards." George added that he wants to ensure that the learning objectives of the session are being met and that "the transfer of learning is happening between the facilitator and the cadets."

Sergeant Sam Steele preferred to begin his in-class observations by looking at "the beginning where the class is prepared, when a facilitator enters the room so that when the cadet troop arrives everything is up and running." He then focused on the introduction, which he believed to be important because it is "how the facilitator introduces that particular session and makes the link to the previous one, which kind of makes a continuous flow for the cadets." Sam observed how the facilitator follows the lesson plan, his or her communication and presentation skills, how questions are responded to, movement around the classroom, and how the facilitator is involving the cadets in the learning process. Finally, Sam observed "how they basically summarize what they just talked about and relate the importance again of that particular session as it relates to policing."

Sergeant Lawrence Herchmer first wanted to see that the lesson material was covered. Then "it's the interaction between the facilitator and the cadets. Is his message getting through or is the class paying attention?" He focused on whether or not the

facilitator was getting everyone involved in the lesson and "if the facilitator is answering questions properly from the cadets." Lawrence also wanted to see the that the facilitator added to the class material by including their own personal experience or concrete examples.

Acting Sergeant James Macbrien stated that he was looking for "just their basic abilities" to begin with. He wanted to see if "they know the material, are they well prepared, are they inserting anything into the program they may have brought from their Division?" James added that he is "looking for the facilitator interactions with the troop." He wanted to see that the facilitator had "some rapport with them" and "what their facilitation skills are like." James stated that "they shouldn't just be a talking head up there - there should be something beyond that."

Sergeant James Macleod reported that his focus is on "their style, tone of voice, any types of questions he puts forth to the cadets" or if he or she struggles to come up with answers for the cadets. He also noted if they are "giving past history as an example" to get their point across in a lesson. James was concerned with whether or not the facilitator is "tailoring their teaching style or their facilitation style to the level of the cadets that are in the troop." He wanted to make sure that the facilitators are following the lesson plans and ensuring that objectives are being met.

The participants were asked to discuss the process they use in a formal supervision cycle of facilitators they supervise. There were many similarities between each of the respondents in this area, but also some important differences amongst the various training coordinators. Sergeant George French advised the individual in advance

that he was going to be coming in to observe the facilitator with the troop. He stated that "he likes to leave them with the feedback document that I'm going to be using to assess them so they know what I'm looking for and the date is set, the time is set" and he shows up and sits at the back of the classroom. He explained that he likes to "clearly outline what I'm going to do, how it's going to happen, and what my expectations are and I certainly try to put the individual at ease if it's the first time." George would then meet with the individual after the session to briefly discuss their performance in general terms. This then leads to the facilitator completing a self-assessment to be examined in a subsequent meeting. Sergeant French's and the facilitator's self-assessment are compared "with a view of determining whether or not there are any gaps in performance." If gaps are identified George would ask the facilitator how he or she would see themselves improving in these particular areas. He concludes the meeting by discussing both the positive and negative aspects of implementing the suggested improvement plan "so that there is clarity there with regards to ongoing performance."

Like George, Sergeant Sam Steele stated that he "meets in advance with the facilitator and we have a discussion." He would ask the facilitator if there was any particular area that he or she wanted him to pay attention to and comment on afterwards. Sam would then meet with the facilitator to provide him or her with feedback on the issue that the facilitator wanted to focus on for that particular session. He explained that "they understand the reason I'm there is part of the monitoring process and is twofold - for the development of them as well as to ensure the integrity of the program."

Sergeant Lawrence Herchmer and Sergeant James Macleod also advised facilitators ahead of time, as Lawrence stated, "...to give them a chance to get prepared so that they are less nervous." They both preferred to sit at the back of the class, but unlike James, Sergeant Herchmer stated that he may get involved in the session by asking questions about things that are unclear to him, "just like if I were a cadet." Unlike the others, both Lawrence and James didn't allow the facilitator to choose the lesson that they would be facilitating for the formal observation, but preferred to merely advise him or her of the time that he will be coming in to observe the session.

Acting Sergeant James Macbrien also preferred to not set a date and time in advance for formal observations with the facilitators that he supervises, but instead simply "pops in" to watch how things are going. He stated that he usually just looks at the training syllabus and checks to see what sessions his troops are involved in that day. James noted that, " I don't even necessarily know who I'm monitoring" and "I really don't care which one of my facilitators is teaching." James explained that he just walks into the classroom and sits at the back of the room and that if he is "really stealthy they don't even know I'm there and I'll just sit there and halfway through the thing they'll sort of notice that I'm there." He noted that he likes to observe for fifteen minutes to half an hour, but has occasionally stayed longer for some sessions. Sergeant Macbrien went on to discuss that he would ask the facilitator to come see him afterwards if he observed "something that I felt needed to be addressed," but to this point has never had the need to do so.

All training coordinators saw a role for the type of "pop in" visitation described by Sergeant Macbrien to observe facilitators in session with the cadets. Whereas Sergeant Macbrien used this technique in all instances, the other four training coordinators used both methods of observation.

Sergeant James Macleod believed it was important to blend the two types of observation because some facilitators enjoy this type of "walk around management style" while others "want something more structured." It is the blending of the two methods of observation together that enabled him to "appease as many facilitators as possible with what they perceive as a proper supervisory style for them." Sam Steele used the "pop in" as a means of making contact with his facilitators so they know he is around and can see him later that day if an issue arises that calls for his involvement. Sam also viewed this as a quick method of ensuring that everything is going okay in the classroom.

George outlined two reasons for dropping into the classroom without a previous discussion with his facilitators. He believed that it "creates an awareness that we do care" to both the cadets and the facilitators and demonstrates that "we are monitoring the performance of the staff and the program delivery." George believed that displaying this caring attitude "establishes an ongoing relationship of trust to the point perhaps where you don't need to be popping in as much because that person has ensured in your mind that he or she is capable, competent, committed, and motivated to do the job that he or she is supposed to do."

Interesting discussions took place with the training coordinators on the topic of using formal classroom observations to guide the professional development of

facilitators. The RCMP Training Academy recently implemented learning plans for all employees, whereby facilitators and their supervisors identify unit priorities and performance gaps of employees. Strategies are then developed to address these performance gaps within the unit. Sergeant Steele captured the essence of what three of the training coordinators believed to be the relationship between facilitator supervision and professional development. Sam explained that the facilitators first self-assessed their abilities while he developed an independent assessment. He then met with the facilitator to compare the assessments and identify any gaps in their performance. Sam stated that he can "provide them with some feedback through my observations in session monitoring." Sam explained, "The facilitators will develop some ideas that they feel will help them improve in that particular area and at the same time I will review it to ensure that they're on the right track." Sergeant French and Macleod were of the opinion that this process identifies performance gaps in facilitators, but George stated that it also "actually enhances our performance management because it's focused more towards the unit," as the learning plans are based on unit priorities more so than the individual needs of the facilitators.

Sergeants Herchmer and Macbrien have not used their observations of facilitators in the classroom to guide professional development. Sergeant Herchmer explained that he can certainly see the possibility of linking the facilitators' learning plans to professional development and stated that "I'd include it, but so far in the sessions that I've monitored with facilitators there's nothing there linking to their learning plan."

