


EBP

THE IMPLICATIONS OF SUPERVISION

**STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING CORRECTIONS' CAPACITY
FOR IMPLEMENTING EBPS: THE COLORADO EBP
PROJECT FOR IMPLEMENTATION CAPACITY (EPIC)
STAFF DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM**

by Brad Bogue



Sheila wasn't a bad probation officer. She had her good and bad days like any of her co-workers. However, since she finished her pre-service academy training several years ago, she noticed she was becoming less enthusiastic about her caseload of clients and more engaged with her colleagues. Juggling different roles: cop, social worker, "parent" with the people she supervised was wearying. Deep down, she was never sure what the right role was, or for that matter, if anything really worked with these people. It seemed some clients didn't need much support while others needed everything and, either way Sheila questioned the value of what she had to offer. She came to believe, along with some of her fellow officers that her job represented some kind of invisible line for public safety; if it wasn't done, public safety wouldn't be as good. But on her good days, no matter how hard she tried she didn't find any clear-cut satisfaction. The bad guys she controlled weren't usually that bad and the good guys she seemed to help weren't that good, or were only getting incrementally better.

Early in her career she had heard other officers complain about their work and criticize others (usually people on their caseload or managers), and she remembered thinking she would never be that negative. Now she was beginning to feel that she too was hitting a wall.


Sheila's first encounter with Motivational Interviewing (MI) was overhearing another officer snicker about how "management wants us to use this MI stuff to become therapists." At the time, Sheila felt rebellious at the thought of assuming any additional duties, especially therapy. Didn't management have a clue how hard it was to manage a caseload of these guys?

Though she was skeptical, Sheila participated in the MI training. Initially she wanted to believe the party line, voiced most strongly by the back row participants, that "there was little need or use for these so-called new communication skills – and if there really were a need, there wouldn't be enough time." However, as she watched herself and others fumble with the skills introduced in the training, it became clear there probably was a need for them. For one thing, it seemed to help more when someone was doing a decent job practicing those skills with her in "real-plays." And though few of her fellow officers seemed skillful or confident about using MI, some did. Sheila started feeling conflicted about whether to side with her co-workers' resistance to MI or trust her own direct experience. She also wondered if she should accept this sense of where her current skill limitations were or rise to the implicit challenge and improve her skills. In the end her clients helped her decide.

After the training, Sheila began practicing some of the MI skills with clients, more inadvertently than deliberately, but enough that she noticed differences in how they reacted. The more she used open questions

or reflections, the more her clients tended to open up and talk freely. When she neglected to use these skills, she found her interactions with clients remained more stiff and narrow by comparison. She began consciously to experiment to confirm her impressions. Once she determined that the MI skills were working, she brought this up with some of her colleagues to see if they were experiencing the same thing. Some of her peers verified they were, and Sheila became convinced that there was some substance to this MI stuff. She began to pursue her supervision sessions with more purpose and energy to explore how she might use MI skills to help her clients find the motivation to change some of the behaviors that had gotten them in trouble.

Sheila quickly learned two things about MI. On the one hand, using the simple client-centered or active listening techniques made her interactions more engaging and interesting for both her and her clients. She caught herself becoming less critical and more interested in what her clients were experiencing and what they had to say. On the other hand, she didn't know how to deal with clients as they started talking more. Given the large caseload she had, the increased time pressures caused by her clients' more extensive talking competed with her interest and ability in engaging them. Furthermore, at some point in her sessions she still had that old stuck, not really in control feeling, but not to the same degree. She also sensed there was some skill level beyond this she might reach. She just didn't know how.



After finding her interest in MI wax and wane for several months, it slowly declined with new assignments and competing interests. Sheila never quite got to the next level of feeling empowered around MI. Then she was reassigned to the ISP unit dealing with predominantly high-risk cases, which was located in the main office.

In her new unit Sheila quickly recognized that Greg, one of her co-workers, was not only using MI skills, but using them consistently and in a way that seemed totally natural. Greg seemed to get many of his clients into pretty good conversations that focused on the important stuff, like the client's distorted thinking or crazy friends. His interactions came across as deeper and more meaningful rather than all over the place. After observing some of these interactions, Sheila became determined to review and practice her MI skills. Later, she also began talking with Greg about MI.

While Greg was encouraging, his enthusiasm for talking about MI didn't seem to match Sheila's, who wanted to share everything she knew and then some. Greg suggested she join a small group of probation officers (POs), mostly with sex offender caseloads, that met once every other week for a brown bag lunch meeting to practice different MI techniques. Sheila was apprehensive; the thought of exposing her skills to more experienced colleagues was intimidating. She decided to put off getting involved with these practice meetings until she had a better handle on her caseload. However, on the day of the next appointed

meeting, Greg asked her to join him and she agreed.

