



INTERPOL

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INTERNATIONAL POLICE TRAINING JOURNAL

**WELCOME TO THE FIRST
EDITION OF INTERPOL'S
INTERNATIONAL POLICE
TRAINING JOURNAL, DEDICATED
TO THE DISSEMINATION AND
EXCHANGE OF POLICE RESEARCH
OF TRANSNATIONAL INTEREST.**

The purpose of this review is to create a platform for international training experts to share their knowledge and skills in order to enhance police learning. It aims to:

- bring relevant outcomes of academic and technical research closer to their practical application;
- facilitate cross-regional contacts and exchange among those who are interested in finding potential partners for joint ventures in transregional research.

This new initiative is part of INTERPOL's continuous efforts to expand its network of training institutions and universities that may advance operational police training in any issue being of a transregional importance. At the end of 2009, representatives of selected training institutions convened in Lyon, France and agreed on the establishment of the INTERPOL Group of Experts on Police Training (IGEPT).

One of the issues examined by the IGEPT members was the increasing importance of taking a creative and innovative approach to the promotion and enhancement of police training; hence the creation of this review.

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WELCOME!

In this first issue, Mark Loves (Australia) examines the relationship between the quality of training and the attraction and retention of Australian intelligence practitioners. Dr Kay Devine, Dr Curtis Clarke and Norm Lipinski (Canada) examine the impact of online general management and leadership training on perceptions of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and transformational leadership among law enforcement personnel. Carol Glasgow and Cheryl Lepatski (Canada) review the Investigative Skills Education Program (ISEP) developed in Alberta as a response to the new challenges facing police officers today, while Jean-Marie Fiquet (France) provides an overview of the new training programme for senior officers in the French police force. Lastly, Jean-François Gadeceau (INTERPOL General Secretariat) presents the emotion factors involved in adult training and management.

The IGEPT would like to thank all contributors and in particular, Dr Curtis Clarke and Mark Loves, chief editors, for their expertise and support in creating this review.

The second issue of INTERPOL's International Review of Police Training will be published in the final quarter of 2010.



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THE IMPACT OF TRAINING ON PROMOTING SATISFACTION AND RETENTION OF AUSTRALIAN INTELLIGENCE OFFICERS

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A. INTRODUCTION

This paper focuses on the Australian intelligence practitioner labour market and examines the relative importance of training on promoting job satisfaction and work place retention of Australian intelligence officers. The premise for this paper lies within the concept of hedonic wage theory, which fundamentally explores alternate ways to attract individuals to certain careers, with particular focus on the tradeoff between what the workers get paid and their job characteristics (Borjas 2005, p. 216).

Hedonic wage theory can be applied to many job characteristics. The impact of those characteristics on the labor market is dependent upon whether the general population (intelligence practitioners) sees them as good or bad. If conditions are good, employees may make a conscious trade off for lower wage amenities. However, if conditions are poor, employees will expect monetary compensation if they are to stay within an organization. The theory suggests that workers try and maximize their utility based upon their personal preferences for wage and non-wage amenities and that they will seek the greatest possible personal satisfaction through a combination of the two.

Therefore, given the size and growth of the Australian intelligence labour market, and the competition to attract and retain high quality

intelligence practitioners, it is important to identify the value of training incentives and the impact of training on influencing potential recruits to join the intelligence profession.

B. INTELLIGENCE LABOUR MARKET

The intelligence labour market consists of two distinct groups, being those that demand labour (Australian Intelligence Community, law enforcement, government and other intelligence stakeholder agencies) and those that supply it (intelligence practitioners). Borjas (2005, p.207) describes a boom / bust labour market equilibrium which balances out the conflicting desires of employers and employees. Shortage of supply drives wages up, thus attracting applicants to the field. As more applicants are attracted, an oversupply is created with an accumulative sedentary effect on wages, exacerbated by budget restrictions and legislative (award) constraints. The competitive focus for quality employees then becomes the “compensating differentials” (non-financial amenities) such as training and education opportunities, with employees seeking out employers that provide those benefits.

Stokes’s (2005, p.2) research supports that of Borjas. He based his labour market research upon school teachers in Australia. Teachers work under ►

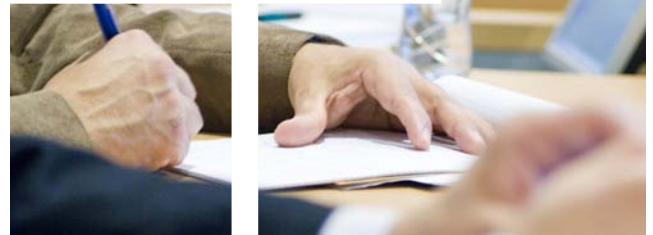
“ THE BEST INDICATION OF GROWTH COMES FROM THE FLOOD REPORT INTO AUSTRALIAN INTELLIGENCE AGENCIES ”

▶ rather inflexible award based systems, where there is little scope for offering different salaries to attract better practitioners, therefore non-financial considerations become critical in attracting and retaining the right type of person to the profession. Similarly, the intelligence labour market in Australia is inflexible to the extent that awards control wage levels (for civilian practitioners) whilst remuneration for uniform (sworn) intelligence practitioners is restricted by rank structure pay rates. If it is accepted that there is increasing demand for practitioners within the intelligence community (an issue discussed later in this paper), and that award systems and restrictive budgets place constraints upon wage amenity flexibility, the focus of job satisfaction and retention strategies then becomes the non wage amenities that intelligence practitioners find valuable. This has particular implications for the intelligence labour market in the context of training expectations and opportunities.

C. SIZE OF THE INTELLIGENCE MARKET

Before examining the issue of training within the intelligence profession, it is important to be clear on the size of the Australian intelligence community and the potential market for training. This allows a better assessment of competitiveness within the labour market and the pressure upon agencies to negotiate compensating differentials such as training, to attract and retain quality intelligence practitioners.

There are currently six federal agencies predominantly involved in intelligence work (The



Parliamentary Joint Committee on Intelligence and Security [or PJCIS], 2006b, p.1). These are the Australian Security Intelligence Organization (ASIO), the Australian Secret Intelligence Service (ASIS), the Defence Imagery and Geospatial Organization (DIGO), the Defence Intelligence Organization (DIO), the Defence Signals Directorate (DSD) and the Office of National Assessment (ONA). Of these, three are information collection agencies (ASIS, DSD, DIGO), two have assessment roles (ONA, DIO) and one does both (ASIO). The role of these agencies is to provide warning on regional and international environments, provide knowledge of military capability and intention of potential adversaries, support military operations, support active and ambitious foreign trade and defence policies, influence key policies of foreign actors and contribute to electronic warfare (Flood 2004, p.11).

Other federal agencies which operate their own intelligence areas include (but are not limited to) the Australian Federal Police (AFP), the Australian Customs Service (ACS), the Australian Transaction Reports and Analysis Centre (AUSTRAC), the Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC), the Australian Securities and Investment Commission (ASIC), the Australian Taxation Office (ATO) and the Australian Crime Commission (ACC). ▶

► In addition, all state based police forces, the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory Police operate their own intelligence sections under state or territory legislation. Additional state based agencies which operate their own intelligence units include anti corruption and crime authorities, workers compensation and insurance regulatory bodies and railway authorities.

D. DEMAND FOR INTELLIGENCE PRACTITIONERS

To assess the actual number of intelligence practitioners working within the market is difficult. The Australian Bureau of Statistics does not supply a break down on the figures although the position of "intelligence officer" is classified under the Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (2006). However, there is evidence of a significant increase in numbers of recent years.

The best indication of growth comes from the Flood Report into Australian Intelligence Agencies (2004, p. 20) which reported that the number of intelligence practitioners in the six Federal intelligence agencies increased by 44 percent from 2301 practitioners in June 2000, to 3,324 practitioners in June 2004. Flood further reports that for the same period, the Australian Government doubled its foreign intelligence budget from \$332 million on security intelligence to \$659 million in 2004-05.

Further evidence of the growth of the market can be seen in the ASIO Annual Reports to Parliament (2006, p. 5) and (2007, pp. 58-59). These reports record a growth in staffing levels from 1110 (as at 30 June 2006) to 1356 (as at 30 June 2007), with a projected growth to 1860 (by 30 June 2011). The latter report notes that given the projected growth, *'it is critical that the organization attracts, retains and develop high calibre people'* (2007, p. 58). Even if these growth figures are only fractionally accepted as representing the market as a whole (Commonwealth and State), their extrapolation represents a significant increase in demand for intelligence practitioners across the market.

