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A Guide for Mentoring Programs in Police Departments

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A GUIDE FOR MENTORING PROGRAMS

IN POLICE DEPARTMENTS

by

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A Research Project Presented in Partial Fulfillment
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Master of Education

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ABSTRACT

A Guide to Mentoring Programs for Police Departments

For many years law enforcement organizations have struggled to recruit personnel. At the same time, local community members have demanded that these same law enforcement organizations adapt their organizations to reflect the communities that they serve. In this project, the author reviewed programs utilized by other organizations and a limited number of police departments. After reviewing literature on mentoring programs, this author developed a best practices model mentoring program for police departments and included successful techniques that departments can use to tailor a program according to the needs of their community.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

No one can dispute that it is very stressful when one begins a new job.

According to the Staff (1997) of *Management Review*, one of four employers reported

that they had fired a new employee within the first week, and some employees were

discharged within the first day. According to a survey of 187 companies of varying sizes

and industries conducted by Caliper (Staff), a Princeton based human resources

consulting firm, 3 months was the soonest that a majority (30%) of the respondents

would wait to discharge a worker. Another 22% reported that the soonest they would act

was in the first month, and 21% reported that they would act in the first week. In this

same survey, four of five employers reported that they had been able to turn around a

failing employee and keep him or her in the company. The most effective methods to

accomplish this were: (a) specific performance suggestions, (b) change of the

employee's responsibilities, and (c) mentoring (Staff).

Through the provision of training and equipment, police department managers

invest time and money in new employees. Every day that an officer is on the job costs

the agency or organization. In law enforcement organizations, it may take a long time for

an officer to gain the trust and respect of senior officers. In addition, few administrators

seem to have concerned themselves with the idea that their organization needs to earn the

trust and respect of new employees as well. A few departments, based on the recognition

that the first weeks of a recruit's career can mean success or failure for employees and

agencies alike, have initiated mentoring programs for new employees (Edmundson, 1999).

Statement of Problem

The recruitment, hiring, and retention of quality personnel has emerged as a critical problem that faces law enforcement nationwide. The problem threatens to undermine the ability of law enforcement officers in the United States to protect its citizens and to reverse important gains in efforts to mirror the communities and representation on the forces of racial/ethnic minorities and women. The use of formal mentoring programs has received an increasing amount of attention over the past decade, at least in private industry. The findings from studies (Higgins & Thomas, 2001; Noe, Greenberger, & Wang 2002; both cited in Johnson, 2007) on mentoring participation have identified a variety of benefits for both employees and organizations. Some of the most important benefits were: (a) career advancement, (b) career success, (c) job satisfaction, (d) organizational commitment, (e) competence, (f) achievement, (g) self-esteem, (h) retention, and (i) diversity (Egan & Song, 2008). Good intention is not enough anymore. It is vital that commanding officers of paramilitary law enforcement organizations continue to utilize mentoring programs and tailor these programs, based on best practices, for the law enforcement community.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of this project was to develop a guide for the members of law enforcement organizations in the use of mentoring programs to support: (a) personnel retention, (b) career success, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) performance. In this guide, the author addresses the advantages of mentoring programs and identifies the best practices

in mentoring programs, specifically for law enforcement. In order to identify these practices, it is necessary to review and examine successful practices and programs and how these practices and programs can be utilized in the law enforcement arena.

Chapter Summary

In summary, it is this author's position that mentoring programs are a valuable tool for employee retention and performance, and when utilized correctly, they can help police department administrators to retain not only minority candidates, but also quality candidates. Unfortunately, many successful mentoring programs have been designed and tested in the private business sector. It is more difficult to implement these types of programs in police departments because the candidates must first complete a rigorous training academy, and their work is continuously monitored by the citizens that they serve. A guide which consists of best practices and is tailored specifically for public safety agencies can help administrators implement a mentoring program. In Chapter 2, the Review of Literature, the researcher provides evidence to support this objective and identifies the important factors that pertain to the development of effective and best practices for a mentoring program.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this project was to provide a guide for law enforcement agencies

to implement an effective and best practices Mentoring Program. According to

Hittleman and Simon (2006), comprehensive reviews of research, or reviews of literature,

are important to end-users because they: (a) provide overviews of the research related to

the particular problem area, (b) provide information about the types of research designs

used to study the problem, (c) identify and define key terms related to the problem area,

(d) provide insights about the appropriateness of the research producer's methodology,

and (e) interpret the results from a group of research studies dealing with a research

problem area. The goal of this review of literature is to provide the reader with the

history, theories, as well as the extent to which mentoring programs have been researched

and implemented, so that administrators can make conscious and educated decisions on

how to most effectively implement or improve mentoring programs.

The use of mentoring programs and mentorships has continued to evolve, both in

the private business sector and academic arena. An increasing amount of attention has

been given to mentoring in the past decade. According to Egan and Song (2008), studies

conducted by various researchers (Chao, Walz, & Gardner 1992; Ragins & Cotton, 1991;

Ragins & Scandura, 1994; all cited in Egan & Song) indicated that as many as two-thirds

of employees have engaged in some type of mentoring relationship with positive results.

Individuals with mentors reported: (a) more promotions, (b) higher incomes, (c) more

opportunities, and (d) higher job satisfaction (Budge, 2006). In educational

organizations, such as public schools, mentoring and mentorships have been used as a

method to improve teacher and student retention. With students, mentoring programs

have helped, not only with minority student retention, but also to improve graduation

rates. In health care institutions, mentoring and mentorships have been used to retain

nurses and for training. In private industry, business managers have utilized mentoring

programs to enhance: (a) productivity, (b) recruitment, and (c) opportunities for

employees to develop talents.

It is important to look at past programs and implementation in order to determine

the best practices for the implementation and improvement of mentoring programs. Only

recently, the administrators of law enforcement agencies have begun to look at the

advantages of mentoring programs and have started to implement them on a small scale,

with the use of different models. For this project, the author developed a best practices

guide and borrowed from programs utilized in: (a) academia, (b) private business, (c)

nursing, (d) teaching, and (e) other organizations. These best practices are adapted to fit

into the law enforcement field. The purpose of this project was to develop a guide to

provide officer and administrators of law enforcement agencies, specifically police

departments, with tried techniques and best practices in order to develop their own

mentoring programs.

What Is Mentoring?

Some researchers, such as Johnson (2007) and Sprafka and Kranda (n.d.) seem to

agree that the term, mentoring, originated from the Homeric poem, *The Odyssey*. The

word, mentor, is traced to an Ithican noble who was entrusted with Telemachus, the son

of the king of Ithica, Ulysses. When Ulysses went to fight in the Trojan War, he left his

son to be raised by the noble, Mentor. Mentor was meant to represent wisdom and to

serve as: (a) teacher, (b) protector, and (c) counselor. Later, the goddess, Athena

assumed Mentor's form to "advise and protect Telemachus during critical junctures in his

own coming of age travels" (Johnson, p. 18).

According to Hansman (2000), in fact, mentoring did have its roots in Greek

mythology, but that it was Zeus who went to fight and left his son Telemachus with the

goddess Athene; again, it was Athene who transformed into the male, Mentor, to

complete the task of guiding and coaching. According to Hansman, Athene had to take

the form of a man in order to mentor Telemachus. As a result, the myth reflects the

"hegemonic notions" (p. 496) that only men can serve as role models and teach others in

mentoring relationships. Johnson and Howe (2003, as quoted in Johnson, 2007)

disagreed with this assessment, they believed that the Athenian transformation, which

characterized the representation of Mentor, represented a "caretaking archetype of male

and female qualities" (p. 18).

The idea, or concept, of learning the ropes from another is not a new concept.

Recently, behavioral scientists have recently become interested in the study of mentoring

relationships. According to Campbell and Campbell (2007), a review of the *PsycINFO*

database showed that the word, Mentor, rarely appeared in an abstract before 1975. By

the late 1980s, Mentor appeared in about 15 articles per year; by 1995, it appeared in 45

articles; and by 2005, it appeared in 120 articles. Often, mentoring is understood as

integral: (a) to learning in the workplace, (b) to receiving career help, and (c) to

developmental and psychosocial support (Hansman, 2000).