There was also a difference between the training coordinators in the competencies assessed when evaluating facilitators. Sergeants Herchmer, Macleod, and Steele evaluated the facilitators they supervised under the competencies of thinking skills, commitment to learning, client-centered service, and people skills. Sergeant French discussed blending the four competencies used by the other training coordinators along with eight core competencies he described as leadership, communication, client-centered service, continuous learning, thinking skills, planning and organizing, interpersonal skills, and personal effectiveness and flexibility. He believed that he spoke "to a number of different things" on the assessments and that, as he stated, has "blended some of the eight core competencies into the assessment as well because I think they're important competencies that our facilitators need to be able to do." Acting Sergeant Macbrien used only the eight core competencies, explaining that he knows "some of the other ones use the competency based management four competencies," but he stated that "the eight core ones work best for me."

A further finding of this study revealed that there are varying tracks of supervision used for facilitators of differing abilities. All training coordinators stressed the importance of extra supervisory cycles for both new facilitators and those who are experienced, but continuing to struggle with their facilitation skills. Sergeant Herchmer explained that "it doesn't differ with the number of troops he or she has had, it differs with the individual." He went on to say that it is "more the work ethic of the individual and the competence of that individual" that dictates the supervisory track a facilitator will be engaged in.

Sergeant James Macleod explained that he has "actually sat down with facilitators who have been struggling and identified a form of an action plan that they can follow." He added that he chose "specific classes that they must teach where I'm also there to supervise and where I can assess additional things that they can review." James stated that "it's not a question of me just going there saying he or she is a poor facilitator and just leaving the individual. It's mentoring. It's helping that individual along."

The need to examine whether the area needing improvement is attitudinal, behavioral, or a knowledge issue was identified as an important aspect of facilitator monitoring according to Sergeant George French. George contended that this leads to the setting of realistic targets. He advocated assigning a coach to the facilitator to assist him or her in developing their area of deficiency and then monitoring performance over time to ensure that a consistently acceptable performance is demonstrated.

Sergeants Steele and Macbrien stated that they would spend more time monitoring the individual that was identified as requiring more intensive assistance with their facilitation skills. Sam explained, "They're more time intensive because there's probably more activities I do with them than somebody that's flying on their own," while James noted that he would "deal with them by spending more time in the classroom with them, counseling them along the way."

III. The Role of a Training Coordinator and the Skills Required for this Role

A common thread throughout the discussions with the respondents in this study was the limited amount of time they had to supervise facilitators in the classroom. All training coordinators asserted that they were too often drawn away from their duties in the supervision of facilitators in order to complete many other duties and special projects.

All training coordinators listed activities such as Sergeants' Debriefings, Unit Level Quality Assurance reviews, Code of Conduct investigations, the communication of policy changes, review of cadet contract terminations, comments on Performance Review for Promotion forms, and numerous administrative exercises required of the position.

The respondents also made mention of a multitude of special projects that they were assigned to that took them away from the supervision of facilitators function. Activities such as capacity studies, updating the file review and termination process, changing the layout of training facilities, updating the Facilitators' Handbook, and changing the first detachment scenario-based training process were some of the projects that training coordinators were tasked with in addition to their supervisory duties.

Given the array of expectations of a training coordinator, a discussion ensued with each respondent about the skills required to be effective in this role. All training coordinators stated that it was imperative to possess excellent people skills. Sergeant French noted that the "number one thing is very effective people skills. You need to have patience and you need to be understanding." Acting Sergeant Macbrien listed "well developed people skills" as a definite asset in this role and explained that if "you treat them with respect, they'll respond to that."

Additional skills required for this role were identified as planning and organizational skills, listening skills, excellent thinking skills, decision-making skills, possessing a good presence, and being committed and confident. Sergeant French stated, "You have to know when to make tough decisions and the risks that are associated with those decisions ahead of time," while Acting Sergeant Macbrien believed that a person requires "a good knowledge of the program to start with."

Sergeant Macleod listed prior supervisory experience as the most important skill in becoming a training coordinator. He explained that an individual requires "vast experience as far as supervision is concerned because you are dealing with so many different individuals from across the country with different attitudes, different policing styles, and different policing experience." James also noted that an additional requirement should be "varied operational experience" so that "you can relate to the various individuals that come from different areas of the organization."

IV. The Effectiveness of the Supervisory System

The participants discussed the perceived effectiveness of the supervisory system currently in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy as seen through the eyes of the training coordinators. This section is divided into two sub-sections to better distinguish between what the respondents viewed as strengths of the current supervisory system (part A) and what was viewed as weaknesses (part B).

Part A - Strengths of the Supervisory System

For the most part, the perceived strengths of the supervisory system were quite varied for each of the training coordinators, with the exception of two of the Sergeants agreeing on one point. Both Sergeant French and Sergeant Herchmer noted the supportive environment created by having all of the training coordinators within the same office space within the Applied Police Sciences building. George claimed that "our office environment at the supervisory level is such that it allows us to share many different concerns and ideas and trials and tribulations that others have most likely experienced and its that coaching and mentoring of peers that affords that opportunity to bring quick decisions." Lawrence

added that "the other good thing is to have five Sergeants together to be able to bounce ideas off of. You're not alone to solve that problem." He explained that "a lot of times another one of your co-workers had the same problem and you can gain from his or her experience."

Sergeant Steele asserted that the method of conducting supervision was a strength in that a meeting with the facilitator before and after a classroom observation was "a positive thing for the individual receiving it rather than just reading about it in a document." He found the process to be "user friendly" and the day-to-day contact he had with those he supervises to be a key to success.

Sergeant Herchmer noted that the two debriefings conducted with the cadets about their facilitator's performance was a good way "to determine what's working and what's not working with facilitators." He added that the mandatory monitoring of particular sessions was a strength of the supervisory system "because if you didn't have that I don't know if as many sessions would be monitored."

Continuity was listed as a strength by Sergeant French. He remarked that from continuity one can obtain "consistency in the way that you're going to manage the people that are within the unit." He also added that "there is nobody on our management team who isn't prepared to confront and challenge individuals and deal with performance." He described the training coordinators as "consultative and collaborative" and as "individuals who practice open and honest communication."

Sergeant Macleod viewed the ability to have a say in an individual's career as a strength of the supervisory system in the Applied Police Sciences Unit. There is plenty of opportunity to mentor others or to assist individuals in "having a rewarding career or to

help them along in order to try and further develop some of these facilitators." He stated that just as facilitators "see pride in as far as helping cadets in graduating, we see pride in as far as helping facilitators better themselves."

The ability to walk into a facilitator's classroom at any time and feel comfortable and welcome was a strength of the supervisory system according to Acting Sergeant James Macbrien. He noted that he felt "welcome to walk into their office at any time and sit down and just talk to them about stuff." He also remarked that there was an excellent level of empowerment provided to facilitators so that they can go about their work with a minimum of interference from management, but also adds that "I think we could empower our people even more." James stated that he could "just let my guys kind of go and run with their troop."

Part B - Weaknesses of the Supervisory System

The respondents to this qualitative study articulated many thoughts concerning the perceived weaknesses of the supervisory system currently in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy.

All five respondents stated that they had from ten to fourteen facilitators to supervise and too many tasks to be completed that took them away from this core function. They remarked that they had too many facilitators under their supervision to be able to effectively supervise each facilitator. Sergeant French explained that facilitator supervision "doesn't get the attention that it deserves because a number of other factors or issues impinge on the ability to go there." He added that one of their biggest challenges was "being able to balance our duties and responsibilities as supervisors yet not close our

eyes or close our minds to thoughts, ideas, or suggestions that might improve the efficiency or effectiveness of the delivery of the program." George mentioned that "too often training coordinators are doing facilitator work due to shortages of human resources." Sergeant Macleod stated that "there isn't enough time to conduct facilitator supervision because you get torn away for other things and end up doing five or six different things at the same time."