Additional evidence comes from the PJCIS (2006a, p. 7) which reported that there was a current *'war for talent'* amongst the agencies from a limited pool of suitable applicants, and that five out of the six federal intelligence agencies were attempting to increase their numbers *'to unprecedented levels'*. The Committee's report on 'recruitment and training' of intelligence practitioners noted that even *'the agency'* which was not trying to increase staff numbers was *'finding it a challenge to retain and recruit enough staff to maintain staff numbers'* and that there was *'hardly a glut in the market'*.

Quoting from the Flood report (2004) the Committee noted that the agencies were competing with the private sector and alternate professions such as *'academia and policy departments'* for available talent (2006a, p. 8). These findings were supported by Dudgeon (2006, p. 1) in his submission to the Parliamentary Committee in which he asserted that the agencies were not attracting sufficient *'graduate candidates of high quality'*.

The demand for intelligence practitioners from within Australian law enforcement agencies further exacerbates this demand. Whilst actual numbers are not readily available, Myer (2008, p. 19) highlights that for the four year period 2006 to 2009, police forces across Australia were required to recruit 15,250 additional police officers just to maintain numbers and fill quotas. Of these, New South Wales had the greatest requirements, with anticipated recruitment numbers totaling 5,400 personnel. Many of these were earmarked for careers in criminal intelligence. Myer concurs that training and individual career expectations are a major consideration in the competition to win over potential recruits. With the struggle to fill recruitment quotas in both the security and law enforcement intelligence markets, it is expected that there will be strong correlation between the demands from those agencies and the expectations of potential recruits regarding the level and quality of the training they receive. ►

► E. INADEQUATE TRAINING AND ITS IMPACT ON RETENTION

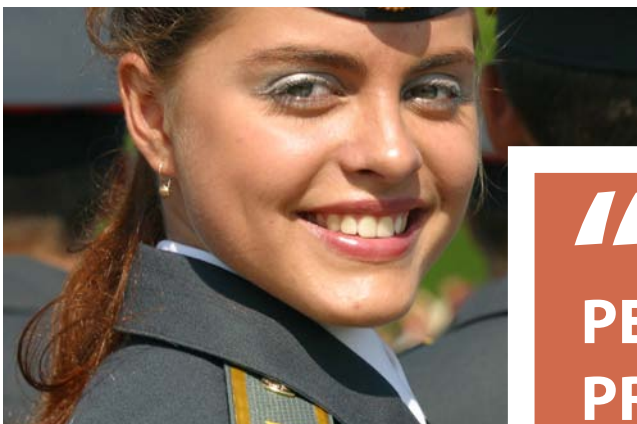
Given the size and growth of the intelligence labour market, and the competition to attract and retain high quality intelligence practitioners, it is important to identify why people join the profession in the first place and the impact of training on their decision to do so. This theme was examined in the white paper prepared by the Intelligence Committee of the Armed Forces Communications and Electronics Association or AFCEA (2005, p. 7). The AFCEA white paper observed that critical thinking, logical decomposition and writing skills have all but disappeared from intelligence training in recent years. This situation has been exacerbated by the dwindling number of senior experienced intelligence practitioners within the profession and a growing number of new and inexperienced practitioners who think and learn in different ways.

In commenting upon the different demands and expectations of generational groups of intelligence practitioners, it states that unlike their baby boomer '*digital immigrant*' predecessors, generations X and Y intelligence practitioners are more IT (information technology) savvy, faster learners and less sensitive to organizational constraints. Comparatively, Millennial' (born after 1980) are considered '*digital natives*', willing to adopt and adapt to new technology and

preferring to work in '*unstructured, technologically advanced*' work environments (AFCEA, p. 16). This observation is supported by the PJCIS (2006b, p. 14), which noted that whilst agencies placed strong emphasis on training, there were expectations amongst Generation Y intelligence practitioners that such training would lead to rapid promotion and more flexible career options, expectations which were sometimes difficult to fulfill.

The AFCEA white paper (2005, p. 17) also commented that not only did the agencies misrepresent the type of work and conditions under which intelligence practitioners would be working, they also hired the wrong type of people (little cognitive testing and hampered by standardized training programmes). The paper commented that it was little wonder that high attrition occurred as a result. Whilst these are generalized assertions, they again point to the issue of the creation of unrealistic expectations, poor recruitment and inadequate training as having major implications for work place satisfaction and retention of intelligence practitioners.

Shreves (2006, p. 5) also comments on inadequate industry training, particularly as it relates to differences between civilian and uniform intelligence practitioners. He claims that civilian intelligence practitioners do not get to experience or have the advantage of structured academy training followed by formal training programmes as do sworn personnel. If lucky, a civilian practitioner may ►



“ IDENTIFY WHY PEOPLE JOIN THE PROFESSION IN THE FIRST PLACE ”

- ▶ be attached to (shadow) a more senior practitioner for a short period to learn the trade. Drawing on not only training, but also on management ignorance as problematic issues, he cynically concludes, *'focus, priorities, respect, advanced training, forget about it. Now go analyze crime.'*

To summarize these issues, one need look no further than Borjas (2005, p. 217), who sees specific training *'marrying'* organizations and their workers. This is a theme further explored by studies conducted in the United States related to increasing law enforcement officer retention through educational incentives (Terra 2007, p14; Bowman, Carlson, Colvin & Green, 2006, pp121-136). Both found a strong correlation between officers leaving law enforcement agencies and a lack of training and other educational opportunities. Subsequently, there is a compelling argument for centralized and structured training programmes and recognition of skills and qualification to assist in the promotion of intelligence as a profession and a subsequent increase in retention rates across intelligence agencies and organizations.

F. SURVEY OF AUSTRALIAN INTELLIGENCE PRACTITIONERS

In 2009 the author surveyed a population of intelligence practitioners to determine their attitudes toward pursuing a career in the intelligence profession and the importance of training in making that career choice. The overall aim of the study was to examine the relative importance of factors influencing an individual's decision to pursue and remain within a career in the Australian intelligence profession. A survey was designed to examine the perceptions and expectations of practitioners, both when they entered the profession, as well as their current perspectives. The research was also aimed at identifying what (if any), non-wage amenities (particularly training) were important to the intelligence practitioners and how these might influence their decision to stay within the profession (Loves, 2009).

“ TRAINING
[...] IS MOST
IMPORTANT TO
INTELLIGENCE
PRACTITIONERS ”

1. Sample

The survey provided data on 51 respondents, made up of 33 (64.7 percent) males and 17 (33.3 percent) females with 1 invalid response (Table 1). The survey first asked respondents whether they were currently employed in the intelligence profession. This resulted in 66.7 percent stating that they were currently employed as intelligence practitioners in either the public or private sectors. A further 29.4 percent stated they were not currently employed as intelligence practitioners, presumably as a result of them either having left the profession or retired (Loves. 2009, p25).

The respondents were presented with a list of eleven work benefits or conditions and asked to rate those benefits or conditions according to what they thought was most important to intelligence practitioners. The respondents were asked to rate the benefits and conditions on a five point Likert scale, from *Not at all Important* (1) to *Very Important* (5). The results and mean scores for each benefit or condition are shown in Table 2. Without exception, the benefits and conditions that were rated most highly by the respondents were (Loves. 2009, p4):

- 1. Training;
- 2. Professional recognition of skills and experience;
- 3. Work / life style mix; and
- 4. Flexible hours.

► **2. Views of the respondent intelligence practitioners**

One of the major findings of this study (Loves, 2009 p80) was that both males and females identified training as the most important benefit impacting their retention within the intelligence profession (Table 3). In addition, the surveyed views and comments of the respondent intelligence practitioners (below) both reflect and advance the results summarized therein. Comments from respondent intelligence practitioners indicate (anecdotally) that agencies do not place great importance on training intelligence practitioners within their organizations.