Mentoring Defined

Zey (1984, as quoted in Budge, 2006) defined a mentor as someone "who oversees the career and development of another person, usually a junior, through teaching, counseling, providing psychological support, protecting, and at times promoting or sponsoring" (p. 7). Hansman (2000) quoted Caffarella (1993) and defined a mentoring relationship as "intense caring relationships in which persons with more experience, work with less experienced persons to promote both professional and personal development" (p. 493).

Bierema and Merriam (2002, as cited in Budge, 2006) conducted a literature search and found eight different definitions of mentoring: (a) a more advanced or experienced individual who guides a less experienced individual; (b) an older individual guides a younger individual; (c) a faculty member guides a student; (d) an individual provides academic advising; (e) an individual shares his or her experience with another individual; (f) an experienced individual guides a group of individuals; and (g) an experienced older individual guides a younger, less experienced individual via Internet resources.

According to Johnson (2007), mentoring is a common, sometimes over used term that implies different forms and activities depending on the organization, profession, and individuals involved. Also, within the mentoring literature, there is little agreement in regard to the most fundamental properties of genuine mentorship. Writers and researchers on the topic have used so many definitions, that mentoring can refer to several types of interpersonal relationships. Thomas (2003, as quoted in Johnson) preferred to use the phrase, "developmental relationships" (p. 20) in place of mentoring.

He cited a developmental relationship as: "a relationship that provided needed support for the enhancement of an individual's career development and organizational experience" (p. 20).

Advantages of Mentoring

Yale University researcher, Levinson is credited with renewed interest in mentoring in the late 1970s when he referred to mentorship as, "the most important relationship of young adulthoods" (p. 4, Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinon, & McKee, 1978, as quoted in Johnson, 2007). According to Johnson, subsequent research by Bush (1985), Green and Bauer, (1995), Schlosser, Knox Moskovitz, and Hill, (2003, all cited in Johnson) lent strong support to Levinson's claim that, in business and academia, a good developmental relationship such as a mentorship could promote "socialization, learning, career advancement, psychological adjustment, and preparation for leadership" (p. 4).

In order to distinguish mentoring from other forms of relationship, Johnson (2007) assembled a list of common themes and distinctive components of mentor relationships developed from reviews of the mentoring literature (Barnett, 1984; Bode, 1999; Healy & Welchert, 1990; Jacobi, 1991; Kram, 1985; Stafford & Robbins, 1991; Wright & Wright, 1987; all cited in Johnson). The common themes identified by Johnson were: (a) mentorships are enduring personal relationships; (b) mentorships are reciprocal relationships; (c) mentors demonstrate greater achievement and experience; (d) mentors provide protégés with direct career assistance; (e) mentors provide protégés with social and emotional support; (f) mentors serve as models; (g) mentoring results in an identity transformation; (h) mentorships offer a safe harbor for self-exploration; and (i) mentorships are extremely beneficial, yet all too infrequent.

Budge (2006) cited Baugh, Lankau, and Scandura (1966) and Fergenson-Eland, Marks, and Amendola (1997), who demonstrated that "mentoring is an important career training and development tool that socializes employees into the organization, lowers work stress, and increases mentors and mentees' self efficacy and self esteem" (p. 72).

Types of Mentoring

Mentoring can be broken down into formal and informal mentoring relationships. According to Egan and Song (2007), often, informal mentoring relationships occur through "mutual initiation and ongoing connections between protégé and mentor" (p. 352). Typically, informal relationships occur over time without any external intervention or planning and are dependent upon the relationship developed between the mentor and protégé. These types of relationships can last for many years (Hansman, 2000). In informal mentoring, usually, relationships are not guided by any external expectations. Mentors and mentees choose with whom they may want to work.

According to Horkey (1997, as cited in Hansman, 2000), members of the American Management Association concluded that structured or formal mentoring programs have become the preferred way to address problems and challenges within organizations. Usually, formal mentoring relationships are initiated by organizational representatives and involve the assignment of employees or managers to mentor protégé pairings. Normally, formal mentoring relationships last for a period of 6-12 months and are driven by organizational facilitators who often set expectations or goals (Egan & Song, 2007).

According to Budge (2006), there is an additional distinction between traditional and nontraditional mentoring. Budge defined traditional mentoring as "an informal

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relationship between two white men where the mentor is assumed to be older and more experienced" (p. 77). Budge did not explain or indicate why traditional mentoring would take place only between white men. However, Hansman (2000) may have answered for Budge when she explained that, just as Athene took on the male image of Mentor to guide Telemachus, in the real world of organizations and academia, currently, the persons with power, who serve as mentors, may be primarily white males.

Budge (2000) defined nontraditional mentoring as "any other type of relationship that deviates from the model" (p. 77). Based on their research findings, Raabe and Beehr (2003) reported that a coworker relationship could be considered an informal mentoring relationship. Coworkers are hierarchical peers with the mentee, and unlike most formal mentors and supervisors, they have different goals and relationships with each other. The coworker does not have any formal advantage over the mentee and is likely to wield only informal social influence. Typically, the coworker/peer will not see it as part of his or her official role to direct the work and develop the skills or careers of their coworkers. However, they will offer direct advice and information on how to: (a) accomplish goals, (b) inform each other of potential chances for advancement, and (c) socially reinforce either good or bad work behaviors.

<center>Mentoring and Adult Education Principles</center>

Traditionally, learning has been primarily a face-to-face interaction, with the use of correspondence or telephone conversation to supplement the contact (Zachary, 2000). However, the use of modern technology has improved the opportunity for contact, and long distance mentoring is much more common than in the past. Learning is the fundamental process and the primary purpose of mentoring, and one of the reasons that

mentoring relationships fail is that the learning process is not considered, and the focus on learning goals is not maintained. According to Zachary, the focus of mentoring has shifted, and it has evolved from a "product oriented model, characterized by the transfer of knowledge, to a process oriented relationship involving knowledge acquisition, application, and critical reflection" (p. 4). In addition, Zachary stated, "today's mentor is a facilitative partner in an evolving learning relationship focused on meeting mentee learning goals and objectives" (p. xx).

Zachary (2000) identified several best practices/principles of mentoring. He found that, in addition to their expertise and experience, mentors must be familiar with specific process skills in order to effectively facilitate the learning process. Challenge, support, and vision, as well as learning style, play a critical role in the facilitation of the learning process. Also, the role of experience was an important ingredient in the mentor/mentee relationship. A mentor for all situations and every person is an unrealistic expectation. A better situation is for the mentee to have multiple mentors over the lifetime of the mentoring relationship or even at the same time. Based on these mentoring principles, Zachary developed a paradigm or model of mentoring, and incorporated andragogical principles of adult learning, which he attributed to the work of Knowles (1980) and Brookfield (1986, both cited in Zachary) into the facilitation process.

Zachary's Learner-Centered Mentoring Paradigm

According to Zachary (2000), the phrase, learning partnership, is synonymous with the learner-centered mentoring paradigm. The mentor is considered the facilitator, as the mentor will enable the interactive process involved in facilitation of the adult

learning process. Instead of the mentor taking full responsibility for the learning, the mentee must learn to: (a) share responsibility for the learning; (b) set priorities, learning, and resources; and (c) become more self-directed. If the mentee is not ready to assume this responsibility, the mentor will nurture and develop the mentee's capacity for self-direction over the course of the relationship. As the learning partnership evolves, the mentoring partners share the responsibility for achievement of the mentee's goals.

Zachary (2000) incorporated the current best mentoring practice with the learning principles developed by Knowles (1980, as cited in Zachary). Those adult learning principles identified by Knowles were: (a) adults learn best when they are involved and can diagnose, plan, implement, and evaluate their own learning; (b) the role of the facilitator is to create and maintain a supportive climate that promotes conditions necessary for learning to take place; (c) adult learners have a need to be self-serving; (d) readiness for learning increases when there is a specific need to know; (e) the life experience of others enrich the learning process; (f) adult learners have an inherent need for immediacy of application; and (g) adults respond best to learning when they are internally motivated to learn.