Sergeant Herchmer added that supervising "twelve, thirteen, or fourteen facilitators can't be done effectively" with all of their additional responsibilities. He noted that "you can supervise forty people, but then management's expectation has got to be different." Lawrence stated that if more self-assessments or team-based assessments were acceptable to management then it would be possible to supervise numerous facilitators.

The frequency of monitoring was the only weakness in the supervision of facilitators identified by Sergeant Steele. He explained that more frequent monitoring would address issues early and prevent them from becoming more serious problems. He stated, "The high ratio of facilitators to training coordinators means that you are unable to see each of the people you supervise on a regular basis." Sergeant Herchmer agreed with this observation stating, "There's way too many for you to be able to effectively complete all the tasks that you are supposed to" and this results in "a lot of cutting corners." When it comes to monitoring facilitators, Lawrence explained that "a lot of it is not done."

Sergeant Steele concluded that allowing constables to facilitate at the Training Academy would significantly reduce his workload with respect to the supervision of facilitators. The existing model is one where corporals are the preferred rank for

facilitators and only very few facilitators at the Academy are at the constable rank. This alteration to the current structure would reduce the number of facilitators requiring monitoring by a training coordinator on an ongoing basis, as the corporals would be directly responsible for supervising the constable facilitators. This proposed model then, would see facilitators at the corporal rank monitoring facilitators at the constable rank.

One strength of the supervisory system can also be viewed as one of its weaknesses, according to Sergeant Herchmer. Having five training coordinators allows the effective sharing of information and the potential to learn from the experiences of his colleagues, but, as he commented, may also "taint my dealings with that facilitator afterward" if he becomes that facilitator's supervisor at some point in the future. He explained that "if one training coordinator feels that one of the people he is supervising has had a lot of difficulty, then you are going in with that same idea and not coming in with an unbiased view if you become that facilitator's supervisor at some point in the future."

Management at the RCMP Training Academy was seen as somewhat of an impediment, according to Acting Sergeant Macbrien. He explained that the staff could "be more empowered to do more and this would make their job a little bit more rewarding." James went on to state that increased empowerment would lead to "more of a sense of ownership of their troops if there wasn't so much bureaucracy involved in dealing with it." He also talked about the need to change the actual physical structure of the building to enable the training coordinators to have offices in close proximity to those they supervise. They are currently physically separated from the facilitators' office space.

James also added that having those he supervises facilitating the same troops would enable him to more easily conduct observations. The facilitators he supervises are a part of various facilitation teams rather than being placed on teams together. He stated that "it would be the same as trying to supervise people that are at six different detachments and I don't see that as very effective."

Sergeant French expressed an urgent need to "take the time to look at the way we do business and react to issues like human resource shortages and acquiring and analyzing what it is we need to be doing and how much time we spend on each function." A careful analysis such as this would help the training coordinators get back to their core function. George added, "We have strayed and we're quite a ways off from the core function at the training supervisor level." He stated that a "barrier is that you don't have the decision-making power to do what we think it is we should be doing." George noted that "we're responsible for the delivery of the program, but yet we're not responsible for the delivery of the program because we don't get the authority to say this is the way we're going to do the delivery, so our hands are tied."

V. Suggestions for the Development of Applied Police Sciences Training Coordinators

The job of an Applied Police Sciences training coordinator has been described as a busy role, requiring a vast array of skills and specialized knowledge. Currently, no specific training has been provided to individuals as they take on this important role. As such, each participant in this study was asked to speculate as to the contents of a training program should one be developed at some point in the future. Although there were some

similarity in responses, for the most part each training coordinator had different ideas about required components of a future training program.

Two of the five training coordinators listed training in communication skills as highly important. Sergeant Herchmer stated that learning how to communicate with other police officers may require a different skill set than communicating with individuals in other occupations. He described police officers as often being "strong-headed persons" who are likely to resist if being communicated with in an authoritative manner. It is "important to be able to clearly state what needs to be done and at the same time understand where the other person is coming from." He added that conflict resolution and mediation are vital components of any communications course. Sergeant Macleod agreed that "the issue of communication is vital for the training coordinator's position."

Both Acting Sergeant Macbrien and Sergeant Macleod described leadership courses as important to the development of training coordinators. Sergeant Macleod added that many leadership courses in the RCMP cover such topics as communication and coaching. Learning such things as "committing to the task and learning to communicate with your employees and peers" is important in the training coordinator role.

A review of the roles and responsibilities of the training coordinator role was identified as a need by Sergeant Herchmer. He stated, "Like with any new job, a person needs to know the expectation of their role and what they are supposed to accomplish in their new role."

A "proper orientation to the Training Academy and the program" is necessary according to Sergeants French and Macbrien. James viewed this orientation as more

particular to the training coordinator role stating that some of the smaller things like the training coordinator directory and necessary forms were important to become aware of, while George spoke in a more global sense. He included becoming familiar with the Cadet Training Program in its entirety as crucial because, as he said, "You've got to know what the curriculum is or you're not going to get very far." Sergeant Steele mentioned the cadet assessment portion of the curriculum as necessary knowledge because, as he stated, "That's something we're guided by as training coordinators when we're doing file reviews and termination proceedings."

Learning "how to deal with employee performance, policies in relation to performance management, how to monitor it, and employee development" are important elements of a training program for training coordinators, according to Sergeant Steele. Managing staff performance was also listed as a vital component by Sergeant French, as well as training coordinators needing to be "on the same page as far as what good looks like" so that there is consistency in supervising facilitators. As well, both training coordinators spoke of a coaching or mentoring component within the performance management arena to assist the individual in familiarizing themselves with their new role. Sam and George also listed knowledge of the employee learning plan process as possible additional components of a training program.

Finally, Sergeant French listed topics such as monitoring Applied Police Sciences delivery, conducting cadet file reviews, conducting Sergeant Debriefings, staff assessments, conflict management, Canada Labour Code issues, and unit level quality assurance responsibilities as possible topics for inclusion into a training coordinator course.

Chapter Five

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy and how it compares to the clinical model of supervision. All five training coordinators from the Applied Police Sciences Unit participated in a guided interview process. Each of these regular members of the RCMP were at the rank of sergeant and had very dissimilar backgrounds. The length of time each had spent in the training coordinator role was also quite varied. Despite these differences, there were some similarities in their perceptions of the supervisory system currently used with facilitators at the Training Academy. Most prevalent, however, were the multitude of differences in their thoughts, ideas, and methods with respect to facilitator supervision.

I employed guided questions to interview five training coordinators from the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy in Regina, Saskatchewan in a given period of time. These questions served as an effective method of acquiring information within several broad categories. The respondents spoke about the role of a training coordinator, the skills required in their role, their perception of the strengths and weaknesses of the supervisory system currently in place, and provided a number of recommendations with respect to the possible content of a training program if one were to be developed for use as new people entered into this role. The questions provided a

framework for the interview and assisted in the illumination of two overarching themes: inconsistencies in the supervisory system currently in place and the need for empowerment of the training coordinators.

The final chapter of this study offers a discussion and summary of the findings, conclusions to the study, recommendations, and suggestions for further research.

Discussion and Summary of the Findings

Two main themes emerged during the analysis of the findings with respect to the supervisory system currently in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit:

1. there are many inconsistencies within the supervisory system, and
2. there is a need to empower the training coordinators in decisions concerning the Cadet Training Program.

I. Inconsistencies

Although each participant in this study was fulfilling the role of a training coordinator in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy and each had the same job function, there were numerous inconsistencies found in both their perceptions about aspects of their core function and in their thoughts about the supervisory system. The methods employed in conducting facilitator supervision also varied from one training coordinator to the next.

