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THE INFLUENCE OF LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND CAREER ORIENTATION
ON POLICE ATTITUDES TOWARD HIGHER EDUCATION

by

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B.A. (Honours) Carleton University 1983

Thesis presented to the Department of Criminology of
the University of Ottawa in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts
(Criminology).



UNIVERSITÉ D'OTTAWA
UNIVERSITY OF OTTAWA

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the attitude police officers hold toward university education for police. The dimensions of level of education and career orientation were compared in relation to career aspirations, perceptions and attitudes toward the appropriate qualifications for promotion, the police role, and the appropriate requirements needed to engage in various facets of police work.

Two hundred and fifty questionnaires were sent out to a random sample of police officers from two mid size Ontario regional police forces. One hundred and fifty six questionnaires were returned yielding a 62.4 percent return rate.

Three levels of education were examined: No University, Some University (i.e., less than 3 years of university) and University Degree (Bachelors or other university degree). Overall, the University Degree group gave stronger endorsement to the use of university education as a criterion for promotion than the Some or No University groups. The University Degree group was found, however, to be split into two distinct segments with respect to their attitudes toward education. One of these segments supported university education much more strongly than the other. This division was explained with reference to socialization and career stages. That is, one segment may have adopted a reference group that placed high value on education, while the other segment may have adopted a reference group that placed little or no value on education. In addition, a university graduate who desires promotion may place more value on education than a graduate who does not desire promotion.

Respondents with No or Some University indicated that advancing university graduates at an 'accelerated rate' produced an inequitable promotion system. Inequity was also expressed by the University Degree group when they believed that university education was not being recognized as an input for the promotion process. The University Degree group also endorsed university education more strongly as being beneficial for the performance of various facets of police work. No significant differences were found among the education groups with respect to perceptions toward the police role, and job and career satisfaction. The lack of significant differences found concerning career and job satisfaction was explained in relation to the low length of service the respondents in this study had.

Five Career Orientations (Self Investors, Careerists, Specialists, Enforcers and Social Activists) were identified by using the Walsh (1977) and Cherniss (1980) career typologies. It was found that one's career orientation is not static but may change over a period of time. The career orientation that a police officer begins with may not be the one that is presently held, indicating that what is being dealt with are adaptations to life circumstances and not simply personality types. Such changing career orientations may be the result of situational influences as well as reference groups. For instance, a recruit may enter policing with the idealistic view that police work is an exciting and challenging career. After some time on the job, this officer may come to believe that police work is not what he envisioned and become cynical, adopting a more realistic view toward police work. This officer may now start concentrating more on family life than police work.

The majority of the respondents began their careers as either Social Activists (34 percent), Enforcers (26 percent) or Specialists (20 percent). Few began their careers as Self Investors or Careerists. At the present time, however, the majority of the respondents indicated that they were either Self Investors (32 percent), Specialists (29 percent) or Careerists (22 percent). The Careerists, Specialists, and Enforcers reported having higher career aspirations and expectations (i.e., promotion to Inspector or Staff Inspector) than the Self Investors and Social Activists (promotion to Sergeant). No significant differences were found among the five career orientations concerning attitudes and perceptions toward the police role, the benefits university education has for police work, and level of career satisfaction, although, Self Investors did report that they found police work less rewarding than those with other career orientations.

The findings suggest that, given the increase of persons with higher levels of education entering police work, formal recognition of level of education as a factor for promotion is an area of concern that police forces must examine. Promotion policies must consider the feasibility of requiring older individuals who entered police work when education was not a requirement, to obtain a university education in order to be considered for promotion. If police forces adopt a policy requiring university education, it may be necessary to accommodate older police officers who may be at a stage in their careers where increasing their level of education is unrealistic. In order to maintain a fair and equitable promotion system, therefore, it may be necessary to base the educational requirement on one's length of service. This policy may be revised in

the future as the average level of education increases with respect to length of service. Career satisfaction may be adversely affected for either or both university educated and non university educated officers if this situation is not handled correctly.

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INTRODUCTION

Much has been written about university education for police officers. Studies examining the overall effects education has on police performance, however, are inconclusive. Furthermore, there is a lack of agreement among researchers and police administrators on the usefulness that a university education has at the senior ranks and managerial levels. Despite the disagreement with respect to educating police officers, recent recruitment practices of many police forces have increasingly been favouring those persons with a university degree. Moreover, some police forces are attempting to upgrade incumbent police officers by encouraging them to attend university.

Considering the emphasis placed on requiring university education for policing, little, if any research has been conducted investigating the effect that this requirement has had on those who are most directly involved - the individual police officers themselves. This paper hopes to shed some light on this issue. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to examine the impact that one's level of education along with career aspirations as related to career orientation have on attitudes and perceptions towards the appropriate qualifications for promotion, the police role, and the appropriate requirements needed to engage in police work.

The decision to increase the existing educational standards of the police may be seen as a reaction to technological and social change as well as the desire for higher status and an improved image. The police have responded with numerous strategies to meet these concerns. Some strategies are technical and practical in nature and largely designed to improve operational efficiency, while others address such issues as human

resource and organizational development. One such strategy which has been identified is to use higher education to improve the overall quality of police performance. The decision to increase the educational standard of police officers may carry with it certain ramifications, one of the most important being the effects it has on individual police officers.

When drastic policy changes are implemented in any organization, one must consider not only the ideological aspects of the strategy but also the negative consequences that may be incurred along with it. One such consequence may be confusion and resentment among the present and incoming personnel.

Police work in North America was once considered as a career requiring less education than most other occupations. Finding a police officer with any post high school education was a rare occurrence. A good police officer was generally thought of as being the product of training, on-the-job experience and common sense. In addition, it was believed that the theories learned in a university environment had no value for everyday police work. The decision by police administrators to raise the educational standards for police personnel, therefore, may not have been received favourably by some officers. In addition, the new university educated police officers may not have favourably accepted the older views held by the non-university educated personnel.

The existence of these two types of police officers - one with a university education, and one without - may lead to conflicting styles and goals of policing. The way in which one reacts to another's policing style and goals may affect the attitude which that person holds towards a university education. Not much thought has been given by researchers or police administrators to this issue. The problem to be addressed, therefore, concerns the way in which individual officers perceive the

value university education has for their force, for themselves and for their fellow officers.

The attitudes or perceptions police officers hold toward education may be contingent upon factors such as the individual's career orientation and level of education. The value placed on university education may be related to the way in which one adapts to or becomes oriented toward police work. Some evidence suggests that one's career orientation may be related to the environmental or situational aspects of his/her career and to the socialization process with his/her reference group(s). The desire to be promoted, to have a specialized or challenging job, to possess a secure job, or to have exciting work may influence one's attitude toward education since these different orientations to police work may be perceived by some to require different levels of education. It follows, therefore, that one's perceived value of education in relation to various career orientations, becomes an issue.

In addition, since attitudes stem from the perceptions one holds, one's attitude with respect to the relationship of education to police work may be contingent upon the individual's own educational level. Those possessing a higher level of education such as a university degree may feel resentment if they believe that the time and effort put into obtaining an education is not paying off. Research has shown that job satisfaction is related to receiving expected job outcomes or rewards for possessing certain qualifications. Therefore, the relationship between the perceived value of education with one's own educational achievement becomes a second issue of concern in this paper.

In discussing the importance of university education for the police, it would prove beneficial to review the earlier work performed in this

area. The present research report is arranged into four chapters. Chapter 1 presents pertinent background material on police education and is divided into five sections.

Section 1 begins by discussing some general perspectives on police education. The present day rationale for educating police officers is examined in order to put into some perspective the reason that education is presently being emphasized as a requirement for police work. Considering that education is seen as a positive influence on police work, this section then goes on to discuss what various researchers and police administrators believe to be the best educational fields that police officers should enroll into in order to better prepare themselves for police work. This is then followed by a discussion on what constitutes the appropriate amount of education versus training in order to become an effective and competent police officer.

In order to put into perspective how the education issue for police work came about, Section 2 examines the history of police education in both the United States and Canada. It discusses the results of past studies along with the reaction to these results by police administrators and researchers.

After putting into focus the effect higher education has on police officers with their ability to do their job, the perceptions that police officers themselves may have toward education is then discussed. Section 3 examines the process by which individuals adopt certain attitudes toward their career and their perceptions toward education for police work. It shows how reference groups may have a heavy influence on the development of one's values and beliefs toward education.

Following the above discussion, Section 4 presents the statement of the problem with Section 5 describing the research design used in order to examine the issues presented.

Chapter 2 contains a description of the methodology used in this research paper. Chapter 3 gives the analysis of the data and reports the results. Chapter 4 contains a discussion of the results and examines their implications for policy and future research.

CHAPTER 1

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

SECTION 1: GENERAL PERSPECTIVES ON EDUCATING THE POLICE

Present Day Rationale for Educating Police Officers

The minimum basic requirement for entrance into any police force in Canada is grade 12, although, for some time now, some police forces such as the R.C.M.P. have incorporated scoring systems which include one's level of education as one of the criteria to be considered in recruitment.

A basic premise for recruiting university graduates into police forces is that past performance is a good predictor of an individual's future performance (Lester, 1979; Owens, 1976). The belief is that the attainment of a university degree is indicative of one's ability to succeed in a training program or in learning a new job. One's educational achievement may also indicate one's aptitude or intellectual ability to do the job (Meritt-Haston and Wexley, 1983).

In the past, police agencies have been mainly concerned with a candidate's physical stature with the belief that the bigger and stronger the police officer, the more the general public would perceive him as an authority figure and the better he would be able to handle troublesome or potentially troublesome situations. Some observers feel, however, that police officers, especially those at the senior ranks, would benefit from having formal education beyond high school (Grant, 1984). It is believed that such an education would provide police officers at all levels with a better understanding of modern society and the role of the police in the community.

There has been a dramatic increase in the educational level of the North American work force over the past twenty years (Lawler, 1985).

Little is known, however, about the impact that this increased level of education has had on the behaviour of individuals in organizations. Many changes have taken place in work environments over the past two decades and these changes may have an important impact on how organizations should be managed. Modern and sophisticated operations within organizations may require workers to possess specialized skills (Lawler, 1985).

The increasing complexity of police work has led a number of researchers to conclude that even at the patrol level, police officers should possess a higher level of education (Geber, 1987; Grant, 1984; R.C.M.P., 1983). Two methods have been used to improve the educational status of the police:

1. an attempt to create a new pool of applicants from which police officers are selected by advocating pre-service college education as a condition of employment;
2. upgrading incumbent personnel, particularly those in management and administration.

(Greene and Cordner, 1980, p. 12)

In addition; there are at least three underlying reasons why it is advantageous to improve the educational standing of police officers:

1. to improve the social status of law enforcement in the North American occupational structure;
2. to improve the direct delivery of police services; and
3. to indirectly improve police services through a change of police personnel over a period of time (Steinman and Eskridge, 1985; Greene and Cordner, 1980; Meritt-Haston and Wexley, 1980; Sherman, 1978; R.C.M.P., 1978)..

