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An Analysis of Mentorship in Michigan Police Agencies

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AN ANALYSIS
OF
MENTORSHIP
IN
MICHIGAN POLICE AGENCIES

By

Jeffrey G. Swanson

A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF
MENTORSHIP IN MICHIGAN POLICE AGENCIES

By

Jeffrey G. Swanson

The purpose of this research is to investigate how newer police officers are familiarized into their agency with respect to the manner in which they were trained and mentored. The concept of mentoring programs has been highly successful in the private and business sectors for many years. Since the concept of formal mentoring programs in law enforcement is largely limited to date, this study incorporates research in several other disciplines, to determine if there may be a corollary regarding law enforcement and other disciplines, and if so, to what degree mentoring exists among patrol officers. A survey was distributed to patrol commanders of randomly selected police agencies within the State of Michigan. The questionnaire was designed to determine if mentoring existed within their respective agency and if so, in what form. Also, the survey sought to determine the effectiveness of the mentoring. The research found that informal mentoring occurs in relationships with other officers and is widely used. Most law enforcement agencies also report that the impact of informal mentoring is positive, however many concerns also exist.

Dedicated to

Karel Swanson

My Wife

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Lastly, I owe my successful achievements to my wife, Karel, who inspired and believed in me to complete my education. Without her, all else would have been a tremendous struggle, if accomplished at all.

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INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

Police administrators take considerable measures to ensure that new officers comply with field training guidelines and state-imposed training mandates. Upon successful completion of training, many officers are immediately placed on solo patrol, without any further structured guidance. Some officers are unprepared for the life-style that is unique to the police profession. Administrators are left to manage the resulting issues created by this lack of preparedness, such as: stress, family problems, officer fatigue, or discipline issues. Required training is intended to force compliance with established guidelines or "hard skills" that can be measured or evaluated such as firearms qualifications, defensive tactics or precision driving (Johnson, 2005). Nevertheless, even after compliance with training guidelines and/or mandates, police administrators continue to grapple with allegations that they are not adequately training or preparing newer officers with the skills necessary to perform their duties.

Required training mandates only minimally prepare police officers for the components regarding the performance of their duties. Police administrators have the responsibility to supplement new officers with any additional skills that they deem necessary for job-related duties. These skills can be referred to as cognitive or "soft skills", such as effective communication, ethically-based behavior, or informed decision-making (Johnson, 2005). Since they cannot be measured, are not clearly defined or required mandates, soft skills are often disregarded in law enforcement. The lack of

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informed knowledge or experience in these soft skills, can present unwitting officers with a false perception of the police culture. New officers should clearly understand the job-related concerns and stress-producing issues that may affect their health, personal and/or family lives and be provided the necessary resources to address these concerns.

Training providers and police administrators that stress the importance of hard skills alone may be making a mistake. When desiring to enhance the effectiveness and success of junior employees, the private sectors often facilitate soft skills training through mentoring programs (Johnson, 2005). Perhaps the field of law enforcement could also benefit from structured or formal mentoring programs in the same manner. Mentors that possess knowledge, experience and have successfully dealt with job-related concerns or issues, could be a source of support and encouragement for these junior officers. Mentors could relate or share their own struggles in a candid way to their protégés. A structured or formal mentoring program could be a resource that training providers and police administrators are overlooking.

Mentoring - the Concept

Most adults can identify with a person who had a significant influence on their learning and development. According to Darwin (2000), this person would be viewed as a mentor and had been engaged as a vehicle for handing down knowledge, maintaining culture, supporting talent, and securing future leadership. Mentors portray a sense of unchallenged assumptions about knowledge and power. Learning was a means of transmitting knowledge to protégés. Even today, most governments and many organizations consider continuous, on-the-job learning as necessary for all employees (Darwin, 2000), which can be facilitated through mentoring.

According to Larson (2002), the word *mentor* originates from a Greek legend that described a friend of Odysseus, the king of Ithaca. This friend, Mentor, was entrusted to care for the king's son (protégé) while he was away on extended journeys. Mentor served as a guardian and was someone who the king's son could always count on to give him wise direction as he matured through life. From this legend, the word mentor has evolved to mean a wise and trusted counselor or teacher (Cremens, Evenson, Patwell & Phelps, 1993).

A mentor is a coach or someone who helps a beginner in any field of endeavor to deal effectively with some of the early stumbling blocks; issues which would otherwise hinder a smooth assimilation. Hunt and Michael (1983), and Kram (1985) state that mentoring relationships are a critical career resource for employees in organizations.

Mentors are individuals with advanced experience and knowledge who are committed to providing upward support and mobility to their protégé's careers (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). A mentor who is actively involved with a protégé has been associated with positive career outcomes (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura, 1992). Additionally, mentored protégé's report higher incomes (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991), greater mobility (Scandura, 1992), and career satisfaction (Fagenson, 1989) than others who lacked mentoring input (VanEck Peluchette & Jeanquart, 2000). Moreover, mentoring has had a positive affect on organizational socialization (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993), job satisfaction (Koberg, Boss, Chappell, & Ringer, 1994) and reduced turnover intentions (Viator & Scandura, 1991).

Ragins and Cotton (1999) assert that mentors are individuals who help their protégé's by providing two general behaviors or functions of support: 1) career development functions, which facilitate the protégé's advancement in an organization, and, 2) psychosocial functions, which contribute to the protégé's advancement of personal growth and professional development in the organization.

During the first stage of early career formation, a young adult is engaged in the development of occupational identity or forming a vision for future plans (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). This process may involve the questioning of one's competence, effectiveness, or ability to achieve these plans (Erickson, 1963, 1968). Therefore, he or she seeks a relationship which would provide opportunities for guidance in resolving these dilemmas (Kram, 1985). Interestingly, the more experienced adult at

mid-life and/or mid-career is also likely to be in a quandary of reassessment and reappraisal of his or her accomplishments and the direction for future endeavors (Levinson, et al., 1978). Entering a developmental relationship with a young adult provides an opportunity at mid-life to redirect one's energies into a creative and productive action (Kram, 1985).

Anecdotal research has been conducted on mentoring in many of the private and public sectors. Whirlpool Corporation, one of the world's largest appliance manufacturer's, credits much of its success based on a new innovative mentoring system for its employees (Cutler, 2003). "Innovation Mentors" are trained to coach new employees into the company structure. Whirlpool desires people to serve who have a passion for change; project management skills; are creative and innovative; have the ability to lead others; build relationships and possesses general business knowledge (Cutler, 2003).

Some institutions also turn to mentoring to target hard-to-find students. For example, Undergraduate Mentoring in Environmental Biology (UMEB) of the National Science Foundation seeks members of racial and ethnic groups who are underrepresented in mathematics, science and engineering. While mentoring minority students toward educational success, the UMEB students also bring familiar environmental concerns for research to the classroom (Lundmark, 2004). Regardless of their use or application, however, mentors usually possess certain quality characteristics.

Mentor Qualities

A primary concern of any mentoring program is that it is beneficial to the protégé. If a mentoring relationship is hampered due to an inability of its members to effectively communicate, it is said to be a mismatch. A proper match in values and personality traits is especially crucial (Lee, Dougherty, & Turbin, 2000).

Gualardo (2000) outlines the essence of a true and effective mentor. Gualardo declares that a mentor evokes the highest ideals of training, education, and success, combined with personal and professional development. While teaching a protégé, Gualardo recommends that a peer mentor possess the following ten qualities. These are shown in Box 1-1.

Box 1-1

Mentor Quality	Characteristic
Challenger	Encourages protégé to set ambitious goals.
Designer	Helps protégé learn how to prepare for new challenges.
Strategist	Knows how to teach the art of strategic thinking to the protégé.
Inspector	Is detail oriented and identifies areas of need for the protégé.
Historian	Position reached via wisdom, experience, success and mistakes.
Friend	Gains trust of protégé by being vulnerable and open.
Guide	Assists protégé in navigation through new experiences.
Partner	Celebrates protégés success and in many ways, shares in it.
Recipient	Mentor gains as much as the protégé in the relationship and is thankful.
Liberator	Encourages protégé to assume greater responsibility and independence.

Adapted from Gualardo (2000)

A mentor must convey diverse roles and responsibilities. He or she should be a person who *challenges* the protégé to set ambitious goals. The protégé should be resourceful and enterprising. Perhaps through the development of interpersonal skills or brainstorming, an effective mentor helps to *design* the future for the protégé through guidance and preparation for the future challenges. The mentor should be a model *strategist*, one who knows how to teach the art of strategic thinking to others. Attention to detail is needed to *inspect* and analyze professional career development. This is especially critical when future goal development is at stake. Since a mentor has reached his/her stature through experience, he/she should be a *historian*. The ability to draw from personal experience and wisdom is essential for a mentor to communicate successes and failures to the protégé. *Friendship* is necessary to allow for an environment of trusted vulnerability to be transferred from mentor to protégé and/or protégé to mentor. An effective mentor should serve as a *guide* to assist the protégé as they navigate through experiences. The mentor revels in the protégé's successes and is a dedicated *partner* with him/her. Ideally, the partnership would last for a lifetime. The mentor understands that self-satisfaction is a by-product of the partnership and is a *recipient* of self-satisfaction. Finally, the mentor is a *liberator*. The ultimate goal is to coach the protégé towards full responsibility and the mentor continues to encourage total independence for the protégé. A peer mentor is a person who truly cares about the future and success of another who holds similar interests (Gualardo, 2000).

Formal and Informal Mentoring Relationships

Mentoring programs or relationships can be categorized as formal and informal, with the major difference involving the manner in which they were initiated (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Douglas (1997) asserts that:

> One key difference between formal and informal relationships is that informal relationships develop spontaneously, whereas formal mentoring relationships develop with organizational assistance or intervention - usually in the form of voluntary assignment or matching of mentors and protégés. A second distinction is that formal relationships are usually of much shorter duration than informal. (p.530)

A formal mentoring relationship is one of structured implementation and time limitation, as the program usually lasts from six months to a year (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Formal relationships are closely monitored by supervisors and/or program coordinators.

Informal mentoring relationships evolve naturally and often begin as friendships. There is a mutual identification and fulfillment of career needs which is instrumental in ones success. Mentors select protégés who appear to be younger versions of themselves and the relationship provides mentors with a sense of contribution to future generations (Erickson, 1963). Protégés select mentors who are viewed as role models. Informal relationships develop on the basis of perceived competence and interpersonal comfort (Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

Although both forms of mentoring have unique aspects that promote success, consideration must first be given to what constitutes "success" in a mentoring relationship. VanEck Peluchette and Jeanquart (2000) readily admit that job and career success in the United States over the past two decades has been often achieved through mentoring, but they also cite two concerns. The authors claim that there is a failure to thoroughly examine various sources that an individual might use in seeking out a mentor. They maintain that the traditional definition of mentoring relationships view the mentor as someone who is within the same organization as the protégé, but that not all employees seek mentors from the same source. Second, mentoring research has focused primarily on objective measures of success, such as salary levels and promotional rates. Peluchette and Jeanquart (2000) assert that career success is two-dimensional. Subjective criteria such as personal feelings of success are equally as important as salary or promotional outcomes. The authors conclude that mentoring has had a positive influence on future career attainment and personal satisfaction.

Formal and informal mentoring programs each have their respective advantages and disadvantages. The primary consideration depends on the selected application. Box 1-2, highlights these differences.

Box 1-2

Advantages / Disadvantages of

Formal / Informal

Mentoring Programs

Mentoring Program	**Advantages**	**Disadvantages**
Formal	-organization can monitor progress -formal and established guidelines -signed contract by all parties -established time frame -specifically structured	-may inhibit full potential -less likely to be founded on mutual trust -creates forced interaction -hinders progression at individual pace -lacks naturally occurring element
Informal	-naturally evolving -mutual understanding -mentor is motivated to teach; protégé is eager to learn -mentor is genuinely devoted in the best interest of gifts of protégé -personal satisfaction of contributing to the future -assists mentor in avoiding career stagnation	-monitoring is unlikely -mentor may encourage protégé to pursue goals in other areas -mentor may promote unethical values in protégé -lost corporate resources invested in protégé due to mentor's misdirection

Adapted from Douglas (1997)

Formal mentoring - advantages

A primary benefit of formal mentoring relationships is the ability for organizations to monitor the progression of participants. For example, program coordinators distribute questionnaires to prospective participants who are paired according to personality profile similarities, thereby reducing errors of matching different personalities. Participation guidelines are established so the mentoring pairs know their expectations and stay on task (Douglas,1997). These pairs agree to specified program goals, frequency and location of meetings. Finally, a signed contract serves to bind participation (Douglas,1997; Gaskill,1993; Murray, 1991; Raggins & Cotton, 1999).

Formal mentoring - disadvantages

Formal mentoring relationships can be viewed as a compelled interaction between two people. They may lack the personal elements which naturally evolve in mutual informal relationships. Ragins and Cotton (1999) explain some of the drawbacks:

> ...the mentor and protégé do not even meet until after the match has been made. Thus, in contrast to informal relationships, identification, role modeling, and interpersonal comfort do not play a role in the development of formal relationships...are less likely to be founded on mutual perceptions of competency and respect. It is reasonable to expect that the acceptance and confirmation in mentoring functions...will be less in formal than in informal mentoring relationships. (p.531)

Informal mentoring - advantages

Since friendships evolve naturally, then it follows that informal mentoring relationships also evolve naturally. The informal mentoring relationship contains the element of mutual understanding. Mentors view protégés as younger versions of themselves (Erickson, 1963; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Since mentors are more accomplished in their professions, the challenges of new endeavors fade and mentors may experience a feeling of stagnation. Since the protégés are eager to learn, the mentors are motivated to teach. Mentors often discover that the protégés instill new attitudes or rejuvenations. Mentors begin to asses their lives' accomplishments, which in turn helps them in their motivation. This motivation is necessary to move them to the next stage of career life (Erickson, 1963; Kram, 1985; Levinson, Darrow, Klein & McKee, 1978; & Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

Informal mentoring - disadvantages

A disadvantage of the informal mentoring relationship may be best characterized by considering what is best for the protégé. Since the relationship is naturally occurring, it may be assumed that the mentor has the overall well-being of the protégé's success in mind. If, for example, the mentor learns that the protégé possess qualities or talents that would be more beneficial in another organization or business, he or she would encourage the protégé to pursue such goals. While this may benefit the protégé in the long term, it would be contrary to the desire of the current management (Raggins & Cotton, 1999), meaning the loss of invested resources in the employee.

Conversely, if the mentor possessed values or ethics which would be detrimental to the career advancement of the protégé, there would be no structural means in place to effectively address the problem. The lack of observation and accountability allows the failing relationship to continue. The mentor may actually be a hindrance to otherwise achieved success (Raggins & Cotton, 1999).

Phases of the Formal Mentoring Relationship

According to Kram (1983) there are four main stages of the formal mentoring relationship: initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition, and each progress to the next in ordered fashion. Kram explains the characteristics of each phase in Box 1-3.

Box 1-3

Stage	Characteristics
Initiation	- Strong positive fantasy and identification toward senior manager - Admired by the younger manager to provide support
Cultivation	- Positive expectations emerge and are tested against reality - Each individual discovers the value of relating to each other - Psychosocial functions of mentoring peak.
Separation	- Young managers ability to function is tested physically/psychologically without close support - Uncertainty in future relationships due to changing needs - No longer functions in previous form
Redefinition	- Intermittent contact due to support from previous years - Interjection is less frequent as relationship enters mutual respect level - Young manager is content for the friendship it provides

Adapted from Kram (1983)

Beginning with the *initiation* phase, Kram (1983) states that a strong positive admiration emerges where the senior manager is cherished and respected for his/her competence and capacity to provide support and guidance. There is a positive identification in someone who will support the young manager's attempts to operate effectively in the organizational world.

This is followed by the *cultivation* phase. Positive expectations emerge that are continuously tested against reality. As the relationship continues to unfold, each individual discovers the real value of relating to each other. The range of career and psychosocial functions characterizing a mentor relationship peaks here.

The next phase, *separation*, occurs both structurally and psychologically. If a structural separation is timely, it stimulates an emotional separation that enables the younger manager to test his or her ability to function effectively without close guidance and support. Alternatively, if a structural separation occurs prematurely, it stimulates a period of substantial anxiety as the younger manager is forced to operate independently of his or her mentor before feeling ready to do so. Finally, if a structural separation occurs later than an emotional separation, either manager may resent the other as the relationship becomes unresponsive to the individual's changing needs and concerns. In all instances, this phase is a period of adjustment because career and psychosocial functions can continue no longer in their previous form; the loss of some functions, and the modification of others, ultimately leads to the redefinition of the relationship.

Last, there is *redefinition*. In this stage, Kram states that both individuals continue to have some contact on an informal basis in order to continue the mutual support created

in earlier years. Although there is less evidence of most career and psychosocial functions, sponsorship may continue discreetly, occasional counseling and coaching may take place, and the friendship continues. Operating independently, the young manager now enters the relationship on a more equal footing. With gratitude and appreciation for the guidance of earlier years, the young manager is now content to continue the mutual relationship for its created friendship.

Mentoring can be used as a component to attain other goals. For example, the integration of established and emerging technology into the classroom is a consistent source of quandary for teachers and administrators alike. In response, The Texas Woman's University introduced The Learning and Integrating New Knowledge and Skills (LINKS) project. The program is designed to prepare new teachers for easier classroom transitions in technology (Snider, 2003). LINKS is a three-year project that incorporates mentoring approaches to skills-learning. Participants were divided into pre-service teachers or interns, mentor teachers, and university instructors. Most frequently, interns expressed increased confidence in using technology and awareness of its importance as a resource (Snider, 2003). The LINKS project concluded that all participant groups demonstrated substantial improvement in technological proficiencies.

However, whether mentors are determined by the naturally occurring process or organized selection, if the protégé is not encouraged towards success and/or gain, either method will fail (Gualado, 2000; & Lee et al., 2000).

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Relevant Mentoring Research

Qualitative and quantitative studies in both the private and public sectors have been beneficial in determining the impact that mentoring has upon developing careers. Mentoring is a form of organizational communication that is very powerful regarding career advancement (Hill & Bahniuk, 1998). It is a means to familiarize new employees with organizational methods and operations (Ambrose, 2002; Darwin, 2000; Forret, Turban & Dougherty, 1996; Fox & Schuhmann, 2001; & Lantos, 1999). In an effort to understand how the mentoring relationship is successful, studies have been conducted to analyze its unique factors. For example, some research has found that when protégé's are open to advisement and coaching, a mentors perception of relationship effectiveness for the protégé are positively influenced, and hence, benefiting the mentor as well (Young, 2000).

Research has been conducted on the effectiveness of mentorship throughout different stages of an employee's career. VanEck Peluchette and Jeanquart (2000) examined mentoring programs in higher education in the context of different mentoring sources from within and outside of the institution. The researchers studied 430 assistant professor faculty members at two university research institutions in the U.S. By dividing the study group careers into three separate stages, including; early; middle; and late career, VanEck Peluchette and Jeanquart noted that assistant professors sought aid according to different needs at each stage.

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For example, assistant professors were most successful during their early career stage, when mentoring was received from multiple sources who addressed issues such as research and scholarly production. A detrimental source at this stage, however, was unwittingly selected from outside of the work place. The authors found that such a mentor lacked professional and organizational experience. They concluded that the mentored professionals received the highest subjective career success when compared with others who lacked diverse mentoring input. The authors also found that in-house mentors were better suited to meet the needs of their protégés at this career stage.

The second or middle career stage showed that assistant professors who received multiple-sourced mentors were the most productive as compared with others who received a single mentor or none at all. Interestingly, during this stage the authors noted that a key factor to career success did result from outside source input. Even though most of the assistant professors obtained tenure by this time and were established in their careers, the outside sources (spouses or other close friends) provided support for emotional and/or life-stage needs. Key to this stage was the fact that through developing security and independence, associate professors lacked the desire for early career stage mentor relationships. This supports the notion that as protégés advance through their careers, different needs or issues require attention Kram (1985). Hence, mentoring for different needs must adjust accordingly to career progression.

In the late stage of their careers, the trend seemed to revert back to an emphasis on in-house mentoring relationships as the most productive for professors, if any was needed at all. The reason for this is that these professionals desired opportunities

within these organizations at this later time. Supporting Kram's (1985) developmental

relationships theory, the authors discovered that most professionals are relatively stable in

their careers and are either no longer likely to seek mentors or to become mentors

themselves. For those who still benefited from mentoring, the same participants also

report the highest subjective career success. The authors noted that even during this late

stage of their career, a mentor was still an important element to these faculty members.