In the practice meeting, Sheila was gratified to see other POs volunteering to try out new skills they weren't always good at. They all took turns and provided support for small achievements (such as use of a well-timed complex reflection) and some used humor to great effect. They also used tools for rating skills and providing feedback that were introduced in the MI training, but that Sheila had all but forgotten. Finally, most of the POs in this group seemed to be practicing and talking about MI skills that Sheila didn't readily recall from her training: things like eliciting change talk, elicit-provide-elicite (EPE), coming alongside and evoking both sides of ambivalence. Once she got over her self-consciousness, it was bracing to be a part of this group and she looked forward to the next meeting.

Sheila plugged into the group of POs who were practicing MI well. Some were more serious and dedicated to the spirit and skills of MI than others, but they all shared a passion for learning and being in a "zone" with their caseloads where they were engaged but not overwhelmed. One of the participants, a supervisor named Paul, attended sessions only occasionally but was an inspiration for nearly everyone. Paul loved it when members of the group showed videos of themselves and clients, with the PO demonstrating some specific skills. He was so affirming it was infectious, even if it wasn't your tape being viewed. Sheila learned that Paul had a long and mutually

valued relationship with several of the group members that seemed to go beyond work, different MI skills or even interest in different evidence-based practices (EBPs).


Eventually Sheila came into her own and began to receive recognition and attention, among both her peers and the POs she practiced with, as a “go-to” PO. She learned how to relinquish postures of control and build the skills needed to have influence with a great deal more of clients on her caseloads. She also finally learned how to join forces with those clients who were opening up and guide them to a sense of resolution with their commitment to various change goals. She helped start a new practice group for mostly ISP officers, and she has become an integral member of the department’s planning team for integrating EBPs into the agency’s evolving strategies. Sheila’s career, which once was merely a job, is flourishing.

Sheila’s story loosely touches on a number of principles critical for developing human capital – practical, current, valued skills and personal assets. First, individuals or groups of people seemed to nudge Sheila along at different points as she learned to collaborate more consciously. Second, she also began to recognize expertise in others and develop a sense of how, building on her existing know-how, she might build her skills to another level of mastery. Third, Sheila discovered how to work with some of her own personal issues, like pride and fear of humiliation so that as her skill level became more transparent she could really share some of her limitations with others who might

help her by modeling, giving her feedback or opportunities to practice. The training, human resources and development research now indicates that systematically working with the principles of: 1) collaboration; 2) scaffolding or building larger more complex skill sets from smaller, simpler ones; and, 3) shifting the dialogue norms to become more transparent and reflective can more reliably produce the positive development experiences Sheila had. Building a model for systematically developing extraordinary corrections staff skills is the principal goal of the EBP Project for Implementation Capacity (EPIC).

PROJECT BACKGROUND

EPIC is a pilot demonstration project to test the efficacy of implementation strategies, especially ones for improving corrections’ capacity for implementing EBPs. This project emphasizes building capacity to implement by focusing on developing a certain set of skills within a select set of staff in 17 different corrections organizations. The skills emphasized are offender assessment, cognitive behavioral treatment (CBT) coaching and MI. MI was selected as the primary innovation and EBP to roll out in the local pilot agencies because its applications are ubiquitous and criteria for MI fidelity are clearly established and can be monitored with adequate planning and resources. Consequently, approximately 90 staff in the various pilot site agencies received training and coaching in MI skills, MI skill critiquing based on taped supervision sessions and MI coaching as a part of this project. Those selected to receive this training and coaching



are individuals chosen to be change agents by their agency management based on their previous track records for being open, energetic, avid learners and advocates of EBP. The staff selected to be Change Agents (CAs) across the different sites are slated to receive a minimum of 25 days training and coaching during the first year of the project. The entire project is predicated on the assumption that the majority of the selected CAs can be assisted in achieving preset criteria for proficiency in MI, MI skill critiquing and MI coaching.

Developing job skills does not take place in a vacuum. A constellation of other factors are related to skill acquisition in important ways. In his unique staff performance model, Vaughn Keller (Keller (2001) argues that the following, although not an inclusive list, all have a unique and definite impact on skill development:

Skills are all the techniques, procedures, adaptations and tactics performed to accomplish someone's assigned or predetermined tasks and objectives. Skills also include the overarching style, tempo and rhythm with which workers approach their work and performance.