Improving the social status of law enforcement through education refers to the attempt by the police to achieve professional standing (Steinman and Eskridge, 1985; Meritt-Haston and Wexley, 1980). The

police want the public to perceive them as a professional organization and not merely as an occupation. This view is not supported by some observers. The attempt to use education to attain professional status is, according to Greene and Cordner (1980) less important than the improvement of the quality of police service.

Some researchers and police administrators believe that a university education would positively affect the delivery of police services by improving the quality of its personnel. That is, a university education may improve such areas as interpersonal skills, expand individual tolerance of ambiguity, and enhance one's ability to deal with the problems of rapidly changing and culturally diverse societies (Greene and Cordner, 1980; Sherman, 1978; R.C.M.P., 1978). Improving the educational level of police personnel may also lead to the "indirect improvement of police services through term institutional change" (Greene and Cordner, 1980, p. 13). The assumption is that by having a large pool of university graduates at the lower ranks, there will be a better chance that these individuals will be selected or promoted to the senior ranks (Grant, 1984). Institutional or organizational change in law enforcement, therefore, will be facilitated because these educated change agents will eventually become the future police leaders (Grant, 1984; Greene and Cordner, 1980).

In 1978 a document published by the Canadian Police College indicated a need for both university educated officers and a continuing education program for the police community (R.C.M.P., 1978). This perceived need was based not on empirical research, but on the following assumptions (Muir, 1982).

... the university educated police officer is:

1. better able to understand the complexity and range of human behaviour,

2. better able to tolerate differences and ambiguities,
3. better able to understand the causes of crime and the nature of deviance,
4. better prepared to evaluate a difficult and sensitive situation and to arrive at a balanced judgement,
5. more flexible, less hostile, less prejudice, less authoritarian, and less cynical when compared to non-college colleagues,
6. possessed of an advanced knowledge in special areas of police work that can only be derived from university training, and,
7. more willing to take initiative, experiment, exercise leadership, and use a step-by-step method to process information and arrive at decisions.

(R.C.M.P., 1978, p. 1)

Individual police officers also seek out higher education for both career advancement and improved performance. For example, in 1974, thousands of Canadian police officers attended university or college courses (800 from the R.C.M.P.) either at their own or at public expense (Kelly, 1976). For the R.C.M.P., this figure rose to 1500 out of a 16,000 man force in 1986 (Stoski, 1987). Furthermore, an increasing number of police forces are encouraging their officers to take post secondary education as long as their education is considered relevant to police work. To achieve this goal, some forces provide financial and other incentives for university attendance (Heaphy, 1978; Ostrom, 1978; Greisinger, 1978), although, Greisinger (1978) found that a number of forces still fail to give little credit to level of education when making decisions regarding promotion.

The demand for better educated police may, in part, be the reason for an increase in the number of police related university courses offered over the past 15 years (Dull, 1982). In 1965, Crocket (1968)

found that there were only slightly more than 100 Associate degree programs and 25 baccalaureate programs involving criminal justice in the United States. The International Association of Police Chiefs (IAPC) estimated that this figure had risen to 1000 Associate and slightly under 600 baccalaureate programs in 1978 (Dull, 1982). Despite the increase in availability of criminal justice programs, the average educational level of Canadian police officers still lies well below that of the rest of the Canadian population, with little sign of improvement. For instance, from 1975 to 1981 the percentage of R.C.M.P. officers possessing any post secondary education increased from 9 percent to 16 percent while that of the general Canadian population rose from 25 percent in 1977 to 31 percent in 1980 (R.C.M.P., 1983). Further, Grant (1984) and the R.C.M.P. (1983) suggest that the proportion of police officers in other Canadian forces having any post-secondary education is probably less than those in the R.C.M.P.

Although there has been strong impetus to improve the quality of police officers, recent research has shown some disappointing results. Beckman (1980), has noted that the recruitment practices in many large metropolitan American police departments are not only discouraging, but frightening. There are reports of the recruitment of people who are semi-literate or who have histories of substance abuse or criminal arrest records. Beckman (1980) goes on to say that some agencies have entrance exams

which could be failed by only very young children or lower-quartile morons ... some agencies operating their own academies pass a large number of recruits who would have failed in any other regional academy in the state.

(p. 35)

Beckman (1980) further states that:

Policemen are entrusted with substantial amounts of authority; they may interdict, arrest and use force. This power frightens people and they therefore hope, possibly expect, that the men who [possess] this power are several cuts above the average.

(p. 35)

In order to obtain the confidence of the public, therefore, police officers should be at least on a par in terms of education, with the rest of the population (Grant, 1976).

Grant (1984) feels that the low number of university educated police officers is appalling since it is from this pool of lower ranking officers that senior management is chosen. Past experience shows the need for a university education especially at the senior ranks. Hale (1977) has noted that:

historically, police chiefs have been skilled police practitioners first and adept administrators and managers second, if at all... Consequently, police departments in the United States today, especially small and medium sized ones, are generally poorly organized, improperly managed and badly administered.

(p. IV)

Germann (1976) has criticized traditional police administration:

We seem to be prisoners of our clichés and the thinking of 25 and 50 years ago. Our police and their predecessors seem wholly unable to emancipate themselves from thinking about weaponry and repression as the key social control solution. We carry the stereotypes of the past and are unable to disabuse ourselves of them. We have only to read police literature to realize the extent to which our police establishment has been unable to adjust to the realities of the present and future.

(p. 351)

Similarly, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967) noted that:

Each study and every expert agreed that with some notable exceptions, city police forces are not well organized and managed. The same two failures were cited universally as the crucial ones: the failure to develop career administrators, and the failure to use the techniques and acquire the resources that experts on the subject prescribe... the fact that most departments have not adopted recognized principles of organization and management is a matter of greater urgency.

(p. 113)

In order to improve management in police departments, Grant (1984) suggests that highly educated individuals should be allowed lateral entry into the more senior ranks as is done in some other occupations. For example, university graduates entering the Canadian Armed Forces are immediately given junior officer status. Grant (1984) does note, however, that this proposal does not go over well with representatives of police unions, who argue that the individual has not been tested in the field, nor experienced the difficulties, temptations and frustrations of the front line officer first hand. Further, morale and job satisfaction might be reduced for officers having seniority if they were passed over for promotion in favour of university graduates entering from outside the police community.

Grant (1984) also argues for lateral entry into specialist positions requiring unique professional, technical, or scientific training. This option has been criticized by those who believe that persons recruited in this fashion would not gain any appreciation of day-to-day police work.

Policing in Canada is very big business. As Grant (1976) has stated, of all big businesses in Canada, both in the private and public sector, the police is the only organization that places a largely unprofessional, low educated management group in control of the enterprise. Part of the problem in Canada rests on the current minimum requirements which have been legislated for the position of Chief of Police:

No chief of police... shall be appointed... unless he... produces satisfactory proof of having successfully completed at least two years of secondary school education or its equivalent (underscoring Grant's)

(Grant, 1984, p. 62)

Legislation such as this may account, in part, for Grossman's (1975) finding that most police executives have no more than one or two years of secondary school with very few having any university education at all. Results such as these have led some writers to emphasize the need to raise the educational requirement at the senior ranks.

In 1976, the Police Foundation formed a commission headed by Lawrence Sherman (1978) to investigate the quality of police higher education. The Commission provided recommendations which were contained in its official report - The Quality of Police Education. Two of the more significant recommendations regarding post-secondary education were:

- (1) The majority of federal funds for police higher education should go to programs with broad curricula and well educated faculty rather than to narrowly technical programs.
- (2) Government policies at all levels should encourage educating police officers before they begin their [police] careers.

(Dull, 1982, p. 317)

With respect to the second recommendation, Grant (1984) has noted that if education takes place after one enters the police force, one has already been strongly influenced by the existing police culture.

The following section will deal with the views held by a number of writers which have resulted from the emphasis on a broad and liberal education for police officers.

The Argument for a Broad and Liberal Education

It has been argued that the goal of police education should be to "gain as deep an understanding as possible of a wide range of human and societal concerns in the context of the role of the police and the criminal justice system and to develop the mind as a probing but rigorous instrument of thought and expression" (Loewenthal, 1980, p. 26).

According to Palmiotto (1981):

The college educated individual is more qualified than the high school graduate. The college trained person has more experience with people and new situations. His responsibility and adaptability to new surroundings have been tested. In addition, he has been exposed to various cultural characteristics and ethical [ethnic] and racial backgrounds. This exposure should eliminate or reduce prejudice and bias. More important, a formal education should teach individuals to check their judgements regarding prejudices in favour of a more tranquil analysis.

(p. 38)

Lynch (1976) suggests that a university education will increase one's perception of what is ethical and honest and

... the decision to be ethical and honest is a conscious decision to pursue a higher goal than immediate or long-term personal gratification. The ideological commitment must control specific action. Higher education can help the individual look at choices, examine the solutions of others, and discuss possible courses of action outside the pressured situation of day-to-day law enforcement.

(p. 290)

Berkley (1969) believes that police officers should have a more holistic impression of what goes on around them and that this is better accomplished when an officer is educated.

The policeman who sees all should understand all... only a policeman who is thoroughly educated in the processes and institutions of democracy can perform his task correctly. Knowledge is the first step to understanding and understanding is a necessary step to appreciation.

(Berkley, 1969, p. 75)

Weiner (1974) expands on Berkley's notion and contends that although education may not have an outright impact on one's attitudes, it may broaden his horizons, by exposing him to new ideas and values, thereby producing an individual who is comfortable facing a wide variety of situations.

Further support is given to the argument for holism by Saunders (1970b) who claimed that education should be used to create thinking and critical beings, sensitive to the democratic ideal. Saunders (1970b) stresses, however, that we must be aware of the fact that

the reasons advanced for college education for police are essentially the same as those used to justify education as preparation for any other career. They rest more on faith than on fact.

(p. 81)

As part of a recommendation from the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, commission member Norval Morris (1979) stated that he saw the need for a broad and liberal education so that we could produce a type of Renaissance Man. This education would involve a four year degree program encompassing a broad spectrum of courses in the liberal arts (e.g., history, psychology, philosophy, sociology) (Sherman, 1978). This beat walking Renaissance Man would be

... a man of thought and action, a man at home in the world of ideas, who would nevertheless actively confront, on the basis of these ideas, the situation on the streets of the cities.

(McGrath, 1978, p. 4)

Morris (1979) believes that courses in philosophy, jurisprudence and political science would develop one's capacity to manage complex and abstract issues, to function in an unstructured environment, and to cope with ambiguities. Morris (1979) further believes that analytical skills may be developed by taking courses in research methodology, in mathe-

matics and statistics. This would help one solve problems and choose viable alternatives on major issues. Goldstein (1977) lends support to Morris' (1979) ideas and mentions that subjects such as history, economics, sociology, psychology, and political science would enhance the probability of broadening one's perspectives and understanding of society.