Supporting Kram (1985), each stage of career progression underscores the need to

adjust a mentoring relationship according to current individual requirements at a

particular stage. Originating from various sources, mentorship's should be flexible to

accommodate protégés. VanEck Peluchette and Jeanquart (2000) stressed that a large

number of professionals in this sample had no mentors at all and they were most likely to

be at a disadvantage with regard to career success.

Qualitative Research in Nursing Education

An area that has had considerable exposure to mentoring is in the field of nursing

education. According to Records and Emerson (2003), as the health care industry

continues to experience nursing shortages, a self-perpetuating cycle of insufficient

numbers of nursing faculty is emerging. Accordingly, there is an inadequate preparation

in academia for the nursing profession, which results in a substantial decline in the

nursing profession. Citing issues of recruitment, retention and the increased competition

for doctorally prepared nurses, which could negatively affect institutional standards for

quality and standards, the authors' institution sought a means to attract more qualified

faculty. Since their institution is a teaching hospital, Records and Emerson (2003) conducted a qualitative study to explore methods to create a cadre of new tenured faculty who were fully equipped to lead the profession into the future.

The teaching hospital responded by developing a formal mentoring plan. Implemented by assigning two *established* tenured nursing college faculty as mentors to each *new* tenure track faculty member, the goal covered four primary areas: 1) creating networks and selecting consultants; 2) attending research conferences; 3) preparing professional presentations; and 4) developing grantsmanship skills. At the conclusion of the six-year mentoring program, the researchers found that tenure attainment depended on the demonstration of specified performance levels in all areas of service, teaching and scholarship. These specified performance levels were facilitated by mentoring faculty who encouraged their protégé's in leadership skills and service roles, the technologies and nuances of the classroom and clinical teachings, all according to their research programs. Self-confidence and support from mentoring could equip the new tenured faculty to lead the profession into the future (Records & Emerson, 2003).

In another qualitative nursing study, The Hospital for Sick Children (Waddell, Durrant & Avery, 1999) in Toronto, Canada, utilized Benner's (1984) conceptualization theory to compile its findings as a framework to direct the advancement of professional development programs. The theory is based on seven domains of practice: 1) helping role; 2) teaching-coaching; 3) diagnostic and patient monitoring; 4) management of rapidly changing situations; 5) administering and monitoring therapeutic interventions; 6) ensuring quality care; and 7) organizational and work-role competency.

Benner's conceptualization theory was applied to enhance nursing care in the hospital by domains of practice which included, the helping role; teaching-coaching; effective management of change; administering and monitoring therapeutic regimens; monitoring for quality health care; and organizational/work-role competencies. This approach was applied to three educational programs: 1) preceptorship; 2) orientation; and 3) central education. By incorporating preceptors, where instructors pre-brief the student on the narrative, instructors facilitated experiential learning within the clinical area. The strategy was to capture the complexity of pediatric clinical practice and enhance learning experiences by focusing on internal relationships. The evaluations concluded that there is a high level of student satisfaction and proficiency with the use of narrative methodology, especially with respect to mentored internal relationships (Waddell, Durrant & Avery, 1999).

A study conducted at the Southern Cross University in the Province of Australia (Glass & Walter, 2000), explored the relationship between personal and professional growth and peer mentoring with a group of female nurses. Six nurses were enrolled in an undergraduate nursing program and the seventh participant was the degree program coordinator. Over a twelve-week period, the authors examined if nurses remained receptive to the possibilities of effective mentoring, allowing the contemporary nursing practices to remain vigorous as new ideas of encouragement were presented. Individual reflective journaling and focus group/interviews were conducted for one hour, once per week, with each nurse open to personal and/or professional topics. At the end of the twelve weeks, the results indicated that a friendship among peers took place.

Additionally, five themes arose from the research. There was a sense of belonging, being acknowledged, feeling validated, verbalized honesty and openness, and understanding each other. An unexpected finding was that peer mentoring provided a nurturing climate for professional growth and a safe environment to speak out and be vulnerable to others in the group. Interestingly, at times when emotionally sensitive academic issues arose, participants were silenced by other peers or the topic was changed. A closer examination revealed that there was a strong link between uncomfortable feelings of tension and ones' personal identity [self]. Seldom discussed in other arenas, becoming vulnerable and revealing ones' self became acceptable among these females. Eventually, however, the assignment required participants to let go of personal insecurities and others' perceptions of ones' self and defining or re-defining self. An important lesson is that the only tool which is taken into nursing is ones' self, and unless it is healed, then healing of others cannot effectively begin (Mentgen, 1996).

Quantitative Research in Nursing Healthcare

Quantitative research regarding mentoring in nursing is limited. Where it does exist, often methods for self-improvement or faculty and educational management are the focus. For example, one study assessed the personal development of critical care nurses to determine how they perceived themselves as professional healthcare providers (Heath, Andrews, & Grahm-Garcia, 2001). The study found that nurses possess a high level of motivation for professional development in the areas of education, certification and other nursing organizations. However, despite the fact that over half of the respondents considered themselves as mentors among their peers, they had not nominated a peer for

any award or recognition of nursing contributions. The study concluded that personal and professional satisfaction combined with career success and advancement, are important functions of mentoring.

Seeking to address the needs of an evolving role of nursing in a dynamic healthcare environment, McClennan Reece, Mawn, and Scollin (2003) studied a mid-sized teaching university hospital in Massachusetts. A primary focus in this organization was to shift gerontology care away from the expensive in-hospital atmosphere to a community-based setting. This shift from the traditional environment placed considerable stress upon the teaching faculty who expressed difficulty in adjusting to the unique demands associated with the move. In forcing the teaching staff to leave the comfort and familiarity of their established facilities, they became preoccupied with material necessities and the lack of technical support which became a considerable focus of attention. As a result, attempting to make the new community-based concept operational, instructors compromised the quality of teaching by severely limiting individual and/or personal interaction with students. This was especially true with regard to mentoring, which had been a proven aspect of the university hospitals' success. At the same time, students reflected similar issues and often questioned the value of their education. This, in turn, left students with many unanswered questions, leading to their apathetic view of their education. The key lesson from this study confirmed that the lack of mentoring opportunities compromised the quality of the student's educational value.

Mentorship was also explored in two other quantitative studies that researched the turnover rate of nursing graduates prior to, or shortly after nursing school graduation. The

first study was conducted to explore the relationship between how nursing students perceived faculty support and student retention (Shelton, 2003). Using 458 associate degree-seeking nursing students, three categories of perceived faculty support were formed according to completion: 1) students who had fully completed the school, 2) those who had withdrawn voluntarily at some point in the program, and 3) students who were forced to withdraw from academic failure. The researcher developed a "Perceived Faculty Support Scale" used to measure the perceived psychological support and the actual functional support. The study found that the perception of faculty support for nursing students was consistent with academic achievement and program completion. To promote the retention of nursing students, the research revealed that faculty played an integral part in providing a caring atmosphere through a mentoring relationship, combined with direct assistance to facilitate student learning (Shelton, 2003).

Another study took place at the New Hanover Regional Medical Center in North Carolina (Verdejo, 2002). In 1999, the center tracked its facility's retention of new graduate nurses. The facility initiated an internal taskforce and discovered that 34% of new graduate nurses were either leaving the network or the nursing profession altogether. Recognizing the need for change, the staff created a mentorship program. Mentor candidates who held at least three years as a registered nurse (RN) and one year of tenured experience were chosen from within the facility. Questions were asked pertaining to why they believed they could be an effective mentor, to ensure clarity and understanding of the mentoring concept. Of the 51 candidates, over half exceeded ten years of experience and all were selected as mentors. The facility paired the 58 nursing

graduates with mentors who held similar values and interests. The mentor program was credited with a 26% percent decline in the turnover rate in the study group over a one year span. Benefits expressed by the nursing graduates include boosting their nursing abilities, instilling self-confidence and establishing support networks. The protégés attributed much of their decision to stay in their profession to their mentors (Verdejo, 2002).

Qualitative Research in Education

In addition to healthcare, the review of the literature shows that the field of education consistently incorporates mentoring to benefit many of its programs. For example, teaching staff in primary education that practice outside of the traditional classroom setting often experience isolation from the rest of the teachers. This issue prompted a national overview of a mentor and selection policy in the educational arts (Conway, Krueger, Robinson, Haack, & Smith, 2002). Focusing on Connecticut, Illinois, Minnesota, Washington and Michigan, the study provided the basis for a discussion of the issues associated with beginning teacher induction and mentor policies specifically for music teachers. The results of this study indicated that beginning music teachers experience isolation from other teachers and lack the ability to discuss their work with others in their discipline (Conway et al., 2002). Theorizing that mentoring programs could be helpful, Conway (2003) then conducted a study in Michigan schools where mentorship's were incorporated for the first three years of classroom teaching (Michigan Department of Education, 1994). Conway noted that administrators cited the lack of resources, strong unions, other priorities, and geographic rural settings, as all hindrances

to mentorship's for music teachers. As a result, mentor/protégé pair's ranged from other

teachers to a building custodian. Accordingly, degrees of perception of music teacher

satisfaction paralleled the interest and support that administrators put into the programs.

Type of school, teaching responsibility and classroom setting, the type of assigned

mentor, and the degree to which the mentor was paid or trained, all factored into the

perceived success of the mentoring programs (Conway, 2003). However, the author noted

an interesting development in this study which is noteworthy. Many of the music teachers

had mentor experiences with other music teachers who were not a part of the district-

sponsored program. These teachers sensed the value of being mentored and sought

informal mentors on their own. Conway suggested that informal mentor interactions may

be useful in future research and endorsed their implementation.

Evertson and Smithey (2000) compared the application of formal and informal

mentoring programs among newly hired teachers. In this study, the research question

asked the manner and form of mentoring that is provided to new teachers. It included 46

teachers and their protégé's from 35 schools in a two school consortia. The volunteer

mentors were evenly divided into two groups. One half participated in a four day

workshop prior to the beginning of the school year with follow-up meetings during the

year. The other half comprised the control group and received no workshop input, but

still had teaching responsibilities. The results provided evidence that mentor preparation

enables a higher degree of success as defined by supporting the protégé. The control

group experienced a more diverse opinion of perceived protégé support. The study

concluded that while enthusiasm for mentoring is growing, careful scrutiny of the skills

that mentors possess should take place. The mere fact that a teacher has the desire to be a mentor may not be sufficient. The mentor's knowledge and skills of how to be a mentor are also crucial. This study underscored the importance of formally preparing mentors to give the kind of support that enables new teachers to succeed in their entry year (Evertson & Smithey, 2000).

Students in a broad range of education can also be affected by the merits of mentorship's. Research regarding high-ability or high achieving students found that they are often left in main-stream classroom settings and fail to be adequately challenged for their actual intelligence. Some mentorship programs have been applied for these students with encouraging results. According to Hebert and Speirs Neumeister (2000), a study was facilitated in a fourth grade classroom of a teacher who wanted to motivate her high-ability students. Her colleagues viewed her as a visionary who could foresee the needs of her students and recommended a mentoring program, especially for her gifted students. By using selected college students from a local university, the authors implemented a case study and ethnographic research methodology to address the research questions which paired mentor and protégé. As the study progressed, it became evident that the partnerships between the college students and gifted students not only provided an intellectually stimulating experience combined with strong motivational and emotional support, but also formed real friendships. The children anxiously anticipated their college mentors who reinforced their developing self-esteem and academic success. The findings of the study indicated that with thoughtful preplanning, mentorship's can be an effective strategy for differentiating instruction in mixed-ability classrooms. The authors

concluded that since this approach is affordable, efficient, and advantageous to all parties involved, the study's findings should inspire other educators to consider the model as well (Hebert & Speirs Neumeister, 2000).

A similar issue in an eastern high school prompted a qualitative study to investigate the impact of an intensive six-week summer mentoring program for high-achieving science students (Templin, Engemann, & Doran, 1999). The high school students worked alongside of their professional mentors who provided guidance and practical applications of scientific methods. The authors concluded that this mentorship gave the students an opportunity to examine the life of a scientist, an experience that may assist them in considering a future in science (Templin et al., 1999).

Quantitative Research in Education

Parsad, Lewis, and Farris (2001) found that maintaining a pool of highly qualified and experienced teachers is a primary concern for today's schools. They conducted a survey of over 5000 teachers, and found a link between the amount of professional mentored development in which teachers had participated and the teachers' overall feeling of competence for instruction. Holloway (2003) then used the study to ask the teachers how well they believed they were prepared for classroom instruction. The findings included the fact that:

"...fewer than half of the teachers felt 'very well prepared' to implement new methods of teaching - 45%, to implement the state or district curriculum - 44%, to use student performance assessment - 37%, to address the needs of students from diverse cultural backgrounds - 32%, to integrate technology...- 27%". (p.87)

These results failed to improve with time and experience; the lack of professional development was the root cause of the problem. The study also underscored another concept which gave hope for the future of these bewildered teachers. For mentoring to have a sustained effect on teaching, Eberhard, Reindhardt-Mondragon, and Stottlemyer (2000) recommend that faculty mentoring continue well beyond the first year of teaching to include the third and fourth years as well. By doing so, the teachers reported that a renewed empowerment and resiliency to "stay the course" was developed (Bernhausen & Cunningham, 2001). Holloway (2003) concluded his study with the recommendation that school administrators concentrate on providing their teachers with sustained mentoring support if they wish to maintain a pool of high-quality educators.

Students who struggle with various emotional and/or learning difficulties in schools often respond favorably to mentoring relationships. Shields (2001) conducted a quantitative study of sixth grade at-risk students who possessed debilitating social, emotional, physical, academic, and/or economic difficulties to determine if music education/appreciation could be an intervention factor to motivate these students towards higher self esteem. Students were exposed to a wide variety of music and related mediums. Student responses indicated that mentoring and participation brought about emotions of pleasure, happiness, and pride and was socially beneficial and fun (Shields, 2001). The value of the music teacher, acting as a mentor, became instrumental as a positive influence in their attitudes and self-perceptions.

Scholarly research regarding the value of mentoring is well documented, however Green and Bauer (1995) present a study which examines the question, "From where is the true benefit of mentoring derived?" The authors argue that the protégé brings personal talents, skills and knowledge into the mentoring relationship for which the mentor receives the credit for providing. They cite Jacobi (1991) who claims that a protégé candidate possess the ability to perform, has commitment and organizational savvy and characteristics which would probably make the person successful with or without a mentor. A concept termed "supervisory mentoring" (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994), or, the extent to which supervisors provide mentoring functions such as psychosocial and career mentoring for subordinates (Douglas & Schoorman, 1988; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994), studied the adviser-student relationship during doctoral training (Green & Bauer, 1995). The purpose of the study was designed to assess whether mentoring functions add value after the student's own talents and work attitudes are taken into account. Noe's (1988) mentoring function scale measured the mentoring provided to the students by their advisers.

Green and Bauer (1995) reviewed a two-year research study that examined 375 incoming doctoral students in 24 academic departments at a large university. The strongest finding was that mentoring is more likely for talented newcomers. The authors question if corporations that rely on supervisors to provide mentoring really desire this outcome. They suggest that some formal mentoring relationships may be driven more by protégé potential, therefore, making it more difficult for assigned mentors to support the less talented protégés who really need the help. Regarding informal mentoring

relationships, Green and Bauer question if informal mentors tend to choose more talented protégés, and if this is the case, are they adding value as well? They call for further research to examine the roles and potential of protégé's in such relationships.

Gender Issues in Mentoring

Mentoring programs have been successful for both males and females. Although cross-gender relationships may be successful, the lack of understanding for male mentors to fully empathize with the complexities of their female protégé tends to limit their effectiveness (Kram & Hall, 1996). This is especially true for the purpose of providing career and psychosocial functions in the workplace. Since the mentor takes a paternalistic role in the protégé's interest, females usually reject this dominance (Hill & Bahniuk, 1998). Nieva and Gutek (1981) assert that a common developmental experience and membership in the same social networks facilitate a stronger bond between male protégés and male mentors. The intensity and quality of the mentoring relationship may be greater for male protégés, resulting in a greater perceived ratio of success. The authors cite two possible reasons for this claim: 1) Females may lack the commitment and drive required for a long-term professional career. 2) Since few women hold advanced managerial positions, male managers are more likely to serve as mentors.

Scholarly research regarding mentoring program applications among females is positive. Academic literature provides considerable discussion of the needs and benefits of female mentoring programs (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Gold, 1999; & Holdaway & Parker, 1998). These findings run counter to earlier opinions regarding females and mentoring.

Over thirty years ago, Nieva and Gutek (1981) claimed that there was little empirical data concerning minorities and especially females, as compared to males in the context of mentoring usefulness. The authors claimed that a generally accepted opinion existed that females were not well-integrated into mentoring systems. Seeking to prove or disprove this, the authors utilized a comprehensive comparison study of control and sample groups to compare male and female mentoring. The study concluded that predictions regarding gender-specific exposure to mentoring and the moderating effects of gender on relationships between mentoring and career outcomes were not supported. Therefore, the results run counter to the notion that females are not well integrated into mentoring systems and the association between mentoring and career attainment was supported. Interestingly, although mentoring relationships may contribute to career success, they do not appear to affect the income differential between males and females (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Nevertheless, females continue to forge ahead to be recognized among their peers. Schor (1997) presents the following example which is inherent to females.

Primarily centered around relationships, Schor's (1997) study focused on career advancement. The author explained that while men center on autonomy and individualism to achieve advancement, women emphasize on growth within relationships. The author states that women facilitate their advancement to executive ranks by developing close, lasting relationships with other people who will reciprocate the same (Schor, 1997). Conversely, the lack of close and lasting relationships among females may contribute to less perceived success as well. Likewise, Fox and Schumann

(2001) noted that in 1974, females comprised only one per cent of all local government managers in a city. Twenty-three years later, less than twelve per cent of the city managers were female. Fox and Schumann discovered that mentoring was one of the most important factors regarding the disparity between males and females in city manager positions. Although beneficial for males, mentoring contained characteristics which worked against the advancement of females. The research concluded that factors such as a vacuum of professional mentoring opportunities may help explain the slow inclusion of females into the field of city management (Fox and Schumann, 2001).

Another study by Lyness and Thompson (2000) explain that organizations which want female managers to advance should focus on breaking down the barriers that interfere with the female's access to developmental experiences. These barriers include the lack of females in senior management who could serve as role models and assist protégé's in overcoming social isolation. This is primarily due to the fact that females often hold less organizational power than males (Lyness & Thompson, 2000).

Successful Mentoring Programs

A group which has received substantial attention and usually responds favorably to mentorship are youth, especially at-risk youth. For example, a program which is designed to develop the talents and secure a future for under-privileged youth in inner-city schools is the nonprofit Architecture, Construction, and Engineering

(ACE) Mentor Program (Post, 2002). The program is based on a volunteer multidisciplinary team-mentoring model. Participating ACE firms provide a mentor for every two or three students who meet bi-weekly for two hours after school. Practical

applications such as planning, design and scheduling are presented in either a simulated or actual construction project. From 2001 to 2002, the entire program has doubled in enrollment from 600 to 1,400 students, and the future continues to hold promise. Originating in New York City, the program is reaching other major cities such as Philadelphia and Los Angeles. The ACE Mentor Program also awards college scholarships within its seventeen separate chapters. A young architect mentor explained that it was his dream to pass on knowledge to city high school youth (Post, 2002). Mentorship's can assist youths in understanding the importance of education.

Dondero (1997) underscores the importance of mentoring to reduce the high school dropout rate. The author claims that mentoring provides a powerful way to provide adult contact with youths who receive little guidance in their schools, homes or communities. The author states that mentors serve as beacons of hope for young people who are adrift in an uncertain world. Dondero supports Hurte (2002) who asserts that there is a positive influence in student retention and success among minorities who participate in mentoring programs.

Perhaps the most established and respected mentoring program to date that addresses troubled youth is the Big Brothers/Big Sisters (BB/BS) of America. Beginning in 1904, BB/BS is the nation's oldest and largest youth mentoring organization today (Cutshall, 2001). The author states that the program's caring adult volunteers have helped millions of children in all fifty states through 495 different agencies. The entire BB/BS program is based on adults who mentor and enrich children's lives. In spite of the fact that the adult mentors are not family members of their protégé's, considerable evidence exists

that a single caring adult can make a considerable difference in a child's life. Cutshall (2001) refers to studies which show that:

1) Youth with mentors are 46% less likely to start using drugs, 27% less likely to start using alcohol, 33% less likely to commit acts of violence and 52% less likely to skip school.

2) Sixty-five percent of children age 7 to 14 say they want to connect with an adult they can trust and who respects them.

3) Thirty-nine percent of male public school students and 43% of female students in grades 6-12 they receive support from three or more non-parent adults.(p.37)

BB/BS is referred to as a traditional mentoring program as its meetings generally take place on weekends for three to four hours a week within the community. Mentors are paired with same-gender protégés. Also, intensive mentor background screenings take place since there is a lack of direct supervision.