- *“There are no qualifications for intel [sic] training in Victoria.”*
- *“Not much importance is placed on intel [sic] training in VicPol.”*
- *“Money is less likely to be spent on training and professional development as management knows [sic] intelligence staff are likely to move on”.*
- *“Private sector requires a raft of qualifications that intel [sic] work in the public sector does not provide.”*
- *“Money is less likely to be spend [sic] on training and professional development as management knows intelligence staff are likely to move on. But what they do not see is that intelligence staff move on because of lack of support, recognition and opportunity”.*

**TABLE 1
GENDER AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS
DISTRIBUTION**

| Gender | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| Male | 33 | 64.7 |
| Female | 17 | 33.3 |
| Not Stated | 1 | 2.0 |
| Total | 51 | 100.0 |

INTELLIGENCE

| Currently Employed | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------------|-----------|--------------|
| Yes | 34 | 66.7 |
| No | 15 | 29.4 |
| Not Stated | 2 | 3.9 |
| Total | 51 | 100.0 |

G. IMPLICATIONS FOR INTELLIGENCE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

The results of the survey indicate that consideration needs to be given to implementing systems of cross agency training for all levels of practice within the intelligence profession, with Australian Universities playing a greater role in developing and delivering these preparatory courses for intelligence practitioners in Australia. Agencies could also take the opportunity to provide lecturers and speakers to these university programmes on fellowship agreements, thereby providing a valuable interlink between universities/academics and the intelligence profession on graduate recruitment and training. ►

TABLE 2
RETENTION BENEFITS AND CONDITIONS MEAN SCORES, BY GENDER

| Benefit or condition | Mean (All) | Mean (Male) | Mean (Female) |
|---|------------|-------------|---------------|
| Training | 4.7 | 4.67 | 4.75 |
| Professional recognition of skills and experience | 4.46 | 4.40 | 4.56 |
| Work / life style mix | 4.39 | 4.27 | 4.63 |
| Flexible hours | 4.39 | 4.22 | 4.69 |
| Flexible career options | 4.26 | 4.9 | 4.56 |
| Promotional opportunities | 4.24 | 4.16 | 4.38 |
| Technologically advanced work place | 4.16 | 4.16 | 4.18 |
| Mentoring | 4.12 | 4.07 | 4.25 |
| Working with experienced officers | 4.10 | 4.00 | 4.31 |
| Physical work environment | 3.65 | 3.63 | 3.69 |
| Potential for interagency movement | 3.65 | 3.67 | 3.63 |

TABLE 3
THE IMPORTANCE OF NON-WAGE BENEFITS TO INTELLIGENCE OFFICERS

19. Listed below are some non financial benefits. Please rate these benefits according to what YOU think is important to intelligence practitioners. Indicate your response by marking the appropriate box.

| | Not at all important(1) | Not very important(2) | Neutral(3) | Somewhat Important(4) | Very Important (5) | Response Count |
|---|-------------------------|-----------------------|------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|
| Mentoring | 0.0% (0) | 4.3% (2) | 15.2% (7) | 43.5% (20) | 37.0% (17) | 46 |
| Training | 0.0% (0) | 0.0% (0) | 0.0% (0) | 30.4% (14) | 69.6% (32) | 46 |
| Work / life style mix | 0.0% (0) | 0.0% (0) | 8.7% (4) | 43.5% (20) | 47.8% (22) | 46 |
| Physical work environment | 2.2% (1) | 8.7% (4) | 32.6% (15) | 34.8% (16) | 21.7% (10) | 46 |
| Technologically advanced work place | 0.0% (0) | 10.9% (5) | 2.2% (1) | 45.7% (21) | 41.3% (19) | 46 |
| Flexible hours | 2.2% (1) | 0.0% (0) | 2.2% (1) | 47.8% (22) | 47.8% (22) | 46 |
| Potential for interagency movement | 2.2% (1) | 15.2% (7) | 23.9% (11) | 32.6% (15) | 26.1% (12) | 46 |
| Promotional opportunities | 0.0% (0) | 6.5% (3) | 4.3% (2) | 47.8% (22) | 41.3% (19) | 46 |
| Flexible career options | 0.0% (0) | 6.5% (3) | 2.2% (1) | 50.0% (23) | 41.3% (19) | 46 |
| Working with experienced officers | 0.0% (0) | 10.9% (5) | 8.7% (4) | 39.1% (18) | 41.3% (19) | 46 |
| Professional recognition of skills and experience | 0.0% (0) | 2.2% (1) | 10.9% (5) | 26.1% (12) | 60.9% (28) | 46 |
| Other (please specify) | | | | | | 2 |
| | | | | | | <i>answered question</i> 46 |
| | | | | | | <i>skipped question</i> 5 |

► Any such courses or training so developed could be adopted as a professional standard by the Australian Institute of Professional Intelligence Officers (AIPIO) and promoted through that institution, the agencies themselves and participant universities. The programme could act not only as a qualification, but also as a professional certification, much as the American Society for Industrial Security (ASIS) operates its Certified Practicing Professional (CPP) qualification, for security industry practitioners in the United States and Australia.

The intelligence profession could then adopt a national accreditation and layered education and training system which ultimately would result in specific levels of competency and pay scale for intelligence practitioners, and this professional programme could then be administered and maintained through AIPIO as a professional standard at all levels of the intelligence industry. This professionalism should be formally acknowledged by both state and federal governments with the view towards advancing the professionalism of the industry.

H. CONCLUSION

The post-9/11 changes in the security environment have resulted in an exponential increase in expenditure by governments in recruiting intelligence practitioners for the Australian Intelligence Community, government and law enforcement agencies. However, all agencies are competing for a limited pool of potential practitioners suitable for working in specialist roles and in secretive environments. Hence there is a greater need, than ever before, to attract and recruit the right individuals as intelligence practitioners. That is, those persons whose own goals, ambitions and expectations are closely aligned to the objectives and expectations of the agencies employing them. Now, more than ever there is the need for a coordinated response by and on behalf of law enforcement agencies and the Australian Intelligence Community to both protect Australia and to promote and develop the intelligence profession and its practitioners.

As such, there is a compelling argument for incentivized, centralized and structured training programmes and recognition of skills and qualification to assist in the promotion of intelligence as a profession and the satisfaction and retention rates of intelligence practitioners. ►



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ON-LINE LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR LAW ENFORCEMENT

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A. PURPOSE

The purpose of this research was to provide online general management and leadership training to various law enforcement personnel (i.e., police, corrections officers, and sheriffs) in order to determine whether such training affects the participants' own perceptions of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and transformational leadership on the job.

B. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

An online teaching method was determined to be the most practical way to reach a number of working individuals in different cities, as participants could continue working, while completing modules designed to enhance their learning.

Based on an index of core competencies as developed by law enforcement leaders in 2008, four online modules were created to cover leadership, decision making, supervision, and a positive work environment, focusing specifically on policing and corrections.

1. Sample

Forty individuals were nominated by their respective supervisors to participate in the pilot training. Each nominee was contacted individually, invited to participate, and received instructions as to the requirements and expectations of online learning. After learning about the demands of online learning, 38 of the 40 individuals completed a pre-course survey designed to measure perceptions of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and transformational leadership. Table 1 presents the demographic profile of the participants.

2. Course Design

The course was designed to be 4 modules, each of 4 weeks in duration. Each module started with a self-assessment instrument, and each student was asked to comment on his/her results in a confidential journal seen only by the instructor. Following the self-assessment, readings and cases appropriate to the week's topic were assigned, and students were asked to complete a discussion question relating to the readings in an online forum. To make the discussions more manageable and informative, ►

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHICS, N = 38

| | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------|
| Work Location | Large Metropolitan Area | 53% |
| | Small City | 47% |
| Work Occupation | Police | 47% |
| | Sheriff | 26% |
| | Corrections | 27% |
| Age | 26 – 35 | 29.4% |
| | 36 - 45 | 52.9% |
| | 46 & older | 17.7% |
| Gender | Female | 24% |
| | Male | 76% |
| Tenure in current position | .5 – 2 years | 52% |
| | 2 years & above | 48% |
| Education | High School | 17.6% |
| | College | 52.9% |
| | University | 17.6% |
| | Graduate School | 11.8% |

► the 38 students were split into six groups, with each group containing at least one police officer, one corrections officer, and one sheriff in order to promote an exchange of ideas among diverse law enforcement functional areas. Within these smaller discussion groups, they were to collaboratively discuss the topic within their small group.

3. Methods and Measures

A combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies was employed, consisting of pre-post surveys and interviews. Prior to starting the online course, participants were asked to complete the Transformation Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ) (Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2000), following the work of the Home Office in the U.K.

The TLQ consists of seven scales, as listed in Table 2.

In addition to the TLQ items, participants were asked to respond to standard job satisfaction and organizational commitment questions, using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), created by Smith, Kendall,

& Hulin (1985), and the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) as developed by Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982).