Based on Knowles' (1980) adult learning points, Zachary (2000) developed a useful table, which incorporates the mentoring element and what Zachary called the changing paradigm (see Appendix A). Zachary determined that mentoring could be separated into seven different parts or elements. Those elements are the: (a) mentee role, (b) mentor role, (c) learning process, (d) length of relationship, (e) mentoring relationship, (f) setting, and (g) focus. According to Zachary, the phrase, "learning partnership" (p. 3), is part of what he called the "learner centered mentoring paradigm"

(p. 3), which he maintained is grounded in knowledge about adult learning. The paradigm is how mentoring elements are utilized. In the case of mentoring, the mentee plays a more active role in the learning than in the former mentor driven paradigm, even if the mentee was recruited by the mentor.

Acknowledgment of Learning Styles

Being knowledgeable about a mentee's learning style can help a mentor facilitate the learning relationship. The information will assist the mentor to know when to step forward and when to hold back, and how to use specific learning styles that help to facilitate the learning process (Zachary, 2000). Some general guidelines cited by Zachary that relate to learning styles are: (a) pace the learning, (b) time the developmental intervention, (c) work toward collaborative learning, (d) keep the focus on learning, (e) build the relationship first, and (d) structure the process.

Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner (2007) believed that the literature, which describes cognitive and learning style, is confusing, and some authors use these terms interchangeably, while others view cognitive style as the more encompassing term. Still, others find learning style to be a more inclusive term. According to Merriam et al., there was "no common definition of learning style" (p. 407). According to Toye (1989, as quoted in Merriam et al.), learning style "attempts to explain learning variation between individuals in the way they approach learning tasks" (p. 226). Cranton (2005, as quoted in Merriam et al.) defined learning styles as "preferences for certain conditions or ways of learning where learning means the development of meaning, values, skills, and strategies" (p. 362).

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Brookfield (1986, as cited in Zachary, 2000) reported that one important element in the facilitation of adult learning is to help learners become aware of their own idiosyncratic learning styles. Zachary maintained that learning style refers to "the pattern of preferred responses a person uses in a learning situation" (p. 23). Caffarella and Merriam (2000) identified two important dimensions to the contextual approach to learning, *interactive* and *structural*. In the interactive dimension, it is acknowledged that learning is a product of the individual's interaction with the context. The most effective learning is that which takes place in authentic, real life situations. The structural dimension of context takes into consideration the social and cultural factors that affect learning, such as: (a) race, (b) gender, (c) ethnicity, (d) power, and (e) oppression.

Cranton (2005, as cited in Merriam et al., 2007) identified at least six approaches to learning style in the adult education literature: (a) experience, (b) social interaction, (c) personality, (d) multiple intelligences and emotional intelligence, (e) perceptions, and (f) conditions or needs. According to Myers (1985 as cited in Merriam et al.), the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is the most often used measure to assess learning styles based on psychological type preferences. Learners' visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learning preferences are the main focus of the perceptions approach to the determination of learning styles. Often this approach is considered to be what learning styles means.

<div align="center">Cross Mentoring</div>

According to Zachary (2000), the culturally constructed nature of relationships can surface in cross-cultural mentoring relationships. Cross cultural barriers can consist of more than language or word meaning. Also, other barriers, such as distance, could affect the relationship. The biggest barrier is cultural, which has to do with how that

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person sees the world as well as how that person acts in it. The uniqueness of one person's values, in contrast to those of someone else, can affect the interaction that takes place in a learning relationship. For instance, the word, mentor, could be closely related to teacher, supervisor, or expert in another cultural context, or the word may not translate directly, or it could connote a negative association because of the perception that seeking a mentor is a sign of weakness. In other cultures, the expectation is that the teacher must initiate contact, and communication is directly tied to credibility and control. In some cultures, the terms, teacher and mentor, are interchangeable. In this instance, a mentee's perception of the teacher might affect openness and directness of communication, or how conflict is resolved.

According to Zachary (2000), effectiveness in a cross cultural relationship depends on four elements: (a) a mentor's cross-cultural competency, (b) a flexible cultural lens, (c) well honed communication skills, and (d) an authentic desire to understand how culture affects the individuals engaged in the relationship. In mentoring relationships, it is important in the early part of the relationship to spend some time talking about how the relationship will proceed.

Cross Race Mentoring in the Educational Setting

Like Anglo American students, often, racial minority students express a preference for an advisor or mentor of the same race (Johnson, 2007). In fact, according to Tillman (2001, as cited in Johnson), racial similarity is one of the strongest matching variables in informal mentoring. Unfortunately, according to Brinson and Kottler (1993), Kalbfleisch and Davies (1991), Tillman (2001), and the University of Michigan (1999, all cited in Johnson), racial and ethnic minority students face serious challenges when they

obtain and utilize faculty mentors during: (a) college, (b) graduate school, and (c) early in their own careers. Even though the administrators of many educational institutions recognize that it is important to recruit and retain minority scholars, there are still a disproportionately small number of minority scholars, especially in the upper tenured ranks. A related problem is that racial and ethnic students have some of the highest dropout rates in the nation (Bowman, Kite, Branscombe, & Williams, 1999, as cited in Johnson).

Bowman et al. (1999, as quoted in Johnson, 2007) stated that "the ability to identify with others in the educational context who share one's *stigmatizing condition* can be an important source of emotional well being, alleviating feelings of aloneness and isolation" (p. 166). Unfortunately, if minority students wait for a same race mentor, they are less likely to be mentored at all; however, once formed, cross race mentorships are as helpful and satisfying as same race mentorships (Johnson,).

Cross Gender Mentoring

According to Budge (2006), the concept of mentoring has always been dominated by "traditional notions of men guiding men in their pursuit of success" (p. 9). Budge claimed that the focus of a mentoring research study conducted by Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978, as cited in Budge) was with men only. Budge credited the Levinson et al. findings as a valuable contribution to the understanding of how, frequently, mentoring relationships occurred, and how much these relationships contribute to success; however, she maintained the research findings posed two problems for future researchers. The two problems mentioned by Budge were: (a) the lack of external validity, and (b) the reaffirmation of traditional gender norms.

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Budge (2006) believed that an understanding of the concept of gender was important to realize why stereotypes and barriers have existed in mentoring. The concept began by being born male or female and the cultural meaning that accompanies one's sex. Gender stereotypes and socialization practices shape the way in which individuals interact with one another. According to Budge, mentoring is a good example of a relationship where gender stereotypes are manifested. The perception is that women lack desirable traits, such as leadership, emotional control, assertiveness, and competitiveness, and are less likely to be considered for mentoring relationships within the organizational setting. Also, women were perceived as either too passive when they seek a mentor relationship or too assertive which means that women were perceived as too aggressive.

According to Long (1994, as cited in Budge, 2006), many authors who have addressed cross gender mentoring have theorized or analyzed studies that showed cross gender mentoring to be unsupportive and dysfunctional. Among the reasons given were that women mentees may feel some uneasiness in a mentoring relationship with males due to sexual apprehension and fears of public inquiry about the relationship. According to Cullen and Luna (1993, as cited in Budge) and Ensher and Murphy (1997, as cited in Budge) one of the most cited reasons of same gender mentoring is that female role models appear to be more important for women than men.

According to Bova's (2000, as cited in Budge, 2006) study, cross gender and cross cultural mentor relationships in the organization allowed for an examination of stereotypes and perceptions concerning differences and, also, allowed for the improvement of communication between the mentor and mentee. Also, Sosik and Godshalk (2006, as cited in Budge) found that mentees in cross gender mentoring

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relationships reported more psychosocial support from their mentors than mentees in same gender mentoring relationships.

According to Campbell and Campbell (2007), of particular interest in business research was the role that mentoring played in the success of female managers. They cited a report by Raggins and Cotton (1991) in which it was found that, when women employees considered the establishment of a mentoring relationship, the perception of barriers to promotions motivated them more than it did men.

<center>Mentoring in Organizations</center>

The acceptance of mentoring programs, as a legitimate way to promote learning in the workplace and assist employees with career development, has given rise to a large number of formalized mentoring programs (Hansman, 2000). The potential advantages of a mentoring program for companies and administraotrs alike include: (a) an investment in leaders who then develop future leaders, (b) the opportunity to recruit and develop new talent that supports business growth, and (c) enhanced productivity for up and comers through one on one training and support (Greene, 2008).