Although not related directly to the BB/BS program, an outgrowth of school-based mentoring has been the impact on the families of the mentored students. Often, the students are assisted with advice on how to formulate a resume' or learn job interview skills. Inquiring parents can also benefit from the guidance of the BB/BS program as their children bring information regarding the program home (Cutshall, 2001).

Education

The educational field has been enhanced in virtually all areas of teaching and instruction with the mentoring concept. The scholarly literature produces many successful programs which enhance the student's ability to learn from a mentoring

teacher (Celeste, 2003). Mentoring in the educational field can be viewed from essentially two concepts, teacher to student (traditional) and teacher to teacher (peer mentoring). Both have been beneficial to respective protégés.

Teacher to student mentoring was studied by Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978), which found that while higher education is committed to student intellect and development, results were unreliable as its mentoring was limited in quantity and poor in quality. At this early stage in education, they concluded that mentoring was an integral part of student learning, which was also supported more recently by Johnson (2000). Another study conducted in post-secondary education revealed that eighty-three percent of survey participants believed that mentors were important for graduate students, while nearly as many stated that they would be willing to mentor someone in a junior college or other peer position (Luna, 1998).

A review of the literature shows that teachers are examples to their students. Given that students are in education classes to learn about particular subjects or topics, they will also learn about their teachers' values and ethics. Kitchener (1992) focuses on two primary ethical issues when teaching or evaluating students: (1) the responsibilities of faculty to be ethical in their interactions with students, and (2) the responsibilities of faculty toward students when the students engage in unethical or unprofessional conduct. Although disparity exists regarding what should be considered as ethical behavior, Kitchener (1992) summarizes his view of mentor affirming values:

> ...training ethical professionals goes beyond the curriculum for a single class and needs to be the responsibility of the entire faculty. The implicit attitudes and

explicit behavior of faculty, communicate as much as course content. Thus,

faculty have a special obligation to be ethical in their work with students whether

they are identifying ways to promote student welfare or holding them accountable

for failing to comply with acceptable professional behavior. Even in being held

accountable they can be treated ethically and with caring. (p.195)

The field of higher education has placed a new demand upon faculty to effectively

teach and mentor a substantially increasing number of adult *nontraditional* students

(adult college students who do not seek higher education within five years from high

school completion). These adult learners presented some unique challenges in the college

setting. For example, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), (2002),

conducted a three-year study to measure the persistence of nontraditional undergraduate

students. It listed seven characteristics that are often associated with nontraditional

student status that included: 1) financial independence, 2) part-time attendance, 3)

delayed enrollment, 4) full-time work, 5) dependents, 6) single parenthood, and 7) lack of

a high school diploma. These characteristics can also be viewed as risk factors since they

often relate negatively to a person's ability to stay in college (NCES, 2002).

To address these concerns, some institutions of higher learning have

experimented with mentoring programs. Institutions discovered that mentoring programs

were very useful for adult learners who possessed an inherent willingness to learn, but

only lacked direction. Illinois State University, for example, conducts a workshop within

its Adult Services Office (Creamer, Polson, & Ryan, 2002). A peer mentoring program

called *Major Connections*, oversees the matching of adult students with other adults

majoring in the same field. Topics such as library orientation, study skills, and time management are covered to assist adults in successful course completion. The program has been a model and adopted by two other area colleges (Creamer et al., 2002).

Due to the unique experiences and talents brought to the classroom, adult learners can sometimes portray or simulate a peer mentoring role with certain faculty. For this reason, faculty in higher education should be mindful of some of the particular characteristics of the adult learner. As early as the 1960's, Malcolm Knowles developed the best known theory of adult learning which consisted of four assumptions (Fawcett, 1997). He noted that; 1) adults need to be self-directed learners; 2) adults' experiential base is a rich resource for learning; 3) adult learning is linked to what they need to know or do in order to fulfill their roles and responsibilities; and, 4) adult learners are problem-centered rather than subject-centered. Knowles referred to this theory as andragogy, since it applied to adult learning, as opposed to pedagogy for children. Although years later, pedagogy researchers challenged his theory, today it is generally agreed that a form of human learning applies to everyone, but with certain considerations based on age and development (Fawcett, 1997). Allen, Russell, and Maetzke (1997), claim that each stage of an individual's academic and career development may require a different type of mentor with different types of knowledge and skills. The authors also argue that flexibility to accommodate the needs of the protégé are instrumental in growth and success. Without question, however, adults need to be self-directed learners (Fawcett, 1997).

Johnson's (2000) research sums up teacher to student mentoring and provides a

comprehensive understanding of mentoring in higher education. Johnson makes the following recommendations for students to prepare for careers in psychology.

Literature from psychology and other fields consistently demonstrates that mentoring is beneficial personally and professionally to students and junior colleagues. Psychology graduate students who enjoy mentorship's during training are more satisfied with the experience and more confident and successful as new professionals. Professional organizations, psychology training programs, and individual psychologists should address current obstacles to mentoring and consider strategies for enhancing both the prevalence and effectiveness of mentoring in graduate training and in the broader profession. (p.92)

Teacher to teacher (peer) mentoring is an effective assimilation tool for newer teachers. According to Evertson and Smithey (2000), new teacher protégé's of senior teacher mentors who participate in mentoring programs, more effectively organize and manage instruction at the beginning of the year and establish more workable classroom routines. Another study recommended that the first year of teaching be similar to that of a medical residency, where new teachers could be mentored by experienced practitioners (Smith, 2002). While this is supportive of mentoring to newer teachers, continued research suggests that mentoring should be ongoing.

Holloway (2003) asserts that in order for mentoring to have a sustained affect on teaching that it must continue into the third or fourth year. The author states that teachers who did not receive sustained mentoring appeared to struggle more during this time of transition. Additionally, Holloway cites a study which was conducted by Bernshausen

and Cunningham (2001) which suggests that teachers experience stress and must be taught resiliency and empowerment. Bernshausen and Cunningham claim that without resiliency, which can only be gained through support and encouragement from peer mentors, new teachers cannot sustain their enthusiasm and commitment over time (also Holloway, 2003).

Savvy administrators who have seen or experienced these positive relationships themselves, are now actively forming peer mentoring programs in their schools for new teachers. According to research by Midlock and Furin (2000), among the many benefits that administrators report are; 1) rookie teachers are not left to struggle or fail due to their self-incompetence, 2) anxiety and poor teaching staff morale is given a boost, 3) technology use is expanding and teachers are slightly altering their mode of operation beyond what they repeat year after year, 4) parental feedback regarding teachers is positive, and 5) student abilities are addressed in varied types of assignment options.

Educational mentorship's enhance teacher/student relationships and provide an effective means to nurture a positive and successful future for protégés. The growing popularity of the adult learner concept, even as it applies to teachers in education, is a parallel which can be drawn with mentor to mentee relationships in law enforcement.

Traditional Sources of Conflict in Law Enforcement

Specific scholarly literature regarding mentoring in law enforcement is limited.

Due to the nature of the profession, however, the existing literature does show that new

hires need guidance.

Goldstein (1977) points out that whether during an arrest, issuing a traffic citation

or any other situation that requires lawful intervention, officers are required to respond

appropriately. Meanwhile, Toch and Grant (1991) indicate that there is an emphasis

placed upon trainees to be rigid and uncompromising. For example, new officers are

enjoined to play it "by the *book*" and their book, a hefty departmental manual, is a

compendium of mandates and prohibitions. Both of these statements suggest that

mentoring could be helpful in guiding these officers toward successful assimilation.

Additionally, department leaders are often required to make decisions which are

not fully understood by their subordinates. Research has shown that this is a primary

concern in a police agency (Gaines et al., 2000; Manning, 1982). Failure to understand

organizational policy and procedures has been reported to be the primary stressors facing

many police officers (Manning, 1982). Adding to the dilemma, few administrators appear

to concern themselves with the concept that their organization needs to gain the trust and

respect of their new employee as well (Edmundson, 1999).

Recruits quickly learn that the departmental manual is merely a guide which has

little strength. In the field, officers make hunch-based judgments which is an area where

morality, values, and character become important (Toch & Grant, 1991). Heffernan and

Stroup (1985) explain that the officer:

...acts not only in conformity with the law but also an agent of the law. However,

he [or she] is at all times definitely more than a policeman [officer], even when on

duty. He [or she] is also a parent, a Christian, a black, a friend, and so on, each of

which implies rules and social contexts that provide him [or her] with morally

compelling concerns needing to be resolved. Their final resolution is worked out

by him [or her] as a whole person, not merely as the bearer of this or that role.

(p.29)

These new hires may sense a form of normlessness. According to Durkheim (2004), this

concept may be referred to as anomie. He posits that rules on how people ought to behave

with each other break down and therefore, uncertainty develops as expectations of

behavior were confused, unclear or not even present. An example of an anomic state is

proclaimed by Riede (1986):

The beliefs of the idealistic officer have not been tested by work experience, but

rather are based on fantasy. Often these idealistic officers have unrealistic beliefs

about the skills and abilities of police officers. At later stages they find these skills

and abilities to be unobtainable. (p.76)

Ahern (1972) compares the attitudes of police recruits to army recruits when they enlist

in the army of law enforcement and prepare for the [glorified] war against crime. Ahern

explains that the first task of a police trainer is to break down the preconceptions that the

recruit held about police work. The author goes on to explain that the young recruits have

forgotten the police officers which they have actually seen in real life, directing traffic,

arresting drunks, and performing other mundane duties which are less than exciting.

Nevertheless, police officers will always encounter stressful circumstances when called upon to mediate brawls and disputes or control situations in which it is not at all clear who is right or wrong (Ahern, 1972).

Stress and Related Issues

Police officers must continually deal with the effects of stress. Multifaceted, stress may occur because officers realize that they cannot control crime by themselves (Manning, 1997) or they may have unrealistic job expectations (Niederhoffer, 1967, & Skolnick, 1986), nonetheless, stress is present. The sheer affect of anomie (Durkheim, 2004) can be a significant producer of stress. While some sources of stress may be subtle, others are more obvious. For example, along with assimilation, significant stress is produced when entry-level recruits are often required to work night or rotating shifts.

Research regarding shift work indicates that many police officers seem to be suffering from signs of chronic fatigue. Chronic fatigue has been directly linked to eating, sleeping, social, physiological, and psychological problems and, occurring most often when working night time hours (O'Neil, 1986). As a result, many officers resign, due to their inability to adapt to rotating shifts. Stotland (1986) asserts that little of the effort directed towards dealing with this problem has actually addressed the causes of the problems which produce the stress. Rather, most of the effort has gone into reducing the bad effects resulting from the stress.

While a police officer is off-duty, the effects of stress can still be present. Marital and family discord associated with the demanding profession (More, 1992; Niederhoffer, 1967; & Skolnick, 1986) can be exacerbated by unpredictable hours and rotating shift

work leaving little spare time to nurture a family. Drummond (1976) illustrates the life of

a new officer who has no career guidance:

> The young officer is seldom home and is often tired. He sleeps during the day and
>
> is almost continuously attending court sessions to testify. He cannot attend the
>
> normally scheduled social events as he must work. He is lucky to be off on an
>
> occasional religious holiday. He finds it nearly impossible to actively participate
>
> in any community activities. He begins to become isolated. (p.28)

Unresolved, these sources of conflict continue to build and the stability of the

officer's marriage may be in jeopardy. Though the officer's wife may endure the pressures

of her husband's profession, it is seldom without reaction. Often feeling trapped; she is

left at home with the children - while he participates in activities. He is cold, impersonal,

critical, and reacts to family problems in an emotionless fashion. She cannot penetrate his

conditioned demeanor and may pursue an affair with another man. Or she may pursue

other activities that elevate the importance of her children (Drummond, 1976).

For the police officer who believes the folly that family life is separate from his or

her professional life, Bibbins (1986) discounts that notion:

> One of the aspects that is clearly known about the family life of police personnel
>
> is that it significantly affects a large portion of police personnel's total life
>
> involvement. This seems true from a positive or negative perspective...on the
>
> downfall of one's personal and/or professional character. (p.424)

The importance of an intact and devoted family structure can not be over-emphasized.

Research presents supporting evidence that the breakdown of the family is the real root

cause of crime in the U.S. (Fagan, 1996). Although Fagan's research was intended to illustrate the average American family, police officers are no exception.

In 1999, statistics stated that 6 in 10 marriages in the U.S. failed, most within the first few years of marriage (Howd, 1999). This failure rate, combined with the high risk life-style of police work (Bibbins,1986), and the law enforcement profession being the highest divorce rate than in any other field (Perry, 1999), certainly presents a challenging future for police recruits and their families.

People who share similar circumstances which are beyond their control often form subcultures. According to Inciardi (1996), a subculture is the normative system of a particular group that is smaller than and essentially different from the dominant culture. Similarly, as police officers search for others who will understand their dilemma, they will often seek support and comfort from others like them. Subsequently, police subcultures are formed in an effort to deal with their disillusionment and cynical attitudes (Gaines, Kaune & Miller, 2000; Inciardi, 1996, and Skolnick, 1986). Police subcultures, however, often derive support at functions which involve consumption of alcoholic beverages. This, in turn, will often lead to coping mechanisms which may involve addictive behavior (Gaines et al., 2000; Inciardi, 1996), such as substance abuse. Alcoholic beverages, for example, are still the leading substance abuse problem among officers (Heiskel, 2000). Traditionally viewed as an off duty problem, police officers have reported for duty under the influence of alcohol and/or drugs (Raterman, 2000).

Females and Police Work

Certainly a significant change from as recent as 1947 when the first female police officer entered patrol duty (National Center for Women and Policing [NCWP], 2003), police work is no longer unique to males.

According to the NCWP (2003), females comprised 13 per cent of all police officers in the year 2000. Pioneering females paved the way for current and future females to function effectively in law enforcement. However, many females who attained success in law enforcement will generally agree that in most situations, a mentor who shared their vision was critical to their success (Gold, 1999).

Nevertheless, time and conflict usually accompany change, and females in law enforcement have their share of both. Though females are increasingly being accepted by men in police work, there continues to be disparity between maternal and paternal roles regarding the family. If there is a family or child related crisis, the female is anticipated to resolve it. Regardless of her schedule, she is expected to be primarily responsible for child care (Hickman, Piquero, Lawton & Greene, 2001; & Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Peer Mentoring in Law Enforcement

Peer mentoring, based on the review of the literature, could assist a new recruit with purposeful assimilation into police agencies. Although it is not readily recognized as such, informal peer mentoring occurs every day (Asch, 1968).

Informal Peer Mentoring

Perhaps one of the best examples of peer mentoring on an informal basis is the socialization process in law enforcement. Asch (1968) explains that de-facto peer mentoring occurs regularly on and off-duty. Police officers derive their attitudes from a number of different sources. Generally, the extent of public obligation is absorbed from interaction with other peers and/or supervisors. It is where officers learn the expectations of citizens and others with whom they come in contact. The author notes that if the officers' "...boss is lax about payola, it will not be too difficult to have his views rub off on the susceptible patrolman" (Asch,1968, p.31). Perhaps an illustration by Muir (1977) might assist in explaining this phenomenon.

The author explains that a naturally evolving relationship developed between a recruit, Chicon, and a veteran officer, Justice. Their partnership grew and the pair became close friends. One day Chicon was charged with officer abuse in an incident where two other officers were questioning an arrestee. Chicon exercised excessive force and the other officers witnessed it. With Chicon facing possible termination, Justice recognized that Chicon had tremendous potential as a police officer. Justice reasoned that Chicon should not have to face possible termination for making one mistake and sided with Chicon. Privately, Chicon admitted that he used retributive force which was excessive.

The issue required Justice to lie on Chicon's behalf and Justice had firmly established his reputation for offering sound advice and integrity within the department. Faced with a morally correct decision or dishonesty to salvage Chicon's career, Justice rationalized that he was doing the right thing by lying for Chicon. However, the resulting decision was detrimental to both of them. Justice jeopardized his standing of moral integrity within his department and Chicon severed his moral boundaries. Muir (1977) sums up Chicon's lesson this way.

> Since Chicon saw no clear boundaries for containing the privilege of dishonesty, his moral process began to stampede...Chicon found himself expanding the privilege to be dishonest whenever his bargaining position was weak, then whenever it would give an advantage to policemen in general, then whenever it would be personally advantageous, then whenever it could be his personal profit, then finally whenever his impulses moved him to do so. Under the stress of daily police work, the exceptional privilege to be dishonest soon devastated the rule of truthfulness, like a cancer on the soul. (p.207)

Recruits are exposed to a wide array of peer behaviors in the performance of their duties. In many situations, the recruits observe unethical behavior from these other officers and accept this beginning stage of corruption as part of the job (Barker, 1977). For example, the newly acquired police powers may foster sexual misconduct, abuse of police authority to various degrees (Carter, Sapp, & Stephens, 1989), police solidarity and social isolation (Skolnick, 1986), or secrecy and lying (Manning, 1978). The academic literature seems to support the popular fictional literature (ex. *The Blue Knight*)

that provides stories of how older officers provide guidance in both the cultures and practices of law enforcement to younger peers, only to have the peers repeat the same unethical behavior. However, informal mentoring need not imply assimilation of poor conduct and ethics.

The founders of Field Training Associates incorporate a mentoring concept within their Field Training Officer (FTO) program (Sokolove & Locke, 1992). While the program itself is very formal; the concept of mentoring is not. The authors explain how the experience of the FTO can be taught to the probationary officer through coaching or mentoring. Upon successful completion of the program, the probationary officer is then often assigned to solitary patrol. However, in many instances, the FTO often keeps in future contact with the probationary officer in an ad hoc informal mentoring fashion (Sokolove & Locke, 1992). This helps to provide some insight into the formal mentoring concept.

Formal Peer Mentoring

Formal peer mentoring programs within police agencies are limited. However, anecdotal information does exist regarding two formal mentoring programs.

The Fairfax County, Virginia, Police Department (FCPD) found that in 1995, a considerable number of recruits were unable to complete basic police training. In an effort to improve successful completion, FCPD administrators formed a work group to explore the feasibility of a formal mentoring program (Edmundson, 1999). Its focus would center on recruiting, hiring and training recruits. Mentors consisted of veteran employees with a wide array of background and experience. The purpose of the program

was to introduce new employees to other department members and assist them in becoming familiar and comfortable with the community. Upon reporting for their first day in the academy, recruits were paired and assigned with an experienced mentor to help them through the training. Mentors also helped recruits with administrative areas which are often taken for granted such as pass cards, academy accessories, locations of police facilities and geographic directions (Edmundson, 1999).

Edmundson also reported that although FCPD designed its mentoring program for the period prior to the academy, some immeasurable personal benefits such as enduring friendships resulted as well. This finding supports earlier research in this work (ex. Gold, 1999; Kram, 1985; Raggins & Cotton, 1999; Sokolove & Locke, 1992). The program not only improved successful basic training completion, but it also improved morale and employee retention (Edmundson, 1999).

A key component worthy of note in the FCPD mentoring program is that it is not a *peer* mentoring program, per se. It is developed for the purpose of assisting newly hired officers prior to, and shortly after completion of the police academy. The FCPD is focused on the early assimilation of recruits into their law enforcement careers. However, there is no stipulation for continued monitoring and coaching through the first few years of solo patrol in a formal fashion (Edmundson, 1999).

Lansing's formal peer mentoring program

In Michigan, the Lansing City Police Department (LPD) operates a formal peer mentoring program which was implemented in 1997 by the Assistant Chief of Police, Julie Williams (2000). Designed to retain newly hired personnel, the program shared

technical knowledge between senior and junior officers. In 1998, the program was

expanded to include emergency dispatchers as well (Williams, 2000). This model

program was recognized by the 2000 International Association of Chiefs of Police

(IACP).

Williams (2000) explains that whether recruits lack skills or confidence, some

simply fail to survive the probationary employment period. Whether recruits quit or are

terminated, the agency is left without the recruits that it spent the time and money to

select and train. Williams notes that women and minorities are especially prone to leaving

the agency and presents a significant problem at LPD:

> Many police agencies employ some form of Field Training Officer (FTO)
>
> program to formally train recruits...Between January 1988 and November 1996,
>
> the department [LPD] hired 135 police officers (108 men and 27 women), and
>
> each participated in an FTO program. Eighty-three percent (112 actual)
>
> successfully completed the program. Twenty-three police officer candidates
>
> failed the FTO program, in effect, failing their probationary period. Moreover,
>
> although 87% of the men (94 actual) successfully completed their probationary
>
> period, only 67% of the women (18 actual) did so. African Americans comprised
>
> 14 of the hires and had a 79% success rate. Asian American and Hispanic officers
>
> each achieved a 75 % success rate with four hires and twelve hires, respectively.
>
> (p.19)

A major first step in implementing a mentoring program is identifying goals

which may be unique to an agency (Williams, 2000). LPD formed focus groups

consisting of representatives from all branches of the department. Sworn police officers

of the focus groups answered an anonymous survey which was designed according to

individual career stages. Officers with three or more years of service answered questions

such as potential barriers to implementation, accessibility and acceptability to the

proposed program. Sworn personnel with less than three years completed a survey which

was designed to reveal experiences during probation, whether positive or negative.