As the course progressed, 18 participants dropped out. Reasons given for not completing the course included the amount of time involved, technology problems, e.g. firewalls and inability to download some information, loss of interest, and no obvious extrinsic reward/course credits for completing the course. Overall, the participants who completed all four modules included three Metropolitan police, eight small city police, four correctional officers, and five sheriffs. ►

TABLE 2
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (TLQ) SCALES

| Scale | Alpha |
|--|-------|
| 1 – Showing Genuine Concern for Others’ Well-Being & Their Development | .95 |
| 2 - Inspirational Networker, Communicator & Achiever | .92 |
| 3 – Empowers, Delegates, Develops Potential | .86 |
| 4 – Transparency: Honesty & Consistency | .93 |
| 5 – Accessible, Approachable, In-touch | .84 |
| 6 – Decisive, Risk-taking | .83 |
| 7 – Outcome Behaviours | na |

► **C. FINDINGS**

1. Survey Data

Table 3 lists the mean scores, standard deviations and significant differences between the results of the pre and post course t-tests for job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and transformational leadership.

It must be noted that the N between the pre and post tests decreased. At the start of the course, 38 people completed the survey. By the end of the course, however, only 20 people were still engaged. This leads to the problem of non-comparative survey responses. Because of the small sample size, basic t-tests were utilized to analyze whether significant changes had occurred. The statistical results should be viewed with caution, however, due to the decrease in participants.

One of the more interesting findings of this research was that while job satisfaction and organizational commitment did not change significantly, most of the scale responses used to measure transformational leadership increased significantly from the beginning of the course to the end. Results are presented in Table 4.

2. Interview Data

Interviews lasting approximately 90 minutes each were conducted with participants who completed the course. Basic topics included the individual’s motivation for participating in the course, their impressions of online learning, and what they would change for future offerings of the course.

In terms of motivation, responses varied from “totally for self-development,” and “to see myself as a better person,” to “I recognized there is a need for leadership,” and “I am interested in the academics of leadership.” Not everyone enjoyed the online learning method, though as they were uncertain about the confidentiality of their small group discussions. They felt a combination of face-to-face and online teaching would be more effective. It was suggested that the course begin with a face-to-face meeting of all participants, so there would be more trust among them throughout course discussions.

Other suggestions were to provide more clear expectations up front, to use fewer “academic” readings¹, and to require a written paper at the end of the course. All of the interviewees felt the self-assessments at the beginning of each module were valuable, and they preferred the readings that covered materials in the context of law enforcement. ►

Overall, the interviews demonstrated that participants felt the course was valuable (all said they would do it again), but that there were minor modifications they would make to the structure and materials.

D. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The research results indicate that law enforcement personnel who participated in online training reported the same levels of job satisfaction and commitment, before and after the course, yet showed significant increases in perceptions of their own leadership skills, based on the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire.

The interview data indicate a hybrid teaching method combining some face-to-face with some online training techniques, and a final paper to be submitted at the end of the course. Additionally, law enforcement officers at different stages in their careers likely have different training needs. Based on their experience and skills, different management and leadership courses could be tailored to various levels within law enforcement.



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TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF MEANS, PRE VS POST COURSE RESPONSES

| Variable | Pre-Course Mean (sd) | Post-Course Mean (sd) | df | t value | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|----|---------|------------------------|
| Job Satisfaction | 3.72 (.66) | 3.94 (.46) | 49 | -1.277 | |
| Organizational Commitment | 3.35 (.48) | 3.43 (.35) | 49 | -.660 | * P<.05 |
| Transformational Leadership | 4.30 (.79) | 4.81 (.53) | 44 | -2.291* | ** P<.01 *** P<.001 |

TABLE 4
COMPARISON OF MEANS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ITEMS

| Variable | Pre-Course Mean (sd) | Post-Course Mean (sd) | df | t value | |
|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|----|-----------|-----------------------------------|
| Concern for Others | 3.76 (1.173) | 4.56 (.922) | 49 | -2.101* | |
| Networking & Achieving | 3.76 (.936) | 4.67 (.970) | 48 | -3.659*** | |
| Enabling Others | 3.85 (.939) | 4.44 (1.097) | 46 | -2.268* | |
| Honesty/ Consistency | 4.55 (.905) | 5.06 (.938) | 49 | -1.797 | |
| Being Accessible | 4.67 (.957) | 5.22 (.647) | 49 | -1.897 | |
| Being Decisive | 4.73 (1.039) | 5.33 (.686) | 49 | -2.664** | |
| Outcome Behaviours | 4.39 (.884) | 4.97 (.700) | 48 | -2.313* | * P<.05 ** P<.01 *** P<.001 |

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¹ The majority of readings and other instructional materials were Harvard Business School Press materials.

INVESTIGATIVE SKILLS EDUCATION PROGRAM: INNOVATION IN POLICE EDUCATION

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A. INTRODUCTION

Policing is a challenging and complex occupation that requires continual professional development. Police officers must have a diverse skill set and knowledge on topics including criminal law, investigative skills, and risk effective decision making. Recent trends within police organizations such as high rates of attrition, increased recruit hires, the frequency of joint police force investigations and the complexity of criminal law have added additional challenges to policing. As a result, police organizations have had to reexamine the methods by which they educate their officers in order to be responsive to these challenges. This paper will describe the trends that have created challenges for policing in Alberta and will examine the Investigative Skills Education Program (ISEP) that was developed as a result. ISEP is a standardized provincial education program that incorporates investigative competencies in a blended learning model (online and classroom learning) with a comprehensive curriculum that utilizes adult education methodologies and a constructivist approach to learning.

B. TRENDS THAT LED TO CHANGE

1. High Attrition Rates

From 2002 to 2009 police organizations, like other industries in the province of Alberta, struggled with employment trends that saw an

increase in the number of employees eligible for retirement. Statistics Canada (2004) states that the aging Canadian population resulted in a shrinking workforce. This employment trend was further compounded in Alberta by a booming economy and lucrative job market that resulted in police officers retiring as soon as possible, or in some cases resigning, in order to embark on a second career. A similar retirement rate and hiring trend occurred throughout the province and created organizational gaps in relation to mentorship, experience levels and educational opportunities. Educational resources were concentrated on training new hires leaving less opportunity for ongoing professional development. Additionally, there were fewer experienced officers in active service to pass along practical knowledge and provide mentorship and coaching. For example, from 2006 to 2009, the Edmonton Police Service hired 712 new police officers in order to keep up with attrition (Edmonton Police Service Recruiting Unit, 2010). In 2009 there were 1,447 police officers in the Edmonton Police Service, meaning that almost 50% of all sworn members had less than three years of policing experience (Edmonton Police Service and Edmonton Police Commission: Annual Report to the Community, 2009, p.30). The effects of this mass hiring will continue to be felt in police agencies for several years as the officers hired within this time frame advance in their careers either through ►

- ▶ promotion or transfer to specialized investigative areas where even more complex knowledge and skills will be required. This trend will continue as Statistics Canada (2004) estimates that the number of people eligible for retirement could reduce the workforce from 67% to 57% by the year 2025.

2. Failed Investigations and Increased Police Liability

The level of complex investigative knowledge required by police officers continues to increase as they advance in their career and move from one specialized area to another. Failure to provide adequate education continuously throughout the span of an officer's career may result in prohibitive financial costs associated with inadequate investigations leading to case dismissals or wrongful convictions. Thus, a lack of training could have serious consequences for officers, police organizations and the community. New case law has set a precedent of increased liability for failed investigations. In the *Hill vs. Hamilton-Wentworth Regional Police Services Board* (2007) decision, the Supreme Court of Canada stated that police can now be held liable for negligent investigations. Therefore, the need for competency-based, standardized training had become more imperative than ever.

3. Standardization of Investigation Skills in the Province of Alberta

Addressing the need for a standardized investigative educational program meant taking into consideration the geographical challenges of implementing a province wide curriculum. Alberta is a large geographical area that encompasses 661,848 square kilometers (National Geographic: Travel & Culture, n.d.). Twelve municipal police agencies, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police and the Solicitor General and Public Security Sheriffs all provide law enforcement services. Alberta's large land mass presented challenges in ensuring that all officers had access to standardized training regardless of their location in the province or the size of their police agency. It was also noted that having multiple police organizations in one province meant that officers were working on inter-agency

investigations when criminals crossed jurisdictional boundaries. In an attempt to overcome these challenges, a comprehensive provincial curriculum for investigators using both online and classroom delivery was developed.