Roles are socially proscribed as well as prescribed behavior patterns people adopt to fulfill certain objectives. Roles can be assigned like positions on a sports team or conferred upon someone as in aspects of a job description. When an individual perceives other competing roles (e.g., PO law enforcement orientation versus case worker

function), this can cause role conflict and dissonance unless the roles are deliberately integrated.

Motivation to perform runs the full range from individuals who are only motivated by external rewards (e.g., financial compensation, feedback, etc.) to people who are entirely driven by inner values and self-consequence (e.g., teaching is its own reward, self-satisfaction of doing a particular thing well). Individuals are motivated differently for certain duties, performance and activities. Their motivation for doing specific tasks can change over time. In general, research (Ryan and Deci, 2000. Deci, Cornell and Ryan, 1989) shows the greater the intrinsic motivation an individual holds for a given job or task, the greater the probability he or she has for demonstrating high levels of performance.

Socio-technical Environment is comprised of the local available resources for accomplishing assigned tasks (e.g., computers, cell and smart phones, service funds, staffing budgets, the building design and work space), and, the less tangible but no less critical, organizational culture, with all its artifacts, rituals, norms and prescribed values. The organizational culture and climate mediate or influence the speed at which staff learning can take place and, in turn, the culture is impacted by the types of learning that take place.

Traits represent the unique congenital attributes and latent personal resources each individual brings to the work situation.

These include particular temperaments (e.g., extroverted or introverted, serious or lighthearted) as well as IQ, emotional quotient (EQ), and unique innate abilities such as coordination, speed and dexterity. Personality makeup is included here as well, especially to the degree it is a function or by-product of the individual's DNA. In some sense, traits represent the raw human capital that individuals bring to the workplace.

Strategies for designing and implementing a staff development system that overlook any one of the above factors are likely to be deficient and may fail. Let's look at how the EPIC project combines these strategies into its staff development system or model.


The EPIC project is based on the work of Dean Fixsen (Fixsen, Naoom, Blase, Friedman, & Wallace, 2005) and his colleagues at the National Implementation Resource Network (NIRN), who have done ground-breaking work in building an actual science of implementation. A critical part of this emerging science is the recognition of what are called "implementation drivers," a set of seven nearly sequential tactics involved in almost any successful implementation:

- Recruitment and Selection
- Pre-service Training
- Consultation & Coaching
- Staff Performance Assessment
- Decision Support Data Systems
- Facilitative Administrative Supports
- System Interventions

These drivers typically begin when a system intervention is contemplated and

planned in earnest. A cycle is complete when a system intervention implementation has successfully progressed through six stages (a second and different implementation frame, apart from the drivers) and demonstrates an effect on outcomes for the majority of staff and clients. The drivers influence how well a given implementation moves through the requisite stages of implementation (i.e., exploration, installment, initial implementation, full implementation, innovation and sustainability). Implementation drivers form a compensatory relationship to one another because one strong driver (e.g., good pre-service training with appropriate post-training follow-up and plans) can compensate for a weak driver (e.g., recruitment and selection that is too narrow or rigid and results in under-qualified new hires). Any one driver can potentially compensate for another that hasn't been activated well and no single driver is likely to compensate for several or more weaker ones. In short, an implementation program that fails to launch one or more of the seven drivers is not likely to be successful, at least as related to outcome or impact.

A key to the capacity-building strategy in the EPIC project is a concentrated effort, via a flexible staff development system, to improve agencies' ability to mobilize some of the earlier drivers in the cycle, particularly training, coaching, and staff performance assessment. If local agencies can be provided new internal capacity to train, coach, empirically assess, and reflect on relevant staff performance, all their subsequent implementation initiatives,



particularly around EBPs, have a much higher probability for success.

THREE STRATEGIES OF THE EPIC STAFF DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM

Having provided the above background, the staff development system envisioned in EPIC should assume real meaning. This system or model draws upon three key principles or stratagems:

- collaborative engagement;
- scaffolding skills and mastery;
- new norms and organizational practices that empower staff and promote transparency.