Williams stressed that a mentoring program cannot succeed without the full support of

the organization and especially senior management.

According to Williams (2000), the two-year evaluation after implementation

showed:

> The sworn personnel hired in 1997 consisted of the single largest group of women
>
> and minorities ever hired in a single effort until 1998, when the department hired
>
> an even larger pool of minorities. Thus, the mentor program was put to the test
>
> early. The average yearly retention rate from 1992 to 1997 stood at 82%, then
>
> rose in 1998 to 86%, a notable figure given the high numbers of new hires,
>
> especially women and minorities, who typically find it most difficult to complete
>
> their probationary periods. (p.23)

Williams (2000) found that one hundred percent of the mentors credited the mentoring program with facilitating protégés to assimilate into the department, acquire and enhance their police skills, identify their career goals and successfully complete the probationary period. Protégé feedback was similarly positive. The mentoring program was then expanded to include the emergency communications center as well (Williams, 2000). The author concludes by noting that employees who flourish, positively motivate their agency to prosper, and thereby, community residents profit as well.

Although the LPD mentoring program would be considered formal, by definition it deviates from this by allowing for a flexible time frame based on individual needs (Williams, 2000). In a diverse profession like law enforcement, people learn at different rates and a rigid timeline could be counterproductive, which deviates from the rigidity of more traditional formal mentoring programs in other disciplines (Douglas, 1997; Gaskill, 1993; Murray, 1991; & Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

Females and Peer Mentoring in Law Enforcement

Gold (1999), in her book, *Top Cops*, interviewed thirteen female police officers, all of which held the rank of lieutenant or higher in their respective agencies. While discussing their means of achievement, Gold learned that mentoring played a key role in their success without exception. In fact, many of these females are now mentors themselves. Explaining that they may have had more than one mentor of either gender, each female stressed that without a confidant, their accomplishments may have been unattainable. Additionally, Gold (1999) insists that the achievements of these females hinged on four key issues: 1) acknowledging that gender discrimination exists in the

recruitment, training, and promotion of females in law enforcement; 2) eliminating both

subtle and overt gender discrimination and sexual harassment; 3) developing effective

programs to increase the number of females in policing; and 4) removing the barriers to

advancement at all levels. Support from a mentor was crucial in addressing these issues

(Gold, 1999). Conversely, the lack of a peer mentor can be exhausting for female

officers.

Due to their inherent maternal role, females continue to struggle for recognition in

police service. Parenting roles place the everyday work of female police officers in a

perspective that male officers fail to appreciate (Holdaway & Parker, 1998). With their

maternal introduction of children, work and family conflict is more prominent for

females than males (Hickman et al., 2001). Perhaps this being a major contributing

factor, a substantial number of females over men, claimed that they were not even a

parent when at work (Hickman et al., 2001).

This condition seems to affect European culture as well. Female officers complain

that they also lack the mentoring that males receive. A British study surveyed females in

a northern English constabulary to discuss their experiences in police employment

(Holdaway & Parker, 1998). Complaining about preferential considerations of males over

females, females argued that male counterparts had "*mentors*, or at least someone who

takes a positive interest in their careers" (Holdaway & Parker, 1998, p.48). With females

regarded as the primary child care parent in the U.S. (Hickman et al., 2001; & Kossek &

Ozeki, 1998), Holdaway and Parker (1998) report similar findings in Britain:

Forty per cent of men (compared to 17 per cent of females) agreed that 'if a child

is sick, no one is really an adequate substitute for its mother' and 39 percent of

men agreed that 'if there is a choice, it's economically more sensible to choose a

man for a job rather than a woman'... [these] attitudes result in...stereotypically

female roles and failure to support equal opportunities practices. (p.48)

Cross-gender mentoring in law enforcement is an area which should be primarily

avoided. A review of the literature suggests that although cross-gender relationships are

viable, there are normally limitations to consider (Schwiebert, 1999). The risk of

romantic and sexual involvement, power inequity between males and females, and the

likelihood of less after-work socialization, all contribute to mentoring failure. Finally, an

inherent element which has already been discussed is the lack of the relational element

which is important to so many females when mentored by other females is absent when

mentored by males (Schor, 1997; Schwiebert, 1999).

Support for Peer Mentoring Programs

While the advantages of an effective peer mentoring program in law enforcement

can be numerous, individual attitude, motivational incentive and administrative backing

are primary considerations in determining its effectiveness and benefits (Williams, 2000).

The program does not have to be time-consuming. An hour per month may be sufficient,

during which time administrators can introduce different agency perspectives regarding

individuals and goals to the protégé (Dolan, 2000).

To conclude that any officer could be an effective mentor as long he or she has

experience would be mistake. An effective peer mentor should be someone who is always

willing to offer advice and counsel (Gualardo, 2000). However, in law enforcement,

some unique qualities are required in addition to those already mentioned.

According to Williams (2000), program coordinators should actively recruit officer mentors who are respected, motivated, confident, flexible, able to engender trust, and are truly concerned with the development of the protégé. He or she should be dedicated to the extent that the mentor will spend whatever time proves necessary to assist the protégé. Hollister (2001) adds that an effective mentor should strive to always do what is right and ethical, and be a leader by example. A mentor must be committed to the vision of the program and the decision to become a peer mentor is one that should not be taken lightly. Issues of morale, attitude towards superiors, and promotional process are all contingent upon job satisfaction (Seltzer, Alone, & Howard, 1996), and job satisfaction is intrinsic to an employees work environment (Zhao et al., 1999).

"Mentoring has proven a win-win proposition for individuals and organizations. The question law enforcement leaders must ask is no longer, 'Why use mentoring?' but, rather, 'Why not use mentoring?'" (Williams, 2000, p. 26).

Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research was to investigate how newer police officers are familiarized into their agency with respect to the manner in which they were assimilated and/or mentored. Respondents were selected from a list of all law enforcement agencies in the State of Michigan (N = 610), according to the Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (MCOLES) 2003 report. The law enforcement agencies included cities, townships, county sheriff's, airports, tribal governments, institutions of higher learning and railroad police departments. State and federal agencies were not included for analysis. A simple random sample was formed by randomly selecting 100 agencies from the 2003 MCOLES Directory of Michigan Law Enforcement Agencies. The target population or respondents for the survey were patrol supervisors (or their equivalent). The units of analysis were the newly hired police officers whom they oversee.

Population Selection

Each agency in the MCOLES directory was assigned a number from one to 610. Then a list was formed from one to 100. Each applicable random number (from one through 610) taken from the book of random numbers by Kachigan (1986), was hyphenated and placed in order on the list. This system continued until 100 coded numbers were selected. Finally, agencies were assigned these coded numbers according to their appearance in the MCOLES directory until a complete sample population of 100 (n) agencies was achieved.

Research Typology

The review of the literature explained that the law enforcement profession frequently forms unique social sub-cultures. Since the criterion group is newer police officers, a diverse and unique group, a qualitative exploratory research method was conducted. The research questionnaire was designed to reflect a sociometric survey.

Survey

The survey instrument was also developed through the review of the literature, which presented the research issue that many new police officers have at least some degree of difficulty adjusting to their profession (Edmundson, 1999; Gaines et al., 2000; Goldstein, 1977; Heffernan & Stroup, 1985; Manning, 1982; Toch & Grant, 1991; & Williams, 2000). What are not as clear are the reasons that these officers have such difficulty: whether issues involving occupational orientation, training, department expectations or a host of other concerns that may be considered unique to their profession. These factors all impact their introduction period to police work (Asch, 1968; Gold, 1999; & Sokolove & Locke, 1992) and as such, the questionnaire was designed to investigate these areas.

The survey consisted of statements that were designed to explore methods and/or programs offered to entry-level police officers to determine how they were assimilated into their agency. The surveys directed that respondents answer in the context of newly hired, certified road patrol officers. Survey instructions also requested that jail, support or other staff be excluded from consideration when responding to the survey.

The survey was divided into six parts that included: 1) mentoring defined; 2) field training program (FTP); 3) formal mentoring program (FMP); 4) informal mentoring relationship (IMR); 5) effectiveness of IMR's; and, 6) agency demographics. Question formats were close-ended (forced choice); open-ended; dichotomous; and Likert scale (Gay & Airasian, 2003).

Following a brief introduction to the concept of mentoring, the first series of questions pertained to issues regarding the respondent's form of field training –if applicable. Questions queried as to the length of the training program, how and/or if the FTO's were formally trained, their average age, and average years of job experience.

The second section consisted of questions relating to formal mentoring programs. Questions included issues about FMP implementation, mentor training, and program design. Questions regarding protégé and mentor selection, guidelines, reasons for the need of an FMP and the perceived level of satisfaction to the program were also included.

Informal mentoring relationships were investigated in the third section. Although many of the questions in this section were similar to those of FMP's, some of the more unique characteristics associated with IMR's were also asked. For example, the respondents' opinion of an IMR's existence within his or her agency and its positive and/or negative influence.

The questionnaire concluded with statements relating to the perceived effectiveness of IMR's. Respondents were requested to report their level of satisfaction or degree of agreement based on a Likert scale. The final section addressed the demographic characteristics of the respondent's agency.

Since this researcher sought to obtain as much information as possible, respondents were encouraged to state their opinion or add other comments, as appropriate, via open-ended questions. The cover letter and instructions stressed that all answers and responses would be confidential and that following final data compilation, all surveys would be destroyed, further ensuring confidentiality. Following the data analysis stage, all identifiers related to the agency were also destroyed, ensuring anonymity of the respondents as well.

Survey Dissemination

In compliance with the University regulations, an application for survey dissemination was submitted to the Grand Valley State University Human Research Review Committee for approval, which was received on September 30, 2004 (See Appendix A). A reliability assessment of the survey instrument was tested by three area police agencies which were within close proximity to the researcher. No modifications or

revisions were conducted on the survey instrument as a result of the test.

If electronically available, selected agencies were first contacted via e-mail (See Appendix B) to provide advance notification that the survey would be forth-coming. This e-mail was directed to the police administrators of the agencies, with the request that the questionnaires be assigned to their road patrol supervisors for completion. The first survey instrument was disseminated by multiple mailings to the sample population in a legal-sized envelope, via first-class mail. A cover letter with survey directions and explanations (See Appendix C); the four-page survey questionnaire (See Appendix D); a stamped, self-addressed, return envelope; were enclosed in the envelope mailings. Instructions included a request that the respondent return the completed questionnaire to the School of Criminal Justice at Grand Valley State University in Grand Rapids, Michigan. This method was selected over other methods as research has found that mail surveys are quicker and cheaper than most other methods (Babbie, 1992). Mail surveys also eliminate the ability to categorize a person's response or emotional inflections and purges interviewer bias, which is often prevalent in telephone and/or personal interviews.

To increase the response rate, a second mailing and cover letter (See Appendix E) was sent out to the respondents that did not respond within four weeks of the first round of survey dissemination. Three weeks after the second mailings, the researcher contacted the remaining respondents that had not yet replied, by telephone, facsimile, or in person, to further increase the response rate. Understanding the potential for interviewer bias (Babbie, 1992), the researcher was careful to read the questions and appropriately enter the respondents' answers during telephone conversations. When personally contacted, the respondents were physically handed the questionnaires for their completion.

The randomly selected population of 100 samples included sixty-three city or village police agencies; twelve township police agencies; eighteen county sheriff's departments; four institutions of higher learning; an airport, a railroad, and a tribal police

agency. Of this population, a total of 76 returned and usable surveys were used for final

data analysis.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The survey was conducted in three primary waves: mailings; telephone and facsimile contacts; and, personal contacts. The mailings were sent out four weeks apart with the first group yielding fifty responses. The second mailing produced seven more returns. Subsequent telephone contacts and facsimiles resulted in fifteen more usable surveys. The final four respondents were contacted in person and concluded the usable surveys. The final usable surveys included forty-six city police agencies, eighteen county sheriff's departments, seven township police agencies, four agencies at institutions of higher learning and an airport police agency, resulting in a total of 76 respondents.

Data Analysis

The sample data were analyzed according to the size of each respondent agency, in terms of its number of sworn officers, and placed in one of three separate groups. Each respondent group was approximately the same size. The SPSS version 12.0 for the Windows application was used for statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics were primarily compared, examined for percentile (alone or cumulative), analyzed for frequency distribution or entered for cross-tabulation analysis. Some tables were also statistically analyzed by using chi-square (X^2) analysis for patterns in the data to investigate any levels of measurable statistical significance (set at .05 and .01, respectively). The resulting figures, along with the degrees-of-freedom (df), appear in the lower left corner of the applicable table. A survey code book (See Appendix F) was constructed to describe the location of variables and code assignments.

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For multi-response menu items where respondents could omit undesired

selections, a "not selected" value code (88) was recorded. If simple yes or no

dichotomous responses were required, then value codes of one or zero, respectively, were

recorded. In all missing cases or missing data, a missing-values code (99) was entered.

Likert scale entries were value coded according to the respondents' level of agreement to

the survey statements (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Respondents that strongly agreed (SA)

with the statement were coded 1, agree (A) 2, and if undecided or neutral (U), 3. For

respondents that disagreed (D) with the statement, 4 was entered, and those that strongly

disagreed (SA) received a value coded 5. All compiled data were tabulated according to

assigned variables in the Survey Questionnaire Key (See Appendix G).

Demographics

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the responding agencies

(N= 76) with regard to the number of sworn personnel. Although county and municipal

agencies have their own category; townships, institutions of higher learning, and the

airport authority data were collapsed to form a third group. Table 1 also shows the

average number of sworn officers and supervisors for each group (ñ), with respect to their

percentage of the sample survey. The number of county and city respondents differed

considerably (n =18, n = 46, respectively). However, the mean number of officers and

supervisors was nearly identical (n = 31, 6; n = 30, 6; respectively). There was no

statistically significant difference between the types of the agencies in the survey sample

where the level of significance was set at .05 and .01, respectively (X^2 = .565; df = 74).

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Responding Agencies

(N = 76)

Agency	n	(%)	Mean # of sworn personnel	
			Officers	Supervisors
			(ñ)	(ñ)
County	18	(24)	31	6
City	46	(60)	30	6
Township /other	12	(16)	14	3
Total	76	(100)	75	15

X^2 = .565; df = 74

Table 2 shows the type, number and frequency of responding agencies (N = 76)

according to size. The sample data were collapsed to form three clusters of respondents;

small, medium and large. The number of sworn officers in each cluster ranged from 2

through 10; 11 through 24; and 28 through 1000 officers, respectively. The sample

consisted of 27 *small* agencies that, on average, employed seven officers. Twenty-four

medium sized agencies had an average of 17 officers, while 25 *large* agencies had an

average of 59 sworn officers that represented 71 percent of the sample population.

Table 2

Number of Sworn Officers by Agency Size

Agency size	n	Avg. # officers	(%)	(cumm. %)
Small	27	7	(9)	(9)
Medium	24	17	(20)	(29)
Large	25	59	(71)	(100)

Training of Field Training Officers

Table 3 shows the agencies that reported on FTO's (N = 55). The majority of the respondents replied that their FTO's were externally or formally trained (n = 47, 85%) by an outside program, as opposed to an internal or informal training program (n = 8, 15%).

Table 3 also compares the methods of training by agency type and agency size. When the data were analyzed by the type of agency, there was no measurable statistically significant difference between the types of agencies and FTO training (X^2 = .069; df = 2). When controlled for size, large agencies showed a statistically significant difference in comparison to medium and small agencies with respect to formalized training where the level of significance was set at .05 and .01, respectively (X^2 = .012; df = 2).

Table 3

Agencies Reporting on a Formalized Training for FTO's

(n = 55)

Training Method	Responding agency by Type			Responding agency by Size		
	County n (%)	City n (%)	Twp/Othr n (%)	Small n (%)	Medium n (%)	Large n (%)
Trained Externally	13 (93)	30 (88)	4 (57)	7 (64)	16 (80)	24 (100)
Trained Internally	1 (7)	4 (12)	3 (43)	4 (36)	4 (20)	0 (0)
Total	14 (100)	34 (100)	7 (100)	11 (100)	20 (100)	24 (100)

X^2 = .069; df = 2 X^2 = .012; df = 2

Formal Mentoring Programs

Table 4 shows the respondent's replies regarding experience with Formal

Mentoring Programs (FMP's). Ninety-nine percent (n = 67) reported that they currently

do not have an FMP and 96 percent (n = 73) reported that they never had an FMP. Three

respondents, or four percent of the sample, reported having an FMP at some time. One

county agency reported a current or existing program.

Table 4

Agencies Reporting on Formal Mentoring Programs

Agency	Currently have an FMP? (n = 68)				Ever have an FMP? (n = 76)			
	No	(%)	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	Yes	(%)
County	16	(24)	1	(1)	16	(21)	2	(3)
City	41	(60)	0	(0)	46	(61)	0	(0)
Twp / other	10	(15)	0	(0)	11	(14)	1	(1)
Total	67	(99)	1	(1)	73	(96)	3	(4)

Missing cases = 8   Missing cases = 0

Informal Mentoring Relationships

Research has shown that new police officers are often overwhelmed with new challenges and demanding issues of their jobs. When seeking help to deal with the issues, IMR's are often formed. Table 5 shows the agencies that responded regarding two key questions: *"Do IMR's exist in your agency?"* and *"Do IMR's play an important role in your agency?"* Regarding the existence of IMR's (n = 76), sixty-five (86%) respondents reported that IMR's existed within their agency; while 11 (14%) respondents reported that they did not exist. Of those reporting that IMR's exist (n = 62), 61 (99%) responded that they played an important role among their newer officers, with one (1%) respondent disagreeing.

Table 5

Reported Existence of IMR's

The Importance of an IMR's Role   (N = 76)

Agency	n	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	n	Yes	(%)	No	(%)
	"Do IMR's exist in your agency?" (n = 76)					"Do IMR's play an important role?" (n = 62)				
Small	27	22	(29)	5	(6.5)	19	19	(31)	0	(0)
Medium	24	19	(25)	5	(6.5)	19	19	(31)	0	(0)
Large	25	24	(32)	1	(1)	24	23	(37)	1	(1)
Total	76	65	(86)	11	(14)	62	61	(99)	1	(1)

Missing cases = 0   Missing cases = 14

Table 6 shows the reported frequency that newer officers seek IMR's among other

officers or similar role-models. Of these respondents (N = 59), the majority (n = 50, 85%)

indicated that more than 25 percent of their newer officers seek informal mentoring

relationships.

Table 6

Reported Frequency of
Protégés who seek IMR's

(N = 59)

Officers	n	(%)	(cumm. %)
1 – 25%	9	(15)	(15)
26 - 50%	14	(24)	(39)
51 - 75%	22	(37)	(76)
76 - 100%	14	(24)	(100)
Total	59	(100)	(100)

Some of the more prevalent difficulties that trouble newer officers such as methods of patrol, understanding how and when to make certain decisions, exchange in conversation, and support with difficulties, were presented in the questionnaire. Respondents were also asked who the newer officers most often select for advice concerning these issues and, therefore, become their informal mentors.

Table 7 shows the most popular responses that indicated why newer officers seek IMR's and who they most frequently select. The table is divided and shows each question and their responses in rank order. Chi-square tests were conducted on the data associated with each question to investigate any measures of statistical significance between the categories. Of the four top reasons that officers seek IMR's, none were statistically significant where the level of significance was set at .05 and .01, respectively. Likewise, the four top types of individuals that were selected for informal mentors showed no statistical significance either. These findings appear in the last column of Table 7. Over half (n = 28; 55 %) of the respondents reported that patrol operations was the major reason that newer officers seek IMR's. Slightly under half (n = 22, 45%) reported that peers and co-workers were most likely selected for IMR's.