The definition and purpose of supervision has been defined in many ways over the years. Burton and Brueckner (1955) defined supervision as a technical service requiring expertise with the goal of improving the growth and development of the learner. Oliva and Pawlas (2001) described supervision as "a means of offering to teachers specialized help in improving instruction (p.11)."

More recently, the purpose of teacher supervision has come to be viewed as a mechanism for school improvement, as well as for teacher self-examination, leading to better classroom instruction and improved student learning (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001). Each of the participants in this study viewed the purpose of facilitator supervision as a method of ensuring that the Cadet Training Program was being delivered in a consistent manner, but also viewed its purpose as a means of accomplishing several different ends. Some participants discussed facilitator development as an important aspect of supervising facilitators in the classroom, while others included ensuring the integrity of the program, meeting the core values of service delivery, assisting members develop supervisory skills for promotional purposes, and for the purpose of preparing annual assessments. These purposes of supervision, as described by the respondents in this study, are certainly in agreement with the viewpoint of Daresh and Playco (1995). They stated that supervision is a "process of overseeing the ability of people to meet the goals of the organization in which they work" (p.26). Meeting the RCMP's core values of service delivery, the promotion process, and the tracking of performance through annual assessments are important needs of the organization.

Although there was some disagreement amongst the participants with respect to the purpose of supervision in the classroom, most commented that meeting the needs of the learners was an important aspect of observing facilitators as they worked with cadets. In their research, Neagley and Evans (1980), Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981), and Harris (1985) all commented on placing the needs of the learners at the heart of supervision. It would seem then, that although each participant in this study had varying opinions with

respect to the reasons why he observed facilitators in the classroom, they each appeared to be conducting this activity for the appropriate purpose. Each participant desired the best possible learning and development opportunities for the facilitators, as well as for the cadets in training.

The frequency of supervision of facilitators in the classroom setting was quite inconsistent amongst the training coordinators. One training coordinator commented that "we set ourselves up to fail as a management team" when discussing the discrepancy between how often the training coordinators were expected to observe facilitators in the classroom and how often they were actually able to conduct this activity due to numerous other activities they had to coordinate. Two training coordinators completed formal classroom observations twice per year for each of the facilitators they supervised, two others conducted three or four observations per year, and the fifth training coordinator observed only the mandatory sessions that were described as meeting needs "more from an organizational standpoint than for monitoring performance." The observation of mandatory sessions form part of an accountability framework that demonstrates that the organization is regularly observing high risk or high liability training-related activities.

The duration of the classroom observations was also quite variable amongst the participants in this study. Some of the training coordinators would observe an entire one hour session to collect information on each part of the lesson from beginning to end. Other training coordinators would observe only ten to fifteen minutes of a lesson. Sometimes a training coordinator would observe a facilitator for an entire three or four hour session.

The research of Danielson (1996) stated that there are four component parts to teaching: planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. Therefore, if a training coordinator is to acquire an accurate picture of a facilitator's work with learners he or she must observe and discuss each of these four components. To accomplish this, a training coordinator must spend considerable time both inside and outside the classroom with each of those he or she supervises. Conversations concerning how the facilitator prepares for teaching and how he or she performs other professional responsibilities would need to occur. Time must be spent within the classroom to observe entire sessions if one is to gather accurate information with respect to the actual facilitation of the learning material and the classroom environment created by the facilitator. Only then could accurate statements be made concerning such items as lesson introduction, the explanation of session objectives, the encouragement of learner participation, questioning techniques, and lesson closure, for instance. Comments made on assessments can then accurately reflect what is happening in the classroom in its entirety.

Clark (1998) outlined a common set of structural components for effective supervisory systems. These components included: clear standards for teacher performance, teacher goal setting, observation cycles, a total performance evaluation, and differentiated supervision processes for competent and unsatisfactory teachers.

The training coordinators in this study were inconsistent with respect to the clear standards for teacher performance. When observing facilitators directly in the classroom, one training coordinator looked for such things as tone of voice, questioning skills,

teaching style, and how the facilitator responded to cadet questioning. A second training coordinator was looking for whether or not all of the material was being covered in class and if the facilitator added personal experiences to compliment the learning material. A third training coordinator wanted to observe presentation skills in general, the facilitator's movement about the classroom, and how the facilitator related the importance of the session to policing. The remaining two training coordinators discussed the importance of ensuring that the facilitators were not inserting anything into the lesson that did not belong. Finally, only one training coordinator mentioned the importance of the facilitator's work with cadets outside of the classroom as an important component in the assessment of a facilitator's work.

As stated previously, Clark (1998) listed goal setting among the essential components of effective supervisory systems. Only two training coordinators in this study took the opportunity to sit down with the facilitators they supervised to set goals for instructional improvement. One of these training coordinators worked with facilitators to set short-term goals for each lesson he observed. The other training coordinator set long-term goals with the facilitators he supervised that would be reflected upon during annual assessment time. The remaining three training coordinators did not conduct goal-setting sessions with the facilitators they supervised.

In her research, Clark (1998) discussed the importance of conducting regular observation cycles in the classroom that included pre-observation conferences, in-class observations, and post observation conferences. Acheson and Gall (1992) and Patrick and Dawson (1985) stated that this three part cycle is essential to successful teacher

supervision systems. Most training coordinators in this study distinguished between formal and informal classroom visitations when observing the facilitators they supervised. The training coordinators that conducted formal visitations described meeting with facilitators prior to the observation to discuss the lesson that will be presented at the agreed upon time. Informal visitations were seen as a way of making contact with those they supervise and as a way of quickly checking to see if a facilitator was prepared for his session. Some training coordinators allowed the facilitators to choose the lesson that would be observed, while other training coordinators chose the lessons that they wanted to see facilitated. One training coordinator did not conduct any formal classroom visitations, but instead chose to use only the informal "pop-in" system of observing facilitators as they worked with cadets. Only two of the five training coordinators discussed conducting all components of the pre-observation conference, in-class observation, and post-observation conference suggested by Clark (1998).

Clark (1998) and Acheson and Gall (1992) discussed the importance of total performance evaluations across multiple domains in relation to set performance standards. Danielson's (1994) framework suggested that the essential components of a summative evaluation would include the teacher's planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. The RCMP employs a standardized set of eight core competencies when conducting performance evaluations on employees fulfilling any role within the organization, whether in an operational setting or an administrative role. These eight core competencies include: leadership, thinking skills, client-centered service, continuous learning, communication, planning and organizing, personal

effectiveness and flexibility, and interpersonal skills. More recently, the RCMP has developed a competency-based management system. A number of jobs within the organization have profiles developed according to the organizational and functional competencies required to adequately function within a particular position. However, the competency-based management system has not been fully integrated into the employee evaluation system at this point in time and its use is sporadic across the organization.

The summative assessments of facilitators are conducted by the training coordinators and are based on observations within the classroom setting. The training coordinators in many instances were not in agreement with respect to what they were looking for when observing facilitators in the classroom, even though most of them were assessing the facilitators against the same competencies. Three training coordinators stated that they used the standard eight core competencies when completing annual assessments. One training coordinator said that he used the four competencies outlined in the competency-based management profile developed for Training Academy facilitators: commitment to learning, thinking skills, client-centered service, and people skills. Finally, another training coordinator stated that he liked to use a blend of the eight core competencies and the four competency-based management competencies when conducting assessments on those he supervised.