The general idea emphasized by these writers, therefore, is that the police officer should be a conceptual and analytic thinker; flexible, tolerant, and capable of understanding the "big picture" (Muir, 1982).

The Education vs. Training Controversy

Grant (1976) feels that police education and training should have three aims: first, to provide a police officer who is technically competent; second, normalization so that it coincides with existing adult education; and third,

the creation of an atmosphere in which the constable would thoroughly internalize beliefs in fairness and justice in the administration of the criminal law and would display a mature understanding of the attitudes and responses (in both citizens and self) which would be met on the job.

(Grant, 1976, p. 228)

The problem with the third aim for police officers is that society is in a state of continual change. This means that the role of education must also produce police constables who are able to meet the demands of a changing or evolving society. Therefore, training must incorporate a philosophy of encouraging police officers to obtain a broad and liberal outlook while maintaining a high degree of technical expertise.

The need for a broad and liberal education was recognized in 1967 by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of

Justice who stated that training alone was insufficient. What was also needed was a broad education, an education that would provide an awareness of the social context of policing, the burdens of public power in a democracy, and ethical and moral dilemmas which go with law enforcement in a liberal society.

Despite the emphasis on a broad and liberal education and the increase in the number of police oriented programs in the universities and colleges, Potts (1981) believes there is reason to doubt that these institutions are properly equipping individual officers to contend with the moral and ethical dilemmas that confront them. He goes on to say that we must be concerned with the individual use of police power in a democratic society.

Law enforcement is not the only function of the police in society (Potts, 1981; Roberge, 1978; Grant, 1976). Police work also encompasses crime prevention and community service. Police training typically concentrates on the enforcement aspect of policing. Research on a number of police forces (Grant, 1976 and Roberge, 1978), however, has shown that 80 percent of police work deals with order maintenance, crime prevention and community service. Police officers are quite often called upon to provide numerous social services such as directing traffic, dealing with lost and found persons and property, dealing with psychiatric patients and providing emergency aid in accidents. They are called upon to restore order in various domestic and neighbourhood disputes. In neither social service work nor in order maintenance activities can the police officer be considered to be predominantly controlled by the law. Criminality or legality is not a concern in either role. Police training, therefore, should also serve to develop expertise in human relations and conflict resolution, as well as the traditional police skills. Grant

(1976) suggests that the approach currently taken on training (usually 10-20 weeks of a police skills oriented program, followed by extensive field experience, which may include little or no further training) should be replaced with an approach using a balanced mix of police skill training and academic education including human relations content and supervised practical field experience.

The need for a balance between a broad and liberal university education and vocational training for police officers has been stressed by many advocates of police education. The proper balance between the two, however, is far from settled (Dull, 1982).

In an unpublished paper, Sourgal (1979; cited in Dull, 1982, p. 316) "differentiated between training and education by stating that training is giving information which can be used on the job (that is, narrow, specific, and one best way) and education is the presentation of basic principles and broad concepts to offer a wide variety of decisions". Similar views have been echoed by Waddington (1985) and Taylor (1983). Stated differently, training teaches someone how to react to a specific situation while a university education serves to teach one to think (Palmiotto, 1981).

This was recognized by the International Association of Police Professors who stated that a liberal arts degree contributed to the:

... development of men as thinking, critical, creative beings, with an awareness of their relations to the whole of mankind.
... this type of man is a better man - whatever occupation he pursues.

(Saunders, 1970, p. 84)

Hoover (1975) believes that a liberal education will help assure the democratic administration of justice by helping those who administer such justice to develop value systems which are democratic. He further states

that a liberal arts or social science degree will help produce a critical thinking professional decision maker.

In terms of elevating their education after police academy training, a number of writers have stressed how important it is for a police officer to obtain a liberal arts education rather than vocational training. Carter (1978) believes that vocational training merely serves as an extension to the training academy and does not meet the standards of academia.

Ackers (1979), in opposing a vocational training approach for policing, stated that:

the curriculum should not consist of training or duplicate police academy training; it is clear that in the training vs. education issue the side to take is education.

(p. 39)

Ackers (1979) goes on to say that teaching a broad and liberal education is what universities and colleges do best and that's what they should provide. Training, Ackers (1979) believes, should be left to the academies.

Rasmussen (1979) believes that a liberal arts program should not be the "end all" of police education. A liberal arts program may be good for some but not necessarily for all. He feels that we must be wary of our obsession to promote liberal arts throughout the police community. In the same realm, Spreen (1979, p. 30) feels that it is unrealistic to assume that "programs with 'humanistic - social' philosophies include only liberal arts courses taught by 'ivory tower' professors to civilian students without considering the real world criminal justice problems."

In his discussion of education versus training, Tenney (1971) stated that both training and education are necessary for police officers and

that there is no logical reason why both should not be taught at colleges. This same thought is echoed by Reppetto (1979) who argued that abolishing the technical courses in policing is to assume that they have no professional content. What is actually needed, is the proper blend of liberal arts, field work, and technical courses and the movement to improve their content.

The roots of present thinking concerning the educated police officer stems from over 50 years ago when attempts were made to upgrade a trouble-plagued police occupation.

SECTION 2: THE HISTORY OF POLICE EDUCATION

The American Experience

Fosdick (1920) was one of the first writers to suggest that the root of many police problems lay in the quality of police personnel. Even prior to Fosdick's (1920) work, there were police reformers who noted the deficiencies of police personnel.

Pointing out that most policemen did not finish school, scored below average on intelligence tests, received little or no training, earned inadequate salaries, and continued working into their sixties, seventies, and eighties, these reformers argued that the rank and file were largely unqualified at the outset and remained so thereafter.

(Fogelson, 1977, p. 51)

Sherman (1978b) notes that most police officers were selected through political patronage rather than merit. Consequently, police reformers strived for two goals: the first was removing politics from the appointment process, and the second and according to Sherman (1978b) the most important, was to transform police work from an occupation to a profession - perhaps not on a par with law or medicine, but a profession nonetheless.

According to Carte and Carte (1975), Vollmer was the first to advocate higher education as the main vehicle by which to professionalize the police and give them dignity and a higher social status. Vollmer felt that a better education would not only create a better police officer, but also change the police role in society. Sherman (1978b) notes that Vollmer envisioned police work in the realm of public health work, where the police would not only deal with crime prevention and public disorder, but would also deal with it after it occurs. In order to meet this objective, police officers would have to be more creative,

intelligent, and resourceful. He believed that university education could help achieve this goal. Learning a trade at the technical institutions, which was what police officers were presently doing, was not enough. Instead, individuals should obtain a university degree before entering the police force as is done in many other professions. This would tend to make policing a more prestigious profession with interesting creative work. Vollmer believed that teaching police related courses in universities and colleges would support his claim that the police profession has a specialized body of knowledge as the basis for its practice (Sherman, 1978b).

Vollmer began to focus on higher education in 1907, when, as the Chief of Police in Berkley, California, he visited many police departments in the state. He found that most departments were inefficient and had poor reputations. He decided that the solution to this was to professionalize the police through better training. In 1908, Vollmer convinced the Oakland police department to undergo such a training program (Eastman and McCain, 1981). This in-service program included courses in criminal law, sanitation laws, police methods, first aid, photography and even controversial courses such as fingerprinting and anthropometry. The following year, New York City organized its own police academy, which, unlike the Berkley program, provided training for its recruits. In his unpublished M.A. thesis, Farris, (1965; cited in Eastman and McCain, 1981, p. 123) saw "1916 as the point of conceptual divergence of police training and police education, as each became separately institutionalized". At the same time, Vollmer's program moved to the University of California. Initially, this change in the program resulted only in relocating to a new place. It did, however, indicate the university's

interest in policing, and this interest in providing programs related to policing would later be adopted by others.

Vollmer's intention to upgrade the police was obvious. In an attempt to obtain funds for his program he wrote:

Every trade or profession demands apprenticeship or schooling, adequately to prepare a man for his work... Effort is being made to educate our officers who are now receiving instruction in the various subjects considered essential for the better performance of their duties.

(cited in Eastman and McCain, 1981, p. 123)

In this statement, Vollmer distinguished between policing as a profession and as an occupation, and between apprenticeship and schooling. His preference was with education and professionalization and he constantly pursued these goals.

In 1923, the University of California offered a degree in economics with a concentration in criminology. This was the first university degree related to policing. In 1924, Vollmer convinced the University of Southern California to offer courses related to policing in public administration. The University of Chicago and San Jose State College quickly followed and offered courses to police through the department of Political Science.

The establishment of these programs encouraged Vollmer and in 1931 he wrote:

Within a short time the old policeman who believes that there is more law in the end of a night stick than there is in all the books in all the libraries, will disappear and in his place there will be found a man especially trained to serve the people more intelligently... Now we are beginning to accept the educated policeman as a matter-of-fact. No one can prophesy the future, but there can be little question in the minds of many that within a few years schools for police will be established in practically every college and university in the land.

(Vollmer, 1931, p. 7)

Support for Vollmer's (1931) views on educating the police was provided by the Wickersham Commission (U.S. National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931). After finding that 75 percent of all American policemen could not pass an Army Intelligence Test, the Commission determined that there was a need to place a greater emphasis on the education of police officers. Additional police related programs were set up in Northwestern University, the University of Wisconsin, and Harvard University. Despite efforts to keep these programs in the curriculum, they fell prey to the Great Depression, and due to lack of funding, collapsed. Thereafter, Vollmer's recommendations regarding education were largely ignored. Some universities, however, such as the University of Southern California, Michigan State, Indiana University, and Washington State, did create programs in either criminology or police administration. Unfortunately, few police officers enrolled in and graduated from these programs.

It was not until the crime wave of the 1960s that the idea of educating the police once again became a serious topic of discussion. The police were charged not only with being ineffective in controlling disorder, but also with aggravating and precipitating violence through harassment of minorities, student dissidents and other citizens (Palmiotto, 1981). The way in which the police were handled the situation instilled more of a fear of crime in the citizenry than there had been before. This prompted the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, in 1967, to recommend that the minimum educational level for police officers be raised to the level of a baccalaureate degree (Griffin, Dunbar, and McGill, 1978). They argued that the police role was as complicated as that of any other profession. It was believed that higher education, therefore, was essential to improving the

quality of police services. Similar views were held by a number of other groups including the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, and President Johnson's Commission on Campus Unrest (Palmiotto, 1981).

In 1973, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals elaborated on the President's Commission Report and recommended that every police agency should require:

1. immediately, as a condition to initial employment, the completion of at least one year of education at an accredited college or university.
2. ... no later than 1975, ... 2 years of education.
3. ... no later than 1978, ... at least 3 years of education.
4. ... no later than 1982, ... 4 years of education or a baccalaureate degree.