Table 7

Primary Reasons for Using IMR's (Rank ordered)*

Who are Most Likely Selected as IMR's (Rank ordered)*

Reasons for IMR's	N	n	(%)	rank	X^2	df
Patrol operations	51	28	(55)	#1	.438	12
Encouragement w/ difficulties	48	8	(19.5)	#2	.088	10
Assistance w/ decision making	49	8	(16)	#3	.400	10
Interpersonal relationships	49	5	(10)	#4	.313	10

Who is most likely selected	N	n	(%)	rank	X^2	df
Peers / co-workers	49	22	(45)	#1	.463	4
Officers w/ 5+ years of experience	49	21	(43)	#2	.723	6
Immediate supervisors	52	7	(13)	#3	.197	8
Other outside officers	45	3	(7)	#4	.215	8

* Note: Categories are mutually exclusive and exhaustive

Out of 64 respondents (N), 49 (77%) reported that IMR's were not a problem in

their agencies. The remaining15 respondents reported at least one problem that was

linked with informal mentorship's and comprised 23 percent of the sample population. In

rank order, Table 8 shows some of the more prevalent problems that were associated with

the use of IMR's. Data regarding on-duty and off-duty problems were collapsed owing to

their individually low numbers. The leading reported problem among IMR's was

complaints of insubordination (n = 9, 60%). Addictive substance abuse and complaints

from other peers that informal mentors give poor advice (n = 8, 53%, respectively) were

ranked the same and placed second.

Table 8

Agencies Reporting Problems
Associated with IMR's (Rank ordered)*

(N = 64)

(n = 15)

Problem Issue	n	(%)
Complaints of insubordination	9	(60)
Addictive substance abuse	8	(53)
Complaints of informal mentors giving poor advice from other peers	8	(53)
Unethical behavior(s)	4	(27)
Accepting gratuities	3	(20)

* Note: Categories are mutually exclusive and exhaustive

Table 9 shows those respondents (n = 15) that reported one or more problems

with IMR's, by agency size. Two (13%) small agencies reported problems with respect to

IMR's. Five medium-sized agencies represented one third (33%) of the reported

problems, while eight of the large agencies represented over half (53%) of the reported

problems associated with IMR's.

Table 9

Agencies Reporting Problems with IMR's According to Size

(n = 15)

Agency Size	n	(%)	(cumm. %)
Small	2	(13)	(13)
Medium	5	(33)	(47)
Large	8	(53)	(100)
Total	15	(100)	(100)

Table 10 investigates desirability of IMR's as role models based on respondent agency and respondent size. Sixty-seven percent (n = 41) of the respondents reported that the majority of their IMR's were appropriate role models. Twenty-three percent (n = 14) replied that about half were, while ten percent (n = 6) of the respondents reported that only a few of their IMR's were appropriate role models.

When the data were analyzed according to agency, there were no measures of statistical significance (X^2 = .950; df = 6). When analyzed according to size, the data showed a statistically significant difference with respect to an IMR's suitability and the agency's size (X^2 = .004; df = 6). (Level of significance is .05 and .01, respectively).

Table 10

IMR's That Are Reported as
Appropriate Role Models

(n = 61)
(*suitability*)

Respondent	The Majority Are		About Half Are		A Few Are		
	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	(cumm. %)
Agency							
County	9	(15)	5	(9)	1	(2)	(26)
City	25	(41)	7	(11)	4	(6)	(84)
Twp/Othr	7	(11)	2	(3)	1	(2)	(100)
Total	41	(67)	14	(23)	6	(10)	(100)
(X^2 = .950; df = 6)							
Size							
Small	17	(28)	2	(3)	0	(0)	(31)
Medium	13	(21)	6	(10)	0	(0)	(62)
Large	11	(18)	6	(10)	6	(10)	(100)
Total	41	(67)	14	(23)	6	(10)	(100)
(X^2 = .004; df = 6)							

Table 11 shows when IMR's most frequently occur. Various occasions and

activities while officers were on and/or off-duty, were presented to the respondents. Table

11 shows that most informal mentoring takes place while officers are on-duty and during

convenient opportunities. Respondents answered that *most often* (31%, n = 19), IMR's

occurred before the beginning of their shifts and that IMR's *often* (69%, n = 40) took

place during breaks.

While off-duty, 40% (n = 22) of the respondents reported that IMR's took place

often at social gatherings. Religious gatherings were the least likely place for IMR's.

Ninety-three percent (n = 50) reported that they *seldom* took place in these settings.

Table 11

Agencies Reporting When IMR's Take Place

(N = 76)*

When IMR's Occur		Most often		Often		Seldom	
	N	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
On-duty							
Before shift begins	61	19	(31)	33	(54)	9	(15)
Between calls/complaints	56	13	(23)	33	(59)	10	(18)
During work breaks	58	10	(17)	40	(69)	8	(14)
Off-duty							
At social gatherings	55	5	(9)	22	(40)	28	(51)
At sporting events	54	2	(4)	17	(31)	35	(65)
At bars or clubs	56	2	(4)	15	(27)	39	(70)
At religious gatherings	54	0	(0)	4	(7)	50	(93)

*Note: Categories are mutually exclusive and exhaustive

IMR's Impact Regarding Various Police Functions

Respondents were asked to rate statements regarding the impact that IMR's had on various police functions. For analysis, data were placed into one of four categories that included; training, discipline, job performance and ethical issues.

Responses to the statements in this section required the respondent to reply according to a Likert scale. Following each statement, respondents were instructed to mark; strongly agree (SA), agree (A), undecided (U), disagree (D), or strongly disagree (SD), after each statement. To make the data more condensed and manageable for analysis, data were collapsed into three groups. Strongly agree and agree responses were collapsed to form a *positive* response. Disagree and strongly disagree responses were collapsed to form a *negative* response. The *undecided* or neutral response category remained unchanged.

For Tables 12 through18, chi-square tests were conducted on the data associated with each statement to investigate any measures of statistical significance where the level of significance was set at .05 and .01, respectively. The results for these tests will be listed separately and appear in Table 19.

Training

Table 12 shows two statements and the responses (N = 66) regarding field

training issues involving IMR's. Overall, respondents reported support for the IMR's role

in this area. Regarding the first statement, 84 percent (n = 55) of the respondents agreed

that IMR's serve to supplement field training programs. Ten percent (n = 7) were

undecided, while six percent (n = 4) responded negatively to the issue.

When asked to rate the statement, *"IMR's often contradict with what is learned in*

an FTO program", 53 percent (n = 35) disagreed with the statement. The remainder of

the respondents were either undecided (29 %, n = 19) or agreed (18 %, n = 12), that

IMR's conflict with the standards of field training.

Table 12

IMR's on Training

Statement		Response					
		Positive		Undecided		Negative	
− "IMR's serve as a supplement to the FTO program".	**N**	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
Agency Size							
Small	23	19	(29)	2	(3)	2	(3)
Medium	21	17	(26)	3	(4)	1	(1.5)
Large	22	19	(29)	2	(3)	1	(1.5)
Total	66	55	(84)	7	(10)	4	(6)
− "IMR's often contradict with what is learned in an FTO program".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	2	(3)	10	(15)	11	(16.5)
Medium	21	3	(4)	5	(8)	13	(20)
Large	22	7	(11)	4	(6)	11	(16.5)
Total	66	12	(18)	19	(29)	35	(53)

Discipline

Table 13 shows three statements and their responses (N = 66) regarding

disciplinary issues and IMR's. When responding to the statement that an IMR's advice

occasionally leads to disciplinary action with new hires, approximately half of the

respondents (51 %, n = 34) disagreed. The remaining respondents were evenly divided

(n = 16) regarding positive and undecided responses (25% and 24%, respectively) to the

statement.

Twenty-six percent (n = 17) and 21 percent (n = 14) of the respondents replied

positively and undecided, respectively, to the statement that IMR's can lead to civilian

complaints against newer officers. Fifty-three percent (n = 34) of the respondents replied

negatively to the same statement.

Eighty-two percent (n = 54) of the respondents replied positively that IMR's can

be useful in preventing disciplinary issues. Approximately eleven (n = 7) and eight

(n = 5) percent of the respondents registered undecided or negative responses,

respectively, to the statement.

Table 13

IMR's on Discipline

Statement		Response						
		Positive		Undecided		Negative		
– "An IMR's advice occasionally leads to disciplinary action with new hires".	N	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	
Agency Size								
Small	23	3	(5)	8	(12)	12	(18)	
Medium	21	7	(11)	2	(3)	12	(18)	
Large	22	6	(9)	6	(9)	10	(15)	
Total	66	16	(25)	16	(24)	34	(51)	
– "IMR's can contribute to civilian complaints against officers".								
Agency Size								
Small	23	5	(8)	4	(6)	14	(22)	
Medium	20	4	(6)	5	(7.5)	11	(17)	
Large	22	8	(12)	5	(7.5)	9	(14)	
Total	65	17	(26)	14	(21)	34	(53)	
– "IMR's can be useful in preventing disciplinary issues".								
Agency Size								
Small	23	19	(29)	2	(3)	2	(3)	
Medium	21	17	(26)	2	(3)	2	(3)	
Large	22	18	(27)	3	(4.5)	1	(1.5)	
Total	66	54	(82)	7	(10.5)	5	(7.5)	

Job performance

Table 14 shows the responses (N = 66) to three statements regarding job

performance issues. The table is divided into three parts to reflect the findings of each

statement.

Reaction to the first statement shows that 55 (84%) respondents positively agreed

that IMR's assist new officers with interpersonal communication skills. Nine (13.5%)

respondents were undecided and two (3%) reported negatively on an IMR's assistance on

the issue.

Regarding the next statement, that IMR's decrease employee turn-over or quits,

over three quarters (76%, n = 50) of the respondents agreed that they do. Thirteen (20%)

were undecided and three (4.5%) responded negatively.

Concerning the last statement in Table 14, *"IMR's assist officers to react*

appropriately if their authority is challenged", 74 percent (n = 49) of the respondents

agreed with the statement. The undecided and negative reactions were almost evenly

spread at eight (12%) and nine (14%) responses, respectively.

Table 14

IMR's on Job Performance - I

Statement		Response					
		Positive		Undecided		Negative	
- "IMR's assist new officers with interpersonal communication skills"	**N**	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
Agency Size							
Small	23	19	(29)	3	(4.5)	1	(1.5)
Medium	21	17	(26)	3	(4.5)	1	(1.5)
Large	22	19	(29)	3	(4.5)	0	(0)
Total	66	55	(84)	9	(13.5)	2	(3)
- "Informal mentors can assist in preventing employee turn-over/quits".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	15	(23)	7	(11)	1	(1.5)
Medium	21	17	(26)	3	(4.5)	1	(1.5)
Large	22	18	(27)	3	(4.5)	1	(1.5)
Total	66	50	(76)	13	(20)	3	(4.5)
- "IMR's assist officers to react appropriately if their authority is challenged".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	18	(27)	2	(3)	3	(4.5)
Medium	21	14	(21)	3	(4.5)	4	(6)
Large	22	17	(26)	3	(4.5)	2	(3)
Total	66	49	(74)	8	(12)	9	(13.5)

Table 15 also shows the responses (N = 66) to three statements regarding job performance issues. The table is divided into three parts to reflect the findings of each statement. The first section shows responses to the statement, *"IMR's effectively teach new officers to recognize dangerous situations"*. Fifty-five (84%) respondents positively reported that IMR's do so effectively. Nine (13.5%) respondents were undecided and two (3%) disagreed with the statement.

The next statement concerns the use of force. Respondents were requested to indicate how effectively an IMR appropriately models the use of force to newer officers. The majority of them (n = 47, 71%) agreed that IMR's set appropriate examples for the use of force. Thirteen (19.5%) respondents were undecided and six (9%) gave negative answers.

The final statement requested respondents to evaluate their perceptions regarding the statement, *"IMR's assist officers to become familiar with community people"*. Nearly all (n = 62, 94%) positively agreed that IMR's are helpful in this area. One (1.5%) was undecided and three (4.5%) respondents disagreed with the statement.

Table 15

IMR's on Job Performance - II

Statement		Response					
		Positive		Undecided		Negative	
– "IMR's effectively teach new officers to recognize dangerous situations."	N	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
Agency Size							
Small	23	21	(32)	1	(1.5)	1	(1.5)
Medium	21	17	(26)	4	(6)	0	(0)
Large	22	17	(26)	4	(6)	1	(1.5)
Total	66	55	(84)	9	(13.5)	2	(3)
– "IMR's appropriately model use of force to new officers".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	18	(27)	3	(4.5)	2	(3)
Medium	21	15	(23)	4	(6)	2	(3)
Large	22	14	(21)	6	(9)	2	(3)
Total	66	47	(71)	13	(19.5)	6	(9)
– "IMR's assist officers to become familiar with community people".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	22	(33)	0	(0)	1	(1.5)
Medium	21	20	(30)	0	(0)	1	(1.5)
Large	22	20	(30)	1	(1.5)	1	(1.5)
Total	66	62	(93)	1	(1.5)	3	(4.5)

IMR's and ethics

Table 16 reports the findings from statements associated with IMR's and ethical issues. The first statement in Table 16 shows that respondents generally agree that IMR's assist newer officers to ethically use discretion on the street. While 53 (80%) of them agreed with the statement, nine (13.5%) respondents were undecided and four (6%) differed on the issue.

Regarding the next statement, *"An IMR models appropriate off-duty conduct "*, half of the respondents (n = 33) gave positive responses. Over one third (n = 26, 39%) of the respondents were undecided in their answers and six (19%) stated that IMR's do not model appropriate off-duty conduct.

The last statement in Table 16, addressed unethical values. Respondents replied to the statement that IMR's promote unethical values in new officers. The majority of the respondents (n = 28, 42%) agreed that IMR's do promote unethical values. Sixteen (24%) respondents were undecided on the issue and 22 (33%) of them disagreed.

Table 16

IMR's and Ethics - I

			Response				
Statement		Positive		Undecided		Negative	
– "IMR's assist officers to ethically exercise discretion on the street".	**N**	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
Agency Size							
Small	23	19	(29)	2	(3)	2	(3)
Medium	21	18	(27)	3	(4.5)	0	(0)
Large	22	16	(24)	4	(6)	2	(3)
Total	66	53	(80)	9	(13.5)	4	(6)
– "An IMR models appropriate off-duty conduct".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	13	(20)	8	(12)	2	(3)
Medium	20	12	(18)	8	(12)	0	(0)
Large	22	8	(12)	10	(15)	4	(6)
Total	65	33	(50)	26	(39)	6	(9)
– "IMR's can be instrumental in promoting unethical values in new hires".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	9	(13.5)	8	(12)	6	(9)
Medium	21	8	(12)	5	(7.5)	8	(12)
Large	22	11	(16.5)	3	(4.5)	8	(12)
Total	66	28	(42)	16	(24)	22	(33)

Table 17 continues to show the respondents (N = 66) replies to ethical issues. The first statement begins with, *"IMR's decrease civilian complaints against new officers"*. Thirty-eight respondents (57%) agreed that IMR's decrease civilian complaints against new officers. Twenty (31%) were undecided and eight (12%) respondents disagreed with the statement.

The next statement in Table 17 examined whether an IMR encourages newer officers to resign or quit. Six (9%) respondents agreed that IMR's encourage newer officers to quit. Although nine (13.5%) were undecided, over three-quarters (n = 51, 77%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement.

The final statement of Table 17 regarded the IMR's role in maintaining confidentiality. Half of the respondents (n = 33), agreed that IMR's mirror the importance of maintaining departmental confidence. Twenty-five (37.5%) were unsure and eight (12%) respondents disagreed with the statement.

Table 17

IMR's and Ethics - II

		Response					
Statement		Positive		Undecided		Negative	
- "IMR's decrease civilian complaints against new officers".	N	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
Agency Size							
Small	23	18	(27)	3	(4.5)	2	(3)
Medium	21	14	(21)	6	(9)	1	(1.5)
Large	22	6	(9)	11	(17)	5	(7.5)
Total	66	38	(57)	20	(30.5)	8	(12)
- "An IMR increases employee turn-over/quits".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	3	(4.5)	4	(6)	16	(24)
Medium	21	1	(1.5)	2	(3)	18	(27)
Large	22	2	(3)	3	(4.5)	17	(26)
Total	65	6	(9)	9	(13.5)	51	(77)
- "IMR's mirror the importance of maintaining confidentiality".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	15	(23)	5	(7.5)	3	(4.5)
Medium	21	10	(15)	8	(12)	3	(4.5)
Large	22	8	(12)	12	(18)	2	(3)
Total	66	33	(50)	25	(37.5)	8	(12)

The final table regarding ethics, Table 18 shows the respondents (N = 66) replies

to the final three statements. In the first statement, the majority of the responding

agencies agreed (n = 40, 61%) that IMR's encourage newer officers to take accountability

for their actions. Approximately one quarter (n = 17) of the respondents were undecided

and nine (13.5%) replied that IMR's do not encourage newer officers to take personal

accountability.

In the next statement, Table 18 shows that the majority of the IMR's help other

officers respond compassionately to traumatic situations. Seventy-four percent (n = 49)

agreed, 13 (19.5%) were undecided and four (6%) respondents disagreed that IMR's are

helpful.

The final statement of Table 18 shows that 63% (n = 42) of IMR's may tend to

encourage police sub-cultures in their agencies. Twenty-seven percent (n = 18) were

undecided and six (9%) disagreed that IMR's can lead to sub-cultures.

Table 18

IMR's and Ethics - III

		Response					
Statement		Positive		Undecided		Negative	
	N	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
– "IMR's encourage officers to take accountability for their actions".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	15	(23)	6	(9)	2	(3)
Medium	21	15	(23)	4	(6)	2	(3)
Large	22	10	(15)	7	(10.5)	5	(7. 5)
Total	66	40	(61)	17	(25.5)	9	(13.5)
– "IMR's help officers to respond compassionately in traumatic situations".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	19	(29)	3	(4.5)	1	(1.5)
Medium	21	16	(24)	4	(6)	1	(1.5)
Large	22	14	(21)	6	(9)	2	(3)
Total	66	49	(74)	13	(19.5)	4	(6)
– "IMR's can lead to reinforcement of police sub-cultures".							
Agency Size							
Small	23	8	(12)	12	(18)	3	(4.5)
Medium	21	14	(21)	4	(6)	3	(4.5)
Large	22	20	(30)	2	(3)	0	(0)
Total	66	42	(63)	18	(27)	6	(9)

Chi-Square Results

Table 19 shows the results of the chi-square tests that were conducted on the data

in Tables 12 through 18. With two exceptions, the data show no statistical significance

where the level of significance was set at .05 and .01, respectively. Each statement is

listed according to the order of appearance in each table. The corresponding chi-square

and degrees of freedom will be listed next to it.

Statements of statistical significance

The first statement that shows statistical significance appears originally in Table

17 (Page 82) which states that *"IMR's decrease civilian complaints against new*

officers". Of the respondents (n = 66), 38 agreed, while 20 were undecided and eight

disagreed with the statement. Chi-square analysis showed a statistically significant

difference in their responses to the statement $(X^2 = .008;\ df = 4)^*$.

The other statement shows statistical significance appears in Table 18 (Page 84).

Respondents (n = 66) that replied to the statement *"IMR's can lead to reinforcement of*

police sub-cultures", registered 42 positive responses, 18 undecided and six negative

responses. Chi-square analysis showed a statistically significant difference in their

responses to the statement $(X^2 = .002;\ df = 4)^*$.

Table 19

Chi-Square Tests   *IMR's and Agency Size*

(Level of significance is set at .05 and .01, respectively)

Statement	Chi-Square X^2	Degrees of Freedom Df
– "IMR's serve as a supplement to the FTO program".	.933	4
– "IMR's often contradict with what is learned in an FTO program".	.147	4
– "An IMR's advice occasionally leads to disciplinary action with new hires".	.259	4
– "IMR's can contribute to civilian complaints against officers".	.637	4
– "IMR's can be useful in preventing disciplinary issues".	.951	4
– "IMR's assist new officers with interpersonal communication skills"	.901	4
– "Informal mentors can assist in preventing employee turn-over/quits".	.628	4
– "IMR's assist officers to react appropriately if their authority is challenged".	.848	4
– "IMR's effectively teach new officers to recognize dangerous situations."	.484	4
– "IMR's appropriately model use of force to new officers".	.825	4
– "IMR's assist officers to become familiar with community people".	.729	4
– "IMR's assist officers to ethically exercise discretion on the street".	.580	4
– "An IMR models appropriate off-duty conduct".	.243	4
– "IMR's can be instrumental in promoting unethical values in new hires".	.543	4
* – "IMR's decrease civilian complaints against new officers".	.008	4
– "An IMR increases employee turn-over/quits".	.791	4
– "IMR's mirror the importance of maintaining confidentiality".	.252	4
– "IMR's encourage officers to take accountability for their actions	.405	4
– "IMR's help officers to respond compassionately in traumatic situations".	.694	4
* – "IMR's can lead to reinforcement of police sub-cultures".	.002	4

Chapter 5

FINDINGS and DISCUSSION

Findings

The responding agencies were arranged according to their numbers of sworn officers and placed in one of three groups that contained approximately the same number of agencies in each group. Over two-thirds of the responding agencies (small and medium) employed 24 or less sworn officers. Although the remaining third (large) of the agencies employed 28 or more sworn officers, it also accounted for 71 percent of them.