Pfeifer (1986) described supervision and professional development as inter-related, mutually enhancing processes. Supervision in the classroom can be used to assist in the selection and planning of appropriate professional development activities. Two training coordinators used their observations of facilitators in the classroom to capture individual

gaps in performance, knowledge, or skills that they encouraged the facilitators to address through their learning plans as a form of ongoing professional development. The remaining three training coordinators did not connect a facilitator's classroom performance to professional development plans.

An important component of effective supervisory systems is a differentiated supervision process for competent and incompetent educators (Clark, 1998). Brandt (1997) stated that a supervisory system must serve several functions, including assisting the performance improvement of teachers having difficulty meeting the standard of performance and dealing with teachers who have failed to meet the standard after having been given assistance. While all training coordinators in this study recognized the need for additional supervision for those facilitators experiencing difficulty, varying approaches were taken to provide such assistance. Three of the five training coordinators employed a framework put forth in the Northwest Region of the RCMP, whereby increased documentation and additional learning opportunities are to be provided to the poor performer. One training coordinator stated that he was not aware of any process to deal with poor performers, but discussed the need to spend more time supervising such an individual. For the most part, he relies on the most experienced facilitator on the team to identify any problems that another facilitator may be experiencing. Another training coordinator stated that he delegates a portion of the responsibility of dealing with a poor performer to somebody that has been around for a while and whom he has confidence in that can be a mentor to the facilitator who is experiencing difficulty. All training coordinators agreed that having more time available to supervise facilitators would allow

them to more effectively identify and assist the poor performers teaching within the Cadet Training Program.

II. Empowerment

A consistent theme that arose with each training coordinator when interviewed for this study was the need to be provided with more say into both the content and the delivery of the Cadet Training Program. Sergeant George French commented, "We're responsible for the delivery of the program, but yet we're not responsible for the delivery of the program." He felt that management needed to give the training coordinators the ability to make decisions and to have more faith in their ability to make good decisions. The expressed desires for greater authority and autonomy on the part of the supervising group seem at first glance to be a demand for "carte blanche" control over the entire program. The lack of such empowerment is seen to be translated into a sense of alienation and distrust of their competence by the senior management group. This is critical feedback and it requires further examination of the issue of empowerment in much greater detail. This is the task to which I now turn.

Let us first re-examine the scope and complexity of the concept of empowerment. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) stated that empowerment comes with the existence of four components: choice, competence, meaningfulness, and impact. Choice refers to providing employees with real power for control and influence over work processes. On this point the training coordinators believed that much of their time each day was spent on tasks unrelated to their core function. These numerous tasks took them away from monitoring the performance of those they supervised and did not provide them with the

opportunity to influence the training of cadets in the manner in which they believed they had the expertise to provide. Sergeant Lawrence Herchmer commented that "there's a lot of functions that you don't have time to do" because there are so many demands on a training coordinator's time. Sergeant Steele noted that "we have projects outside of our core function and it takes time from other important things," while Sergeant French stated that training coordinators are often "pulled away to do something else, which seems to be the routine here in the Applied Police Sciences Unit." Perhaps assigning many of the special projects and unrelated tasks to others within the division would assist the training coordinators in having more choice with respect to how they spend their time each day.

The second of Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) components of empowerment related to competence through enhancing self efficacy as a precondition to making decisions and standing for them. People must be confident in their capacity to make choices. However, Cresie (2003) reminded us that building high performance organizations through employee empowerment and pushing decision making to the lowest possible level within the organization does not relieve the leadership within that organization of their responsibilities. The vision of the organization remains the responsibility of the leaders in an organization. When the leaders within the organization empower employees and give them a voice in the decision making process, it does not give employees the right to determine the direction of the organization. As a result, senior management should give decision making opportunities to the training coordinators, but first establish limits and parameters around the level and type of decision making expected at that specific level of the organization.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) discussed the fact that when management empowers employees with "little or no direction or accountability, and then steps aside to await the outcome, the program is doomed to failure. The organization will lose direction as unguided employees drift around pursuing unfocused goals and personal agendas" (p. 3). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) stated that once the parameters are established and the vision communicated, the work done by the employees must be both valued and meaningful if employee empowerment is to be achieved.

There exists a notion within the group of training coordinators that there are too many levels of bureaucracy involved with each decision that must be made, leading to a sense of a lack of trust in the decision-making abilities of middle managers by senior management. Acting Sergeant James Macbrien explained that "we could empower our people more, but there's too many levels to some of the things we do" when speaking of the numerous layers in the approval process of any decision. He believed that there "could be more of a sense of ownership if there wasn't so much bureaucracy involved." As a result, the training coordinators felt that they were accountable for issues arising from the Cadet Training Program, but were powerless to affect the changes necessary that would allow the program to function more efficiently and effectively. Suzaki (2002) stated that all employees must believe that their contributions are meaningful and that they have control over their responsibilities and destinies.

Research into the concept of empowerment identifies many benefits to both the organization and the individual when employees are given some measure of control within their work environment. Bradford (1998) listed organizational benefits such as increased

work unit efficiency, increased emphasis on problem solving, and increased respect and trust among work units in organizations that practiced the empowerment of employees. Benefits to employees working within an empowered environment included improved motivation, increased personal strengths, added accountability, improved personal power and sense of self-efficacy, and increased ability to achieve full personal potential (Bradford, 1998).

Cresie (2003) also cautioned that an employee's leadership maturity level must be assessed prior to determining the amount of input an employee has into the decision making process. He divided employees into four categories of leadership maturity: willing and able, willing but unable, unwilling but able, and unwilling and unable. An employee who has demonstrated the ability to be willing and able to do the right thing for the organization should have a voice within the organization. An employee that has the ability to do the right thing and yet does not demonstrate the willingness to meet organizational goals cannot have much voice within the decision making process. Of course those employees that are unable to demonstrate either ability or willingness should also have little voice in the organization.

Klagge (1998) prescribed conducting an organizational assessment before deciding when and where various levels of empowerment will be given. Then both general and specific training must be provided to all employees prior to implementing empowerment strategies.

Comparison to the Clinical Supervision Model

The purpose of this study was to compare the Clinical Supervision Model to the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP

Training Academy. Many differences between the two models of supervision were discovered during the analysis phase of this study.

Differences in the Purpose of Supervision

According to Weidmer (1995) , Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979), and Cogan (1971), the purpose of clinical supervision is the improvement of instruction. Weidmer (1995) stated that "clinical supervision offers a successful means of thinking about teacher learning, professional growth, and instructional improvement" (p. 17).

The training coordinators in this study saw the purpose of facilitator supervision to be quite multi-faceted. Sergeant James Macleod stated that the main purpose of facilitator supervision is to be one of "assisting facilitators in improving themselves professionally." He explained that the results of supervision within the classroom can be used by the facilitator in the development of his or her annual learning plan. Two other training coordinators also mentioned that some connection could be made between classroom observations and the facilitators' professional development, but this was not its primary purpose. The other four training coordinators in this study described the main purpose of facilitator supervision to be to ensure that the program is being delivered correctly. Other reasons for the supervision of facilitators were given to be as an accountability measure to senior management, ensuring the professionalism of facilitators, and consistency of messages delivered to cadets during instruction. Finally Sergeant Herchmer expressed his concern that "if you're not in there monitoring, sometimes corners get cut."