(Griffin, Dunbar, and McGill, 1978, p. 78)

The responses to the recommendations were not immediate nor as positive as the Commission anticipated, although, some police departments have raised their educational standards to a high school diploma for recruits. Others had set minimum educational requirements of at least two years of college by 1975 and four years by 1980 (Griffin, Dunbar, and McGill, 1978). Some forces have provided incentives to acquire degrees with financial assistance provided by the local, state, or federal agencies. One reason for the poor response may be that the recommendations were not explicit so that the objectives of police education were not established (Sherman, 1978b). Sherman (1978b) further suggests that the purpose of police education as seen by the reformers was lost in the vague congressional objectives of increasing fairness and effectiveness of American law enforcement.

Police Education in Canada

Canada has not followed the American experience. There are no degree programs designed specifically for police officers in any Canadian university, although, some offer certificate programs related to police work. Instead, junior colleges, community colleges, colleges of applied arts and technology, and the college of general and professional education (CEGEP) developed programs according to the needs, opportunities, and educational philosophies of the respective province (O'Reilly, 1977). These institutions attempted to fill the needs of training and educating police officers which the universities were not prepared to do. The growth of these programs reflected the American experience. In 1971, there were only five community colleges which offered police related programs. By 1977, there were thirty-five.

The Jackson Report of 1974 (The Selection and Training of Police Officers - Phase 1) examined the college programs available for police services. It found that "the general philosophy that predominates in the Canadian colleges, is to facilitate the availability of suitable employees for interested hiring agencies" (Jackson, 1974, p. 59). Further, it was found that some colleges virtually duplicate police recruit training stating that "their graduates are equal to first class constables" (Jackson, 1974, p. 67). Other colleges were less vocationally oriented and prepared students for training at the police academies. This report showed that Canadian colleges were geared more toward vocational training than toward providing a comprehensive general education.

The history of police education has demonstrated that its initial purpose was to bring the police service up to the same level and status as that of other professions. There was an endeavour to obtain better

quality police who would better understand the crime situation. It was hoped that this would raise the status of the police.

Whether or not higher education has improved the performance of the police is uncertain. Studies relating education to job satisfaction are inconclusive. Despite these unsettling findings, an area deserving attention would be police officer attitudes toward university education. The attitude that an officer holds toward higher education may affect how he feels about certain departmental policies (e.g., promotions) and in turn, whether or not his job provides him with a rewarding and satisfying career.

Research on the Effects of Education on the Police

The relative benefits derived from educating the police are unclear. Education has, however, been shown to relate to police attitude (Fisher, Golden and Heininger, 1985). From a sample of 118 police officers in Lincoln, Nebraska, Roberge (1980, 1978) found that college educated police officers are less dogmatic than their university educated colleagues. Similar results were found by Parker, Donnelly, Gerwitz, Marcus and Kawalewski (1976) in a study of police officers sampled in the Eastern United States. Dalley (1975) found that R.C.M.P. officers who possessed a higher level of education were less authoritarian, less conservative, and held less rigid attitudes. Blankenship and Cramer (1976) found that police officers with higher levels of education and having better training in interpersonal skills tended to prefer informal referral to intermediate agencies over formal committal to mental hospitals in handling mentally disordered juvenile behaviour.

The research literature on police education tends to stress the police officer's role as a decision maker and that this process is a

personal and individual one. Finkenauer (1975) believes that police officers with a college education tend to be less legalistic and less likely to invoke the criminal process. He also believes that there is a need to condition the police into being less authoritarian and officious, and more empathic towards the people with whom they deal.

Weiner (1976), in a study of the attitudes of police officers, found that one's level of education has no or only little effect on police attitudes. Neiderhoffer (1967) felt that education would reduce police cynicism, however, studies by Regoli (1976), and Lotz and Regoli (1977), found that although officers with a lower level of education are more cynical than more educated officers the latter also rank high on cynicism scales due to their supposed identification with the "professional ethos" and their inability to practice it. Similar results were reported by Wycoff and Susmilch (1979) on studies involving the educational level of command level officers and their attitudes.

The lack of consensus on the value of education is evident. The same is true when the type of education is considered. Finnegan (1976) argues that although education may have an effect on attitudes and performance, the type of education played no significant role. The same sentiment is echoed by Wycoff and Susmilch (1979) who reviewed a number of police education studies. On the other hand, Madell and Washburn (1978) found that in terms of promotion, those who concentrate on police science and business administration fared better than those who studied liberal arts.

Some support has been found with respect to higher education and increased performance, although the specific performance areas are still unknown (Sparling, 1975). In a study of 418 Michigan State Police

Troopers, Weirman (1978) found that college educated officers performed better on a test of academic ability and had better peer relationships. Weirman (1978), however, also found that better educated officers were more likely to leave policing. In a study of 500 Chicago patrol officers, Baehr, Furcon and Froemel (1968) reported that senior officers who received higher performance ratings had a significantly higher education level. Similarly, a police chief reported that 19 of his officers with at least 62 hours of college education received substantially higher performance ratings than did a similar number of officers without a college education (Saunders, 1970). A study by Finnegan (1976) of the Baltimore Police Department found similar results.

An interesting observation made by Wycoff (1987) following visits to a number of American police forces was that police managers who possessed a higher level of education tended to be more creative in devising new supervisory methods. These managers also encouraged thought and creativity in their patrol officers.

In a study of the New York Police Department, Cohen and Chaikin (1973) reported a positive correlation between education and the receipt of fewer complaints, fewer disciplinary actions, fewer sick days, and fewer injuries. In a survey of 940 Dade County officers, Cascio (1977) found the same results as Cohen and Chaikin (1973). It was also found that more highly educated officers had higher intelligence and motivation scores. The effect of intelligence was mediated by education while motivation had a direct statistical effect on the performance measures.

Despite some positive ways education has influenced certain aspects of police work, it has had some negative influence as well. There is growing evidence that education is negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

Cross occupational studies concerning education and job satisfaction have not reported any consistent findings (Buzawa, 1984; Mottaz, 1984; Glenn and Weaver, 1982a and b; O'Toole, 1977; Freeman, 1976), although, there is increasing evidence that, within policing, education is negatively correlated with job satisfaction. There is undisputed empirical evidence that a higher percentage of university educated police officers leave policing than those with less education (Fielding and Fielding, 1987; Burbeck and Furnham, 1985; Weirman, 1978). One reason for the high turnover rate has been attributed to the frustration of working in a rigid setting (Levy, 1966; Griffin et al, 1978; Cohen and Chaikin, 1973; Locke and Smith, 1970).

Hilton (1975; cited in Burbeck and Furnham, 1985) found that voluntary resignation was related to education, as well as being influenced by length of service. The study found that those who resigned during training had a lower level of education than the rest while those who resigned during their first two years of police work had a higher level of education. A more recent study by Hilton, Young and Jones-Lloyd (1977; cited in Burbeck and Furnham, 1985) did not confirm this. Instead, it was found that less educated officers tended to be the ones who resigned in the first two years of service with no differences found thereafter.

Further support for job dissatisfaction may be seen in what happened with Correctional Services in Canada. In 1977, the Parliamentary Subcommittee on the Penitentiary System in Canada noted the high turnover rate for its employees. They attributed this to low morale. It was recommended that better educated employees would improve this situation and the Correctional Service started recruiting university graduates as custodial officers. The high turnover rate did go down and the attempts

to upgrade the system seemed to work. Booth (1987) warns, however, that just prior to 1977, corrections was in a state of turmoil: In 1975, there were 3 riots involving hostage takings which may have been a high source of anxiety for the staff leading them to resign. With the lack of major prison riots lately, the staff may be more inclined to stay.

The influx of educated employees into corrections did cause some concern. In his report to the Advisory Committee to the Solicitor General of Canada on the Management of Correctional Institutions, Carson (Canada, 1984) noted the signs of frustration being displayed by the staff. With the high number of university graduates entering corrections at the custodial level, the lower educated, older employees felt that their jobs were being threatened. Since they could not meet the educational requirements, the older employees saw their opportunity for promotion blocked and job security threatened.

University graduates were also showing signs of frustration. Booth (1987) notes that there were two reasons for this. First, they became frustrated with the limitations in the system that prevented them from fully helping the inmates and second, once they reached the Welfare Program Officer level 3 (Classification Officer), they found that it was very difficult to go any higher. This prompted many of them to leave.

In terms of policing, an opposing study by Barry (1978) found that although college educated police officers in Illinois noted that they were not receiving any pay incentives or preferred promotional advancements, their education enhanced their performance and that they had a high level of job satisfaction.

Despite this finding, the critics of education, especially those who entered policing before the education movement, resent the emphasis on education on several counts (Miller and Fry, 1976). They view the new

educational requirements as an unfair change in the rules in the middle of the game. College attendance may be viewed as an infringement on family and recreational activities and the courses themselves perceived as irrelevant. These concerns contribute to job dissatisfaction in their careers.

The inconsistent findings regarding education and the police has also led some writers to negatively criticize education in police work. A major problem regarding the study of the police and education according to Fisher et al (1985) is that despite all the attention to the issue, few studies have been conducted. In fact, these authors found only one by Adams (1981) in the three year period since 1982. Only a few studies indicate that a university educated officer performs better than a non-university educated officer, and of those which do not show better performance, none indicate that a university educated officer performs more poorly than the others. Some have, however, indicated a greater frequency of attrition.

Resistance to Change

Two basic criticisms have been made of university education for police services. The first, as suggested by Salten (1979), is that university education makes no difference even if it is obtained before entering the police service. A second, and more serious allegation, is that university educated officers may actually perform worse than their non-university trained counterparts. Wilson (1975, p. 113) suggests that "while college may make a man civil... it also gives him (or reinforces for him) his sense of duty". Because of this, the college educated officer may become excessively aggressive and be more likely to arrest when a gentler approach may be better. Contrary to Palmiotto (1981) it

has been further suggested that college educated officers may not be able to identify with the problems of the lower and working class person with whom they must deal (Sherman, 1978b).

Some senior officers in the United States have expressed the fear that "the new breed (often with a Bachelor's or Master's degree) is more apt to ask questions, and is less inclined to accept departmental edicts blindly than did his predecessors of fifteen or more years. This attitude sometimes leads to unrest in departments" (Solicitor General of Ontario, 1980, p. 91). The belief that officers who obtain formal education will present problems in the police force is also shared by some forces in Ontario. One Sergeant interviewed by the Ontario Task Force on Policing (1974, p. 18) said "sometimes the job of policing requires an instant and precise response to an order from someone in authority. You can't afford the time to ask or answer questions".

Efforts to encourage police officers to enroll in higher education have been resisted. For example, police officers have sometimes been denied unpaid leaves of absence to pursue higher education relevant to their careers. A further problem is that it is not clear that receiving a higher education after many years of police socialization can ever be as beneficial in acquiring a broad and liberal outlook as one who has received a post-secondary education before entering the police force. As police officers acquire job experience they develop certain conceptions about crime. These ingrained ideas are difficult to change even if formal education is obtained after some years of service since the officer is not away from the job long enough to obtain a broad and liberal viewpoint. Despite this, Grant (1984) believes that, until there is any conclusive evidence that post recruitment education serves

no purpose, police officers should be encouraged to continue their education.