Field training

Eleven out of 27 small agencies offered a form of field training program for their newer officers. Perhaps larger agencies understand more clearly the implications of failing to adequately prepare or train their new officers in a structured setting. When combining medium and large agencies together (n = 49), 45 of them offered a formalized field training program for newer officers. This research supports Daane and Hendricks (1991), Risher (2001), Rose and Warren (2004), and Ross (2000), when they claim that many court rulings have held that police agencies are liable when their officers "misstep" due to the employers' failure to provide adequate and documented training. Whether the data were analyzed according to agency type or size, 85 percent of the respondents had their field training officers formally trained in a school or similar program (Sokolove & Locke, 1992). Statistically significant findings were associated with formally trained FTO's and large police agencies in that all formally trained their FTO's.

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Formal Mentoring Programs

Supported by the review of the literature (Williams, 2000), Formal Mentoring

Programs (FMP) in law enforcement are extremely rare. Of the three respondents that

stated that they ever had an FMP, two explained that they were discontinued over the

implementation of an FTO program. Although the third agency reported a current or

existing FMP, according to the literature, it would be questionable. The respondent

described it as one which is taught by "OTJ" (or) "on the job" training. According to

Williams (2000) and Kram (1985), this is hardly an FMP; that is, one which requires

intense dedication, involvement, is limited by time and is being closely supervised.

Informal Mentoring Relationships – in general

When explained what an Informal Mentoring Relationship (IMR) was, over three-

quarters of the respondents stated that IMR's existed in their agency. When asked if the

IMR's play an important role with newer officers, all but one respondent agreed that they

do play an important role. Three quarters of newly hired police officers seek IMR's and,

supporting Drummond (1976), the most often reported reason was for guidance or advice

in patrol operations. As reported in Asch (1968), and this research supports him, new

officers that seek help most often select peers and other co-workers for it.

Of the respondents that replied to the question that asked if IMR's posed any

problems in their agency, nearly a quarter of them reported that IMR's are responsible for

at least one problem. Over half of these reported that the largest problem was

insubordination. Manning (1982) and Muir (1997) both stressed that most patrol officers

first seek morale replenishment from their sergeants. It would naturally follow that the

supervisor who ignores this issue may, likewise, soon deal with insubordination as well. Of the agencies that reported problems that were associated with IMR's; two were small, five were medium, and eight were large agencies. When asked if IMR's were viewed as appropriate role models, chi-square analysis showed a statistically significant difference with respect to the respondent's agency size. Although 41 out of 61 respondents reported that the majority of IMR's were appropriate role models, only 11 of them were from large agencies, representing 71% of the total sworn officers.

Respondents reported that IMR's most frequently occur during tours of duty and *most often* before the beginning of the officers' shift. Between calls and during work breaks were next in importance. While off-duty, the majority stated that IMR's occur *often*, at social gatherings and least likely at religious gatherings.

IMR's – job performance, training, discipline and ethics

The majority of the respondents reported that IMR's are beneficial to a new officer's job performance. Eighty-four percent reported that IMR's assist new officers with intercommunication skills and effectively teach them to recognize dangerous situations. Approximately three-quarters of the respondents reported that IMR's can decrease employee quits, assist newer officers to react appropriately to their challenged authority, and adequately model an appropriate use of force. Nearly all of the respondents reported that IMR's assist new officers in becoming familiar with people in the community.

The opinions of an IMR's affect on field training issues are mixed. The majority of the respondents believed that IMR's supplement the standards or concepts of field

training. On the other hand, nearly half were either undecided or agreed that IMR's contradict the teachings of field training programs.

Mixed reactions also prevailed regarding IMR's and disciplinary issues. The majority of the respondents reported that IMR's could be useful in preventing disciplinary issues. However, nearly half of the respondents were either undecided or believed that an IMR's advice occasionally leads to disciplinary action or complaints against other officers, which also supports Barker (1977). The author claims that the traditional pattern of most police training is for experienced patrolmen to train the "rookie" officer. Barker goes on to explain that in many larger agencies, some of these officers possess poor ethics or even corruption, and leading to discipline and/or complaints. This pattern is then passed down to the newer officers who often repeat the process again over time.

Inconsistency was most apparent when respondents were queried regarding ethical issues, which was also an area of focus in the literature review. Many more agencies were neutral or undecided when responding to ethically-based statements. Occasionally, respondents appeared to contradict other similar statements. For example, over three-quarters of the agencies reported that IMR's assist officers to exercise ethical discretion on the street, yet nearly half were either undecided or disagreed that IMR's model appropriate off-duty conduct. Sixty-one percent of the respondents reported that IMR's encourage officers to take accountability for their actions, nevertheless barely half of them agreed that IMR's mirror the importance of maintaining departmental confidentiality. Although 42 percent of the respondents agreed that IMR's can be

instrumental in promoting unethical values in new hires – supporting Asch (1968), Carter

et al. (1989), Manning (1978), Muir (1977), and Skolnick (1986) – three-quarters also

reported that IMR's help officers to respond compassionately in traumatic situations.

Over three-quarters of the responding agencies claimed that IMR's decrease employee

turn-over, and nearly half of them agreed that IMR's decrease civilian complaints against

new officers. Finally, almost two-thirds of the respondents reported that IMR's can lead

to reinforcement of police sub-cultures, which was also supported by the research. Gaines

et al. (2000), Inciardi (1996), and Skolnick (1986), state that people who share similar

circumstances which are beyond their control, often form subcultures, a normative

system of a particular group that is smaller than and essentially different from the

dominant culture. Police officers search for others who will understand their dilemma,

and may often seek support and comfort from others like them. Subsequently, police

subcultures are formed in an effort to deal with their disillusionment and/or cynical

attitudes.

Validity of Findings

Although this work resulted in some interesting findings, as with all research,

caution should be taken when interpreting these findings. A majority of the questions in

this survey questionnaire were intended for patrol supervisors. However, some questions

were also intended for newer officers. Ideally, the questions that applied to newly hired

officers would have been answered by them. Perhaps plausible in smaller police agencies,

the complexity of larger agencies would probably make direct questionnaire answers

from new officers unlikely. The researcher discovered this first-hand when some of the

delinquent respondents were contacted via telephone and in person. The results of the collected data show that 64 percent of the responding agencies averaged 17 or more officers. According to Downs (1967), these larger agencies would be considered as bureaucracies. Smaller agencies allow for fairly direct supervision, management, and dissemination of information. The bureaucratic nature of larger agencies often implies complex hierarchies. Downs (1967) explains that when information is distributed from a bureaucracy:

> Officials near the top of the hierarchy have a greater breadth of information about affairs in the bureau than officials near the bottom, but the latter have more detailed knowledge about activities in their particular portions of the bureau. This implies that *no one ever knows everything about what is going on in any large organization.* (p.58)

Accuracy may have been compromised by the respondent's perception or interpretation of events that were experienced by someone else. Police supervisors may be reluctant to reveal some issues in their agencies and be prone to response or social desirability bias (Hagen, 1982 & Bainbridge, 1989).

Survey research is retrospective in that the effects of independent variables on dependent variables are recorded after they occur (Levin & Fox, 2000). Although accurate data is one, if not *the*, primary concern in statistical research, it may be limited by the respondent's ability to accurately recall and/or interpret past events or information. Surveys attempt to reconstruct the effects by requesting the respondents to recall past events from memory and/or perception. The latency effect – where the respondent's

ability to recall may be hampered do to a passage of time between the event and recollection – or, the recency effect – a tendency to focus on the most recent events since they may be the easiest to recall – may also contribute to skewed responses (Hagen, 1982).

While this research was conducted in the state of Michigan, it could be generalized to other states. Aspects of the duties and requirements in police work result in similar issues, problems, and concerns nation-wide. This survey questionnaire would likely be received in similar fashion by police agencies in other states.

Respondent demographics may not imply the size of the responding agencies with respect to their numbers of sworn officers. Although there were 46 city police agencies that, on average, employed 30 sworn officers and six supervisors, several city respondents had one or two sworn officers assigned to road patrol duties. Similarly, of the 18 Sheriff's departments that, on average, employed 31 officers and six supervisors, one department employed two sworn deputies in addition to the Sheriff. In an effort to avoid any bias (or its' appearance) in data analyses, respondents that contained similar demographics were placed in one of three similar groups. Another demographic consideration concerns respondent acquiescence, or the tendency to comply neutrally with survey questions (Bainbridge, 1989). Unlike larger bureaucratic respondents (Downs, 1967), fewer employees in smaller responding agencies are required to handle greater workload and administrative duties. Therefore, a tendency to answer questions in a more neutral context may prevail in smaller agencies in order to save time.

Criterion validity may be a concern if the role of an informal mentor may have been confused with the mentoring characteristics that are common in field training (Sokolove & Locke, 1992). Survey questionnaire instructions explained their differences; however, response bias may have been a factor had the respondent over-looked the instructions or answered survey questions from a field training perspective. If survey questions were answered in the context of field training, then perhaps a more positively skewed response would have been reported by respondents with respect to informal mentoring relationships. For example, the survey data show an 84 percent positive response rate that IMR's supplement the teachings of field training programs. However, when asked questions regarding the negative aspects of IMR's, respondents were more neutral or in agreement with an IMR's negative influence, especially with regards to larger agencies.

Discussion

This survey was distributed during the summer months of 2004; a time when many agencies are busy and/or short of staff. Nevertheless, a 76 percent response rate was obtained which is sufficient in terms of research data collection. Nearly a quarter of the respondents requested feed-back or follow-up results from these findings. The response and degree of interest in this work, indicates a matter which may intrigue law enforcement administrators as they desire to know more about it. At the time of this research, formal mentoring programs which are designed to assimilate newly hired police officers into law enforcement appear to be rare in Michigan. If the police profession is indicating an interest in this concept, then it begs the question, "Why are mentoring programs in law enforcement virtually non-existent?" There may be several reasons.

Financial considerations

Financial considerations are always a concern when police agencies are faced with budget dilemmas. Administrators may believe that implementing a mentoring program would require a substantial financial investment in training mentors such as overtime or meetings outside of duty. Training or overtime should be at a minimum if required at all, since mentors already possess the desired qualities for program success.

According to Gualardo (2000), two of the ten mentor qualities are a *partner* and *recipient* to the protégé. The mentor celebrates and shares in the success of the protégé. A mentor gains as much from the relationship as the protégé and is thankful for taking part in it. A peer mentor is a person who truly cares about the success of another person (Gualardo, 2000). With the mentor as willing to actively participate in the mentoring

relationship as the protégé, the motivation for the relationship is focused on the success

of the protégé, rather than financial gain for the mentor. Therefore, mentors should be

more inclined to cooperate with financial issues, rather than embrace them as motivators.

According to Williams (2000), the benefits of the program outweigh the financial

investment.

Para-military structure

Traditionally, law enforcement bureaucracies are not institutions that would be

conducive to humanitarian assistance within its ranks. Due to their size and complexity,

effective communications within bureaucracies require functioning hierarchies (Downs,

1967). Hierarchies in bureaucratic police agencies are represented by clear chains of

command. Para-military in structure, chains of command involve characteristics that are

often impersonal, insensitive, and authoritative when issuing orders. These characteristics

are contrary to those attributes necessary for effective mentoring programs such as

caring, mutual understanding and friendship (Kram, 1983; Douglas, 1997; & Gualardo,

2000). However, research shows the results of complex police command structures such

as decisions which are not fully understood by their subordinates, failure to understand

organizational policy and procedures or the concept that organizations need to gain the

trust and respect of their new employees (Edmundson, 1999; Gaines et al., 2000; &

Manning, 1982).

Newly hired officers may also experience anomie (Durkheim, 2004), stress

(Manning, 1982; Riede, 1986; Ahern, 1972; Niederhoffer, 1967; & Skolnick, 1986),

marital and family discord (More, 1992; Skolnick, 1986; Niederhoffer, 1967; Drummond,

1976; & Bibbins, 1986), and physical problems (O'Neil, 1986, & Stotland, 1986).

Mentoring relationships could be beneficial for many of these job-induced symptoms in

other fields. Mentors have provided upward support and mobility (Ragins & Cotton,

1999), career satisfaction (Fagenson, 1989), a positive affect on organizational

socialization (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993), and reduced turnover intentions (Viator &

Scandura, 1991). Additionally, mentors have been instrumental in providing support in

two key areas, psychosocial functions and career development (Ragins and Cotton,

1999).

Field training

Perhaps a reason why the law enforcement profession does not embrace the

mentoring concept is the potential for conflicts with established field training programs.

As explained in Downs (1967), larger police agencies are inherently "rigid" in structure

and are often resistant to change. Many police administrators have spent considerable

resources on their field training programs, and may resist any concept that threatens the

establishment of their investments. Administrators may cite concerns over conflicts of

interest, animosity between field training officers (FTO's) and mentors, coaching that

may run contrary with established training standards, or simply, believe that their field

training programs alone are sufficient for officer job preparedness.

An important component to a formal mentoring relationship in law enforcement is

to delineate its differences or uniqueness from field training. Field training focuses on

practical hard skills that are necessary to be effective in law enforcement. Mentoring

concentrates on soft skills such as making wise decisions or effective communication

tactics. Williams explained that a recruit was in the midst of field training and, although known to possess excellent police qualities, was failing in performance standards. Temporarily taken from the FTO car and placed with a mentor for a few days, the mentor learned that the recruit had been internalizing a personal crisis. He was then reassigned back into the FTO car and successfully completed training. Williams asserted that the officer is now one of LPD's top mentors (personal communication, February 12, 2004).

Field training programs include the concept of mentoring (Sokolove & Locke, 1992), however, upon the completion of formalized training, any mentoring between the FTO and the probationary officer usually stops. Williams states that the goals of field training and formal mentoring programs are considerably different. Field training is designed to train an officer for hard or tactical skills necessary for the job within an established time frame (personal communication, February 12, 2004). Formal mentoring begins after successful training and is designed to further assimilate the officer with soft or cognitive skills, socialization techniques and other coping strategy that is often inherent to police work (Johnson, 2005). Whereas, field training time frames are measured in hours of training, mentoring programs can be measured in months or even years of coaching (Gualardo, 2000). Box 5-1 shows some of the differences between field training and mentoring, and when they might be used most often (Douglas, 1997; Gualardo, 2000; Johnson, 2005; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Sokolove & Locke, 1992; & Williams, 2000).

Box 5-1

	FTO Programs	Mentoring Programs
<ins>On-Duty</ins>	• Hard skills focus • Train for tactical job preparedness • Performance oriented, graded, recorded • Under close scrutiny; stressful • Established parameters (in hours)	• Soft skills focus • Prepare for communication, decision-making, socialization skills • Cognitive oriented, confidential, concern for "human" aspect of officer • Relaxed atmosphere, encourages openness and honesty • Negotiable parameters depending on individual need (months/years)
<ins>Off-Duty</ins>	• Seldom takes place • Expected financial/comp. on part of FTO	• Often takes place outside of work • Meetings (usually) without expectation of any financial compensation • Takes a sincere interest in the well-being of the protégé (personal and family) • Mentor/protégé meet when/where ever need arises • Cognitive oriented, confidential, concern for "human" aspect of officer • Relaxed atmosphere, encourages openness and honesty • Often participate in mutual activity(s) • Engenders trust which encourages successful motivation

Directions for the Future

In the private sector, the review of the literature supports the concept of mentoring as a valuable tool for introducing a new person into an organization (Ambrose, 2002; Darwin, 2000; Forret et al., 1996; Fox & Schuhmann, 2001; & Lantos, 1999). In practical application, an organization that can closely monitor the progress of mentoring may realize its positive influence rather quickly. However, in professions where close observation is not available or practical; the benefits of mentoring may be overlooked. Absent the actual label of a "mentoring program", its positive impact may be confused, masked, or completely missed altogether. Many informal mentoring relationships evolve naturally (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Kram, 1985; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; & Scandura, 1992). When an experienced peer, co-worker, or other person takes an interest and actively helps in the successful adaptation of a less experienced associate into some endeavor, the pair may be viewed as a mere friendship. Although very much a mentoring relationship, it seldom receives the recognition as such (Asch, 1968). These relationships often occur in virtually any vocation where people interact with other people. Increasingly, the private and public sectors seem to be responding to the favorable results of mentoring and are implementing the concept in a variety of programs (Conway et al., 2002; Dondero, 1997; Evertson & Smithey, 2000; McClennan et al., 2003; Records and Emerson 2003; Schor, 1997; and VanEck Peluchette & Jeanquart, 2000). However, law enforcement is a profession where the benefits of mentoring (or at least the credit for it) appear to be underutilized.

This research was based on a representative sample of Michigan law enforcement agencies. Future studies could be conducted on representative samples of agencies in other states where social cultures or norms may indicate different demographics. Also, seasonal climatology tends to affect the attitudes and dispositions of police officers, as well as those whom they serve. Perhaps a study in the more temperate southern states would yield differing results. This study classified agencies according to their size. Other research could be focused on a type of agency within a state or group of states with similar demographics.

Informal mentoring relationships exist, according to the majority of the responding agencies in this study and they agreed that IMR's play an important role in their agencies. An IMR's impact on newly hired officers is generally positive. However, as the numbers of sworn officers increase in the responding agencies, so does the reported problems with IMR's and the leading problem is reported to be insubordination.

The police profession requires more from a recruit than report writing, patrol functions, adherence to policy and procedures, and other functions that are generally scrutinized during formal field training (Sokolove & Locke, 1992; & Toch & Grant, 1991). Probationary officers may anticipate the day that they will no longer be under the critical and scrutinizing watch of their FTO's. When formal field training is successfully completed, officers may be relieved that this major critique is finally behind them. However, they may quickly learn another reality. The full responsibilities of their actions are on them, and many new officers may not be ready. There are no longer people with them suggesting or directing police functions and providing support or encouragement.

Some new officers may experience Durkheim's (2004) concept of anomie, when rules on how people ought to behave with each other break down and uncertainty develops. Expectations of behavior become confused, unclear or not even present. Riede (1986) explains that, "the beliefs of the idealistic officer have not been tested by work experience, but rather are based on fantasy..." (p.76). At this time, many officers seek help or direction and this may be when IMR's begin. The research shows that IMR's may negatively or positively affect new officers. From a negative context, IMR's tend to encourage the reinforcement of police sub-cultures or, an IMR's role may promote unethical values in newer officers. On the other hand, this may also be when the positive effects of IMR's on newer officers are realized: supporting and encouraging training, job performance and reducing discipline.

Perhaps a formalized mentoring program that is supervised and structured to meet the needs of new officers and the agency could be created. The program could be implemented after field training is successfully completed. Police administrators may argued that field training programs are designed to meet these needs. According to Connor (2000), training is often a misnomer. Connor states that most of the FTO's time and talent is replaced by field monitoring via evaluation exercises and usually absent of any tested validity or reliability. Connor continues that the training officers are primarily patrol officers, and only secondarily FTO's if, or when, recruits are presented. Tasks and performance standards may fulfill mandatory training requirements; however, little time is left for anything else, including mentoring. Research on the existence of IMR's in other law enforcement agencies with different demographics should be explored.

Chapter 6

CONCLUSION

Empirical research regarding mentorship's in law enforcement in the State of Michigan is limited in nature and scope. Based on this research, there appears to be some interest in mentoring within the field of law enforcement. However, with the present economy, reluctance for further inquiry is probably financially based.

The focus of this study centered on the value or efficiency of the assimilation process that newer police officers receive when entering law enforcement. As technological advancements constantly change, the law enforcement community must likewise constantly struggle to keep up with it. Higher educational standards produce increasingly savvy "high-tech" police recruits and many law enforcement administrators must grapple with their advanced base of knowledge (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). However, police work requires extensive interaction with a diverse social structure (Muir, 1977). Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak (2000) state that *Gen Xers* (born between 1960-1980) and *Nexters* (born between 1980-2000), present employers with significant challenges regarding social skills. *Gen Xers* are impatient, inexperienced, cynical and possess poor people skills. The *Nexters* require supervision, structure, and are particularly inexperienced with handling difficult people issues (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). The research data also support the authors. In order, the four primary reasons that IMR's are used involve patrol operations, encouragement with difficulties, assistance with decision making and interpersonal relationships, respectively. The common sense or human component of policing is instrumental to a successful and balanced assimilation.

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The term mentor generally designates an informal role in which the teaching function is recognized primarily as a means to personal advancement and only secondarily as a contribution to the overall well-being of the protégé. Emphasis has been on the ways in which mentors turn up in a "natural" setting and how they help to advance their protégés (Parks Daloz, 2004). Also, a tool which is used in professional development, mentoring helps orient new professionals to important concepts and conversations within their profession. It also helps them avoid mistakes or sticky situations that they fail to recognize because of their lack of experience (Schiff, 2002).