Sergeant Sam Steele listed the completion of annual assessments as one of the purposes of supervision. The notes he takes during classroom observations are filed and

then referred to when a facilitator's annual assessment date arrives. Weidmer (1995) stated that teachers prefer systems designed to help improve their performance in the classroom. Formative evaluation then, would be better suited to the professional development of the teacher as it focuses more on instructional improvement. The Clinical Supervision Model is a means of formative evaluation that can be used in the classroom to promote instructional improvement (Weidmer, 1995). As well, Pearce-Burrows (1994) declared that the Clinical Supervision Model is better for formative, rather than summative evaluation.

Differences in the Practice of Supervision

While there is sometimes a difference of opinion as to how many stages are involved in clinical supervision, each revision of the Clinical Supervision Model contains three essential elements: communication with a teacher before an observation, a classroom observation and communication with the teacher after an observation. The supervisor assumes the role of coach in the first and third parts of the process and the role of observer in the second part. The information collected can be used to inform the teacher's professional growth and improvement efforts. It was evident from this study that only two of the five training coordinators engaged in each of the phases described in the Clinical Supervision Model.

With respect to the first stage of the model, four of the five training coordinators interviewed for this study advise their facilitators that they will be coming into the classroom to observe a lesson. However, only one training coordinator actually met with his facilitators ahead of time to discuss the lesson that will be taught and the expectations

that each of them has for the in-class observation. While all training coordinators mentioned that they will occasionally just "pop in" on a facilitator while he or she is teaching, one of the training coordinators used this method exclusively as a means of classroom observation. Acheson and Gall (1997) warned against a supervisor showing up at a teacher's classroom unannounced. Tension results as the teacher has no knowledge of what the supervisor is there to observe and evaluate. The supervisor, on the other hand, may not have planned what to observe or evaluate. The result is that "the classroom observation data are likely to be unsystematic, highly subjective, and vague." If observations are to be based on the instructional improvement needs of the teacher I believe it is important for the training coordinators to meet ahead of time with their facilitators. In this manner, a conversation can ensue that provides purpose and direction to the classroom observation. Collected data will then be more useful in the analysis stage of the supervision cycle.

The second phase of the Clinical Supervision Model is the actual observation phase. The literature review of this model of supervision describes the classroom observation taking place over the course of one lesson (Weidmer, 1995; Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1993). The training coordinators report observations occurring for as little as ten minutes and as much as several hours. In my opinion, a ten minute observation will not provide the necessary data to illuminate much about a lesson, while an observation occurring over the course of several hours may provide too much data to be appropriately analyzed and cause undue stress on the facilitator being observed.

Furthermore, as stated earlier, only one training coordinator reported meeting with his facilitators prior to an in-class observation. Only this training coordinator then, can base his observation on data that was mutually determined as important in the development of the facilitator. The other training coordinators collected data on what they believed was important during the observation, as opposed to addressing the particular needs of the facilitators they supervised. While some training coordinators looked for the facilitator's preparation for teaching the lesson, others looked for behaviours such as questioning techniques, tone of voice, pet expressions, facilitation skills in general, and movement around the classroom, to name a few. I believe it is important for facilitators to have a say in the data that will be collected by the training coordinators. In this manner, the facilitator is aware of the purpose of the supervisor's visitation and the data collected is precise and useful to the facilitator's overall development of teaching skills.

The third and final phase of the Clinical Supervision Model is the communication with the teacher after the in-class observation. This phase allows the supervisor and the teacher to discuss the collected data, identify areas of strength and areas requiring further development, and to plan for future growth and development. Four of the five training coordinators in this study report meeting with their facilitators after an in-class observation to discuss the collected data. Only two training coordinators use the outcome of a supervision cycle to guide the facilitator's future professional development needs. It is my opinion that facilitators need specific feedback, based on mutually agreed upon goals, that is tied to their personal professional development, if instructional improvement is the goal of a supervisory system.

Conclusions to the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy and how it compares to the Clinical Supervision Model. Several conclusions can be drawn from the aggregated and comparative data collected with respect to the methods used in the supervision of facilitators at the Training Academy, as well as the identification of potential areas of improvement that may serve to improve the quality of the supervisory system.

Contemporary research indicates that a well-defined, clear-cut definition of supervision is not easy to come by. Researchers in the past have attempted to define supervision in many ways. The subjects of this study also had varying definitions of supervision, as well as different notions as to the purposes of facilitator supervision being conducted at the RCMP Training Academy. A document outlining an agreed upon definition of facilitator supervision and its purposes, reviewed in detail when entering into the supervisory role, would be of great benefit to the training coordinators. Understanding and being given guidance as to exactly why they are supervising facilitators may lead to a more focused approach to the methods of supervision used at the Training Academy.

It is essential that facilitator supervision be conducted on a frequent, planned, and predictable basis if those teaching within the Cadet Training Program are to receive ongoing feedback concerning their performance and if any facilitation issues are to be identified and dealt with in a timely fashion. The training coordinators felt that they were often assigned tasks outside of their prescribed duties that adversely affected their opportunity to observe facilitators in the classroom on a regular and consistent basis. I

believe that instructional improvement can only be realized if facilitator supervision is established as a priority, with time set aside to appropriately conduct supervisory duties. The roles and expectations of training coordinators must also be clearly defined. The phrase "and other related duties" often spoken of within the job description of training coordinators, whether formally there or not, seems to encompass a large variety of tasks that often consumes the time a training coordinator has to spend on their supervisory function. While some of these tasks assigned by more senior managers may be important developmental opportunities for the training coordinators and important organizational goals, there exists overwhelming agreement amongst the training coordinators that the time used for these special projects takes time away from the supervision of facilitators.

The literature on the supervision of instructional staff points to the importance of observing all components of lesson delivery in the classroom. In this manner, supervisors are best able to assess the facilitators strengths and weaknesses in all aspects of instruction. The training coordinators report spending as few as ten minutes and as much as three or four hours observing facilitators in the classroom at any one time. While ten minutes is unlikely to provide adequate information concerning a facilitator's performance, several hours is likely a prolonged situation for a facilitator to be in and the stress created by this length of observation may have adverse affects on facilitator performance. I believe that choosing to observe full fifty minute sessions on a more regular basis would provide the necessary information when assessing a facilitator's classroom performance. Fifty minutes is the length of most lesson plans used in the Cadet Training Program and the design of the lessons allows the training coordinator the

opportunity to observe the introduction to the lesson, the discussion of session objectives, the content of the material to be covered, questioning techniques, small and large group interaction with the learners, the use of instructional aids, the transference of the learning material to a real policing example, and the conclusion to the lesson. Training coordinators need to decide what length of observation is appropriate in order to observe all of the necessary components of a lesson. They must also be consistent in the time they spend in each in-class observation so that facilitators know what to expect during the supervisory cycle.

Clear standards for facilitator performance need to be set forth and communicated to the facilitators within the Applied Police Sciences Unit. One training coordinator frequently commented that time has not been taken to determine "what good looks like" when it comes to facilitating in the Cadet Training Program. I believe it is important to develop an agreed upon standard for facilitator performance. Otherwise, it would be difficult for training coordinators to accurately assess those they supervise and difficult for facilitators to determine necessary areas of improvement.

Furthermore, the training coordinators reported using differing sets of criteria when assessing facilitators during classroom observations. A standard set of criteria would assist the facilitators in knowing exactly what areas they are being assessed on. This would also permit the facilitators to set professional targets for themselves as they work towards enhancing their facilitation skills. Data can then be collected throughout the observation that can be interpreted and used for future goal setting exercises. Setting goals

for instructional improvement has been identified in the literature as a necessary component of effective supervisory systems. Only two of the five training coordinators are engaging in goal setting conferences with the facilitators they supervise.