Some writers have suggested that the reason for inconclusive findings in police education studies was due to methodological flaws. Hudzik (1978) has criticized the method of analysis used to determine the impact education has had on police performance. He has also criticized the research design and data collection of a number of studies. Weiner (1974) has criticized his own study stating that the reason for not finding any effects may be due, in part, that the subjects in his study came from junior colleges. Goldstein (1977) and Sherman (1978b) have criticized past studies for not taking into account the different disciplines that exist in a university education in their research, although, Wycoff and Susmilch (1979) have determined that the type of education has no effect. On the other hand, methodological and analytical flaws have been found by Zelig (1980) and Salten (1979) in studies which have produced positive results. The criticisms on research methodology along with the general findings from the studies reviewed indicate that there is no strong positive evidence that university education is related to the quality of police officers.

Considering these ambiguous findings, some police forces are still emphasizing the need for university education as partial requirement for police work. In view of this, police officers of varying educational backgrounds may have mixed beliefs concerning the appropriateness of university education for police work. These attitudes toward university education, however, may not rest solely on their level of education or the arguments and conclusions of past research.

SECTION 3: THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDES

Despite the inconclusive results concerning performance, more candidates entering the police force have a university education and more police officers currently serving in a force are improving their education. Given the inherent nature of competition for promotion by some police officers, this may lead to mixed feelings with respect to the relevance of requiring a university education for the senior ranks between those who have a university education and those who do not. Police officers with a higher level of education may feel superior and may view the others as performing their duties more poorly. An officer with less formal education may believe that experience is more important than having an education. In fact, this officer may feel threatened by an officer possessing a university degree. Therefore, it is important to examine the attitudes an officer holds toward someone who has a higher or lower education. For example, a Sergeant with a grade 12 education may feel intimidated by a subordinate holding a university degree.

Berkley (1986) and Weiner (1974) believe that university education may be positively related to job satisfaction for police officers in that it may enable them to see their job from a different and broader perspective.

University educated police officers may believe that their job has some impact on society whereas non-university educated officers may not, believing that the police have little effect on reducing crime. Police officers having a university education, on the other hand, may be more likely to recognize that although they are having limited influence on curbing crime, they are at least helping make some people's lives better. They may have a better understanding of the crime situation and

may realize their own and their force's limitations. More importantly, they may have a better understanding of the police role beyond law enforcement to the maintenance of social order as well as the enforcement of the law. Less educated officers may place less importance on the order maintenance role.

In terms of career advancement, Lawler (1985) believes that job satisfaction may be negatively related to education. Lawler (1985) suggests that there is a positive relationship between the worker's expected rewards and educational level. Similar views are held by Olsen (1986) who notes that when one possesses formal qualifications such as a university education, one is likely to feel entitled to certain rewards such as promotion. When these rewards are not obtained, resentment and job dissatisfaction may occur.

Lawler (1985) also contends that better educated workers desire to have a say in work decisions, to be able to have more interesting and stimulating work, and to be able to develop and use their skills and abilities. Highly educated workers desiring advancement also believe that they have a greater chance of being promoted. The type and extent of education, is likely to be associated with different expectations and preferences with respect to one's work.

The attitude police officers hold toward education with respect to promotion, performance, or job satisfaction, may be explained in part, in terms of the reference group concept. Through socialization, a police officer's reference group may shape his or her opinions toward certain issues such as the value of education. Becker (1953, p. 235) notes that one's behaviour is "the result of a sequence of social experiences during which the person acquires a conception of the meaning of the behaviour, and perceptions and judgements of objects and situations, all of which

make the activity possible and desirable". A person, therefore, is motivated to engage in the activity by learning to engage in it through interaction with peers. The reference group concept has been used as a means with which to compare or evaluate oneself with respect to others in a group.

Kemper (1968) has defined the reference group concept as:

a group, collectively or in person which the actor takes into account in some manner in the course of selecting a behaviour from a set of alternatives, or in making a judgement about a problematic issue. A reference group helps to orient the actor in a certain course, whether of action or attitude.

(p. 32)

According to Shibutani (1968), the reference group concept serves three purposes. First, it serves as a point of reference in making comparisons or contrasts, especially in forming judgements about oneself. Second, a reference group is that group in which one aspires to gain and maintain acceptance. "The concept is used to point to an association of human beings among whom one seeks to gain, maintain or enhance his status; a reference group is that group in which one desires to participate" (Shibutani, 1968, p. 160). Third, a reference group is that group whose perspective constitutes the frame of reference for a person.

Hyman (1942) was the first to use the reference group concept when he analyzed the effects groups had on college students' conceptions of their own status. Hyman (1942) found that individuals would rank themselves within a social framework by comparing or evaluating themselves with certain groups of people. Hyman's (1942) reference group concept was elaborated upon in studies conducted by Merton and Rossi (1957) and Merton (1968) who analyzed the comparative behaviour of American soldiers. Their studies on the American Soldier revealed that better educated inductees were less inclined to feel deprived by being

drafted than were lesser educated inductees due to the comparison group each used. It was found that the lesser educated men were less likely to be drafted because they were working in factories during the onset of the war. When these factories were converted to the production of war materials, these jobs were considered essential to the war effort and became draft exempt. The lesser educated person who was drafted, felt deprived because he compared himself with his friends and acquaintances, many of whom were not drafted. The better educated person, on the other hand, more than likely held a white collar job not considered essential to the war, and was therefore, subject to the draft. When such a person compared himself to his peers, most of whom were drafted, he was less likely to feel deprived.

When used in this manner, the reference group concept is used in a comparative sense, that is, it refers to a group that is used as a basis for comparison of some sort. A second aspect of the reference group, the normative concept, is suggested in the work of Kelly (1952). Kelly distinguished between the two ideas noting that group norms provide persons with standards by which they judge themselves and others. Menzies (1982, p. 75) elaborates on this notion stating that "it is a group, collective, or person whose norms the person takes seriously into account in determining his actions and attitudes". The comparative aspect, on the other hand, provides a way for locating oneself as being either high or low on the standards supplied by a normative reference group (Kelly, 1952). Reference groups provide individuals a standard of comparison so that they may make judgements about the equity of their fate, the legitimacy of their actions and attitudes, the quality of their performance, and how far they should accommodate their actions to the wishes of others (Menzies, 1982; Kemper, 1968). Any reference group may

perform both functions. For instance, a group of police officers may be members of a force that strongly values education in terms of promotion. Some of these officers may agree with these standards and do badly by them. If, however, these officers compare themselves only with those who do poorly, they may not judge themselves as being poor candidates.

The normative and comparative components of the reference group concept are implicit in Goodman's (1977) notion of the Social Comparison Process in Organizations. This process attempts to explain how people use reference points to evaluate the fairness of the outcomes of their attempts to advance their careers. For example, an individual may compare a raise in pay or a promotion to those of other individuals with respect to their having similar backgrounds or having made similar contributions (how hard they worked, performance) in order to determine the fairness of the promotion or raise in pay.

Goodman (1977) was interested in examining the type of referents people select, why people choose certain referents over others, what the process is by which referents are selected, and the extent to which certain referents are generalized to include the evaluation of different, unrelated outcomes.

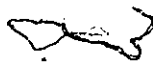
Goodman's work was based on Festinger's (1954) theory of Social Comparison which, according to Goodman (1977, p. 98), holds that "people have a desire to evaluate their abilities or opinions and that they select others similar in ability or opinions to accomplish this evaluation". Festinger (1954) postulated that the greater the similarity, the greater the stability in evaluations. In addition, if there are perceived discrepancies in abilities or opinions between the evaluating person and the reference person, the evaluating person will attempt to reduce these discrepancies.

A more recent attempt to conceptualize the process by which people evaluate job related outcomes or rewards is Adams' (1965) Equity Theory. A certain condition of equity between participants in an interaction is obtained when each person's outcomes are proportional to his or her inputs. In this expression, outcomes are equivalent to profits in the distributive justice principle and inputs are equivalent to investments.

$$\frac{\text{A's Outputs}}{\text{A's Inputs}} = \frac{\text{B's Outputs}}{\text{B's Inputs}}$$

Adams distinguishes the inputs on two grounds. The first is whether or not the inputs were recognized by the participants, and the second is whether or not they were considered relevant to the exchange. Any attribute (e.g., experience, seniority, education) that is recognized by either participant in an interaction has the potential to be an input. Some of these inputs, however, will be perceived to be relevant to the exchange at hand, while some will not, and these perceptions may differ among individuals. The presence or absence of perceived inequity may depend as much upon the degree of agreement about the relevance of an input as it does on the actual value of the outcome. For example, an officer who does not have a university education may not see education as a relevant input for promotion and of little value in the process especially if this officer believes that a university educated officer does not perform any better than the other officers on the force. In fact, if a higher educated officer is perceived as performing worse, education may be seen as a negative input.

There are several behavioural consequences associated with perceived inequity. When one receives outcomes that are considered disproportionately too small with respect to perceived inputs, psychological tension



(e.g., frustration, anger) will be experienced. This tension will lead the individual to try to remove the inequity. There are several possible methods by which equity can be restored and by which internal tension can be resolved. First, the person can change their own inputs or outcomes. For instance, a police officer may seek a higher level of education enhancing their performance. Second, attempts may be made to change the other person's inputs or outcomes by such means as trying to force the other person to leave the job. Third, one may choose a different person for comparison. If someone faces an inequitable situation such as being passed over for promotion, this person may compare himself with someone else who has been passed over and note the similarities between the two of them. Fourth, one may cognitively distort either their inputs or outcomes. A person holding a B.A. may convince himself that this degree is useless. Fifth, the person may withdraw from the field entirely.

Adams' Equity Theory may help explain police officers' attitudes toward education. If police officers do not receive any recognition for obtaining a university degree, these officers may feel that they are being inequitably treated. So too may those officers who do not have a university degree, if these individuals do not recognize education as a relevant input and believe that credit is not being received for what they consider to be the relevant inputs (e.g., hard work, performance, arrests, loyalty, and seniority). This in turn, may affect job satisfaction.

Equity Theory, however, only encompasses the comparative and normative aspects of the reference group concept. This concept also extends beyond these two aspects and includes another, known as the Reference Other. Schmitt (1972) defined the Reference Other as that other which influences the individual. The Reference Other may be real

(another individual), quasi-real (a group, a norm, an object) or something imaginary (imaginary playmates). Schmitt's (1972) Reference Other stems from the earlier works of Shibutani (1955) and Mead (1934).

According to Mead (1934), a person's self arises out of interaction. The self is the result of a social process involving both the interaction among individuals and the prior existence of a group in which the self develops. That is, the self arises in the course of interaction in a pre-existing symbolic environment.