An examination of how some of the concepts in formalized mentoring are realized in real world practice emphasizes questions and issues and provides opportunities for both organizations and individuals (Hansman, 2000). Formal mentoring program implementation may vary from a single intervention by the organization in which participants are simply provided a mentor/mentee match and asked to work together for given period of time, to programs that provide additional on going group facilitation or training to mentees (Egan & Song, 2007).

Mobil Oil

According to Cobb and Gibbs (1990, as quoted in Hansman, 2000), the professional Development Program at Mobil Oil has been used to "shape the process for developing job incumbents, and the structure of the programs to ensure the fulfillment of management's mission" (p. 499). Mobil managers began to develop their program in 1982 when they noticed that a number of older experienced engineers would be retiring, leaving a larger group of less experienced engineers and a shortage of mid level engineers.

Mobil Oil managers recognized that engineering problems and solving skills could be taught in the classroom; also, they recognized that it would take more than technical skills to solve on the job engineering problems (Hansman, 2000). In order to help young engineers learn how to diagnose problems, set priorities, understand organizational policies and realize consequences, a program was designed to provide practical on the job experience. The program began with a 3 day orientation workshop. Outcome goals were focused on key skills that differentiated between outstanding and average performance. The participants in the project involved: (a) engineering supervisors, (b) human resource representatives, (c) program sponsors, and (d) managers.

Participation in the program helped the young developing engineers and provided them with: (a) challenging assignments, (b) good role models, and (c) timely and comprehensive coaching (Hansman, 2000). The project required that: (a) the engineers be assessed on task and competency mastery; (b) they be provided with feedback during development discussion meetings between the engineers and their supervisors; (c)

developmental plans be designed to address deficiency in task and competency mastery, and (d) protégés be provided with supplementary resource guides.

Douglas Aircraft Company

Mentoring was a part of the long term strategic plan published by the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of Douglas Aircraft Company's parent company, McDonnell Douglas Corporation (Geiger-Dumond & Boyle, 1995). Management supported mentoring at the Douglas Aircraft Corporation because of the organizational belief that it improved future management potential and helped to shape future leaders (Geiger-Dumond & Boyle, 1995). Company officials believed that mentoring was an excellent means to disseminate knowledge from the most experienced employees to others throughout the organization (Hansman).

According to Geiger-Dumond and Boyle (1995), the formal mentoring program at Douglas Aircraft Company consisted of six steps: (a) high performance employees were identified and selected for the program, (b) selected employees were introduced into the mentoring program as a way to help define and write their own developmental objectives, (c) protégés were matched with executives who could help them meet their objectives; (d) before they became a mentor, potential mentors had to identify the knowledge and support they could provide to protégés, (e) mentors and protégés discussed and determined goals for their mentoring relationship, and (f) both the mentor and the supervisor reviewed the protégé's developmental objectives every 6 months. To prevent the program from becoming static, mentors and protégés met periodically in an evaluation process, which members of the steering committee used to revise and update the program.

According to Hansman (2000), the programs for both Mobile Oil and Douglas Aircraft reflected the interests of the corporations more than the participants. The mentoring programs had been designed to improve the capabilities of future management potential and help shape future leaders. Because the focus of the program was to shape future leaders, their interest in the development of only high potential employees was reflected in the selection of only high performing employees. Psychosocial elements were not part of mentoring programs at either company.

ABB Corporation

In order to bridge the gap between men and women, and blue and white collar workers, the ABB Corporation in Sweden launched a mentoring program within the company (Hansman, 2000). The mentoring program was designed specifically for women. The main goals were: (a) to encourage the development of self-knowledge; (b) to bolster the exchange of ideas, thoughts, and experiences through an increase in information flow within the organization; and (c) to help individuals understand how their work would fit into the company as a whole.

The program was open to all women employees, not just high performers, and 30% of those chosen to participate were blue collar workers, which reflected their representation in the workforce at ABB (Hansman, 2000). Instead of being matched with a mentor by human resources personnel, the protégés attended seminars to help them decide who they would select as their mentors. The protégés were encouraged to select mentors who were not their supervisors or in their line of command. Potential mentors were asked to serve by the human resource department.

After protégés chose their mentors, a second seminar, which included both protégés and mentors, was held to promote the ideas of mentoring and the benefits for both mentors and protégés (Hansman, 2000). Mentors and protégés then met at least once a month for 2-3 years. During these meetings, the company sponsored lunches for protégés and separate lunches for mentors to allow them to network and become acquainted with other employees throughout the organization. Formal meetings and lecture sessions were held at least four times a year for mentors and protégés to get together. The philosophy of the ABB Corporation was that everyone should have a mentor.

According to Hansman (2000), unlike the mentoring programs at Mobil Oil and Douglas Aircraft, the focus of the ABB Corporation mentoring program was not only to enhance workplace learning among the employees, but also to provide some of the psychosocial aspects of mentoring, that is, to help protégés develop confidence and reflective self- knowledge. The program reflected the company philosophy of mentoring for all their employees, not just the white collar workers. Also, some power was given to protégés, in that; they were allowed to choose their own mentors.

Boeing Rocketdyne

According to Sohn (2003), managers at Boeing took a different approach to mentoring. Due to a large number of expected retirements within the next decade, Boeing faced a potential threat to long term survival and competitiveness. Boeing managers took a proactive approach to curb potential fallout and, at the same time gain a competitive advantage over its rivals. At Boeing, managers began a pilot program in 2000 in order to capture knowledge from retiring employees. It was concluded that, in

addition to the capture of valuable knowledge in an explicit form, they needed to capture the knowledge contained in paper documents electronically and make it easier for employees to share technical knowledge with their colleagues.

Program organizers formed a knowledge management group, which consisted of 19 people from: (a) engineering, (b) information technology, (c) manufacturing, (d) human resources and (e) library services (Sohn, 2003). Through a process of knowledge management conferences, research of other successes and numerous executive interviews, the knowledge management team adopted and expanded on four approaches: (a) videotaped interviews with experts, (b) mentoring programs, (c) electronically captured paper documents, and (d) expertise network.

Sohn (2003) reported that two different types of mentoring programs were initiated: one-on-one and group mentoring. The one-on-one program had been in place for more than 10 years and had been integrated throughout the company. Participation in the program allowed potential protégés to search an electronic system to choose from a number of mentors. Once they selected a mentor, it was recommended that one-on–one meetings be held at least once a month for sharing and teaching.

Because group mentoring was new at Boeing, it was launched in two pilot sessions (Sohn, 2003). For the pilot programs, upper management handpicked employees who had expressed an interest in participation. Employees who were considered critical in a certain function were identified, and then 12-14 protégés, who could learn from these key employees, were identified. The program lasted for 1 year, and so called *rising stars* in their 30s and 40s learned from a mentor leader, typically, a top executive who was

about to retire. The mentor and mentee met for 2 hours a month throughout the year. A facilitator/coach took notes during the session while mentor and mentee talked about personal and business related issues. Both mentor and mentee were encouraged to express their true feelings.

Mentoring for Employee Retention and Performance

At Douglas Aircraft Company, the focus of the mentoring was on development goals to enhance performance on the job (Geiger-Dumond & Boyle, 1995). For many years, mentoring has been a vital component in the areas of: (a) teacher training (Wilde & Schau, 1991, as cited in Lazovsky & Shimoni, 2007), (b) business (Scandura, 1992, as cited in Lazovsky & Shimoni), and (c) nursing (Rankin, 1991, as cited in Lazovsky & Shimoni). According to Haider (2007), "coaching and mentoring are processes that help develop and improve the performance of staff" (p. 32). In order to take an individual through a mentorship or coaching process effectively, mentors and coaches should know and understand the theories of mentorship, as well as the styles, skills and techniques that are associated with them (Parsloe, 1999, as cited in Haider). Also, mentors should possess certain qualities, including: (a) empathy, (b) maturity, (c) self-confidence, (d) resourcefulness, and (e) a willingness to commit time and energy to others

Performance in Nursing

According to Chin (2008), for the most part, nurses do their job well and respect their colleagues. Occasionally however, some perform and behave poorly. Poor behavior and performance can occur for various reasons, such as: (a) being overwhelmed by work, (b) frustration due to a lack of opportunities for education or career progression, or (c) a feeling of under appreciation or insecurity in their work. Combined with family

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crisis and financial difficulties, these experiences can hinder performance and behavior at work. Performance effects can be far reaching; for example, if one team member becomes ineffective, divisions can arise among the rest of the team. This can lead to: (a) strained relationships among team members; (b) a reduction in team effectiveness, and (c) possibly a corresponding rise in morbidity and mortality rates.