In law enforcement, whether good or bad, informal mentoring relationships will exist (Asch, 1968, & Muir, 1977), and this research shows that most of the respondents view IMR's as positive role models. A method of peer mentoring which is structured, monitors performance and incorporates ethical guidance should be of benefit; one which is founded upon mutual respect and admiration (Douglas, 1997; Gualardo, 2000; & Ragins & Cotton, 1999). According to Dolan (2000), a half-hour meeting every two weeks or so may be sufficient. Holbeche (1996) declares that a peer mentoring relationship is one of equality between members of a peer group. In this sense, equality refers to rank or position. Peer mentoring has been shown to be an effective means to facilitate organizational understanding in a variety of ways. Although many training programs prepare recruits for high-stress situations they fail to address the decision-making aspects of learning. Guthrie (2000) asks these thought provoking questions:

Law enforcement needs to incorporate more use of cognitive skills and problem

solving in entry-level training...shooting a fixed number of rounds at a paper

target may meet a mandated benchmark for qualification, but is it training?

Officers have to use cognitive skills to discern whether or not deadly force is

necessary. Can they do that with a silhouette and stopwatch? (p.26)

Another area of rising concern is stress. A carefully selected mentor may assist

the new officer in dealing with the symptoms of stress. Wise counsel from a veteran

officer to a recruit can encourage perseverance and perhaps reduce stress (Manning,

1997; Niederhoffer, 1967, & Skolnick, 1986). Williams (2000) states that mentoring

operates on the assumption that people relate more readily and positively to peer

assistance which provides a non-threatening environment for learning and growth. This

may have a significant impact on stress reduction. "...Stress has been cited as an indirect

cause or an important risk factor in a number of conditions...some include heart disease,

digestive problems and reduced resistance to disease and illness" (Patton &

Thibodeau, 1992, p.229). Mentoring may be helpful in reducing sick leave and thereby,

less expense for medication, doctor visits, and costly overtime.

Addressing the problem statement

The Problem Statement in Chapter One states that administrators take exhaustive

measures to ensure that new officers comply with field training guidelines and state-

imposed training mandates. Nevertheless, officers are unprepared for the life-style that is

unique to the police profession. Administrators must deal with the resulting issues created

by this lack of preparedness: stress, family problems, officer fatigue or discipline.

This research supports the idea that new officers are attempting to cope with problem issues since 85 percent of them seek informal mentoring relationships. Unfortunately, the research also showed that only 50 percent of the respondents believed that IMR's modeled ethically appropriate conduct. Perhaps a formal mentoring program which was carefully designed and monitored could ethically improve conduct.

The Problem Statement also notes that required training is intended to force compliance with established guidelines that can be measured such as firearms qualifications, defensive tactics or precision driving. Still, police administrators continue to grapple with allegations that they are not adequately training or preparing newer officers with the skills necessary to perform their duties. This research shows that a reported 55 percent of IMR's are desired to assist with patrol operations and nearly a quarter are used for encouragement with difficulties, which also supports Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak, (2000).

Police administrators should seek assistance with developing the cognitive or "soft skills" such as effective communication, ethically-based behavior, or informed decision-making (Johnson, 2005), and mentoring may help. Mentoring's benefits in law enforcement may not be readily observed nor immediate when compared to hard skills. Soft skills are not clearly defined nor easily measured. This is not to infer that soft skills cannot be measured. Increased job satisfaction and morale, decreased sick time and complaints against officers, for examples, may eventually result from enhanced soft skills (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Gualardo, 2000; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; & Scandura, 1992).

On the other hand, inattentiveness to soft skills may eventually be measured in the forms of problems such as stress, anomie, chronic fatigue, family problems or litigation (Bibbins, 1986; Durkheim, 2004; Inciardi, 1996; Manning, 1982; & O'Neil, 1986). By example, established or more senior officers may be able to demonstrate conversation or communication skills such as treating people with respect, de-escalation of rage, active listening, conversation-control tactics and other useful methods for junior officers.

Self-confidence might equip new officers to react to conflict and hostility, with a more calming demeanor. A formalized peer mentoring program could be a technique to encourage self confidence. Peer mentors could relate or share their own struggles in a candid way to their protégés. As mentors, these senior officers may be a source of support and encouragement for newer police officers and this research supports the concept. A serious look into the benefits or implementation of formalized peer mentoring programs in law enforcement should be considered.

APPENDICIES

APPENDIX A

Survey Proposal
#05-25-H

GRAND VALLEY
STATE UNIVERSITY
www.gvsu.edu

September 30, 2004

TO: Jeffrey Swanson
     3391 Harrison St.
     Hudsonville, MI 49426

RE: Proposal # <u>05-25-H</u>

     Category: ___ Exempt   _X_ Expedited   ___ Full Review

     Approval Date: <u>September 30, 2004</u>

     Expiration Date: <u>September 30, 2005</u>

     Progress Report and request for re-approval due: <u>August 30, 2005</u>

TITLE: An Analysis of Law Enforcement Mentorship in Michigan Police Agencies

Grand Valley State University, Human Research Review Committee (HRRC), has completed its review of this proposal. The HRRC serves as the Institution Review Board (IRB) for Grand Valley State University. The rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and the methods used to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Your project has been approved.
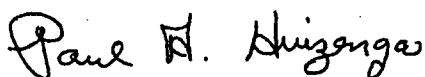
<u>Renewals:</u> The HRRC approval is valid until the expiration date listed above. Any project that continues beyond the expiration date must be renewed with the renewal form and a progress report. A maximum of 4 renewals are possible. If you need to continue a proposal beyond that time, you are required to submit an application for a complete review.

<u>Revisions:</u> The HRRC must review and approve any change in procedures, involving human subjects, prior to the initiation of the change. To revise an approved protocol, send a written request with both the original and revised protocol to the Chair of HRRC. When requesting approval of revisions, both the project's HRRC number and title must be referenced. A copy of the current consent form must also be submitted with the request.

<u>Problems/Changes:</u> The HRRC must be informed promptly if either of the following arises during the course of your project. 1) Problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving the human subjects. 2) Changes in the research environment or new information that indicates greater risk to the human subjects than existed when the protocol was previously reviewed and approved.

If I can be of further assistance, please contact me at 616-331-2472 or via e-mail: huizengp@gvsu.edu. You can also contact the secretary in Faculty Research and Development Office at 616-331-3197.

Sincerely,

Paul H. Huizenga

Paul Huizenga, Chair
Human Research Review Committee

APPENDIX B

E-mail Notification

E-mail Notification

Dear Police Agency Administrator,

You should receive a survey questionnaire in the mail soon that is part of my graduate thesis at Grand Valley State University. By surveying randomly selected police agencies in Michigan, it is anticipated that the findings will provide relevant information for both supervisory and line personnel with respect to the assimilation or socialization process of newly hired police officers.

I am asking that you designate an individual (such as a patrol supervisor),who has in-depth knowledge of patrol officers and their job-related performance, complete the survey. Please have them read each statement or question carefully, and answer all of the questions. All responses are <u>absolutely confidential</u>. The number that appears on the upper right hand corner of the survey will be a control digit that is used to coordinate follow-up mailings, if necessary. This number <u>will not</u> be used in the final coding stages of the research.

Upon completing the survey, detach the cover letter, seal your response in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided, and mail it. Also, if you wish, you may return it electronically or **fax** your response to my attention at the *Grand Valley School of Criminal Justice*, **(616)331-7155**. Again, once all of the information is collected, all of the individual responses and/or any identifying data will be destroyed, while the output or findings of the survey will be presented in summary form to protect the identity of the participants. If you would like a final copy of the findings, please indicate this by enclosing a business card or a note on a separate piece of paper.

If you have any questions regarding this survey, please feel free to contact me personally at home (616),669-2044, personal e-mail address at **swansjknh@sbcglobal.net** or via my student e-mail account at: **swansojg@student.gvsu.edu** Additionally, if you have any questions about your rights as a research participant that have not been addressed, you may contact the Grand Valley State University, Human Subjects Review Committee Chair at (616),331-2472, to the attention of Mr. Paul Huizenga. If you would wish a call back, I assure you that I will respect your confidentiality.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Jeffrey G. Swanson - Graduate Student
School of Criminal Justice
Grand Valley State University
Grand Rapids, Michigan

APPENDIX C

First Cover Letter

Survey Cover Letter

May 14, 2004

Dear Police Agency Administrator,

Enclosed you will find a survey that is part of my graduate thesis research in criminal justice and law enforcement peer mentoring that I am completing at Grand Valley State University. By surveying selected police agencies in the state of Michigan, it is anticipated that the findings will provide relevant information for both supervisory and line personnel with respect to the assimilation or socialization process of newly hired police officers.

In your free time, and as soon as you can, I am asking that you designate an individual (such as a patrol supervisor),who has in-depth knowledge of patrol officers and their job-related performance, complete the attached survey.

Please read each statement or question carefully, and answer all of the questions. All responses are <u>absolutely confidential</u>. The number that appears on the upper right hand corner of the survey is a control digit used to coordinate follow-up mailings, if necessary. This number <u>will not</u> be used in the final coding stages of the research.

Upon completing the survey, detach the cover letter, seal your response in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided, and mail it. Again, once all of the information is collected, all of the individual responses will be destroyed, while the output or findings of the survey will be presented in summary form to protect the identity of the participants. If you would like a final copy of the findings, please indicate this by enclosing a business card or a note on a separate piece of paper.

If you have any questions regarding this survey, please feel free to contact me personally at home at (616),669-2044, or via my student e-mail account at: **swansojg@STUDENT.GVSU.EDU** If you would wish a call back, I assure you that I will respect your confidentiality.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Jeffrey G. Swanson
enclosures

APPENDIX D

Survey Questionnaire

Agency Survey

INSTRUCTIONS: The following questions and statements examine issues related to peer mentoring of entry-level officers in law enforcement. Please answer each question in the context of certified officer's who work road patrol duties. Do not include jail, support, or other staff. Feel free to enclose personal comments if so desired. As previously stated in the cover letter, all responses are completely confidential. Thank you. Note: For questions that ask to rank answers, please do so according to the following level of agreement:

SA = strongly agree A = agree U = undecided D = disagree SD = strongly disagree

---

I. Mentoring

In law enforcement, a mentor is another peer or advocate who helps a beginning or less experienced officer deal effectively with some of the early stumbling blocks or issues which would otherwise hinder a smooth adaptation into police work.

II. Field training program

1. **Does your agency have a field training program?**
   yes _____
   no _____ (If no, please continue to **Section III.**)
2. **How many weeks does your field training program encompass?** ___ weeks

3. **Field training officer's (FTO).**
   How many FTO's do you currently have? _____
   Average age of FTO's? _____
   Average years of police/on-job experience? _____
   Type of training for FTO's
      In-house (inter-departmental)   yes ___ no ___
      External (trained/certified)   yes ___ no ___

III. Formal mentoring program (FMP)

Some organizations have a *formal* mentoring program (FMP), where relationships develop with organizational assistance or intervention - usually in the form of voluntary assignment or matching of mentors and mentees. Formal relationships are structured and usually limited by time.

4. **Did your agency ever have an FMP?** yes ___* no ___
   *If yes, why does it no longer exist? _____

5. **Does your agency currently have an FMP?**
   yes _____ no _____ (If no, please continue to **Section IV**)
6. **How many months are your FMP?**   1-12, 13-24, 25-36, +36

7. **Are your mentors *formally* trained?** yes ___* no ___
   *If yes, please explain how and where they were formally trained. _____

-1-

8. **How many years has your FMP been in existence?** ___ years
   Do its participants function while: on-duty ___ **off-duty** ___ **(or) both** ___
   • **How often do your FMP participants meet?**
         daily ___ weekly ___ monthly ___ quarterly ___ as needed ___
   • **How many hours per meeting?** ___ hrs

9. **In your opinion, are the individuals who perform FMP functions <u>appropriate</u> role models?**

a) all are	___	d) less than half are	___
b) majority are	___	e) a few are	___
c) about half are	___	f) very few (or less) are	___

10. **In what areas do you feel that an FMP assists officers?** (Please <u>rank</u> the following from 1 through 8, with **1** being the **most** likely area of assistance)
    • patrol operations ___
    • encouragement through difficulties ___
    • interpersonal relationships at work ___
    • encourage greater responsibility ___
    • departmental policy/procedure ___
    • decision making ___
    • reinforcing personal self-esteem ___
    • other, if applicable (please explain) ___

---

11. **In your opinion, who are best suited for FMP's?** (Please <u>rank</u> the following from 1 through 6, with **1** being the **best** suited as a formal mentor)
a) peers / co-workers of the same rank or time	___	d) retired officer's	___
b) fellow officer's with (5) plus years experience	___	e) other **outside** officers	___
c) immediate supervisors	___	f) other (please explain)	___

---

12. **For whom is your FMP designed?**
    (Please indicate <u>all</u> of the following that apply)

				yes	no
a) Newly hired officers	yes ___	no ___.	If yes, is participation mandatory?	___	___
b) Supervisory staff	yes ___	no ___.	If yes, is participation mandatory?	___	___
c) Management level	yes ___	no ___.	If yes, is participation mandatory?	___	___
d) Detective bureau	yes ___	no ___.	If yes, is participation mandatory?	___	___
e) Other (please explain) ___					

13. **Why does your agency have an FMP?** (Please rate level of importance from 1 to 5, with **1** as the **most** important)
    • Performance related issues.. 1 2 3 4 5
    • To develop strategic thinking....................................... 1 2 3 4 5
    • Assist new hires to navigate through new experience...................... 1 2 3 4 5
    • To assist female officers with transition into the police culture.... 1 2 3 4 5
    • To assist minority officers with transition into the police culture.... 1 2 3 4 5
    • To encourage greater independence of new officers........................ 1 2 3 4 5
    • Form of job enrichment for mentors... 1 2 3 4 5
    • To decrease the failure rate of formal field training 1 2 3 4 5
    • Other (please explain).. 1 2 3 4 5

-2-

14. **What type(s) of protege(s) tend to participate in your FMP most often?**
    - Disciplinary/sanctioned officers..................................... yes ___ * no ___
        - *If yes, did the conduct occur on duty?   yes ___ no ___
    - Officers who have struggled through the FTO process   yes ___ no ___
    - Female officers.. yes ___ no ___
    - Minority officers... yes ___ no ___
    - Other (please explain) _____

15. **In your opinion, to what degree are your employees satisfied with your mentoring program?**

    very satisfied   ___   somewhat satisfied ___   satisfied ___
    somewhat dissatisfied   ___   very dissatisfied   ___
    Please explain your answer _____

16. **Does your FMP explain the issues surrounding gratuities?**   yes ___ no ___

17. **What percentage of your employees have participated in your FMP?** ___ %

18. **The following statements pertain to issues <u>exclusive</u> of the field training process. In your opinion, please circle the best response to each statement.**

    Formal mentoring serves to <u>supplement</u> the FTO program...................... SA A U D SD
    Formal mentoring <u>conflicts</u> with what is learned in the FTO program......SA A U D SD
    Formal mentors can assist in <u>preventing</u> employee turn-over/quits........ SA A U D SD

IV. Informal mentoring relationships (IMR)

An *informal* mentoring relationship (IMR), evolves naturally, often beginning as a close friendship with no time limitations. Mentees select mentors who are viewed as role models. In law enforcement, informal mentors usually possess *persuasive* qualities.

19. **In your opinion, do IMR(s) exist?** yes ____ no ____. If no, please continue to *Section V*

20. **If yes, in what areas do you feel that an IMR assists officers?** (Please <u>rank</u> the following from 1 through 7, with <u>1</u> being the <u>most</u> likely area of assistance)
    - patrol operations   ___
    - encouragement through difficulties   ___
    - interpersonal relationships at work   ___
    - encourage greater responsibility   ___
    - decision making   ___
    - reinforcing personal self-esteem   ___
    - other, if applicable (please explain) _____

21. **In your opinion, who are informal mentors in your organization?** (Please <u>rank</u> the following examples from 1 to 6, with <u>1</u> being the <u>most</u> likely to function as an IMR)
    - peers / co-workers of the same rank or time   ___
    - retired officers   ___
    - fellow officer's with (5) plus years experience ___
    - other **outside** officers   ___
    - immediate supervisors   ___
    - other, if applicable (please explain)   ___   _____

-3-

22. **Has informal mentoring led to problems within your organization?** yes ___ no ___
    If yes, to what extent were those problems? (Please check all that apply)
    • On-duty
        • gratuities   ___
        • insubordination   ___
        • complaints inVol.ving other peers ___
        • other (please explain) _____
    • Off-duty
        • gratuities   ___
        • family problems   ___
        • unethical behavior   ___
        • conduct inVol.ving alcohol/drugs ___
        • other (please explain) _____

23. **Please check the frequency of time that you believe IMR's take place.**

	seldom	often	most often
before shift starts...	___	___	___
during breaks...	___	___	___
social organizations (ex. FOP, etc.)...............	___	___	___
bars,clubs,drinking estab..............................	___	___	___
religious gatherings..	___	___	___
sporting activities / events..........................	___	___	___
between calls...	___	___	___
any other activity...	___	___	___
(please explain)_____			

24. **In your opinion, are those individuals who are IMR's <u>appropriate</u> role models?**
    a) all are   ___   c) about half are   ___   e) few are   ___
    b) majority are ___   d) less than half are ___   f) very few (or less),are ___

25. **In your opinion, what percentages of newly hired officers (less than 5 yrs) have an informal mentoring relationship?** 1-25%; 26-50%; 51-75%; 76-100%

26. **In your opinion, why do you feel that a need exists for IMR's?** (Please <u>select</u> the following **5** top reasons on a scale of 1 to 5, with <u>1</u> being the most likely reason)
    *civilian complaints   ____   *improve poor attitudes   ____
    *lack of job preparedness ____   *dealing with job stress ____
    *family problems   ____   *morale issues   ____
    *sub-standard reports   ____   *failure to follow up ____
    *assimilation to police work ____ *addictive behavior issues ____
    *motivating new hires   ____   *time management   ____
    *any other (please explain _____ _____

27. **As a police administrator who recognizes those individuals within your agency as informal mentors, do you believe that they serve an important role?** yes ___ no ___

28. **Have you ever spoken with them about their role as a mentor?** yes ___* no ___
    *(If yes, are they rewarded in any way such as praise, compensation, public recognition, or any other "perks", etc? Please explain_____

-4-

V. Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationships

33. **The following statements pertain to issues <u>exclusive</u> of the field training process. In your opinion, please circle the best response to each statement.**

IMR's serve as a <u>supplement</u> to the FTO program..	**SA A U D SD**
An IMR assists officers to become familiar with people in the community....	**SA A U D SD**
An informal mentor's advice occasionally <u>leads to</u> disciplinary issues regarding new hires...	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's assist new officers with interpersonal communication skills................	**SA A U D SD**
Informal mentors can assist in <u>preventing</u> employee turn-over/quits................	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's assist officers to react appropriately if their authority is challenged.....	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's assist officers to <u>ethically</u> exercise discretion on the street..............	**SA A U D SD**
An IMR models appropriate personal off-duty conduct	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's can be instrumental in promoting <u>unethical values</u> in new hires...........	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's often <u>contradict</u> with what is learned in FTO.......................................	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's effectively teach new officers to recognize dangerous situations.........	**SA A U D SD**
Informal mentors appropriately model <u>use of force</u> to new officers.................	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's help officers to respond compassionately in traumatic situations........	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's <u>decrease</u> civilian complaints against new officers..............................	**SA A U D SD**
An IMR <u>increases</u> employee turn-over/quits...	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's mirror the importance of maintaining confidentiality..........................	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's encourage officers to take accountability for their actions...................	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's can <u>contribute</u> to civilian complaints against officers.........................	**SA A U D SD**
Informal mentors can be useful in <u>preventing</u> disciplinary issues.................	**SA A U D SD**
IMR's can lead to reinforcement of police sub-cultures................................	**SA A U D SD**

VI. Demographics

30. Total number of sworn police personnel. _____

31. Total number or supervisory personnel. _____

32. Total number of road officers. _____

33. On average, how many hours does your agency spend on in-service training, per officer, per month? ____ hour(s)

Your assistance in completing this questionnaire is highly valued and greatly appreciated. Thank you for taking the time to complete it. Again, if you would like a copy of the final report, enclose your business card or a note in the envelope, and an executive summary of the findings of this study will be mailed to you in the future.

APPENDIX E

Second Cover Letter

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Survey Cover Letter
(Second Notice)

June 16, 2004
Re: Follow up Mentoring Survey (Second Request)

Dear Police Administrator,

In the last two or three weeks, your agency should have received a survey that is part of my graduate thesis research in criminal justice at Grand Valley State University. Assuming that the original one was misplaced or disregarded in some other way, I am asking that you (or a designee),complete and mail this second questionnaire as soon as possible. So far, the response from other police agencies has been quite encouraging but my research would be more accurate if your agency's information could be included as well. It should not take more than twenty minutes to complete.