COLLABORATION

Staff development in the EPIC project emphasizes collaboration and mutual engagement at all possible levels. First, there is the inter-departmental nature of EPIC, which involves a total of four different departments of Colorado state government (Department of Corrections, Judicial Branch-based Probation, Public Safety's Community Corrections and Behavioral Health) and five divisions (DOC project involvement includes both the Parole Division and Institutions). Second, specific new overlapping structures (Advisory Committee, Transformation Team, Local Implementation Teams), again based on the Fixsen model have been created to enhance cross-agency collaboration. Third, mutual engagement across departments is the expected norm, where the only reinforced deference will be to expertise pertinent to the project (e.g., knowledge of implementation stages, drivers & science, MI skills and style, EBP familiarity). Deference to position or

authority has limited value in a learning organization. Fourth is the collaboration anticipated between change agents and amongst their peers within their local agency. This kind of collaboration is most often informal and entails sharing a repertoire of emerging new techniques, tools and skills. Finally, the end-game collaboration occurs in the working relationship that probation officers and correction officers establish with their clients, the people under supervision. Research (Trotter, 1995; 1996; 1999) suggests the more the officer or case manager can establish the relationship based on mutual respect and keep it focused on purposeful interactions related to the individual client's criminogenic need (James Bonta, Rugge, Scott, Bourgon, & Yessine, 2008), the better the outcomes (J. Bonta et al., 2010).

Ultimately, new skills will be required to sustain collaboration at all the above levels. Thus, more intensive collaboration implies enriched networks and related social capital, as well as broader professional competencies and human capital for line staff involved in this model. Positive shifts in staff contacts and skills can translate into new perceived roles – such as the line officer or case manager as the intervention. When this occurs it will not only broaden the scope of contacts that CAs have, but also potentially expands their current roles in the sense that there will be a real need for them to act as “EBP ambassadors,” for both their agency and the project. CA motivation for participating in a more collaborative fashion will understandably be different from

what motivates them in performing their normal assigned duties. Participating in the larger local criminal justice community will bring new opportunities for engagement as well as personal and professional validation. It will also render them more visible. If CAs are motivated and successful in these role adaptations, each local agency's organizational capacity for EBP implementation will be enhanced.

SCAFFOLDING SKILLS AND MASTERY


The 90 CAs in the EPIC project will experience a protracted and intense process of training, coaching and professional feedback based on taped-recordings or direct observation of their use of particular skills interacting with offenders. By identifying select staff as CAs, management has in effect created "acceleration pools" (Byham, Smith, & Paese, 2002) for incubating deeper skills and talent.

Developing competencies in practices that entail complex skill sets is invariably a long-term process. Complex skills are necessary across a broad array of activities, including sports (e.g., tennis, martial arts, mountain-climbing), crafts (e.g., cabinet making, pottery, fine cooking) and professions (e.g., medicine, teaching, journalism). Generally, such enterprises have identified three basic levels akin to: 1) apprentice or beginner; 2) journeyman; and, 3) expert or master. One key in identifying mastery status is the provision of formal criteria and certification between levels. Theoretically, the apprentice-journeyman-master levels of practitioner

development provide a reliable framework and illustrate the concept of scaffolding comprehensive skills in a career-long process, which builds upon one level of competency and progresses from one level to the next. However, skill scaffolding also takes place in a more dynamic, lateral and unplanned fashion.

Scaffolding is involved in the learning of almost all complex skills. When it is more expedient to build upon simpler skills, step-by-step scaffolding elegantly extends the original basic skills into more elaborate and refined technical procedures. Some examples of skill scaffolding are: repetitious practice of simpler parts of speech before engaging more complex parts when learning a language; getting familiar with how a car's brake and gas pedal work prior to the clutch and gear shifter; or practicing the steps, then the shot and finally the steps and the shot for a basketball lay-up. In all examples of scaffolding, greater attention to detail, deeper integration and more fluid demonstrations of complex skills invariably follow.

Presently, the field of corrections is inundated with sets of new staff techniques from EBPs such as drug courts, (Marlowe, 2009) MI, (Walters, Clark, Gingerich, & Meltzer, 2007) and Cognitive Behavioral Treatment (CBT), (Andrews, Dowden, & Gendreau, 1999; Dowden & Andrews, 2004; Linehan, 1993; Linehan et al., 2002) that require training, practice and coaching. Mastery in these techniques depends on practice and repeated feedback and guidance from practitioners who are capable



of modeling good examples of the skill techniques. An example is Chris Trotter's (Christopher Trotter, 1995) EBP model for role clarification in probation and parole (or anywhere there are non-voluntary clients under supervision). According to Trotter, when working with non-voluntary clients there are very few safe assumptions that can be held by either the worker or the client until thorough and reoccurring role clarification has taken place. Trotter's research suggests the following role issues, if systematically discussed, result in fewer conflicts, a more effective working relationship and lower recidivism:

- Purpose of supervision
- PO's dual role as law enforcement and supportive agent of change
- Offender/Client expectations of PO and supervision process
- Nature of PO's authority and how it can and cannot be used
- What is negotiable and what isn't
- A shared vision for the outcome of supervision
- Limits of confidentiality

The techniques necessary to foster good dialogue on the above topics need to be rehearsed and practiced in a manner that engenders feedback that ultimately can shape optimum use of the skills. As practitioners become proficient in groups of specific techniques, they can then bundle them into separate interventions or steps in their repertoire of supervision tactics. The challenge for the field today is to identify and establish a lexicon of best practice skills sets. Corrections practitioners must be able to talk

about a clearly defined and shared set of ideas quickly and efficiently with colleagues in order to sustain their EBP work.

Agencies that are committed to the ongoing scaffolding of skills in all staff are moving in the direction of high reliability organizations (HROs) – agencies (e.g., aircraft carriers, nuclear reactor plants, firefighters, SWOT teams, etc.) that successfully deal with potential disaster or catastrophe on a near daily basis. HROs share a common set of principles (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2001) that promote ongoing, nuanced learning:

- Preoccupation with Failure
- Reluctance to Simplify
- Sensitivity to Operations
- Commitment to Resilience
- Deference to Expertise

While all the HRO principles are relevant to developing and maintaining a hierarchy of recognizable and valued skills within staff, the final principle listed above - deference to expertise – is noteworthy. Expertise in EBPs and their related skill sets doesn't correlate so much with one's position in the hierarchy of an organization as it does with depth of experience, commitment to the skills and willingness to use feedback to forge further skill development. The latter attributes are just as apt to be found in the maintenance crew as in the administrative staff. This, therefore, places a premium on recognizing when and where someone has some unique expertise. Sheila, the woman featured in the story prefacing this article, had a turning point when she recognized a greater depth of skills in her co-worker Greg and genuine

expertise in a supervisor named Paul.

When line officers (or case managers) resolve and integrate the potentially conflicting law enforcement, social worker and resource broker roles they are inducted into while supervising non-voluntary clients and, moreover, begin to see themselves as the intervention, they are positioned to derive the utmost benefit from skill scaffolding. They also have the greatest stake in becoming master level practitioners. Historically, probation and parole officers have had difficulty in integrating law enforcement and case worker roles associated with their case management functions (Petersilia & Turner, 1993). In addition, a third role, resource broker, has emerged as the role that officers identify with most strongly in the field today (Bogue, Pampel, & Merrion, 2008; Shearer, 2001). All three roles are necessary to provide effective community supervision and none of these role adaptations is alone sufficient to make a good officer. Officers who learn how to integrate these roles in a balanced manner that allows them to adjust their orientation flexibly from one client to the next are positioned well to explore how their supervision and service skills amount to an effective intervention, irrespective of any other outside services an offender receives.

Probably no other human service workers are better equipped to have motivational conversations with offenders about their specific criminogenic issues than POs and community corrections staff. POs trained and skilled in third-generation offender assessments, who are proficient in MI and

adept and familiar with CBT techniques are imminently prepared to hold the kinds of conversations with people on supervision that research (J. Bonta et al., 2010; Marlowe, 2009; Miller & Rollnick, 2002) suggests effects change. However, not only are the latter skills complex, the practitioner must learn to integrate them at progressively deeper levels (Brad Bogue, Diebel, & O'Connor, 2008), to be congruent and capable of flexibly adjusting to the range of myriad situations one confronts in a caseload of high-risk offenders. This learning requires lots of staff practice and motivation.

Learning and adopting an MI style of interaction generally requires staff to work on two fronts. First and foremost is the MI Spirit component, the individual staff member's manner of being with clients. The second learning dimension involves the technical client-centered as well counselor-directed skills. The former can often represent some "adaptive" change challenges for staff, as they learn to reconceive themselves and their roles with clients. The latter technical skills however, depend more on guided (coached) practice with feedback (tape critiques) than personal introspection. There are fidelity measures (Moyers, Martin, Manuel, Miller, & Ernst, 2007) with established thresholds for competency in both MI Spirit and technical skills.