While Chin (2008) admitted that there were supervisory interventions available to supervisors, such as preceptorship, clinical supervision, and peer review, she noted that Driscoll and Cooper (2004, as cited in Chin) claimed some of these interventions lacked clarity of purpose and outcomes, and could be temporary and difficult to achieve. In order to address problems early, Chin recommended the use of proactive interventions such as coaching and mentoring programs. Learning and development interventions, such as coaching and mentoring, can help people "stop and reflect on the situations they are in and help them find pragmatic ways to transform them" (p. 19).

Chin (2008) defined mentoring as an "informal, periodic and long term strategy, which is intended to increase the self-awareness of participants, or to help them make choices or progress in their careers at times of change" (p. 19). Chin recommended that the mentees should select the peers or mentors through professional networks rather being appointed by managers. Although the mentor would not have any formal authority over learners, they would have longer and different experiences than the mentees. According to Chin, "coaching and mentoring cannot solve all the problems that arise at work, but if undertaken successfully they can ensure long lasting improvements in staff performance and behavior" (p. 20).

Generally, nursing mentors are extremely busy nurses who have numerous other competing responsibilities (Bennett, 2002). Prior to their placement, the mentee should help their mentor and identify their objectives for the impending experience. The mentee can then meet with the mentor and discuss their objectives (Bennett). The mentee should ask the mentor to identify opportunities for learning throughout the placement period and draw up an action plan. A typical plan will start with an objective, such as being able to administer a subcutaneous injection.

Retention in Teaching

According to Ingersoll (2003, as cited in Brill & McCartney, 2008), between 40-50% of teachers leave the profession entirely within 5 years. Reasons for leaving included: (a) low salaries, (b) overwhelming class size, (c) large workload, (d) disruptive students, and (e) inadequate administrative support (Brill & McCartney). Brill and McCartney claimed that much teacher attrition was created by non-salary factors, and a lack of institutional support was ranked third as the reason given by teachers for leaving the profession. Although in many school districts, a mentoring program was instituted for new teachers, Brill and McCartney found that many of the programs were badly structured, and the mentors were poorly trained or unsupportive and contributed to the teacher attrition.

According to Brill and McCartney (2008), effective induction and mentoring programs have been shown to increase retention rates. They cited a study conducted by Serpell and Bozeman (1999) in Montana that showed 97% of mentored teachers were active in the profession 1 year after participation in the mentoring program in comparison

to 71.5% of non mentored teachers, and 91.5% of the mentored teachers were still active after 2 years in comparison to 73% of non mentored teachers.

The most successful induction programs included a mentoring program between new and veteran teachers (Brill & McCartney, 2008). The mentoring relationships began during induction programs and lasted through the teachers' first and sometimes second year. Mentors gave critical support and advice to new teachers in a number of areas, including: (a) pedagogy, (b) classroom management, (c) lesson planning, and (d) emotional support. To be most effective, the mentor should be in the same subject or grade level as the new teacher, and they should have common planning time during the school day to encourage collaboration (Brill & McCartney). Smith and Ingersoll (2004, as cited in Brill & McCartney) found that having a mentor in one's field reduced the risk of leaving at the end of the first year by about 30%.

<div align="center">Retention in Law Enforcement</div>

As an industry, law enforcement has experienced many challenges in the recruitment and retention of personnel. According to Sprafka and Kranda (2000), part of the reason it has been difficult to retain and recruit personnel is due to "national and local economic change and transformation of effective recruiting methods influenced by the Internet" (p. 2). In order to improve effective recruitment methods, some police organizations have implemented "new hire" (p. 2) mentoring programs as a method to reduce employee turnover (Sprafka & Kranda). According to Edmundson (1999), the first few weeks of a police recruit's career can mean success or failure for the employee and the agency. Even officers who make it through the probationary period may find their careers hindered by a lack of opportunity or other obstacles that keep some

employees from advancement in their organizations (Williams, 2000). According to Williams, many police agencies employ some form of Field Training Officer program to formally train recruits. Participation in a Field Training Officer program may help new employees to successfully complete their probation periods and "establish a foundation for further growth" (p. 20), but it may not ensure continued advancement or provide the additional support that some officers need.

Feeling that a mentor can help fill the void in an officer's first days on the job and help give the new employee a positive perception of the agency, officers of the Fairfax County, Virginia Police Department recognized some of these problems and, in 1995, they re-examined its recruiting, hiring, and training strategies (Edmundson, 1999). The program was focused on relationships between veteran officers and the new employees on the first day at work when they reported to the police academy. According to Edmundson, many individuals apply to several agencies at the same time and usually accept the first job offered to them. If attention is paid to the recruit's initial needs, agency administrators can increase the retention of employees and, ultimately, save the department high recruitment and training costs.

At the Lansing Police Department in Michigan, a mentoring program was included as part of the retention strategy (Williams, 2000). The Lansing Police Department mentoring program was focused on employee retention and professional growth. The retention statistics revealed positive program results. The average yearly retention rate from 1992-1997 was at 82% and increased in 1998 to 86% (2000). According to Williams, mentoring is based on the assumption that "people relate more

readily and positively to peer assistance, than to supervisory direction" (p. 20). Also, it provided a non threatening environment for learning and growth to occur.

<center>Chapter Summary</center>

The idea of learning a new job from another is not a new concept, but it has a new name, mentoring. Mentoring has been employed in various organizations which include: (a) private industry, (b) nursing, (c) teaching and (d) law enforcement. Mentoring is a relationship between a more experienced individual or employee and a new employee. The objective of this relationship is for the experienced employee to: (a) guide, (b) advise, (c) teach, and (d) support the new less experienced employee. In various organizations, mentoring is used to retain new employees and increase performance in other employees. While different organizations have approached mentoring initiation through different methods, the initial objectives and goals have continuously been achieved. The review of literature was helpful in developing the procedures for development of this project, which are detailed in Chapter 3, Method.

Chapter 3

METHOD

In the past, many administrators concerned themselves with the concept that their

organization needed to gain the trust and respect of a new employee (Edmundson, 1999).

This is especially true in policing, where despite their successful completion of academy

training, new recruits sometimes find it difficult to make the transition from police

student to street officer (Williams, 2000). After all, mistakes made in the academy can be

corrected, but errors on the street can cost lives (Williams).

The modern concept of mentoring, that has effectively been used to recruit and

retain new employees in business and academic institutions, now provides law

enforcement with an opportunity to "engage and anchor new employees at a time when

industry competition for those employees is at an all time high" (Sprafka & Kranda,

2000, p. 1). According to Spratka and Kranda, the goals of a mentoring relationship in

law enforcement are: (a) to promote professional growth, (b) inspire personal motivation,

and (c) enhance the effectiveness of police service. The purpose of this project was to

develop a guide on mentoring programs for police departments so that they can establish

their own effective mentoring program.

Target Audience

Many organizations, in fields such as private industry, teaching, nursing, and

some police departments, have adopted mentoring programs for performance

improvement and employee retention. This project was developed for law enforcement

agencies that want to adopt best practices that can be incorporated into a paramilitary organization.

Organization of the Guide

The guide for this project was developed and based on numerous resource materials and research studies. Effective mentoring programs from other organizations are examined and discussed in the guide. Best practices are highlighted, and program development specifically for police departments is discussed. The main goal for this project is to provide ideas and tried techniques for law enforcement agencies that want to incorporate a mentoring program into their recruitment, training, and performance strategies.