According to Shibutani (1968), what one does depends largely upon one's definition of the situation. Further, the manner in which individuals define a succession of situations depends on their own organized perspective. A perspective is an ordered view of one's world or:

what is taken for granted about the attributes of various objects, events and human nature. It is an order of things remembered and expected as well as things actually perceived, an organized conception of what is plausible and what is possible; it constitutes the matrix through which one perceives his environment. The fact that men have such ordered perspectives enables them to conceive of their ever changing world as relatively stable, orderly and predictable.

(Shibutani, 1968, p. 161)

As Reizler (1950) notes, one's perspective is in essence an outline scheme which, running ahead of experience, defines and guides it.

The perspective that is shared by those in a particular group defines one's culture. It consists of those "conventional understandings, manifest in act and artifact, that characterize societies" (Redfield, 1941, p. 132). Since these conventional understandings are the roots of action, those who share a common culture engage in common modes of action. Cultural norms, however, are not static. In order for a culture to survive, the participants must constantly reaffirm its norms

in day-to-day social interaction. Members of a certain culture interact with each other largely with set expectations. When each person behaves in an expected manner, the behaviour serves to reinforce the cultural perspectives to the others since it provides continual support to one another's perspective. When used in this manner, the product of communication is culture (Shibutani, 1968).

Through socialization, individuals adopt the standpoint of their cultural group as their own frame of reference (Mead, 1934). Cultural norms will influence the way in which these individuals perceive, think, form judgements and control themselves in the world in which they are participating. Since individuals share common attitudes in the way in which they define objects, persons, themselves and the world around them, they can anticipate the reactions of others in their group, refrain from undesirable behaviour, and guide their own conduct. Each socialized person is a miniature society in that each sets the same standards of conduct for him/her self as set for others and judges him/her self in the same terms. This enables these individuals to define situations properly and to meet their obligations even in the absence of others since their perspective always takes into account the expectations of others. Thus a reference group is born.

In this context, a reference group "is that group whose outlook is used by the actor as the frame of reference in the organization of his 'perceptual field'" (Shibutani, 1962, p. 132). The group with the greatest influence on a person is that group with which this person participates directly since this person strongly identifies with this group. In some cases, however, one may take on the perspective associated with a social category such as social class, ethnicity, or of those having a common

interest. In a mass society like ours, people commonly adopt the perspectives of groups in which they are not members as well as those in which they actually participate. In fact, reference groups may also be imaginary as in legend, literature or television (Shibutani, 1955). Reference groups, then, "arise through the internalization of norms; they constitute the structure of expectations imputed to some audience for whom one organizes his conduct" (Shibutani, 1968, p. 163). When defined in this way, studies on reference groups have shown the influence the process of socialization has played in altering one's attitudes.

Pearlin (1954), in a southern women's college, found that the least prejudiced students were those whose normative reference group had shifted from their more prejudiced precollege relationships to their less prejudiced college groups. In terms of political attitudes, a study of Bennington College students by Newcomb (1958) revealed that most students came from very conservative backgrounds but were liberalized by their experience at college. The liberalized students adopted the college as a reference group, while those who remained conservative retained their precollege relationships as a reference group.

Similarly, an individual entering the police force may be subject to that culture's attitudes and behaviours. Interacting with other police officers, however, may not be the only situation which causes these individuals to adapt to police work. Wexler (1974) notes that police-public interaction may have certain consequences for police officers causing them to adapt to this situation in various ways. Through their everyday encounters, police officers perceive themselves as being rejected, and as being in a position of disrespect by the public. The police also believe that their job is plagued with ambiguities such as having public outcry to enforce certain laws such as parking violations,

while at the same time being told they are spending too much time enforcing these laws (Wexler, 1974). Further, police officers constantly perceive themselves in a position of danger when dealing with the public. Situations characterized by ambiguity and potential conflict result in many police officers feeling isolated, suspicious, cynical, powerless, and having low self esteem. This, according to Wexler (1974), is an adaptive cultural response.

In addition, the police culture may influence one's attitude towards education. If an individual associates with a group of university educated police officers, this individual may endorse education for various areas of police work and career advancement even if this person does not have a university education. In fact, this person may further adapt to the situation by believing that he or she is not qualified for certain positions, and if this individual wishes to get ahead, may start attending a university in order to improve their qualifications.

An individual's previous reference groups such as family or high school peers have already influenced attitudes toward education before entering police work. Therefore, an individual's prior reference groups may have influenced the endorsement of education before entering the police force. It is further possible, that once an individual becomes a police officer this individual will seek a reference group which also endorses education. If the individual can not find such a reference group, this officer may readapt his or her attitudes and believe that education is not relevant for police work.

Apart from the level of educational attainment or reference group, one's career orientation may further affect the police officer's attitude toward education. Neophyte police officers usually begin their career in uniform patrol (Grant, 1984). They may carry with them certain views



about police work. As their career moves further ahead, their attitudes toward police work may change from holding an idealistic position to becoming cynical and suspicious (Wexler, 1974). Additionally, as these police officers progress further into their careers, they may desire advancement or wish to specialize in certain areas of police work. It is possible, therefore, that one's length of service along with the situational aspects that one encounters during the course of their career, may influence the way in which one adapts to police work.

Following the work of Hughes (1958), Davis (1968) and Becker (1963 and 1961) conducted research examining how career stages in various occupations may influence the way in which individuals adapt to their career. Much of this research may be relevant to police work.

In a study of nursing students, Davis (1968) found that many student nurses enter the profession carrying an idealistic notion of what nursing is all about, a phase he calls instrumental activism. They see their job from a simplistic standpoint, that being a profession responsible for the helping and caring of the sick. During training, however, they find that their job is not what they expected. The restrictions of the job do not allow them to operate at a human level but rather at a practical one such as preparing medication or giving injections. The psychological aspect of patient care is left out. Since nursing is no longer the career they envisioned, these nurses become disappointed, frustrated, and cynical. They begin to adapt to the demands of the nursing profession by taking on attitudes that are less idealistic and more realistic.

Similarly, in a study of the career paths of medical students, Becker (1961) found that situational aspects were closely associated with one's values or attitudes. Becker noticed that the students come to

perceive the idealistic values that they brought with them as irrelevant and not applicable to the medical school situation. They became more pragmatic, although they often retained their old values and expressed them in more "appropriate" situations later in their career. Immediate situational pressures may, therefore, constrain behaviour in the present and may reshape the individual's values. This does not mean that their original values are abandoned, but instead are stored away until an appropriate situation comes along.

Becker (1961) notes that this process of adapting to situational factors is associated with the length of time spent in a career and may occur in many other types of institutions and occupations as well. Garabedian's (1963) study and Wheeler's (1961) study of the prison careers of inmates have shown that prisoners will adapt to the prison situation differently depending on the stage of their prison term. At the onset of their term, prisoners enter the institution desiring rehabilitation and tend to identify with the prison staff. Once they are fully integrated into the prison system, however, the inmates are more concerned with identifying with and belonging to the inmate culture. They may be more concerned with achieving prestige and power, dropping their concerns for rehabilitation and going straight. This adjustment to the prison situation is only temporary and as the date of release draws closer, other inmates cease to be a powerful reference group and concern with prison officials and significant others on the outside becomes stronger. This may mean a greater concern with conformity to official prison norms and conventional societal values than the inmate code.

Similarly, in terms of police work, McGinnis (1987) has noted that depending on the stage of their career, police officers will hold

different attitudes toward advancement. For instance, new recruits tend to be less concerned with promotion than with doing good police work. Later in their career, primarily between five to fifteen years of service, some officers are more likely to consider promotion important. Senior officers who would like to have been promoted but for some reason were not, tend to give up as their career comes to a close. Their attitude toward promotion may again change, stressing instead job security, although, they may still have a desire for advancement.

The immediate situation that individuals find themselves in at a certain stage of their career may, therefore, determine their career orientation. A number of situational factors exist which may influence one's career orientation (Becker, 1961). Membership in certain groups may influence a person's career orientation through socialization. As one progresses through their career, membership in different groups may change and so will their attitudes and possibly their career orientation. The values which individuals hold at a certain time during their career may also determine their career aspirations. For instance, someone who values prestige may seek advancement. More importantly, Becker (1961, p. 442) believes that "human conduct is oriented to the immediate situation in which the person is presently acting". Individuals adapt their behaviour or attitudes to the situation as they see it, ignoring possible lines of action which they believe inappropriate. For instance, individuals with a family may value a stable and secure job rather than one with more prestige that forces them to travel.

The length or stage of one's career is not the only factor affecting one's attitude or career orientation. Policing, in response to both technology and philosophy has been broken up into many specialties. The

accumulation of police knowledge is so vast that in many cases only a small portion of police knowledge and skill can be mastered by each member of the occupation. This leads to the creation of subcultures within the greater police culture. The decision to enter a specialty, according to Hughes (1958), is not based solely on one's knowledge and skill to perform in that area. It also lies on the person's perceptions, values, and attitudes toward the activity. The experiences that one has gone through, their reference group, and their attitude toward their occupation at the time the individual wishes to specialize may play a significant role in the area with which one decides to work. The officer may carry a certain philosophy towards police work which may be inappropriate for some duties and yet suitable for others.

A police officer's career orientation, therefore, may be guided by a number of situational factors associated with the length of time spent in his career. Recruits may enter policing with a set of preconceived notions about the job. After their initial training and after gaining experience from their first few years on the job, these officers may come to realize that the conceptions that they held about the job are more idealistic than realistic. They may come to realize that police work does not involve as much crime fighting or community service as they had envisioned. Noting this, they may adapt to their career by changing their attitudes. In addition, as their careers move further along, some police officers may come to realize that in the broad spectrum of police work, an individual can not handle every aspect which exists. When this is realized, some officers may wish to specialize.

Depending on their particular skills and knowledge, some police officers may prefer certain facets of police work such as working in laboratories. On the other hand, some officers may desire the prestige

that comes along with being in the managerial areas of police work. Still, some may realize that they do not have the skills or knowledge to enter the specialized or managerial areas and orient themselves around patrol work. Situational pressures may be a factor deciding a police officer's orientation. An officer with a wife and children may be more family oriented and more concerned with job security. Therefore, the stage of one's career, along with the situational factors present at that time, may determine one's career orientation.

As far as career orientations are concerned, the literature indicates the existence of several types of adaptations police officers can make (Walsh, 1977; Preiss and Ehrlich, 1966). Walsh (1977) used these adaptations to create a typology of three kinds of police officers: the Street Cop, the Middle Class Mobile, and the Action Seeker.