“ LACK OF TRAINING COULD HAVE SERIOUS CONSEQUENCES ”

C. INVESTIGATIVE SKILLS PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

1. Identifying Competencies

“A competency is defined as, what a person is required to do (performance), under what circumstances (conditions), and to what level of competence this is to be done (standards)” (Edmonton Police Service, 2010b, p.8). The first step in the program's development was identifying the competencies of a criminal investigator. A task analysis and critical trait approach were utilized in determining competencies (Dubois, 1993). The task analysis was a compilation of tasks, processes and responsibilities associated with criminal investigations. The critical trait approach method identified the behaviour, skills and methodologies that distinguished a superior investigator from an average investigator (Dubois, 1993). ▶

► This data was collected through focus group interviews with subject matter experts, investigators at all ranks, supervising officers and stakeholders in the investigative process such as crown prosecutors, defence lawyers, and various support staff personnel. Fourteen main investigative competencies were identified as detailed below:

- Ethical Decision Making
- Note Taking
- Risk Effective Decision Making and Case Management
- Criminology
- Crime Scene Management
- Interviewing Victims and Witnesses
- Source Handling, Search Warrant Drafting
- Photographic Lineup
- Report Writing, Court Testimony
- Judicial Administration
- Structured Interviewing: Suspects.

Through the focus group interview task analysis, it was noted that these areas remained important throughout a police career, but the “level of competence...(standards)” (EPS 2010b, p.8.) increased in proportion to an increase of specialization or authority. For example, officers participating in ISEP began by learning to take basic comprehensive notes in their notebook. As they gained more skill and experience and advanced to the next levels of ISEP, more complex dimensions were added to note taking such as confidential human source information. Eventually, investigators learned to utilize a complex file management system with task logs and investigative summaries for investigating serious crimes such as homicides. For these reasons, a multilevel program was developed where the standards of each competency increased level to level. As a result, officers worked through each level of the program, first gaining fundamental competency, then went back to the field to apply this new knowledge before returning to the program at the next level for more complex skills and knowledge.

2. Adult Learning for Police Education

The curriculum development stage of the Investigative Skills Education Program began by recognizing that “all teaching and learning systems should be built on two foundations: the needs of the intended students, and the learning outcomes of the course or program” (Davis, 2004, p.98). Having successfully identified the learning outcomes of the program as detailed in the previous section on competencies, curriculum designers focused on learner needs. The needs of the students were addressed in ISEP through the development of a program that provided meaningful practical learning in a social setting that mirrored the policing environment. “Adults want to be able to take what they learn back to their job or their personal life and use it as soon as possible” (Edmonton Police Service, 2010, p.3). The ISEP program endeavoured to provide officers with opportunities to discuss key concepts and principles, and engage in student centred practical exercises to help improve their investigative skills.

3. Constructivism and Problem Based Learning

While Davis (2004) outlined two key foundations of adult learning, Herman Goldstein suggested that police training methodology needed to be improved. The importance of constructivism in police training and education was significantly influenced by Herman Goldstein (1990) who recognized that effective policing consisted of the proper recognition and research of ‘problems’ and the planning to try and solve those problems in real world conditions. According to Jonassen (as cited in Karagiorgi, & Symeou, 2005, p.24) constructivism creates a learning environment where students actively engaged in the construction of their own knowledge by linking new information to what they already know with the help of more experienced peers. Additionally, learning does not occur in isolation but within a social group that includes elements of authentic real world conditions (Karagiorgi & Symeou, 2005). Under these conditions, learning has real meaning for the student and can be applied more readily to similar situations that occur in the future, outside of class. ►



► D. BLENDED LEARNING MODEL

1. Online Learning

The choice of online learning as a component of the Investigative Skills Education Program provided solutions to a number of challenges related to delivering a province wide education program. The online material was completed prior to classroom instruction, thereby providing officers throughout Alberta with a uniform base knowledge before they entered the classroom. Delivery of this precourse instruction via online learning also reduced the number of hours each officer spent in the classroom. This allowed more class time for constructivist learning activities and reduced human resource hours lost to classroom learning. As of 2008, eighty-three percent of Canadians have access to the Internet (Miniwatts Marketing Group, 2010), therefore ISEP was not concerned with accessibility. Additionally, distance education provided learners with "... flexibility in program structure to accommodate their other responsibilities, such as full-time jobs or family needs" (Howell, Williams, & Lindsay, 2003, para 1). Finally, the online learning courses became a resource for future knowledge reference for officers when they returned to their workplace.

E. INVESTIGATIVE SKILLS EDUCATION PROGRAM

1. Structure

The Investigative Skills Education Program is comprised of four distinct levels. Each level is designed to provide the skills and knowledge required for an officer's corresponding competency. This method allows each officer to acquire investigative knowledge, apply that knowledge in the field to gain experience, and return to the program for further learning. Each level of the program contains instruction on each of the 15 investigative competencies through online modules. Officers complete the online modules in predetermined groupings of four or five then participate in classroom learning. In the classroom, officers apply what they have learned online to a simulated investigation with the assistance of an experienced police investigator who takes on the role of a coach or mentor. This learning model provides them with an opportunity to discuss, collaborate and problem solve with other officers from across the province. The use of retired officers as an in-class resource and coach, allows for a direct transfer of knowledge and experience to a larger group of less experienced officers.

F. RESULTS

From March 2009 to July 2010 approximately 845 police officers from twelve out of the fourteen police agencies in the Province of Alberta participated in the Investigative Skills Education Program (Gagnon, 2010). These agencies ranged in size from approximately 15 members to over one thousand officers, and were located throughout Alberta. The need for a competency based program was apparent as exhibited by one officer who indicated that they could have used the training earlier in their career. "This was good solid usable ►

► information...should have been available sooner!" (ISEP, 2010, para 1). Officers also indicated that the content was beneficial and they would apply their skills immediately in the field and in their future investigations (Lepatski, 2010). The officers also felt that the constructivist methodology and the presence of experienced peers were important for a meaningful learning environment. "The program allowed students to figure things out on their own. The teachers would check and see how things were going and redirect if needed" (Lepatski, 2010, p6). The results also indicate that the officers had an increased confidence in their investigative abilities. "I will leave the course more confident to utilize warrants, do bail packages, and complete better overall investigations." (ISEP, 2010, para 1). Officers also gained self-awareness and were able to identify their skills that required further improvement. "This module is a very important one to me as I need to improve on my note taking. I will be more aware of the information I need to include in my notebook." (ISEP, 2010, para 1). Another officer stated that "The content made me realize my shortfalls, but better yet, ways to correct and improve the shortfalls." (ISEP, 2010, para 1).

**“ THE BLENDED
LEARNING
MODEL REDUCED
GEOGRAPHICAL
BOUNDARIES ”**

G. CONCLUSION

ISEP has already begun to alleviate the challenges identified earlier in this paper. The blended learning model reduced geographical boundaries and ensured that all learners arrived in the classroom with the same level of knowledge. Online learning also reduced the amount of travel time and time spent in the classroom thus allowing for a greater number of officers to be educated in a shorter period of time. The online learning allowed the classroom time to be focused on constructivist activities and also provided a resource that officers could access at any time. The constructivist methodology, which included an experienced peer as a coach, capitalized on the knowledge of a few experienced officers to teach hundreds of less experienced officers. The constructivist approach also provided officers with practical learning and an opportunity to try new skills in a classroom environment that mirrored the field. Identifying and teaching the core competencies of investigations ensured that the program was addressing the skills and knowledge officers required to effectively manage investigations throughout their careers. Finally, ISEP provided consistent, standardized education for all police officers in the province, giving them the same competencies and investigative methods when engaged in inter-jurisdictional investigations. The standardized curriculum of ISEP continues to ensure that all citizens in Alberta receive the same exemplary level of policing. ►

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AN INNOVATIVE TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR FRENCH SENIOR POLICE OFFICERS

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In France, police superintendents, (*commissaires de police*), as members of the development and management body, are at the head of all departments of the French National Police.

The advent of alternative modes of recruitment of police superintendents, from young university graduates to professionals experienced in one or more areas of security, has led the French National Police to rethink its entire initial training programme for senior police.

All French police superintendents are trained at the Ecole Nationale supérieure de la Police (ENSP) at Saint Cyr au Mont d'Or, in the suburbs of Lyon. After developing an innovative method over several years, the school has recently established a vocational training system, which is now a model for the French public services.

The programme is based on principles which are consistent with quality assurance for higher vocational training courses:

- **individualisation** of the training course, based on prior learning, as part of a repository of expected skills,
- **modular approach** to content and training time, in order to create consistent learning units,
- **accountability** of the future professional, who becomes more and more involved in the design of his/her own training programme, guided by explicit learning objectives,

- **professionalisation**, by providing resources and training situations which bring together the optimal conditions for skill development in real situations.