Peer Assessment Plan

Three colleagues received a hard copy of the mentoring program guide for review and assessment. They provided informal feedback and suggestions for improvement of the guide. In addition, each colleague was asked for comments on the readability, relevancy, and reliability of this material. Their feedback is discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter Summary

As law enforcement agencies work to recruit and retain personnel, especially personnel who mirror the community, they must consider many options. A mentoring program has been shown to be successful in many other organizations as well as a limited number of police departments. Through this project, the author uses knowledge gained from the literature review to provide law enforcement agencies with helpful ideas and tools for administering mentoring programs. Presented in Chapter 4 is the guide on mentoring programs for law enforcement.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

Introduction

For various reasons, law enforcement has experienced many challenges in recruiting and retaining qualified personnel. Unlike many other industries, law enforcement agencies expend a large financial investment in the testing and vetting process of potential candidates. This process normally includes not only a written examination, but also: (a) an oral interview, (b) a background investigation, and (c) a polygraph investigation. Those individuals who pass the hiring process must then be trained. Agencies not only pay to train the new employee, but also pay a salary to the employee, so if the new law enforcement candidate leaves training after one month, not only will the agency not receive anything for the thousands of dollars already expended, but it must start the hiring process all over again. In order for agencies to protect their initial investments, they must utilize tools and new processes to retain those individuals in whom they have invested. A mentoring program is one of those tools or processes available to law enforcement agencies which can assist in employee retention and improve performance.

A GUIDE FOR MENTORING PROGRAMS

IN POLICE DEPARTMENTS

by

Larry Valencia

Introduction

When an individual enters into a career in law enforcement, he or she enters into a new and different, maybe even strange culture. According to Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007), there are probably as many definitions of culture as there are individuals who write about it. Merriam et al. defined culture as, "the shared behavior and symbolic meaning systems of a group of people" (p. 223). Most companies and careers have their own cultures, but law enforcement officers, local and federal, all seem to share a unique culture. For example, they share their own vocabulary, sometimes talking in code. Examples of the distinct vocabulary are words such "G-ride" meaning an unmarked police car, "Perp" for perpetrator, "Code 3 or 10" for a response with lights and siren, or "Code 4" for everything being alright or in control, and "96" to describe a person with psychological problems. Police officers and sheriff's deputies also share a style of dress in their jobs in that they normally wear uniforms, drive high visibility vehicles identifying the individual as a law enforcement officer, and carry at least one gun, sometimes more. This anomaly is not restricted to uniform officers only, but it is shared by officers and agents in "plain clothes" assignments as well.

Law enforcement candidates, or recruits, run the gamut. They are young men and women in college or still fresh out of high school who have always wanted a career in law enforcement, or they may be individuals who quickly tired of their jobs and were looking for something more exciting in their lives. Occasionally, a law enforcement candidate will come to an agency after retiring from a lengthy career in private industry.

As these individuals enter into the law enforcement world, the difference from private industry becomes most apparent during the hiring process. The law enforcement candidate has to clear a written test to measure basic knowledge, a drug screening, a polygraph examination, an extensive background investigation, which probably included a visit to their home by investigators, who conducted interviews with their neighbors and family, and an oral interview centering on reactions and actions to situational police related problems.

The candidate who has successfully completed the hiring process now needs to be trained. The candidate will be admitted to a police academy or similar training facility, where the recruit will be taught several subjects pertinent to law enforcement including enforcing laws, regulations, and community relations. While in training, the candidate may wear a uniform, be required to stand in formation as a group, ordered to complete certain tasks, and disciplined. The candidates will constantly be reminded to observe certain rules for their own safety, and that a danger exists for law enforcement officers, with the possibility that the candidate could be hurt or killed. By this time, candidates will begin to reassess their career choice, wondering if police work is really for them.

As new police officers leave the training facility and begin to work in the field, they will find that law enforcement officers normally work together and rely on each other to do their jobs. The reality of the streets, particularly in large cities that have higher crime rates and more anonymity, often shocks young officers fresh from the academy. As a result, many of the situations they experience may cause them to lose faith in others and develop an us- versus- them mentality. Police officers soon begin to

trust only other police officers, the only people who they believe understand how the world really is (Graves, 1996).

Mentoring and Retention

As an industry, law enforcement has experienced many challenges in the recruitment and retention of personnel. One of the reasons that many new candidates leave a law enforcement career is tied to the difficulties of adjusting and integrating to the cultural changes. According to Edmundson (1999), the first few weeks of a police recruit's career can mean success or failure for the employee and the agency. Even officers who make it through the probationary period may find their careers hindered by a lack of opportunity or other obstacles that keep some employees from advancement in their organizations (Williams, 2000). According to Sprafka and Kranda (2000), the second reason it has been difficult to retain personnel is due to "national and local economic change and transformation of effective recruiting methods influenced by the Internet" (p.2).

Many agencies utilize a formal Field Training Officer program to train recruits and help the new employees successfully complete their probationary period, yet the program may not ensure continued advancement or provide the support that some officers need (Williams, 2000). For the most part, those officers who complete their probation and advance in their careers will do their job well. Occasionally however, some officers will perform and behave poorly. Poor behavior and performance can occur for various reasons, such as: (a) being overwhelmed by work, (b) frustration due to a lack of opportunities for education or career progression, or (c) a feeling of under appreciation or

insecurity in their work (Chin, 2008). Combined with family crisis and financial difficulties, these experiences can hinder performance and behavior at work.

In order to improve recruitment methods, some police organizations have implemented recruit mentoring programs as an effective method to reduce employee turnover (Sprafka & Kranda, 2000). Zey (1984, as quoted in Budge, 2006) defined a mentor as someone "who oversees the career and development of another person, usually a junior, through teaching, counseling, providing psychological support, protecting, and sometimes promoting or sponsoring" (p.7). According to Chin (2008), learning and development interventions, such as coaching and mentoring, can help people "stop and reflect on the situations they are in and help them find pragmatic ways to transform them" (p.19).

Brill and McCartney (2008) believed that effective mentoring programs have been shown to increase retention rates. They cited a study conducted by Serpell and Bozeman (1999) in Montana that showed 97% of mentored teachers were active in the profession 1 year after participation in a mentoring program in comparison to 71.5% of non mentored teachers, and 91.5% of the mentored teachers were still active after 2 years in comparison to 73% of non mentored teachers.

At the Lansing Police Department in Michigan, a mentoring program was included as part of the retention strategy (Williams, 2000). The Lansing Police Department mentoring program was focused on employee retention and professional growth. The retention statistics revealed positive program results. The average yearly retention rate from 1992-1997 was at 82% and increased in 1998 to 86% (2000). According to Williams, mentoring is based on the assumption that "people relate more

readily and positively to peer assistance, than to supervisory direction" (p.20). This guide

highlights best practices for law enforcement related mentoring programs.

Developing a Mentoring Program: Formal vs. Informal

Many organizations, including some police organizations, have implemented

mentoring programs as a method of reducing employee turnover, while other

organizations depend on the informal mentoring relationship (Sprafka & Kranda, 2000).

Typically, informal mentoring relationships occur over time without any external

intervention or planning, and are dependent upon the relationship developed between the

mentor and protégé. An example of an informal mentoring relationship would be a

veteran officer who encourages a friend or acquaintance to apply for a position within the

same department. As a result, the veteran officer tends to encourage, support, and give

information during the hiring and training period (Sprafka & Kranda).

Best Practice

Formal mentoring relationships are initiated by organizational representatives and

involve the assignment of employees or managers to mentor /protégé pairings. The

American Management Association concluded that structured or formal mentoring

programs have become the preferred way to address problems and challenges within

organizations (Horkey, 1997, as cited in Hansman, 2000). Also, a formal mentoring

program affords every employee the opportunity and benefit of mentoring, and can

promote loyalty and inclusiveness within an organization (Sprafka & Kranda, 2000).

A structured formal mentoring program creates: (a) structure and procedures, (b)

defines mentor and protégé roles, and (c) allows for the setting and identification of

goals. Implementing goals is an important step to a successful mentoring program,

because they establish program boundaries and expectations. Examples of organizational goals may include improving employee retention rates, enhancing the match between employees and jobs, or increasing employee job satisfaction and loyalty. Input on organizational goals should come from all members of the organization.

Term of Mentoring Relationship: How Long

Just as in other relationships, mentoring relationships progress through stages. According to a mentoring guide distributed by the Association of State and Territorial Health Officials (n.d.), most formal mentoring relationships will likely progress through four developmental stages:

I. Building the relationship

II. Exchanging information and setting goals

III. Working towards goals/deepening the engagement

IV. Ending the formal mentoring relationship and planning for the future

There is no way to determine the length of each of these stages, but it is believed that stages I and II typically unfold during the first 3 or 4 months of the relationship, and the relationship will begin to wind down after 11 to 12 months.