Street Cops are those who are mainly interested in job stability and economic security. They are usually married at the time of recruitment, and their main concern is the well-being of their family; their job is secondary. Middle Class Mobiles are those whose main concern is advancement. According to Walsh (1977), these individuals consider themselves as professionals not requiring a university degree. Their main goal in life is promotion and a higher rank. Although family life is important to them, they believe that the best way to fulfill family responsibilities is through their jobs. Action Seekers join the police force for the excitement. Clearly, job security is not their primary reason for joining the police force as these individuals are more interested in finding exciting work and escaping the boredom and confinement they had experienced in previous occupations. Typically, these officers would not possess a university degree. They are mainly

concerned with crime control. Their goal in life is to "perform the police role well by doing 'real' police work" (Walsh, 1977, p. 151).

Other career orientations have been explored in various professions and have been adapted to police work. In a study of 28 human service professionals, Cherniss (1980) identified four career orientations: 1. Self Investors, 2. Social Activists, 3. Careerists, and 4. Artisans. These four career orientations were used by Burke (1984) as a basis for a typology consisting of four kinds of police officers. Some similarities may be found between the Cherniss (1980) and Walsh (1977) typologies. Like the Street Cop mentioned in Walsh's model, Self Investors are more involved with their personal lives rather than their work. Their family, self, and job security are their main goals in life.

Social Activists, a category not found in the work by Walsh (1977), are characterized by hoping to bring about social and institutional change. They are seen as idealists and visionaries. Their work is a crusade to change the status quo. Social Activists are more likely to possess a university degree and to see policing from a broader perspective, including that of order maintenance and social work. These officers may try to bring about social change in the hope of improving one's welfare. Their main concern is not crime control, but rather improving and helping society. Cherniss (1980) believes that these officers are not primarily concerned with family life, security, or promotion. They are happy at their present level and find their job fulfilling.

Cherniss' (1980) Careerists closely parallels Walsh's Middle Class Mobiles in that both are seeking prestige, responsibility, and recognition from supervisors. These individuals work hard toward the pursuit of extrinsic rewards such as promotion. Walsh (1977) fails to identify the officer seeking promotion who possesses a university degree. Therefore,

two categories of Middle Class Mobiles exist, those with a university degree, and those without. What constitutes appropriate inputs for either of these individuals depends on their level of education as well as what they learn to believe are relevant inputs from their peer group.

Cherniss (1980) mentions an additional career orientation, not reported by Walsh (1977). This is the Artisan who values growth, professional development, challenge, and the mastery of new skills. Prestige and recognition are not of primary importance to these individuals. Instead, their main concern is with performing well. They are more interested in independence and the skillful use of technique as opposed to power and promotion. In terms of policing, these individuals would be involved with specialized duties such as working in laboratories, training, or Identification. This category of officers may be referred to as the Specialist.

Using a combination of both the Cherniss (1980) and Walsh (1977) typologies, five career orientations may be identified: 1. The Self Investor, 2. The Enforcer, (also referenced to as the Action Seeker), 3. The Social Activist, 4. The Careerist, and 5. The Specialist. In terms of advancement, Self Investors may be said to hold a neutral stance toward education. These individuals have no real aspirations for advancement, and therefore, they may not perceive university educated police officers as a threat. Their street policing styles may be so different, or perceived to be so different, that they pose a different sort of threat - that of changing the police role. Although, some Self Investors may believe that a university degree is a valuable asset for certain duties within the police force, actually finding a university educated Self Investor would be highly unlikely.

The Enforcer, not possessing a university degree, likely endorses very strongly the crime control model, with little time for the social work aspects.

The university educated Social Activist is more likely to endorse a broader police role than just crime control, and therefore may be a threat to those without a university degree. This may have nothing to do with advancement, but with preferred policing styles. Because of the contradicting styles, each may see each other as performing more poorly.

Careerists may hold one of two attitudes toward education. Those without a university degree may contend that education is not a relevant input for promotion, stressing instead performance, loyalty, and seniority. The university educated officers, on the other hand, may believe that education should be weighed more heavily in the promotion process. In either case, the officer may believe that the policy is unfair and become dissatisfied with the process (Reiser, 1974).

The Specialists will not perceive a university education as a threat to themselves since they are satisfied at their present position and do not aspire for promotion. Instead, Specialists are more interested in meaningful work (Van Maanen, 1973). These officers, depending on their specialty, may possess a degree and will endorse it for certain areas of policing.

Under each career orientation, it is possible to have two major levels of education; those possessing a university education and those who do not. Depending on one's level of education, an individual's attitude toward those possessing a university degree may be positive or negative both in terms of advancement and policing styles. Further, one's attitude toward education may be related to one's reference group through socialization. If one's reference group promotes education, even

if one's group members do not possess a high level of education themselves, (for example, the management in some police forces), the individual officer may also endorse education (Buzawa, 1984). One's career orientation may also be influenced by one's reference group and/or career stage. For instance, if one's peers prefer specialized police work, an officer may not be concerned with promotion but rather would be more concerned with the specialist functions. Police officers just beginning their career may be more concerned with the order maintenance or crime control functions of police work. Some in the middle stages of their career may be more concerned with promotion while older officers may be primarily interested in job security.

SECTION 4: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This review has revealed the variety of views expressed in theorizing and research regarding education and police work. The purpose of the present study is to explore the attitude police officers hold toward education such that some order may be brought into the field. The two fundamental dimensions of educational level and career orientation appear to capture two of the more important aspects in determining one's attitude toward education.

Certain attitudes or opinions held by police officers may be contingent upon such personal background factors such as level of education and career orientation. For instance, the importance an officer places on education, seniority, or performance with respect to promotion may be dependent on certain variables such as attained level of education and career orientation. Further, career and job satisfaction may also be dependent upon one's attitude toward education. Career satisfaction refers to how satisfied police officers are with respect to career advancement and promotion, whereas job satisfaction refers to the satisfaction police officers receive from their day to day work. For instance, if an officer without a university education is passed over for promotion by a university educated colleague, career satisfaction for the former may decline. The same may be true if a university educated officer is passed over for promotion by a colleague without a university education.

In this investigation, four questions will be addressed:

1. The extent to which education or career orientation relates to the endorsement by police officers of a wider police role than mere crime control.

2. The extent to which police officers believe higher education is related to performance.
3. The extent to which police officers feel that a higher education should be related to a police force's promotion policy.
4. The extent to which education or career orientation relates to career satisfaction.

From these four research questions the following hypotheses were generated:

1. Compared with other career orientations, Careerists will aspire to a higher rank.
2. Compared with other career orientations, Social Activists will consider university education to be more beneficial to the performance of police functions.
3. Compared with other career orientations, Social Activists will place more value on the order maintenance functions of police work.
4. Compared with other career orientations, Self Investors will have a lower level of career satisfaction.
5. University graduates will weigh university education more heavily in their ideal promotion scheme than will non university graduates.
6. University graduates will consider university education to be more beneficial in the performance of police functions than will non university graduates.
7. University graduates will place more value on the order maintenance function of police work than will non university graduates.

8. University graduates will have a higher level of job satisfaction than will non university graduates.
9. University graduates will have a higher level of career satisfaction than will non university graduates.

SECTION 5: RESEARCH DESIGN

In a true experiment, the researcher randomly assigns the subjects to either a control group or a treatment group. That is, those subjects selected for the control group are held constant while those in the treatment group are exposed to some sort of treatment or manipulation. As a result, it is possible to observe the effect variation in the independent variables have on the dependent variable. In a true experimental approach, therefore, we are able to say, if x, then y. The researcher attempts to explain a phenomenon by intervening in the causal process.

A true experimental approach was impossible for this study. Therefore, the researcher elected to use a method known as the ex post facto approach. In the experimental approach, the researcher controls and manipulates the independent variables and observes how they influence the dependent variables. Such is not the case in ex post facto research.

Ex post facto research is a systematic empirical enquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of the independent variables because these manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulatable. Inferences about relations among variables are made without direct intervention from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables.

(Kerlinger, 1973, p. 379)

In this case, the researcher begins with a dependent variable (i.e. attitudes toward education) and from among the many possible influential variables selects likely or theoretically relevant independent variables of interest (e.g. educational level). Other independent variables such as length of service and age may also be selected, all of which the researcher believes may be related to attitude toward education and educational level. The type and number of variables the researcher

selects make no difference to the research design. It is not a matter of complexity, but rather, a matter of control. The researcher has no power to manipulate educational attainment, nor has he the power to randomize. Educational attainment may be correlated to a number of other independent variables such as length of service and age. In fact, educational attainment may be a correlate of the attitude toward education variables rather than a predictor of this dependent variable.

The ex post facto approach does not provide any strong statements of causal influence. The independent variables, therefore, may not be truly independent of the dependent variables and may be better referred to as classification variables (for an indepth discussion of the type of variables used in this study see Appendix A). Dependent variables, on the other hand, may be better referred to as response variables. The research must further be concerned with accounting for extraneous and confounding influences as well as spurious relationships. Examples of these include one's length of service as a police officer or one's reference groups.

Considerations Involving Data Collection

Social science research is often plagued by a number of methodological concerns. One of these concerns is response rate. For instance, police officers may be sensitive to questioning about their work and reluctant to fill out questionnaires believing that their responses may be somehow used against them (McGinnis, 1987). This is especially true when they are being surveyed by an outside agency such as a university (Van Reenen, 1983). For this reason, it was decided to send the questionnaire out under the auspices of the Canadian Police College. Working in collaboration with such an organization, however, presented

some disadvantages along with the advantages obtained (for a discussion regarding the advantages and disadvantages of performing research in a police organization, see Appendix G).

The Research and Program Development Branch of the Canadian Police College was contacted and a proposal stating the purpose of the intended study was presented. Subsequently, two Research Officers interested in the police education issue volunteered to serve as external advisors. With the advice of these two Research Officers and of the thesis supervisor, a questionnaire entitled "Career Attitude Survey" designed to collect the data needed for this study was prepared.

The subjects selected for this survey were required to fit certain criteria. Discussions with Research Officers at the Canadian Police College resulted in the decision to include only those police officers holding the rank of constable and having between five to fifteen years of service in the study. The decision not to include those with less than five years of service was based on McGinnis's (1987) findings on career studies that officers with less than five years of service were generally content as constables and not as anxious about career issues as more senior members. McGinnis (1987) believes that it is around five years of service that police officers start to have serious concerns regarding promotion or specialized police work. It is this group of police officers that this study wished to target. The upper limit of fourteen years of service on each force was decided because one force had only been in existence for fourteen years. By selecting this upper limit, the sample from both forces would be homogeneous with respect to length of service on that force. It was found, however, that since both forces were created from a number of smaller existing forces in the past,

and that some police officers had been transferred from other forces, the length of service for some officers exceeded fourteen years.

A random sample of 250 police officers was selected to participate in this study. The decision to survey this number of constables stemmed from the possibility of having a low return rate. Based on one of the poorest return rates experienced by the Canadian Police College (approximately 45 percent), it was believed that by surveying 250 constables, at least 100 valid responses could be obtained.