Currently, there is little connection made between identified performance gaps of the facilitators and facilitator professional development activities. Common performance issues need to be identified and kept in some form of central repository available to all training coordinators. Trends can then be identified and professional development opportunities can be provided that may serve to enhance the facilitators' abilities in these areas of common difficulty. If it is found, for example, that several facilitators are struggling with questioning techniques in the classroom, then specific professional development activities can be planned to enhance their skills in this area.

The Clinical Supervision Model prescribes several essential steps to successful teacher supervision systems: pre-observation, classroom observation, and post-observation conferences. The supervisor assumes the role of coach in the first and third parts of the process and the role of observer in the second part. The information collected can be used to inform the teacher's professional growth and improvement efforts. It was evident from this study that only two of the five training coordinators engaged in each of the phases of the Clinical Supervision Model. The pre-observation meeting is important in discussing the expectations of both the facilitator and the training coordinator for the session that will be observed. Professional targets can be selected and the data collection method be decided upon. The in-class observation needs to be strategic in its focus, as previously discussed, if it is to yield valuable information to be used for instructional

improvement. Finally, a face-to-face post-observation enables both the facilitator and the training coordinator to discuss the results of the in-class observation and ask any questions that may arise from the collected data. This may lead to appropriate goal setting for the next observed session.

While all training coordinators discussed the need for differentiated supervision processes for beginning facilitators and those facilitators not meeting performance standards, there were variances in the methods used to accomplish these tasks. One agreed upon process for supervising new facilitators and another detailed process for poor performers needs to be developed and followed by the training coordinators so that all parties are aware of the expectations of this segment of the supervisory system. The transparency of the evaluation process for these categories of employees should lead to fewer "surprises" and reduced difficulties as they move through their facilitation experience at the Training Academy.

An effective supervisory system employs a total performance evaluation across multiple domains in relation to set performance standards (Acheson & Gall, 1992). The results of this study revealed that the training coordinators were using different competencies when evaluating those they supervised. Some used eight core competencies to describe the performance of facilitators, while others used the four competencies depicted in the competency-based management profile developed for facilitators, and another used a blend of the two forms of evaluation. One standard format should be used to evaluate facilitators so that consistency in evaluation criteria and transparency of the evaluative process can be better achieved.

All participants spoke of the need to be empowered to contribute in a significant manner to the content and delivery of the Cadet Training Program. They also believed they had little control over how they spent their day, as they were often assigned a multitude of tasks from more senior management at the Training Academy. Training coordinators require that limits and parameters be established with respect to their involvement in decision-making around the content of the Cadet Training Program and need a forum to express their issues concerning cadet training to those in a position to make recommended changes to the program. As well, the supervision of facilitators needs to be made an important priority at the RCMP Training Academy if instructional improvement is a goal. Once an appropriate supervision protocol is decided upon, an examination of the existing staffing formula and current workload may assist in determining how time can be made available to training coordinators to conduct the crucial task of facilitator supervision in a more frequent and effective manner.

Recommendations

After considering the conclusions to this study, I offer several recommendations for training coordinators and senior management at the RCMP Training Academy that are supported by the collected data. The following recommendations are the result of this qualitative study in which I interviewed all five training coordinators in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy and my own observations as an employee at the Academy. The data revealed that:

- in order for the supervision of facilitators to be properly conducted it needs to be given a higher priority, requiring significant time and specific skills

- a clear definition of the meaning and purpose of facilitator supervision must be determined
- both the frequency and duration of supervision cycles needs to be determined so that facilitators know the expectations in regards to how often they can expect to be observed in the classroom and how long each observation will be
- training coordinators should meet with facilitators prior to the classroom observation to discuss expectations and professional targets that require data collection
- clear standards of facilitator performance must be developed
- a central repository of common performance issues would be helpful in the analysis of common facilitation difficulties so that trends could be analyzed and addressed in a strategic fashion
- a number of professional development days per year are necessary to address issues relating to the training coordinators' role as supervisors of instructional staff
- distinct processes must be developed for the supervision of both new facilitators and those facilitators experiencing performance difficulties
- one standard format of summative evaluation needs to be developed so that consistency in evaluation criteria and transparency of the evaluative process can be achieved
- a yearly plan and prescriptive process for facilitator supervision is required to properly plan for the agreed upon number of formal classroom observations necessary to ensure that all facilitators are being monitored

- a detailed orientation is required for training coordinators that are new to the role
- employee empowerment strategies are necessary if training coordinators are to have increased input into the Cadet Training Program
- a year-end report summarizing the frequency of supervision achieved and trends in identified performance gaps would be useful in tracking the supervision of facilitation at the Training Academy

Suggestions for Further Research

As a result of this investigation into the current supervisory practices in use in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the RCMP Training Academy, it is evident that further research in this area would be beneficial to the organization. Improvements in the supervision of instructional staff would no doubt lead to improved teaching practices. Ultimately, instructional improvement leads to increased student learning and motivation. Cadets at the RCMP Training Academy require the best possible learning experience that can be provided in this oftentimes challenging and hazardous profession. The following are some suggestions for further research into this area:

1) A study about the Applied Police Sciences supervisory system from the perspective of the facilitators to determine their perceptions concerning facilitator supervision could be undertaken.
2) An investigation into the supervisory systems in place in the other training units at the RCMP Training Academy might prove useful. Currently, many facilitators transfer from the Applied Police Sciences Unit to either the Police Defensive Tactics Unit, the Firearms Training Unit, the Police Driving Unit, the Fitness Unit,

or the Drill, Deportment and Tactical Unit. Will these facilitators meet with different supervisory practices and performance standards in each of these units at the Academy?

3) Upon completion of the Cadet Training Program, cadets enter into the RCMP Field Coaching Program where their training is further supervised by a regular member field coach at their first posting. An examination of the supervisory system that is in place to assist these new members in their professional development as they begin this new career might be valuable.

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Appendix A:
Ethics Approval

OFFICE OF RESEARCH SERVICES

Regina, Saskatchewan
Canada S4S 0A2
phone: (306)585-4775
fax: (306)585-4893
www.uregina.ca/research

DATE: May 3, 2004

TO: Mr. S. Burko

FROM: J. Roy
A. Chair, Research Ethics Board

Re: Supervision of Applied Police Sciences Facilitators at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Training Academy. (73S0304)

Please be advised that the University of Regina Research Ethics Board has reviewed your proposal and found it to be:

☑ 1. ACCEPTABLE AS SUBMITTED. Only applicants with this designation have ethical approval to proceed with their research as described in their applications. The *Tri-Council Policy Statement on Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans* requires the researcher to send the Chair of the REB annual reports and notice of project conclusion for research lasting more than one year (Section 1F). **ETHICAL CLEARANCE MUST BE RENEWED BY SUBMITTING A BRIEF STATUS REPORT EVERY TWELVE MONTHS.** Clearance will be revoked unless a satisfactory status report is received.

☐ 2. ACCEPTABLE SUBJECT TO CHANGES AND PRECAUTIONS (SEE ATTACHED). Changes must be submitted to the REB and subsequently approved prior to beginning research. Please address the concerns raised by the reviewer(s) by means of a supplementary memo to the Chair of the REB. Do not submit a new application. Please provide the supplementary memorandum**, or contact the REB concerning the progress of the project, before **August 3, 2004**, in order to keep your file active. Once changes are deemed acceptable, approval will be granted.

☐ 3. UNACCEPTABLE AS SUBMITTED. Please contact the Chair of the REB for advice on how the project proposal might be revised.