These principles are implemented as part of a new training programme, carried out in two phases:

- The first phase, "**foundation**", is devoted to the acquisition of the fundamental knowledge required for the position of police superintendent. This phase is evaluated by continuous assessment and a professional dissertation, after which the rank is determined and the post selected,
- The second phase, "**professional adaptation**", during which the police superintendent builds the expertise required for his/her first job as a department head.

This new training system, formed on the basis of a reference of skills expected of the police superintendent, takes into account the principles of "lifelong learning" and prepares participants for the first 5 years in the service. It is complemented by a quality assurance evaluation, carried out externally. ■

LES PRINCIPES D'ACTION ET LE NOUVEAU CADRE DE FORMATION DES CADRES SUPÉRIEURS DE LA POLICE FRANÇAISE

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Avant d'aborder les principes et le nouveau cadre de la formation professionnelle initiale des cadres supérieurs de police français, il semble nécessaire de présenter, ou de rappeler, la structure hiérarchique et les principes de recrutement de la police nationale française.

A. LA STRUCTURE HIÉRARCHIQUE DE LA POLICE NATIONALE FRANÇAISE

La police nationale française se compose de trois corps :

Environ 105 500 gardiens de la paix et gradés forment le corps d'encadrement et d'application, qui se décline à partir du grade de gardien de la paix jusqu'au grade de brigadier major.

Le corps intermédiaire, dit de commandement, est composé de 11 000 officiers de police, à partir du grade de lieutenant de police jusqu'au grade de commandant de police.

1600 commissaires et hauts fonctionnaires de police forment le corps supérieur, dit de conception et de direction, qui se décline à partir du grade de commissaire de police jusqu'au grade d'inspecteur général de la police nationale.

B. LES MODES DE RECRUTEMENT DU SERVICE PUBLIC FRANÇAIS

1. Les recrutements par concours administratifs

Les recrutements de la fonction publique française sont soumis au principe républicain d'égalité de tous les citoyens français devant l'emploi public. Selon ce principe, toute personne de nationalité française, disposant du niveau d'études pré-requis, peut présenter les concours administratifs qui ouvrent l'accès aux différents corps de la fonction publique. Ces concours externes permettent d'accéder directement aux corps de base, intermédiaires ou supérieurs des différents services publics.

En parallèle aux concours externes, il existe des concours internes réservés aux personnels de la fonction publique qui souhaitent progresser dans leur propre administration, ou qui recherchent un emploi dans un autre service public. Les concours internes sont réservés, sans condition de diplôme, aux fonctionnaires qui bénéficient d'un minimum d'ancienneté dans la fonction publique française. ►

► 2. Les mécanismes de promotion interne

Des mécanismes de promotion sociale assurent une partie du recrutement dans les corps intermédiaires et supérieurs de la fonction publique française. Ces sélections et recrutements au choix permettent à des fonctionnaires méritants de s'élever dans la hiérarchie de leur administration.

Les recrutements de policiers français suivent les principes généraux d'emploi au sein de la fonction publique française. Trois voies d'accès permettent d'intégrer l'un ou l'autre des trois corps de la police nationale, dont le corps de conception et de direction :

- L'accès direct par concours externe,
- L'accès au corps supérieur par concours interne,
- L'accès au corps supérieur par une sélection basée sur le mérite professionnel.

C. LE RECRUTEMENT DES COMMISSAIRES DE POLICE

Depuis plusieurs années, la police nationale recrute environ 60 commissaires de police par an.

- 30 commissaires sont recrutés par concours externe (50 %)
- 12 d'entre eux sont recrutés par concours interne (20 %)
- 18 d'entre eux proviennent de la voie d'accès professionnelle ou du recrutement au choix dans le corps des officiers de police (30 %).

1. Les recrutements par concours

Le concours annuel externe de commissaire de police pourvoit la moitié des postes. Il est ouvert aux étudiants français titulaires d'un Master ou d'un diplôme équivalent de l'enseignement supérieur. Près de 1000 candidats se présentent chaque année à ce concours externe.

Les 30 lauréats deviennent fonctionnaires de l'Etat, au grade d'élève commissaire de police, et sont rémunérés dès qu'ils intègrent l'Ecole Nationale

Supérieure de la Police de Saint Cyr au Mont d'Or dans la banlieue de Lyon.

Le concours annuel interne est ouvert à l'ensemble des fonctionnaires de l'Etat français disposant de 4 années d'ancienneté, à hauteur de 20 % des postes à pourvoir, soit environ 12 places par an. Entre 120 et 150 candidats se présentent à ce concours chaque année.

2. Les mécanismes de promotion interne

La voie d'accès professionnelle est ouverte aux officiers de police, qui constituent le corps intermédiaire de la police nationale, à raison de 20% des postes à pourvoir, soit environ 12 places par an. Les candidats sont proposés par les directions d'emploi sur la base du mérite professionnel. Ils ne subissent pas les épreuves d'un concours administratif, mais font l'objet d'un examen à caractère professionnel et d'un entretien avec un jury.

Le recrutement au choix permet de pourvoir 10 % des postes, il concerne des officiers au grade sommital et suit des règles semblables à celles de la voie d'accès professionnelle.

La physionomie d'une promotion de commissaires de police est donc très diverse : les élèves commissaires de police issus des trois voies de recrutement présentent des profils variés aux plans de l'âge, des niveaux de qualification, de la durée et de la nature de leurs expériences professionnelles.

Les élèves issus du concours externe sont généralement âgés de moins de 30 ans. Ils disposent d'un solide bagage universitaire mais la majorité d'entre eux n'a aucune expérience professionnelle.

Les élèves issus du concours interne sont majoritairement âgés de 30 à 35 ans. Ils attestent de qualifications professionnelles variées et d'une durée d'expérience professionnelle minimale de quatre années, acquise dans la Police nationale, ou, en moindre fréquence, dans d'autres administrations. ►

- Les élèves issus des voies d'accès professionnelles ont entre 10 et 20 ans d'expérience professionnelle dans des postes et à des niveaux de spécialisation très divers.

Cette diversité des parcours universitaires et professionnels a conduit l'École Nationale Supérieure de la Police à faire évoluer son dispositif de formation professionnelle initiale, selon des principes et un cadre de formation conformes à ceux de l'assurance qualité des formations professionnelles supérieures, afin de permettre le développement des compétences requises pour l'exercice d'un premier emploi de direction d'un service de police.

D. UN NOUVEAU CADRE DE FORMATION INITIALE DES COMMISSAIRES DE POLICE

La formation professionnelle initiale des commissaires de police est d'une durée totale de deux ans.

La première phase de la formation, dite « phase de socle », dure dix-huit mois avec une alternance de périodes de scolarité et de stages en sécurité publique, la police du quotidien.

Cette période, dans laquelle s'inscrit l'obtention d'un Master professionnel, permet de travailler tous les éléments nécessaires à l'exercice du métier de commissaire de police, quelque soit la mission dominante du premier emploi.

Elle est ainsi consacrée aux apprentissages des fondamentaux requis par le processus de professionnalisation en matière d'investigation, de renseignement et de sûreté générale. C'est également une phase d'observation et d'analyse de l'organisation et de la direction des missions fondamentales de la sécurité publique.

L'évaluation du potentiel acquis au cours des différents modules est réalisée en continu, par des épreuves de cas professionnels. Cette phase est sanctionnée par la soutenance d'un mémoire professionnel², et se termine par le classement et le choix du poste.

La deuxième phase, dite "d'adaptation à l'emploi", est d'une durée de six mois. Le choix anticipé du poste de sortie d'école permet la réalisation d'une période d'adaptation dans un emploi comparable au poste choisi, avec l'accompagnement et la réassurance d'un commissaire titulaire. Cette période de 4 mois permet d'approfondir des connaissances et de construire les savoir faire requis par les spécificités de l'emploi choisi.

Cette phase d'adaptation à l'emploi se termine par une période de six semaines sur le lieu même de la future affectation, ce qui permet d'établir les premiers contacts professionnels, d'analyser l'organisation et le fonctionnement du service d'affectation et de connaître le territoire d'intervention.

E. LES PRINCIPES D'ACTION GUIDANT L'INGÉNIERIE DE LA FORMATION INITIALE DES COMMISSAIRES DE POLICE

1. Un principe d'individualisation des parcours de formation

La formation initiale des commissaires de police doit réunir les conditions de développement des compétences requises par un premier exercice professionnel. Ces compétences ont été décrites et référencées, à l'issue d'un travail avec les directions d'emploi de la police nationale, dans un référentiel des compétences sociales attendues établi par un docteur en sciences de l'éducation. ►

² Dans le nouveau dispositif de validation du parcours de formation, les épreuves orales traditionnelles, apparentées à un jury de concours, ont été remplacées par la rédaction et la présentation d'un mémoire professionnel qui révèle mieux le degré d'appropriation des contenus de formation.