Some companies, such as ABB Corporation of Sweden, which launched a mentoring program to bridge the gap between men and women and blue and white collar workers, utilized a formal mentoring program where mentoring relationships lasted as long as 2 to 3 years (Hansman, 2000). Most companies and organizations using formal mentoring programs scheduled the relationships for at least 1 year; of course, participants can continue an informal relationship for as long as they like.

Best Practice

The training academy of most law enforcement organizations can last up to 6 months. The recruit officer may then be required to spend at least another 3 months under the tutelage of a training officer. In most cases, the recruit will also need to complete a probationary period. This probationary period can be a stressful time for police recruits. Other recruits will have trouble transitioning from police student to street officer.

In order to achieve one of the main goals of mentoring, candidate retention, the mentoring relationship should start at the beginning of the training program and carry through the end of the training cycle and preferably through the probationary period. In some cases, the mentoring relationship could be shorter, and some candidates will not need a mentor. For instance, at the Denver Police Department, police recruit training is abbreviated for police recruits or police officers hired from other police departments, also known as lateral candidates. Of course, these candidates will already be familiar with the police culture and will have a good idea of what to expect.

Choosing Mentors

Employees who act as mentors represent the single most important part of a successful program. Typically, the official role of the mentor will not include directing the work of the protégé or developing their skills or careers, but to offer direct advice and information on how to: (a) accomplish goals, (b) inform each other of potential chances for advancements, and (c) socially reinforce either good or bad work behaviors (Raabe & Beehr, 2003). A mentor should possess certain qualities, such as: (a) empathy, (b) maturity, (c) self-confidence, (d) resourcefulness, and (e) a willingness to commit time and energy to others (Haider, 2007). Finally, the mentor should be a facilitative

partner in a constantly evolving relationship which focuses on meeting set goals and objectives (Zachary, 2000).

In many private industry mentoring programs, such as the program at the Douglas Aircraft Company, high performance employees were identified and selected as candidates for the program. Prior to becoming a mentor, the candidates had to identify the knowledge and support they could provide to protégés (Geiger-Dumond & Boyle, 2000). Other companies have opened the program to all employees, not just high performance employees. In the more effective mentoring relationships, especially among teachers, the mentor was in the same subject or grade level as the protégé, and both had common planning time during the day which encouraged collaboration (Brill & McCartney, 2008).

Best Practice

Generally, administrators should choose veteran officers who: (a) endorse the program, (b) who have received recognition from their peers as positive role models, and (c) those who have volunteered for the job (Edmundson, 1999). In a mentoring relationship, a veteran officer can share: (a) knowledge, (b) skills, and (d) expertise with a recruit officer. Effective mentoring can also provide an opportunity for veteran officers to pass on their practical expertise and professional knowledge to employees who are committed to improvement, responsibility, and success. The veteran officer will have at least 2 years in the department. This ensures experience and maturity (Edmundson).

Training the Mentor

The selection and training of mentors represent the critical components of a successful program. The implementation of a formal mentoring program may vary from

a single intervention by the organization, in which participants are simply provided a mentor/protégé match and asked to work together for a given period of time, to a program that provides additional on going group facilitation or training for protégés (Egan & Song, 2007). As previously noted, Douglas Aircraft Company did not train their mentors, but required mentor candidates to identify the knowledge and support they could provide to protégés. Mobil Oil began their mentoring program with a 3 day orientation workshop for mentors and protégés.

Learning is the fundamental process and the primary purpose of mentoring. One of the reasons that mentoring relationships fail is that the learning process is not considered, and the focus on learning goals is not maintained (Zachary, 2000). In addition to expertise and experience, mentors must be familiar with specific process skills in order to effectively facilitate the learning process. Challenge, support, and vision, as well as learning style play a critical role in the facilitation of the learning process (Zachary). The mentor and protégé should also understand that they each have certain responsibilities (see Appendix B). In order to maintain a productive and successful relationship, the mentor and protégé should be familiar with and understand those individual responsibilities

Best Practice

All mentors should receive formal training, either in the form of in-house program, meetings and workshops, or outside vendor seminars. The Lansing, Michigan Police Department implemented a mentoring program for their recruit officers. Mentors in the program attended a 2 day seminar conducted by a law enforcement consultant and a retired law enforcement officer who had implemented a mentoring program in another

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department (Williams, 2000). Departments should develop training according to their own unique needs; however, it is important to remember that quality training provided by qualified professionals is paramount to program success (Williams).

Mentors should receive training on: (a) program structure, (b) guidelines, (c) policy, (d) goals, (e) evaluation criteria, (f) roles of mentors and protégés, and (g) success factors for mentor/protégé pairings. Training should also cover the Field Training Officer Program, so that mentors understand exactly what the department expects the recruits to accomplish during their probationary periods, as well as how they should handle their protégés concerns about the program (Williams, 2000).

Depending on the goals of the mentoring program, training would cover protégé learning styles, which can help a mentor facilitate the learning relationship. This information will help the mentor to know when to step forward and when to hold back, and how to use specific learning styles that help facilitate the learning process (Zachary, 2000). Some general guidelines that relate to learning styles are: (a) pace the learning, (b) time the developmental intervention, (c) work toward collaborative learning, (d) keep the focus on learning, (e) build the relationship first, and (d) structure the process.

Pairing the Mentor and Protégé

Typically, in formal mentoring programs, such as those at Mobil Oil and Douglas Aircraft, protégés were matched with mentors by human resources personnel. At the Lansing, Michigan Police Department, the program coordinator paired the protégés with mentors; however, the mentors did have some input. In a successful program developed by the ABB Corporation in Sweden, protégés selected their own mentors. The protégés attended seminars to help them decide whom they would select as their mentors. The

protégés were encouraged to select mentors who were not their supervisors or in their line of command (Hansman, 2000). At Boeing Rocketdyne, potential protégés were allowed to search an electronic system to choose from a number of mentors who were handpicked employees that had expressed an interest in participating (Sohn, 2003).

Other considerations in pairing the mentor and protégé are cross race mentoring, cross cultural mentoring, and cross gender mentoring. Like Anglo American students, often, racial minority students express a preference for an advisor or mentor of the same race (Johnson, 2007). In fact, racial similarity is one of the strongest matching variables in informal mentoring (Tillman, 2001, as cited in Johnson, 2007). The problem in the educational arena is that, while many educational institutions recognize that it is important to recruit and retain minority scholars, there are still a disproportionately small number of minority scholars, especially in the upper tenured ranks (Bowman, Kite, Branscombe, & Williams, 1999, as cited in Johnson).

Cross cultural barriers can consist of more than language or work meaning. The biggest barrier has to do with how that person sees the world as well as how that person acts in it. The uniqueness of one person's values, in contrast to those of someone else, can affect the interaction that takes place in the learning relationship (Zachary, 2000). For instance, the word, mentor, could be closely related to teacher, supervisor, or expert in another cultural context; or the word may not translate directly; or it could connote a negative association because of the perception that seeking a mentor is a sign of weakness.

The third consideration is cross gender pairing. The concept of mentoring has always been dominated by "traditional notions of men guiding men in their pursuit of

success" (Budge, 2006, p.9). Budge believed that an understanding of the concept of gender was important to realize why stereotypes and barriers have existed in mentoring. The concept began by being born male or female and the cultural meaning that accompanies one's sex. Gender stereotypes and socialization practices shape the way in which individuals interact with one another. According to Budge, mentoring is a good example of a relationship where gender stereotypes are manifested. The perception is that women lack desirable traits, such as leadership, emotional control, assertiveness, and competitiveness, and are less likely to be considered for mentoring relationships within the organizational setting.

Best Practice

The goal of the mentoring program at the ABB Corporation was not only to enhance workplace learning among the employees, but also to provide some of the psychosocial aspects of mentoring, that is, to help protégés develop confidence and reflective self knowledge. As part of the program, some power was given to protégés, in that they were allowed to choose their own mentors. Also, by allowing the protégés to choose their own mentors, they could pick someone with whom they would be comfortable. In the case of cross race pairings in education, "the ability to identify with others in the educational context who share one's stigmatizing condition can be an important source of emotional well being, alleviating feelings of aloneness and isolation" (Bowman, 1999, as quoted in Johnson, 2007, p.166).