Please read each statement or question carefully, and answer all of the questions that apply. All responses are <u>absolutely confidential</u>. The number that appears on the upper right hand corner of the survey is a control digit used to coordinate follow-up mailings, if necessary. This number <u>will not</u> be used in the final coding stages of the research.

Upon completion, detach this cover letter, seal your response in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided, and mail it. Again, once all of the information is collected, all of the individual responses will be destroyed, while the output or findings of the survey will be presented in summary form to protect the identity of the participants. If you would like a final copy of the findings, please indicate this by enclosing a business card or a note on a separate piece of paper.

If you have any questions regarding this survey, please feel free to contact me personally at home at (616),669-2044, or via my student e-mail account at: **swansojg@STUDENT.GVSU.EDU** If you would wish a call back, I assure you that I will respect your confidentiality.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Jeffrey G. Swanson
enclosures

APPENDIX F

Data Codebook

DATA CODEBOOK

Column	Variable	Codes
1	Questionnaire Agcy #	CONTINUOUS
2	V-2	.00 COUNTY 1.0 CITY 2.0 TOWNSHIP 3.0 OTHER
3	V-3	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
4	V-4	CONTINUOUS
5	V-5	CONTINUOUS
6	V-6	CONTINUOUS
7	V-7	CONTINUOUS
8	V-8	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
9	V-9	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
10	V-10	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
11	V-11	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
12	V-12	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING

13	V-13	1.0 1-12
		2.0 13-24
		3.0 26-36
		4.0 36+

14	V-14	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

15	V-15	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

| 16 | V-16 | CONTINUOUS |

17	V-17	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

18	V-18	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

19	V-19	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

20	V-20	1.0 DAILY
		2.0 WEEKLY
		3.0 MONTHLY
		4.0 QUARTERLY
		5.0 AS NEEDED
		99.0 MISSING

| 21 | V-21 | CONTINUOUS |

22	V-22	1.0	ALL ARE
		2.0	MAJORITY ARE
		3.0	HALF
		4.0	LESS/HALF
		5.0	FEW
		6.0	VERY FEW
		99.0	MISSING

23   V-23   NOMINAL 1 – 8
99.0 MISSING

24   V-24   NOMINAL 1 – 8
99.0 MISSING

25   V-25   NOMINAL 1 – 8
99.0 MISSING

26   V-26   NOMINAL 1 – 8
99.0 MISSING

27   V-27   NOMINAL 1 – 8
99.0 MISSING

28   V-28   NOMINAL 1 – 8
99.0 MISSING

29   V-29   NOMINAL 1 – 8
99.0 MISSING

30   V-30   .00 NO
1.0 YES
99.0 MISSING

31   V-31   .00 NO
1.0 YES
99.0 MISSING

32   V-32   NOMINAL 1 – 6
99.0 MISSING

33   V-33   NOMINAL 1 – 6
99.0 MISSING

| 34 | V-34 | NOMINAL 1 – 6 |
| | | 99.0 MISSING |

| 35 | V-35 | NOMINAL 1 – 6 |
| | | 99.0 MISSING |

| 36 | V-36 | NOMINAL 1 – 6 |
| | | 99.0 MISSING |

| 37 | V-37 | NOMINAL 1 – 6 |
| | | 99.0 MISSING |

38	V-38	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

39	V-39	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

40	V-40	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

41	V-41	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

42	V-42	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

43	V-43	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

44	V-44	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

45	V-45	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

46	V-46	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
47	V-47	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
48	V-48	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
49	V-49	ORDINAL 1 – 5
50	V-50	ORDINAL 1 – 5
51	V-51	ORDINAL 1 – 5
52	V-52	ORDINAL 1 – 5
53	V-53	ORDINAL 1 – 5
54	V-54	ORDINAL 1 – 5
55	V-55	ORDINAL 1 – 5
56	V-56	ORDINAL 1 – 5
57	V-57	ORDINAL 1 – 5
58	V-58	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
59	V-59	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
60	V-60	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING

61	V-61	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

62	V-62	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

63	V-63	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

64	V-64	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

65	V-65	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

66	V-66	1.0 VERY SATISFIED
		2.0 SOME/WHAT SATISF
		3.0 SATISFIED
		4.0 SOME/WHT DISSAT
		5.0 VERY DISSATISFIED

67	V-67	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

68	V-68	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

69	V-69	CONTINUOUS

70	V-70	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNGLY DISAGRE

71	V-71	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNGLY DISAGRE
72	V-72	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNGLY DISAGRE
73	V-73	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING
74	V-74	NOMINAL 1 – 7
		99.0 MISSING
75	V-75	NOMINAL 1 – 7
		99.0 MISSING
76	V-76	NOMINAL 1 – 7
		99.0 MISSING
77	V-77	NOMINAL 1 – 7
		99.0 MISSING
78	V-78	NOMINAL 1 – 7
		99.0 MISSING
79	V-79	NOMINAL 1 – 7
		99.0 MISSING
80	V-80	NOMINAL 1 – 7
		99.0 MISSING
81	V-81	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

82	V-82	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
83	V-83	NOMINAL 1 – 6 99.0 MISSING
84	V-84	NOMINAL 1 – 6 99.0 MISSING
85	V-85	NOMINAL 1 – 6 99.0 MISSING
86	V-86	NOMINAL 1 – 6 99.0 MISSING
87	V-87	NOMINAL 1 – 6 99.0 MISSING
88	V-88	NOMINAL 1 – 6 99.0 MISSING
89	V-89	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
90	V-90	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
91	V-91	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
92	V-92	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
93	V-93	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING

94	V-94	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
95	V-95	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
96	V-96	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
97	V-97	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
98	V-98	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
99	V-99	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
100	V-100	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
101	V-101	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
102	V-102	.00 NO 1.0 YES 99.0 MISSING
103	V-103	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN
104	V-104	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN

105	V-105	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN
106	V-106	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN
107	V-107	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN
108	V-108	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN
109	V-109	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN
110	V-110	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN
111	V-111	1.0 SELDOM 2.0 OFTEN 3.0 MOST OFTEN
112	V-112	1.0 ALL ARE 2.0 MAJORITY ARE 3.0 HALF ARE 4.0 < HALF ARE 5.0 FEW ARE 6.0 VERY FEW ARE
113	V-113	1.0 1 – 25% 2.0 26 – 50% 3.0 51 – 75% 4.0 76 – 100%
114	V-114	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING

115	V-115	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
116	V-116	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
117	V-117	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
118	V-118	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
119	V-119	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
120	V-120	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
121	V-121	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
122	V-122	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
123	V-123	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
124	V-124	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING
125	V-125	NOMINAL 1 – 5 88.0 NOT SELECTED 99.0 MISSING

126	V-126	NOMINAL 1 – 5
		88.0 NOT SELECTED
		99.0 MISSING

127	V-127	NOMINAL 1 – 5
		88.0 NOT SELECTED
		99.0 MISSING

128	V-128	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

129	V-129	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

130	V-130	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

131	V-131	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

132	V-132	.00 NO
		1.0 YES
		99.0 MISSING

133	V-133	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE

134	V-134	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE

135	V-135	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
136	V-136	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
137	V-137	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
138	V-138	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
139	V-139	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
140	V-140	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
141	V-141	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE

142	V-142	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
143	V-143	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
145	V-145	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
146	V-146	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
147	V-147	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
148	V-148	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
149	V-149	1.0 STRNG AGREE
		2.0 AGREE
		3.0 UNDECIDED
		4.0 DISAGREE
		5.0 STRNG DISAGREE

150	V-150	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
152	V-152	1.0 STRNG AGREE 2.0 AGREE 3.0 UNDECIDED 4.0 DISAGREE 5.0 STRNG DISAGREE
153	V-153	CONTINUOUS
154	V-154	CONTINUOUS
155	V-155	CONTINUOUS
156	V-156	CONTINUOUS

APPENDIX G

Survey Questionnaire Key

Questionnaire Key
Agency Survey

INSTRUCTIONS: The following questions and statements examine issues related to peer mentoring of entry-level officers in law enforcement. Please answer each question in the context of certified officer's who work road patrol duties. Do not include jail, support, or other staff. Feel free to enclose personal comments if so desired. As previously stated in the cover letter, all responses are completely confidential. Thank you. <u>Note</u>: For questions that ask to rank answers, please do so according to the following level of agreement:
SA = strongly agree **A** = agree **U** = undecided **D** = disagree **SD** = strongly disagree

---

V-1 = (RESP. ID #)
V-2 = (AGCY #)

I. Mentoring

> In law enforcement, a mentor is another peer or advocate who helps a beginning or less experienced officer deal effectively with some of the early stumbling blocks or issues which would otherwise hinder a smooth adaptation into police work.

II. Field training program

V-3   1. **Does your agency have a field training program?**

> yes _____
>
> no _____   (If **no**, please continue to **Section III.**)

V-4   2. **How many weeks does your field training program encompass?** ___ weeks

> 3. **Field training officer's (FTO).**
> V-5   How many FTO's do you currently have? _____
> V-6   Average age of FTO's? _____
> V-7   Average years of police/on-job experience? _____
>   Type of training for FTO's
> V-8   In-house (inter-departmental)   yes ___ no ___
> V-9   External (trained/certified)   yes ___ no ___

III. Formal mentoring program (FMP)

> Some organizations have a *formal* mentoring program (FMP) where relationships develop with organizational assistance or intervention - usually in the form of Vol.untary assignment or matching of mentors and mentees. Formal relationships are structured and usually limited by time.

V-10   4. **Did your agency ever have an FMP?** yes ___*   no ___
V-11   *If yes, why does it no longer exist? _____

> 5. **Does your agency <u>currently</u> have an FMP?**
V-12   yes ____ no ____ (If **no**, please continue to *Section IV*)
V-13   6. **How many <u>months</u> are yonr FMP?**   1-12,   13-24,   25-36,   +36

V-14   7. **Are your mentors *formally* trained?** yes ___* no ___
        V-15   *If yes, please explain how and where they were formally trained. _____

-1-

V-16   8. How many years has your FMP been in existence? ___ years
V-17; V-18; V-19   **Do its participants function while:** ___ on-duty ___ off-duty (or)___both.
                  • **How often do your FMP participants meet?**
       V-20   daily ___   weekly ___   monthly ___   quarterly ___   as needed ___
                  • **How many hours per meeting?** V-21 hrs

V-22   9. In your opinion, are the individuals who perform FMP functions <u>appropriate</u> role
       models?
       a) all are   ___   d) less than half are   ___
       b) majority are   ___   e) a few are   ___
       c) about half are ___   f) very few (or less) are ___

10. In what areas do you feel that an FMP assists officers? (Please <u>rank</u> the following from
    1 through 8, with <u>1</u> being the <u>most</u> likely area of assistance)
    V-23 • patrol operations   ___
    V-24 • encouragement through difficulties   ___
    V-25 • interpersonal relationships at work   ___
    V-26 • encourage greater responsibility   ___
    V-27 • departmental policy/procedure   ___
    V-28 • decision making   ___
    V-29 • reinforcing personal self-esteem   ___
    V-30 • other, if applicable (please explain)   ___
    V-31 _____

11. In your opinion, who are best suited for FMP's? (Please <u>rank</u> the following from 1 through
    6, with <u>1</u> being the **best** suited as a formal mentor)
    V-32   a) peers / co-workers of the same rank or time   ___   V-35 d) retired officer's   ___
    V-33   b) fellow officer's with (5) plus years experience___   V-36 e) other **outside** officers ___
    V-34   c) immediate supervisors   ___   V-37 f) other (please explain) ___
    V-38 _____

12. For whom is your FMP designed?
    (Please indicate <u>all</u> of the following that apply)

                                                                              yes no
    V-39   a) Newly hired officers   yes ___ no ___. If yes, is participation mandatory? V 40
    V-41   b) Supervisory staff   yes ___ no ___. If yes, is participation mandatory? V 42
    V-43   c) Management level   yes ___ no ___. If yes, is participation mandatory? V 44
    V-45   d) Detective bureau   yes ___ no ___. If yes, is participation mandatory? V 46
    V-47   e) Other (please explain) ___ V-48 _____

13. Why does your agency have an FMP? (Please rate level of importance from 1 to 5, with <u>1</u>
    as the **most** important)
    V-49 • Performance related issues.. 1 2 3 4 5
    V-50 • To develop strategic thinking....................................... 1 2 3 4 5
    V-51 • Assist new hires to navigate through new experience..................... 1 2 3 4 5
    V-52 • To assist female officers with transition into the police culture.... 1 2 3 4 5
    V-53 • To assist minority officers with transition into the police culture.... 1 2 3 4 5
    V-54 • To encourage greater independence of new officers........................ 1 2 3 4 5
    V-55 • Form of job enrichment for mentors... 1 2 3 4 5
    V-56 • To decrease the failure rate of formal field training 1 2 3 4 5
    V-57 • Other (please explain),.. 1 2 3 4 5
         V-58 _____

14. What type(s),of protege(s),tend to participate in your FMP most often?

V-59 • Disciplinary/sanctioned officers................................... yes ___ * no ___

    V-60   *If yes, did the conduct occur on duty?   yes ___ no ___

V-61 • Officers who have struggled through the FTO process   yes ___ no ___

V-62 • Female officers.. yes ___ no ___

V-63 • Minority officers.. yes ___ no ___

V-64 • Other (please explain) __V-65_____

V-66   **15. In your opinion, to what degree are your employees satisfied with your mentoring program?**

    very satisfied   ___   somewhat satisfied   ___   satisfied ___

    somewhat dissatisfied   ___   very dissatisfied   ___

    V-67   **Please explain your answer**_____

V-68   **16. Does your FMP explain the issues surrounding gratuities?**   yes ___ no ___

V-69   **17. What percentage of your employees have participated in your FMP? ___ %**

18. The following statements pertain to issues <u>exclusive</u> of the field training process. In your opinion, please circle the best response to each statement.

V-70   Formal mentoring serves to <u>supplement</u> the FTO program...................... **SA A U D SD**

V-71   Formal mentoring <u>conflicts</u> with what is learned in the FTO program......**SA A U D SD**

V-72   Formal mentors can assist in <u>preventing</u> employee turn-over/quits........ **SA A U D SD**

IV. Informal mentoring relationships **(IMR)**

    An *informal* mentoring relationship (IMR),eVol.ves naturally, often beginning as a close friendship with no time limitations. Mentees select mentors who are viewed as role models. In law enforcement, informal mentors usually possess *persuasive* qualities.

V-73   **19. In your opinion, do IMR(s),exist?** yes ____ no ____. If no, please continue to *Section V*

20. If yes, in what areas do you feel that an IMR assists officers? (Please <u>rank</u> the following from 1 through 7, with **1** being the <u>most</u> likely area of assistance)

    V-74 • patrol operations   ___

    V-75 • encouragement through difficulties   ___

    V-76 • interpersonal relationships at work   ___

    V-77 • encourage greater responsibility   ___

    V-78 • decision making   ___

    V-79 • reinforcing personal self-esteem   ___

    V-80 • other, if applicable (please explain)<u>V-81</u> _____   <u>V-82</u>_____

21.In your opinion, who are informal mentors in your organization? (Please <u>rank</u> the following examples from 1 to 6, with **1** being the <u>most</u> likely to function as an IMR)

    V-83 • peers / co-workers of the same rank or time   ___

    V-84 • retired officers   ___

    V-85 • fellow officer's with (5) plus years experience   ___

    V-86 • other **outside** officers   ___

    V-87 • immediate supervisors   ___

    V-88 • other, if applicable (please explain)   <u>V-89</u>

            V-90_____

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V-91 **22. Has informal mentoring led to problems within your organization? yes ___ no ___**
If yes, to what extent were those problems? (Please check all that apply)
- **On-duty**
  - V-92 • gratuities ___
  - V-93 • insubordination ___
  - V-94 • complaints involving other peers ___
  - V-95 • other (please explain) V-96 _____
- **Off-duty**
  - V-97 • gratuities ___
  - V-98 • family problems ___
  - V-99 • unethical behavior ___
  - V-100 • conduct involving alcohol/drugs ___
  - V-101 • other (please explain V-102 _____

23. Please check the frequency of time that you believe IMR's take place.

		seldom	often	most often
V-103	before shift starts..	___	___	___
V-104	during breaks..	___	___	___
V-105	social organizations (ex. FOP, etc.)...............	___	___	___
V-106	bars,clubs,drinking estab...............................	___	___	___
V-107	religious gatherings..	___	___	___
V-108	sporting activities / events............................	___	___	___
V-109	between calls..	___	___	___
V-110	any other activity..	___	___	___
V-111	(please explain)_____			

V-112 **24. In your opinion, are those individuals who are IMR's <u>appropriate</u> role models?**
a) all are ___ c) about half are ___ e) few are ___
b) majority are ___ d) less than half are ___ f) very few (or less)are ___

V-113 **25. In your opinion, what percentage of newly hired officers (less than 5 yrs) have an informal mentoring relationship?** 1-25% 26-50% 51-75% 76-100%

26. In your opinion, why do you feel that a need exists for IMR's? (Please <u>select</u> the following **5** top reasons on a scale of 1 to 5, with **1** being the most likely reason),
*civilian complaints   V-114   *improve poor attitudes   V-120
*lack of job preparedness   V-115   *dealing with job stress   V-121
*family problems   V-116   *morale issues   V-122
*sub-standard reports   V-117   *failure to follow up   V-123
*assimilation to police work V-118   *addictive behavior issues V-124
*motivating new hires   V-119   *time management   V-125
*any other (please explain) V-126 ____V-127_____V-128_____

V-129 **27. As a police administrator who recognizes those individuals within your agency as informal mentors, do you believe that they serve an important role? yes ___ no ___**

V-130 **28. Have you ever spoken with them about their role as a mentor?** yes ___* no ___
V-131 *(If yes, are they rewarded in any way such as praise, compensation, public recognition,
V-132 or any other "perks", etc? Please explain_____

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V. Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationships

34. **The following statements pertain to issues <u>exclusive</u> of the field training process. In your opinion, please circle the best response to each statement.**

V-133	IMR's serve as a <u>supplement</u> to the FTO program..	**SA A U D SD**
V-134	An IMR assists officers to become familiar with people in the community....	**SA A U D SD**
V-135	An informal mentor's advice occasionally <u>leads to</u> disciplinary issues regarding new hires..	**SA A U D SD**
V-136	IMR's assist new officers with interpersonal communication skills................	**SA A U D SD**
V-137	Informal mentors can assist in <u>preventing</u> employee turn-over/quits................	**SA A U D SD**
V-138	IMR's assist officers to react appropriately if their authority is challenged.....	**SA A U D SD**
V-139	IMR's assist officers to <u>ethically</u> exercise discretion on the street..............	**SA A U D SD**
V-140	An IMR models appropriate personal off-duty conduct	**SA A U D SD**
V-141	IMR's can be instrumental in promoting <u>unethical values</u> in new hires..........	**SA A U D SD**
V-142	IMR's often <u>contradict</u> with what is learned in FTO......................................	**SA A U D SD**
V-143	IMR's effectively teach new officers to recognize dangerous situations.........	**SA A U D SD**
V-144	Informal mentors appropriately model <u>use of force</u> to new officers................	**SA A U D SD**
V-145	IMR's help officers to respond compassionately in traumatic situations........	**SA A U D SD**
V-146	IMR's <u>decrease</u> civilian complaints against new officers..............................	**SA A U D SD**
V-147	An IMR <u>increases</u> employee turn-over/quits...	**SA A U D SD**
V-148	IMR's mirror the importance of maintaining confidentiality.........................	**SA A U D SD**
V-149	IMR's encourage officers to take accountability for their actions...................	**SA A U D SD**
V-150	IMR's can <u>contribute</u> to civilian complaints against officers.........................	**SA A U D SD**
V-151	Informal mentors can be useful in <u>preventing</u> disciplinary issues.................	**SA A U D SD**
V-152	IMR's can lead to reinforcement of police sub-cultures.................................	**SA A U D SD**

VI. Demographics

V-153	30.	Total number of sworn police personnel.	_____
V-154	31.	Total number or supervisory personnel.	_____
V-155	32.	Total number of road officers.	_____
V-156	33.	On average, how many hours does your agency spend on in-service training, per officer, per month? ____ hour(s)	

Your assistance in completing this questionnaire is highly valued and greatly appreciated. Thank you for taking the time to complete it. Again, if you would like a copy of the final report, enclose your business card or a note in the envelope, and an executive summary of the findings of this study will be mailed to you in the future.

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