// L'INDIVIDUALISATION DES PARCOURS DE FORMATION SE CONCRÉTISE ENCORE DANS LES ACTIVITÉS RÉALISÉES LORS DES PÉRIODES DE STAGES... //

► La diversité des profils et des acquis préalables implique la mise en place de parcours différenciés dès la première période de scolarité. L'évaluation des acquis antérieurs, qu'il s'agisse de connaissances déclaratives ou de savoir faire procéduraux, est effectuée dès l'entrée en formation à partir des certifications obtenues (diplômes, concours, etc.), ou de vérifications par des bilans de positionnement.

La formation par modules permet d'organiser des dispenses, ou d'assigner des objectifs différenciés en fonction de la nature des expériences professionnelles antérieures.

Chaque élève bénéficie de rendez vous pédagogiques avec les enseignants afin de vérifier et d'ajuster les progressions et un formateur-référent l'accompagne tout au long de son parcours de formation initiale.

Chaque élève commissaire a également la possibilité de s'inscrire aux épreuves d'examen du master "sécurité intérieure" organisé par l'université Lyon III, durant la première année de formation professionnelle initiale, ce qui permet aux élèves commissaires issus du recrutement interne de valider leurs acquis professionnels et d'obtenir au cours de leur scolarité, un diplôme de troisième cycle.

L'individualisation des parcours de formation se concrétise encore dans les activités réalisées lors des périodes de stages, par une assignation partielle d'objectifs différenciés, en fonction de la nature des expériences professionnelles antérieures ou de leur absence.

Enfin, la phase d'adaptation à l'emploi, qui intervient en fin de parcours de formation après le choix du poste est, de par sa nature, individualisée.

2. Un principe de modularisation des contenus et d'alternance des phases de formation.

L'individualisation des parcours suppose une modularisation des contenus et des temps de formation.

Chaque module de formation constitue une unité de sens, dont la cohérence est d'abord garantie par l'explicitation des objectifs visés (objectifs d'apprentissage, énoncés en termes de connaissances déclaratives et savoir faire procéduraux à acquérir, et objectifs de professionnalisation, énoncés en termes d'actions mobilisant ces connaissances et savoir faire dans des situations de formation proches de l'exercice professionnel, réel ou potentiel), ces deux types d'objectifs s'inscrivant dans le système ►

- de références que constituent les compétences professionnelles requises par l'exercice d'un premier emploi de commissaire de police³.

Pour être efficace, en termes d'individualisation et de progression didactique, la modularisation distribue et ordonne en séquences de formation les contenus d'un module, chaque séquence de formation constituant une unité cohérente au regard des apprentissages à réaliser. Les différentes séances constitutives d'une séquence de formation sont planifiées de manière à garantir cette unité de sens.

Enfin, la modularisation répond à la volonté de s'inscrire dans l'organisation de l'enseignement et des formations professionnelles supérieures, au plan européen.

L'alternance des phases de scolarité et de stage permet la mise en synergie les apprentissages réalisés à l'E.N.S.P. et dans les centres de stage. Au cours des phases d'immersion dans les services de police et les administrations partenaires, l'élève commissaire va confronter les contenus de formation développés dans les temps de scolarité aux réalités concrètes des situations professionnelles. Cette confrontation est guidée par des outils d'aide à l'observation et d'analyse et elle va s'accompagner d'entretiens de retours d'expérience avec le formateur-référent.

³ Cf. Le document "Référentiel des compétences socialement attendues d'un commissaire de police", disponible à la consultation sur les sites internet et intranet de l'E.N.S.P.

3. Un principe de responsabilisation du futur chef de service

Le but de la formation professionnelle initiale des commissaires de police est de permettre le développement des compétences professionnelles requises ... d'un cadre supérieur de police ! La notion de compétence est un ensemble complexe de facteurs et elle s'inscrit nécessairement dans une problématique individuelle, les compétences professionnelles d'un individu servant fréquemment une action et une performance collectives. L'observation atteste de la réalité de cette action collective dans les services de police, laquelle, pour être efficace, suppose une mise en synergie des compétences professionnelles individuelles.

Dès son intégration à l'Ecole Nationale Supérieure de la Police, l'élève commissaire de police devient acteur d'un parcours de formation individualisé. Il va être invité à construire son identité professionnelle de futur chef de service.

Cette démarche débute par un travail sur les représentations individuelles du métier de commissaire de police et une découverte des réalités de la fonction explicitées dans le référentiel de compétences socialement attendues. L'objectif est double : adopter une posture de chef de service et analyser les processus de l'action collective. Ceci implique de comprendre les activités déployées par chaque type de professionnels dans un service de police, pour en saisir les interactions et interrelations fonctionnelles, la chaîne d'action et les compétences professionnelles respectives concourant à la production collective de sécurité. ►

► 4. Une formation professionnalisante

Individualisation et modularisation participent aux processus de professionnalisation dans un cadre de formation en alternance qui permet la confrontation des contenus des enseignements dispensés et des réalités de situations professionnelles.

Le processus de construction d'une identité professionnelle de commissaire de police impose la progressivité des apprentissages : les acquisitions de ressources techniques policières vont de pair avec l'observation et l'analyse des activités liées aux missions fondamentales de sécurité publique, à partir desquelles sont développées des approches plus complexes et pluridimensionnelles de l'exercice professionnel : démarches et processus du renseignement, de l'investigation judiciaire et de l'ordre public, partenariats, diagnostics et pilotage d'un service, etc.

Le stage d'adaptation à l'emploi clôture ce processus de construction progressive d'une identité professionnelle de chef de service.

F. UNE DÉMARCHE DE QUALITÉ

La mise en œuvre de ces différents principes exige le maintien d'une qualité permanente et la réévaluation constante des modalités pédagogiques, de leur coordination et des interactions avec les élèves comme avec les partenaires professionnels de terrain.

Ceci suppose la mise en place et l'utilisation d'outils d'auto évaluation et le recueil de données permettant de mesurer la réalité de l'impact de la formation. L'évaluation formelle de la qualité du dispositif de formation est réalisée par des questionnaires d'évaluation spécifiquement élaborés et adressés aux commissaires sortant de formation, puis aux commissaires après une année d'exercice professionnel ainsi qu'à leurs supérieurs hiérarchiques directs.

Ce nouveau dispositif de formation initiale prend en compte les principes de la formation « tout au long de la vie ». Il a pour objectif de préparer aux 5 premières années de la fonction de commissaire de police. Des modules de formation obligatoires accompagneront les changements de fonctions et de grades tout au long de la carrière administrative.

La mise en place de ce nouveau dispositif de formation initiale professionnelle sur un cycle complet de formation à l'École Nationale Supérieure de la Police a permis de constater une meilleure et une plus rapide professionnalisation des commissaires de police, qui représente l'un des enjeux stratégiques de la police nationale française. ■

* Avec le précieux concours de Chantal Heyraud, docteur en sciences de l'Éducation et de Bernard Guenaud, chargé de mission auprès du directeur de la formation de la police nationale.

THE EMOTION FACTORS IN ADULT MANAGEMENT AND TRAINING

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Please try this easy test: One ticket to a movie plus ice cream costs €5. The price of the ticket is €4 higher than the ice cream: how much is the ice cream?

€1 seems to be the correct answer. Most of us would guess the solution in a flash. However, the correct answer is that the ice cream costs €0.5. Indeed, the ticket costs €4 more than the ice cream = 0.5€ plus 4€ gives €4.5, which is the price of the ticket alone. Then, on top of the price of the ticket you have to add 0.5€ for the ice cream which makes 5€ in total...

What does this teach us? That most of our decisions are intuitive. For each decision we make, we draw on a combination of two different systems: intuition and reasoning. Why do we so often choose intuition? Because we are lazy, and we tend to rely on past experiences, which become intuitive - our brain simply chooses the easiest way.

This reliance on intuition naturally involves the emotions to a large extent as well. Our decisions are mostly emotional, and tend not to involve much reasoning, because we don't like to think, especially when the solution seems to be obvious.