The MI Spirit component of MI – a caring, respectful relationship - has consistently been emphasized by the authors (Miller & Rollnick - *Motivational Interviewing First Edition; Second Edition; Third Edition*). MI spirit involves an interest in partnering



with the client in a way that respects their autonomy and right to decide yes or no to any personal change. Keen interest in the client’s potential, ideas and solutions is another aspect or indicator of MI Spirit. Together, these three global indicators represent a manner of being with clients that isn’t particularly new; this way of being has been extolled on and off in the correctional literature for over 50 years as evidenced by the following quote from a 1961 Federal Probation article by Arthur Fink (Fink, 1961), where he notes that an officer’s effectiveness in working with offenders will depend upon:

his respect for them as human beings, with all of their shortcomings; his appreciation of the uniqueness of each person with whom he is working; his belief in the capacity of people to change; and his conviction that true change must come from within. As he works on these premises he can approach each of his parolees as individuals who have difficulties of a serious nature and who need help in getting themselves straightened out – and that he has the skill to help. (p. 38)

The MI Spirit denoted in the above quote can, at least in part, be measured based on taped supervision sessions, with a set of Global Clinical Ratings on tools the Motivational Interviewing Treatment Integrity (MITI-3), an international standard fidelity measure for MI.

The technical skills used in an MI style logically scaffold or build upon one another. The active or reflective listening skills (e.g., use of Open questions, Affirmations, Reflections and Summaries referred to as OARS) are fundamental skills used within all stages and processes of MI. Moreover the OARS skill set is a prerequisite for developing other essential counselor directive skills that serve to guide interactions out of discord and elicit change reinforcing

statements (change talk) from clients. Causal-chain analysis and other sophisticated research (Moyers & Martin, 2006; Amrhein, 2004; Moyers et al., 2007), indicate that certain skill sets are positively correlated with intermediate outcomes like client change talk. Furthermore, this research suggests

| 1. Behavior Count or Summary Score Thresholds | 1. Beginning Proficiency | 2.Competency |
|---|--------------------------|--------------|
| 1. MITI Global Clinician Ratings | Average of 3.5 | Average of 4 |
| 2. Reflection to Question Ratio (R:Q) | 1 | 2 |
| 3. Percent Open Questions (%OC) | 50% | 70% |
| 4. Percent Complex Reflections (%CR) | 40% | 50% |
| 5. Percent MI-Adherent (%MIA) | 90% | 100% |

there are competency ranges for the various MI technical skills and thresholds and that practitioners with skill code ratings above certain thresholds, are more likely to obtain better outcomes. Therefore training and coaching staff to competency on the following established thresholds for the MITI-3 (Moyers et al., 2007) becomes a desirable, albeit ambitious goal.


MITI-3 THRESHOLDS FOR MI COMPETENCY

The EPIC strategy for effectively scaffolding staff MI skills entails an iterative cycle of submitting session tapes to raters trained in the MITI rating protocols, receiving detailed graphic and narrative personal feedback, phone-coaching sessions followed by face-to-face, on-site coaching involving real staff-client interactions. This cycle generally takes between six to twelve weeks for staff to complete and it invariably shows significant documented improvements in their skills. The goal of this strategy was to bring over 50 percent of the original 84 staff participants to full competency (above thresholds for all the above five measures). The MITI skill raters and coaches were initially provided by an outside purveyor, until the internal capacity for performing these functions was developed across the various departments.

In order for staff to scaffold up the diverse kinds of skills required, they must draw upon intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation and reinforcement to perform certain tasks well comes from within and provides inner gratification that sustains staff in persevering until they have accomplished a task. External motivation

such as monetary rewards, recognition for the team or the individual and anticipated removal of management pressure also serves to get staff engaged and on task. Different people doing the same tasks draw differently upon intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In self-determination theory, (Ryan & Deci, 2000) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are conjectured to be on opposite ends of a continuum. If a person is primarily intrinsically motivated to perform a specific task or duty, he or she will tend not to be strongly influenced by extrinsic rewards, and vice versa. The primary differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is that the former tends to evoke discretionary effort beyond the minimally required task and extrinsic motivation does not. In fact, once extrinsic reinforcements are removed, the behaviors they reinforced quickly dissipate. Consequently, organizations that can support both intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcements for staff to pursue extraordinary levels of performance are likely to develop staff with more mastery, who can then mentor others.

Developing an organization's capacity to support both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for staff development is a complex subject beyond the scope of this paper. Suffice it to say that the more the organization subscribes to values that coincide with active learning, transparency and egalitarian notions of people in general, the easier it will be to develop this capacity. A key for organizations to align their socio-technical environment to support greater staff development is creating parallel (learning) organizations within or outside the organization that enable staff to interact unconstrained by typical chain-of-



command or authority rules. The agencies that can foster “holding environments,” safe havens, in which deep coaching and personal development can take place, will ultimately excel in systematically providing reinforcement for both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to their staff.