Dr. Joan Roy

c. P. Brooks, supervisor

JR/sm/ethics2.dot

** supplementary memorandum should be forwarded to the Chair of the Research Ethics Board at the Office of Research Services (AH 505) or by e-mail to research.ethics@uregina.ca

Appendix B:
Letter to the Commanding Officer

Chief Superintendent C. Tugnum
Commanding Officer
RCMP Training Academy, Depot Division
P.O. Box 6500
Regina, SK
S4P 3J7

Dear Sir:

As a requirement of my Master's degree in Educational Administration from the University of Regina, I have chosen to complete a research thesis under the supervision of Dr. Paulette Brooks. With your permission, this qualitative study will examine the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Training Academy and how it compares to the Clinical Supervision Model. The findings of this study may be valuable in selecting appropriate developmental training exercises for current and future training coordinators at the RCMP Training Academy.

Supervisory training and development continues to be a major concern in organizations of all types and sizes. The goal of supervisory training in an academic setting should be to provide a vehicle for focusing on curriculum and staff development, while enriching the understanding of both teaching and learning. Effective supervision requires knowledge, interpersonal skills, and technical skills. These are applied through supervisory tasks and bring together the goals of the organization and the needs of the facilitator to provide for improved learning.

This study will employ a structured interview approach requiring the participation of both current and former training coordinators at the Applied Police Sciences Unit. Upon completion of the interviews, the collected data will be used to develop larger categories, patterns, themes, interpretations, and findings. All participants will have access to the completed thesis document through the University of Regina Library. Interested subjects will also be able to obtain a summary of the research findings upon request.

Please contact my supervisor, Dr. Paulette Brooks, or me if you have any questions or concerns or require further clarification or information. If you have any questions regarding the ethics of this study, please contact the Chair of the Research Ethics Committee.

Thank you for considering my request.

Sincerely,

Scott L. Burko

Appendix C:
Letter to the Participants

Dear Participant:

As a requirement of my Master's degree in Educational Administration from the University of Regina, I have chosen to complete a research thesis under the supervision of Dr. Paulette Brooks. This qualitative study will examine the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Polices Unit at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Training Academy and how it compares to the Clinical Supervision Model. The findings of this study may be valuable in selecting appropriate developmental training exercises for current and future training coordinators at the RCMP Training Academy.

Supervisory training and development continues to be a major concern in organizations of all types and sizes. The goal of supervisory training in an academic setting should be to provide a vehicle for focusing on curriculum and staff development, while enriching the understanding of both teaching and learning. Effective supervision requires knowledge, interpersonal skills, and technical skills. These are applied through supervisory tasks and bring together the goals of the organization and the needs of the facilitator to provide for improved learning.

This study will employ a structured interview approach to examine your role as a supervisor of Applied Police Sciences facilitators. I would like to request your participation in this study as you are currently or have formerly been involved in the supervision of facilitators at the Training Academy. If you choose to participate in this study I will not be able to guarantee your anonymity, as training coordinators are well known at the Academy, but I can assure you that your personal data will be handled with respect to ensure confidentiality. All names of participants will be fictionalized and the raw data will be held in safekeeping throughout the course of this study.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to sign the attached consent form and I will arrange a mutually agreed upon time and location to interview you. The initial interview may last as long as sixty minutes or more and will be audio taped and transcribed. I will contact you by email on a specified date one week after you receive the transcript to provide you with the opportunity to edit, change, add, or delete items from the transcript as deemed appropriate. A second interview may be necessary to gather additional data.

Please contact my supervisor, Dr. Paulette Brooks, or me if you have any questions or concerns or require further clarification or information. If you have any questions regarding the ethics of this study, please contact the Chair of the Research Ethics Committee.

Thank you for considering my request.

Sincerely,

Scott L. Burko

Appendix D:
Interview Guide

Interview Guide

1. Tell me about the job of a training coordinator. What is your role? What is expected of you?

2. What is facilitator supervision? What are the purposes of facilitator supervision?

3. What do you look for when observing a facilitator in the classroom?

4. Describe the system of facilitator supervision in place at Applied Police Sciences (A.P.S.). How often do you supervise facilitators? Do you have a guide or standards of performance to work from? Is there a form used to record observations? What happens with the information that is recorded from an observation? Do you meet with the facilitator before and after the observation? Is the collected information used to guide their professional development?

5. What competencies do you assess facilitators against? Are these competencies the same for all facilitators?

6. Is there a difference in supervision between experienced facilitators and new facilitators? If so, how do they differ? Is there a difference in supervision for facilitators that are deemed to be very good at their job and those considered to be doing a less than adequate job? How do you make this determination? Is there a policy in place that allows for different forms or tracks of supervision?

7. What is the facilitator's involvement in the supervisory system?

8. What skills do you need to be an effective training coordinator?

9. What would a training program look like for training coordinators?

10. What do you feel are the strengths of the current supervisory system in place in the A.P.S. Unit? What do you feel are the weaknesses of the current supervisory system in place in the A.P.S. Unit?

11. What recommendations do you have for improving the present supervisory system in place in the A.P.S. Unit?

Appendix E:
Participant Consent Form

Participant Consent Form

Title of the Study: Supervision of Applied Police Sciences Facilitators at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Training Academy

Investigator: Scott L. Burko

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this study is to examine the current supervisory system in place in the Applied Police Sciences Unit at the Royal Canadian Mounted Police Training Academy and how it compares to the Clinical Supervision Model. This study is being undertaken to fulfill the requirements of the Master of Education Degree in Educational Administration at the University of Regina.

Role of the Participants: If you decide to participate, you will be asked to take part in an interview lasting between sixty and ninety minutes. The interview will be audio taped and transcribed. You will receive a transcript of the interview for review and edification. One week after you receive the transcript, I will contact you by email to ensure that the transcript is accurate and to give you an opportunity to edit, change, add, or delete items as deemed appropriate. A second interview may be necessary to gather additional data.

Potential Risks, Discomforts, or Inconveniences: There is no anticipated risk or discomfort for you during the interview. If you do experience discomfort, you may withdraw at any time.

Potential Benefits of Participation: There are no direct benefits to you other than the knowledge that you may acquire about the topic and the research process. The study may provide you with new ideas about effective supervision of facilitators.

Confidentiality and Withdrawal from the Study: Measures will be taken to maintain the confidentiality of your personal data. Please be aware that your anonymity cannot be guaranteed due to the fact that training coordinators are well known at the RCMP Training Academy. The consent forms will be stored separately from the data. I may use direct quotes from the interview, but will change all participant names and references to personnel to protect confidentiality. All raw data will be stored in a secure location during the study and only the supervisor of this study and I will have access to this information. Transcriptions and audio tapes will be destroyed three years after the completion of this study. Your decision to participate is voluntary and you may withdraw from this study at any time without question or penalty.

Information about the Study: All participants will have access to the completed thesis document through the University of Regina Education Library. Interested subjects will also be able to obtain a summary of the research findings upon request. This project was approved by the Human Subjects Ethics Committee at the University of Regina. If you have any questions or concerns or require further clarification or information about your rights or treatment as a subject, you may contact me, my supervisor, Dr. Paulette Brooks, or the Chair of the Research Ethics Board at (306) 585- 4745 or by email: research.ethics@uregina.ca

Consent: Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood the information provided and agree to participate. This does not waive your legal rights nor does it release the investigators or involved institution from their legal and professional responsibilities. You will be given a copy of this form.

Participant Signature:_______________________________________
Date:________________

Researcher Signature:_______________________________________
Date:________________

Researcher: Scott L. Burko

Supervisor: Dr. Paulette Brooks