Concretely, when we have to make a decision, mental representations succeed one after another, and we play with the images. These images are emotional: they come from past experiences, real or imagined. Playing with the emotions helps us to determine in advance whether a particular course of action is good or bad for us; even the body is involved in this process of playing with emotions.

Indeed, the link between emotion and simulation by the body has long been demonstrated by neurobiologists - the decision-making process is a mental simulation of action. By mentally simulating different scenarios, the effort impacts on the body: heart rate, blood pressure, physical behaviour, blushing, and a variety of chemical responses change.

Stress is commonly understood as the adaptation (decision-making) of the body to the environment. It is an effort caused by the stimulus, which aims to react and adapt to a new situation. The sequence of the response process is: emotion, thought/analysis and physical reaction.

Stress is especially high when short deadlines are expected to be met. The impact on the body of the emotions involved is individual and proportionate to their intensity. The reaction is ill adapted when the required effort is too intense and/or too repetitive in time. ►

► At a certain stage, the stress can sometimes 'burn out' our energy, thus leading to physical exhaustion, and eventually anxiety and depression. If the emotions are too intense, the emotions will lead you, with the consequences that thinking becomes less rational, and reality becomes deformed.

HOW CAN WE BEST MANAGE INDIVIDUALLY STRESSFUL SITUATIONS?

There are three main ways. Firstly, resolve the issue. Identify the issue, formulate the objectives, decide which ones are attainable, and act upon your decision. This process calls upon our powers of reasoning.

The second way consists of balancing stressful situations with peaceful situations full of love, friendship - or anything that you find soothing and relaxing and that doesn't involve taking risks. This goes hand-in-hand with choosing a safe and healthy way of life, which typically involves eating correctly, sleeping well, exercising, and occasionally simply removing oneself from the stressful environment.

The third way can be related to the control of our emotions: we can't change facts, simply the way they are perceived. Therefore it can often help to stand back and get some perspective, and try to act and feel in a different manner, to analyse and express one's emotions in a new manner. Admittedly this is not always easy in an international environment, where it can be hard to interpret and truly understand how people from different cultures respond to particular emotions.

HOW CAN WE AS TRAINING MANAGERS HELP OUR STAFF TO COPE AND FACE STRESS?

In management terms, an objective should be set according to the psychological ability of the individual. This requires that the manager be able to assess the abilities of each team member.

The ideal management is to find the balance between efficiency and tiredness, as well as paying attention to emotions within the team such as anger or happiness - for emotional management is critical to success. Team members have to feel they can progress or do more; if they feel the reverse, the limits have perhaps been reached.

Decisions should be based on reflection. However, emotions are most often the first parameters in any decision making. Then only, the decisions made are rationalized.

Be aware that managers themselves act as stressful agents on their teams and colleagues, and this can lead to inefficiency and indifferent output. For exceedingly stressful managers, there might be still another way to help manage the situation (but this is an exceptional and almost purely theoretical case): get rid of this specific category of managers.

HOW CAN WE AS INSTRUCTORS HELP THE PARTICIPANTS LEARNING MORE EFFICIENTLY WITH EMOTIONAL FACTORS?

Much attention shall be given to the interaction of emotion and cognition in adult learning. From our personal experiences, when reflecting on past learning events we were involved in, we can see how much what we retained was acquired during an emotional step of the learning process.

Instructors work on classification and conceptual categories when dealing with adult learning. They focus on the training process steps (issue identification, learning objectives setting...) and on externally observable learning methods (self-directed learning, blended or collaborative learning, and so on). That is the rational and logical way. But emotional dimensions to formal learning and how adults learn about their own emotions are subjects which shall be considered and incorporated in learning events. ►

► The participants (*and the instructors*) in a learning experience will manage their emotions on an individual and a cultural basis. What differs from one culture to another regarding emotions are:

- The ignition of the emotion (what cultural factors start up emotions?).
- The emotion control (how are we instructed by our cultures to manage emotions?).

Those two emotion factors are both individual and cultural. According to the participant cultures, the feeling and expression of emotions will vary.

Shall we adapt our way of teaching and incorporating emotions to cultural factors? Not sure. The instructors, who need to be credible shall be cautious with their understanding on how cultures may impact on the behaviors of the participants.

The instructors shall discuss the participants' cultures with them only when the participants themselves express an issue related to their cultural specificities which may wrongly interfere with the learning event. Most often, multicultural groups tend to melt themselves at a universal level of behaviors.

Instructors can show that they know a bit about the participants' cultures but shall remain cautious on pretending they know well (insofar as cultures are really complex systems): within a second, their credibility could be undermined.

This is a difficult time for managers and instructors - suddenly, when you imagine yourself talking to your staff members or learners about the subject, you start sweating.

Gosh! You feel stressed!

BIOGRAPHIES

DR CURTIS CLARKE

Dr Curtis Clarke held the position of Associate Professor and Coordinator of the Criminal Justice programme at Athabasca University, prior to joining the Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security. He has carried out empirical studies on the implementation of community based policing, police organizational/managerial change, intelligence-led policing and the shifting boundaries between private and public policing. Dr. Clarke has completed research for the Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police, the Federal Solicitor General, Health Canada, Edmonton Police Service, the Metropolitan Toronto Police Service, the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police and the Law Commission of Canada. Before his appointment to the directorship of the Staff College, Dr. Clarke held the position of Director: Police and Peace Officer Training and Curriculum Development (Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security). Dr. Clarke is currently the acting President of the Canadian Association of Police Educators.

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Jean-Marie Fiquet, Commandant de Police, joined the French police service in 1974 as an inspecteur de police (police detective). From 1974 until 1989; he worked in different criminal and financial units of the French national criminal investigation service (Direction Centrale de la Police Judiciaire). From 1989 to 1996, he was detached to a specialist intervention group of the French Serious Fraud Office (Office Central pour la Répression de la Grande Délinquance Financière) in the southwest of France. He has been employed by the Ecole Nationale Supérieure de la Police (ENSP) in Saint Cyr au Mont d'Or since 1997. Initially Deputy Head of the Communication and International Relations Office, he was appointed Head of the International Relations Office on 1 January 2009. Mr Fiquet is the course manager for all the international training programmes which are conducted at the ENSP by the European Police College CEPOL and by several other international organizations (EUJUST LEX mission, INTERPOL, Europol, AEPC etc.) leadership, and labour-management relationships.

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Carol Glasgow has been an Ethics Instructor for 15 years, lecturing for the Edmonton Police Service (EPS) and external agencies. During her career with the EPS as a sworn officer, Ms Glasgow's passion for education and instruction led her to become the Sergeant in charge of the In-house Training unit in 2005 – a position she retained after retiring from sworn service in 2009. She has studied Education at the University of Alberta and is presently enrolled in a Master of Distance Education programme. Ms Glasgow has been invited to speak on the topic of ethics and police education at Grant MacEwan University, the University of Alberta, as well as international law enforcement conferences. Most recently she was invited to speak at the CAPE/INTERPOL Conference on the development and implementation of the Investigative Skills Education Program developed under her tenure with the EPS In-house Training Unit. ISEP has since become a province-wide curriculum in Alberta and continues to grow and develop to meet the educational needs of police officers throughout the province.

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Cheryl Lepatski is an e-learning instructional designer at the Edmonton Police Service. Her role at the Edmonton Police Service is to develop and maintain e-learning materials, assist in project management, establish and maintain e-learning course training standards and conduct programme evaluation. She is also completing a Masters of Arts in Communication Technology at the University of Alberta. The focus of her research is the blended learning environment (online and classroom instruction) and police officer education. Her research utilizes a social constructivist view, extracting dominant themes by way of content analysis.

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Mark Loves is a Senior Lecturer at the Centre for Transnational Crime Prevention, Faculty of Law, University of Wollongong (Australia) where he manages the Centre's post-graduate programmes. Previously, he served for 14 years as a police officer in New South Wales, where he specialised in criminal investigation and intelligence. He is a recipient of the NSW Police Medal, the NSW Police Commissioners Scholarship and was twice awarded by the International Association of Law Enforcement Intelligence Analysts (IALEIA) for excellence in the criminal intelligence field. As a lecturer in policing (investigations) at the New South Wales Police College in Australia he ran graduate programmes in crime prevention and completed his MA (Criminal Intelligence). Loves has been at Wollongong University since 2007. He researches and lectures on criminal intelligence, crime prevention, risk and integrity management and has numerous publications in these areas. He is currently engaged in doctoral studies related to anti-corruption and integrity management. position of Director: Police and Peace Officer Training and Curriculum Development (Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security). Dr. Clarke is currently the acting President of the Canadian Association of Police Educators.

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