If the coordinator of the program does match the mentor and protégé, cross cultural, cross race, and cross gender issues should be considered. Of course, minority recruits should not have to wait for a same race mentor, which may increase the chance

that they may not be mentored at all. Johnson (2007) believed that, once formed, cross race relationships are as helpful and satisfying as same race mentorships. According to Zachary (2000), effectiveness in a cross cultural relationship depends on four elements: (a) a mentor's cross cultural competency, (b) a flexible cultural lens, (c) well honed communication skills, and (d) an authentic desire to understand how culture affects the individuals engaged in the relationship.

Cross gender mentor relationships can present another set of problems. Many authors who have addressed cross gender mentoring have theorized or analyzed studies that showed cross gender mentoring to be unsupportive and dysfunctional. Among the reasons given were that women protégés may feel some uneasiness in a mentoring relationship with males due to sexual apprehension and fears of public inquiry about the relationship (Long, 1994, as cited in Budge, 2006). According to Cullen and Luna (1993, as cited in Budge) and Ensher and Murphy (1997, as cited in Budge), one of the most cited reasons of same gender mentoring is that female role models appear to be more important for women than men.

They're Paired, What Now?

At Mobil Oil, the mentoring program began with a 3 day orientation workshop where outcome goals were focused on key skills that differentiated between outstanding and average performance. At Douglas Aircraft Company, both mentors and protégés discussed and determined goals for their mentoring relationship, and both reviewed the protégé's developmental objectives every 6 months. The important ingredient in these two programs is that the mentor and protégé met and developed goals. At the ABB

Corporation, a seminar for mentors and protégés was held to promote the ideas and goals of mentoring as well as the benefits for both mentors and protégés (Hansman, 2000).

Best Practice

Mentoring occurs differently for each pair of participants. The mentor /protégé relationship should be allowed to develop at its own pace; however, the mentor and protégé should meet regularly (Williams, 2000). In mentoring relationships, it is important in the early part of the relationship to spend some time talking about how the relationship will proceed. During these meetings, the protégé can help the mentor identify their objectives for the impending experience. As the learning partnership evolves, the mentoring partners will share the responsibility for achievement of the protégé's goals. If attention is paid to the recruit's initial needs, agency administrators can increase the retention of employees and, ultimately, save the department high recruitment and training costs.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the researcher presented a guide for mentoring programs in police departments and highlighted best practices in mentoring programs. Mentoring has been used successfully in private industry for many years, especially in the area of retention. While a few law enforcement agencies have implemented mentoring programs, it is still fairly new in law enforcement. As agencies look for new tools to improve in performance and retention, a mentoring program will be a viable option. Due to the nature of law enforcement, mentoring programs will need to be tailored for each department and situation. By using this guide, agencies may be able to see what other agencies are doing and what would be the best options for their mentoring program. In Chapter 5, the researcher discusses the completed project.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this project was to develop a guide to mentoring programs for law enforcement organizations, specifically police departments. In order to do this, it was important to look at the history of mentoring programs, the utilization of these programs in other organizations, both private and public, and the link between mentoring programs and adult learning principles. For the law enforcement organization trying to improve retention of recruits, especially minority recruits, it is important to implement a program that will fit that particular organization and that both the mentor and protégé will support. This guide provides some of the most successful practices used in mentoring programs by other organizations.

Contribution of the Project

The researcher provided readers with sufficient information in the review of literature section that covers the history of mentoring programs and how those programs can and have been implemented and utilized. Also, it is this researcher's opinion that the guide located in Chapter 4 provides law enforcement managers with essential information and realistic strategies that can be used in developing an effective mentoring program.

Limitations

Although the guide is informative and applicable, there are two significant limitations. The main limitation is lack of personal experience in mentoring programs on the part of the researcher. Without firsthand experience in the development and

implementation of mentoring programs, the researcher had to completely rely on the professional literature on the topic. It must be remembered that, due to the nature of police work, a mentoring program must be tailored to the specific organization. While this guide points out best practices among mentoring programs, any one of the practices might no be best for a particular organization.

The second major limitation was the lack of first hand observation time of an actual mentoring program. To observe or monitor an actual program to determine weakness and strengths may have greatly enhanced the mentoring guide.

<div align="center">Peer Assessment Results</div>

The mentoring guide was reviewed by three police command officers and one retired command officer. They provided valuable feedback and insights for ways to further improve the project. They all agreed that the guide is a useful reference for mentoring programs.

One difference in mindset came out of the project review. One reviewer was the Captain in charge of the Police Academy. This reviewer did not see attrition as problem, but did cite the recruitment of quality personnel as a problem. The Captain's Division Chief disagreed with the Captain and cited attrition as a problem. The difference in opinion was attributed to job responsibility. The Captain dealt with new personnel as they entered the academy and up to the point of graduation. Once the new recruits "hit" the street with a training officer, they were no longer the responsibility of the Captain, but the recruit was still under the responsibility of the Division Chief. This could indicate that retention problems were most likely to occur after the recruit graduates from the

formal training academy, but is still in the probationary period under the tutelage of training officer and actually answering police calls.

While this guide was being prepared, the Denver Police Department actually began to implement a mentoring program to address retention, especially of minority candidates. The program is still in its preliminary stages, but ideas from this guide could be utilized in the final program.

Recommendations for Future Development

It is the recommendation of this researcher that firsthand experience in monitoring an effective mentoring program would augment any future research and study. The researcher could then draw on experience and share that knowledge with others. Another recommendation would be to implement a mentoring program to address performance issues in law enforcement. The literature review showed that mentoring programs are widely used in the nursing field to address performance issues, but that few businesses or law enforcement organizations have utilized this tool for this particular focus.

Project Summary

Establishing an effective mentoring program can be a complex and involved process, and very important for the organization that has committed to itself to such a program. Most organizations institute a mentoring program to retain key personnel, but a poorly managed program could actually increase attrition and waste resources. Due to the nature of the work, implementing a program within a police department could be even more difficult. Many police departments, while they share the same mission, may operate in different ways. Programs must be tailored to each specific department in order

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to be successful. The main goal of this guide is to present material that is helpful and

realistic to implement in a law enforcement organization.

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APPENDIX A

Zachary's Elements in a Learner-Centered Mentoring Paradigm

Mentoring Element	Changing Paradigm	Adult Learning Principle
Mentee Role	From: Passive Receive To: Active Partner	Adults Learn best when they are involved in diagnosing, planning, implementing, and evaluating their own learning.
Mentor Role	From: Authority To: Facilitator	The role of the facilitator is to create and maintain a supportive climate that promotes the conditions necessary for learning to take place.
Learning Process	From: Mentor directed and responsible for mentee's learning To: Self-directed and mentee responsible for own learning	Adult learners have a need to be self-directing
Length of Relationship	From: Calendar focus To: Goal determined	Readiness for learning increases when there is a specific need to know.
Mentoring Relationship	From: One life= one mentor; one mentor=one mentee To: Multiple mentors over a lifetime and multiple models for mentoring individual group, peer models	The life experiences of others add enrichment to the learning process.
Setting	From: Face to Face To: Multiple and varied venues and opportunities	Adult learners have an inherent need for immediacy of application.
Focus	From: Product oriented knowledge transfer and acquisition To: Process oriented ; Critical reflection and application	Adults respond best to learning when they are internally motivated.

Appendix B

Mentor and Protégé Responsibilities

Mentor Responsibilities

- Encourage and model value focused behavior.
- Share critical knowledge and experience.
- Listen to personal and professional challenges.
- Set expectations for success.
- Offer wise counsel.
- Help build self-confidence
- Offer friendship and encouragement.
- Provide information and resources.
- Offer guidance, give feedback and cheer accomplishments.
- Discuss and facilitate opportunities for new experience and skill building.
- Assist in mapping career plan.

(Sprafka & Kranda, 2000)

Protégé Responsibilities

- Clearly define personal employment goals.
- Take and follow through on directions given.
- Accept and appreciate mentoring assistance.
- Listen to what others have to say.
- Express appreciation.
- Be assertive – ask good questions.
- Ask for help when needed.
- Share credit for a job well done with other team members.
- Respect the mentor's time and agency responsibilities.

(Sprafka & Kranda, 2000)