ORGANIZATIONAL TRANSPARENCY

Transparency is at the heart of the EPIC project vision. All the project’s key assumptions are related to making roles, skills, motivation and organizational culture more visible:

- intense cross-training will enhance more kinds of diverse, reflective and flexible staff thinking;
- repetitive coaching based on direct observation of in-context (office) skills will build deeper skills;
- highly visible inter-departmental structures (transformation and implementation teams) will promote inter-agency accountability.

At the individual staff level, transparency is a prerequisite for learning the complex skills necessary for supporting EBPs. The individual must receive the feedback and coaching that is essential for shaping complex new skills. Thus, there is a need for staff not only to see expertise being modeled, but also a need for the staff themselves to be seen as they practice so that they can receive appropriate (i.e., reasonably accurate, relevant and supportive) feedback. This kind of learning requires humility and/or trust on the part of the individual seeking feedback and assumes other co-workers are ready, willing and able to provide helpful feedback. These

preconditions are sometimes not readily available in corrections organizations.

In order to foster the above conditions, organizations need to be willing to explore and work at transforming existing collegial norms that don’t support feedback and peer coaching (e.g., “What I do with my caseload is my business, what you do with yours is your business”) into shared values and routines that do support open learning, no matter how awkward. This takes initiative at all levels of the organization because it’s a process that requires action – modeling transparency – more than discussion. In Sheila’s story there was a pivotal point when she had a debate inside herself over whether to expose her limited skills to new co-workers. Had she been unwilling to do this she would have missed the opportunity to engage a new Community of Practice (CoP), and these CoPs are where the learning and diffusion of learning ultimately takes place.

CoPs are pervasive within and without organizations. Anywhere an informal group of people participate in a joint enterprise via mutual engagement with a shared repertoire of tools and skills, there is a CoP (Wenger, 1998; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). The joint enterprise can be as mundane as new members learning the ropes in a local food co-op or co-workers helping one another cope in a difficult work environment or it can also be a group driven to some higher purpose, such as a network invested in pushing back global warming or POs invested in introducing best practices, EBPs and related skills into their agencies.

Because CoPs are dependent on mutual engagement for immediate feedback and problem-solving assistance, they tend to work around or in spite of formal hierarchies. Rather than top-down directives, CoPs are inspired more by community development models that maintain a grass-roots sense of connection. The informal nature of CoPs helps its members avoid standing on protocol and therefore enables folks to share and learn more freely in the nitty-gritty moment. And this is how CoPs promote transparency at the most granular level possible in the organization, one co-worker to the next.

Every CoP shares a common repertoire of tools, techniques, methods and tips that help the respective members achieve success in their joint enterprise. The scope and richness of these tool kits varies with the mission of each CoP. As mentioned above, currently there is a tremendous confluence of EBP skills and knowledge from various research and practice streams in corrections. However, there is also an emergent, formative quality or aspect to many of these practices, especially as they center on the-officer-as-intervention. CoPs that are beginning to focus on officer EBP skill-building may initially find it challenging to identify their priority tools and artifacts.

One top-down strategy for supporting CoPs that promises some success is the use of acceleration pools that deliberately identify a select group of staff that meet a profile associated with potential leadership talent. The selected staff, in turn, forms their own CoPs, which model terrific parallel learning organizations for the organization. The

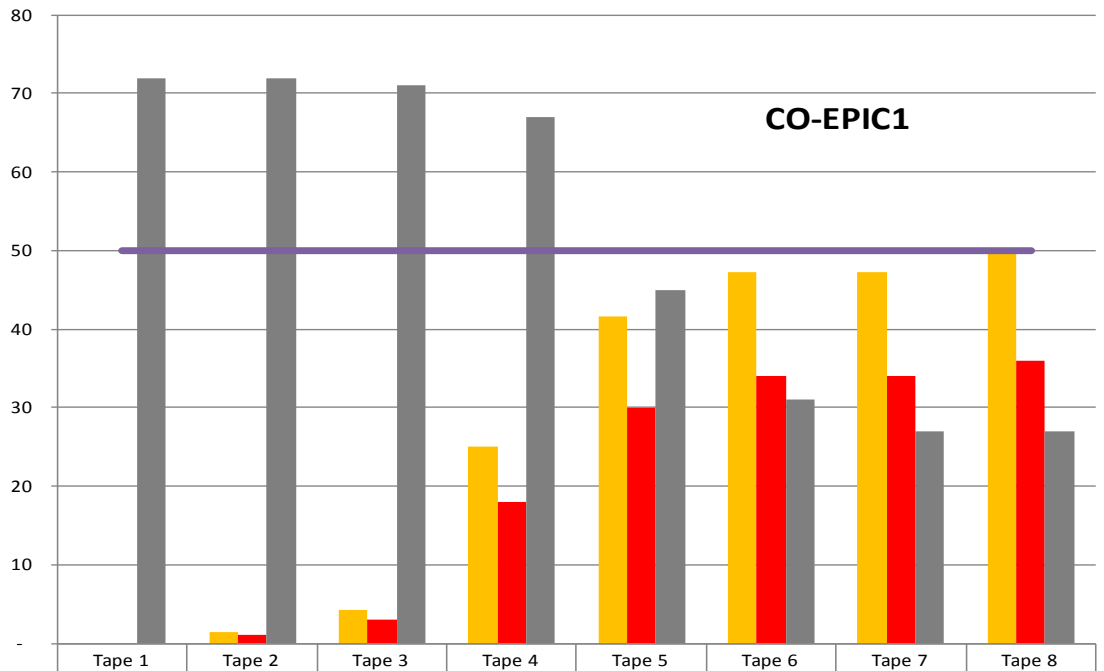
organization benefits from both individual as well as collective CoP modeling skill acquisition in specific, predetermined directions consistent with their mission.

Another aspect of transparency comes into play at a deeper level. When organizations begin to truly commit to supporting EBPs, they learn about developing greater congruency between their espoused values, models and actual practices. The more congruent an agency is, the more likely its clients will perceive it to be fair and to maintain procedural justice. Perceptions of procedural justice have been shown to be related to client receptivity and responsiveness to promising or EBP interventions (Kleiman, 1998). There seems to be a threshold effect for fairness. When clients perceive the procedural justice within an organization or system to be below a minimum expectation, they tend to disregard or discount all interventions taking place with that jurisdiction or setting.

Finally, transparency is necessary to identify the right people. If the competency and skills of line staff and mid-managers are not sufficiently visible to upper management, it becomes problematic to appoint projects and promote staff into the right positions. Agencies that lack adequate means for assessing performance are perennially handicapped when it comes to aligning human resources. In a similar fashion, it is also problematic to complete training needs assessments and gap analysis for future human resource needs. All organizations have talented staff to one degree or another, but not all can pinpoint or appropriately



CA Progress Achieving Competency (Submitted Tapes That Were Rated At MITI Thresholds, Plus Coach Approval)



| | Tape 1 | Tape 2 | Tape 3 | Tape 4 | Tape 5 | Tape 6 | Tape 7 | Tape 8 |
|---|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| ■ % of CA's at Competency | | 1 | 4 | 25 | 42 | 47 | 47 | 50 |
| ■ Cumulative # CA at Competency | - | 1 | 3 | 18 | 30 | 34 | 34 | 36 |
| ■ Number of CA's Completed Tape | 72 | 72 | 71 | 67 | 45 | 31 | 27 | 27 |
| — To Scale Line | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 |

utilize their staff talent. Agencies that can showcase their talent, such as Teach for America, the Peace Corps or top athletic teams, can also attract more talent, irrespective of their financial remuneration.

CONCLUSION

This article explains why the EPIC project is basing a pilot staff development system on three overlapping principles: collaboration; scaffolding within a hierarchy of competency and skills sets and, transparency of operations. These principles are likely interdependent and cyclical. Good collaboration invites diversity and new, better ideas and innovation. Innovation begets more skill acquisition and vice versa. Skill acquisition requires and engenders more transparency, which in turn invites more collaboration. Staff development systems can take many forms but regardless of the form, they will invariably benefit from adherence to these three principles.

The EPIC project in Colorado is a joint collaboration between four different state government departments to intentionally and strategically build their respective capacities for implementation. This project wields a multi-pronged strategy that engages staff skills, roles and motivation, as well as the organizational cultures within 17 different local agency pilot sites. There is no precedent for such a capacity-building initiative in criminal justice systems; careful measures are being collected to better understand the value and impact of establishing this model for future EBP implementation throughout the state.

While the final analysis and evaluation of this project is far from complete, scale-up (when over 50 percent of the staff selected to go to competency achieve it through independent, trained raters) was achieved December 9, 2011, approximately 16 months after initial MI training began. On average, participants required four to five cycles of taping and coaching to make it to competency. There is no evidence in the research literature that scale-up, according to these criteria for MI competency, has ever previously been achieved. »»»

ENDNOTES

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