Method of Analysis

It was decided that Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Chi Square would be used to analyze various portions of the data generated in this study. In the event significant differences are found in the ANOVA, Duncan's New Multiple Range Test will be used to further probe which levels of the classification variable differ from one another. Consistent with most social science research, the level of significance used in this study is .05. The scope of this paper does not allow for an indepth review of these statistical techniques and the reader is referred to Ferguson (1981) or Kerlinger (1973) for a more detailed discussion. It would be worthwhile, however, to provide a brief and simplistic discussion of the statistical techniques used in this study. The reader is referred to Appendix A for an elaboration regarding the type of variables and methods of analysis used. This appendix includes an example which shows how to correctly interpret the Duncan's New Multiple Range Test used in the tables of results.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects were obtained from two midsize Ontario regional police forces. A random sample of 250 police officers was selected from these two forces (125 from each force) and asked to participate in this study. Since both forces were assured anonymity throughout the study one force will be referred to as Force A and the second as Force B. These two forces provide both municipal and rural policing. Both forces endorse formal education beyond the minimum requirement (grade 12) and encourage members to continue their education. When college or university courses are taken, both forces will pay for tuition upon successful completion of the course.

The subjects who participated in this study ($n = 156$) were police constables having between five to fourteen years of service on their respective force. Eighty-four of the respondents came from Force A, while seventy two came from Force B.

The participants completed a Career Attitude Survey which examined their attitudes toward university education for police officers. The questionnaire was completed strictly on a voluntary basis. The respondents were further assured that respondent anonymity would be preserved.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire entitled "Career Attitude Survey" was designed by the researcher (see Appendix E). In order to assess the quality of the survey instrument, the questionnaire was pretested twice. During the

first pretest, a number of police officers posted at the Canadian Police College were asked to complete the questionnaire and note any ambiguous or unclear questions and instructions. They were also asked to suggest any improvements that would better address the education issue. As a result certain instructions and a few questions were reworded.

Following these modifications, the questionnaire was again pretested on a different sample of police officers at the Canadian Police College. No further problems were found.

The Survey Instrument

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of two parts. Part A focused on general background and demographic information, reference group issues, and the reasons why the respondent chose to take university courses.

Part B was concerned with the respondents' police career and attitudes toward education. There were eight sections. The first section (entitled Career Orientation) asked respondents to select a career orientation, both at present, and when the respondents first entered policing. The respondents were asked to read career orientation descriptions of five police officers. These corresponded to the five career orientations described in Chapter 1. The respondents were to rank order these descriptions according to how closely they applied to themselves.

Section 2 (Promotion and Advancement) focused on attitudes toward education with respect to recruitment and promotion practices, and job performance. A series of questions regarding work experience, seniority, job satisfaction and attitudes toward the police role were asked. The questions were structured in such a way that the respondents read a

statement and indicated the extent of their agreement in terms of strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree.

Section 3 (Education) presented eight assertions that have been made by the R.C.M.P. regarding the effects of a university education for police officers. Respondents were asked to indicate their extent of agreement as above.

Section 4 (Education and Rank) sought to determine the extent to which the respondents believed university education should be considered in promotion to various ranks including N.C.O. (Non Commissioned Officer) through to Chief.

Section 5 (Job Performance) focused on the extent to which the respondents believed that university education, work experience, common sense, personality and attitude, and training were related to a variety of police functions.

Section 6 (Designing a Promotion Policy) sought to determine the respondents' preferred promotion system. Respondents were asked to allocate the number of points believed appropriate for several factors used in promotion, including performance appraisals, examinations, oral interview board, education, seniority and research paper.

Section 7 (Job Satisfaction) dealt with the respondents' level of job satisfaction, career satisfaction and promotion aspirations. Questions pertained to aspirations toward promotion, ~~ultimate~~ desired rank, and the rank the respondents believed they will probably reach upon retiring. The respondents were also asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with respect to their career and to their day to day work.

Section 8 asked the respondents to describe in their own words the way in which they feel about the emphasis placed on university education lately with respect to recruitment and promotion practices.

Variables

Three kinds of variables figured prominently in this study: classification variables, confounding variables, and response variables. The first two served as independent variables while the third were the dependent variables. A list of these variables is presented below. For a comprehensive discussion of the kinds of variables used the reader is referred to Appendix A.

Classification Variables

The classification variables used in this study along with their different levels or categories may be cited as follows:

1. EDUCATION
 - i) No University (High School education only)
 - ii) Some University (less than three completed years of university)
 - iii) University Degree (three or more years of university completed)
2. CAREER ORIENTATION (the corresponding questionnaire descriptions may be found in Appendix B)
 - i) ~~Self~~ Investor
 - ii) Careerist
 - iii) Specialist
 - iv) Enforcer
 - v) Social Activist.

Response Variables

The response variables used in this study along with their corresponding questionnaire statements are as follows (note: the response variables are presented according to the topics addressed in the results chapter):

A. The Desire for Promotion and Promotion Expectations

1. **DESIRE PROMOTION:** How do you feel toward promotion to the next rank?
2. **DESERVE PROMOTION:** To what extent do you feel deserving of a promotion at this time?
3. **DESIRED RANK:** What is the highest rank you would like to reach?
4. **PROBABILITY OF REACHING DESIRED:** What is the probability that you will reach that [desired] rank?
5. **EXPECTED RETIREMENT RANK:** At which rank do you expect to retire?
6. **PROMOTABLE YEARS:** It is common that at a certain length of service, people are considered "passed over." For how many more years will you be considered promotable before you reach a stage of being passed over?
7. **PROBABILITY OF REACHING NEXT RANK:** During those prime promotion years, what is the probability that you will be promoted to the next rank?
8. **PROMOTION QUALIFICATIONS WILL PAY OFF:** My promotion qualifications have not yet paid off, but I am confident that they will.

B. Attitudes Toward Education, Length of Service, Loyalty and Experience For Promotion

1. **LENGTH OF SERVICE AND LOYALTY SHOULD BE CONSIDERED HEAVILY:** Factors such as length of service and loyalty to the force should be given primary consideration for promotion.
2. **UNIVERSITY GRADUATES SHOULD GET ADVANCEMENT PRIORITY:** Today, police departments should be giving priority to the hiring and advancement of university graduates.
3. **UNIVERSITY EDUCATED GET UNDESERVED ADVANCEMENT:** In most Canadian police forces today, university educated officers are receiving undeserved preferential treatment in terms of advancement.
4. **FORCE SHOULD REWARD EXPERIENCE, HARD WORK AND LONG LOYAL SERVICE:** Experience, hard work, and long loyal service should be rewarded through advancement and promotion opportunities. Police forces should not ignore these qualities to promote younger, less experienced officers just because they possess a university degree.
5. **UNIVERSITY EDUCATION SHOULD BE WEIGHED HEAVILY:** The extra effort a university educated officer has put into developing his abilities should be recognized by the police force by weighing education heavily in the promotion system.

6. **FORCE SHOULD REWARD UNIVERSITY EDUCATED:** Since a police force benefits from promoting university educated people, they should advance those who make the effort to educate themselves by weighing education heavily in the promotion system.

C. Promotion Components

1. PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL
2. EXAMINATIONS
3. INTERVIEW
4. EDUCATION
5. SENIORITY
6. RESEARCH PAPER (ESSAY)
7. OTHER

D. Rank and Education

1. CORPORAL
2. SERGEANT
3. STAFF SERGEANT
4. INSPECTOR
5. SUPERINTENDENT
6. DEPUTY CHIEF
7. CHIEF

E. Attitudes Toward Education, Length of Service and Loyalty for Policing in General

1. **LOYALTY AND DEDICATION:** A dedicated officer with five years service is usually just as loyal as a 20 year officer.
2. **VETERANS:** There is a lot of truth to the statement that many veteran officers have one year experience repeated 20 times.
3. **EDUCATION IS NOT OVER EMPHASIZED:** All this education stuff is overdone. In this force each member is judged on his merits regardless of his formal education.
4. **LOYALTY IS A PROMOTION SMOKESCREEN:** The notion of loyalty is just a smokescreen to promote the most senior people.
5. **UNIVERSITY EDUCATED FEEL SUPERIOR:** Many university educated officers feel superior to the non-university educated officers.
6. **POLICE EDUCATION IS A POLITICAL EXERCISE:** All the importance recently placed on education for police officers is strictly a political exercise, thought up by politicians and academics, and has little to do with day-to-day police work.
7. **UNIVERSITY EDUCATION HAS OVERALL VALUE FOR POLICING:** A university education is a valuable asset that contributes to the overall value of the force.

8. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION UPGRADES AND PROFESSIONALIZES: Police officers should be encouraged to obtain a university education to both upgrade themselves and help make their force more professional.
9. POLICE PROFESSIONALISM: The commitment to police professionalism is just as strong among officers who do not possess a university education.

F. Attitudes Toward Education and Experience for Job Performance

1. INSTINCTS ARE MORE IMPORTANT THAN EDUCATION: University educated police officers are likely to think too much. This is an "action" profession and instincts are more important than education.
2. RECRUIT TRAINING AND STREET EDUCATION IS ENOUGH: Beyond recruit training a patrol officer has nothing to learn in a classroom. The street and his fellow officers will teach him all he needs to know.
3. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION DEVELOPS AWARENESS: A university education makes a police officer more effective by exposing him to different ideas which makes him more aware of what goes on around him and gives him different perspectives on problems and potential solutions.
4. MINIMUM FORCE EDUCATION REQUIREMENT IS ENOUGH: In terms of education for police officers, the minimum force requirement (grade 12) is sufficient in keeping with the role we perform.
5. STREET EXPERIENCE IS ENOUGH: The only education a police officer needs can be found on the street and will come with experience.
6. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION HELPS ONE FUNCTION IN A COMPLEX SOCIETY: In order to function in a complex society with increasing expectations on police, patrol officers should possess a university education.
7. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION HELPS ONE UNDERSTAND HUMAN BEHAVIOUR: University educated officers are better able to understand the complexity and range of human behaviour.
8. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION HELPS ONE TOLERATE DIFFERENCES AND AMBIGUITIES: University educated police officers are better able to tolerate differences and ambiguities.
9. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION HELPS ONE UNDERSTAND THE CAUSES OF CRIME: University educated police officers are better able to understand the causes of crime and nature of deviance.
10. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION HELPS ONE EVALUATE SITUATIONS: University educated police officers are better prepared to evaluate a difficult and sensitive situation and arrive at a balanced judgement.

11. UNIVERSITY EDUCATED HAVE IMPROVED PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS: University educated police officers are more flexible, less hostile, less prejudice, less authoritarian and less cynical.
12. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION PROVIDES ADVANCED KNOWLEDGE OF POLICE WORK: University educated police officers have an advanced knowledge in special areas of police work that can only be derived from university training.
13. UNIVERSITY GRADUATES TAKE MORE INITIATIVE: University educated police officers are more willing to take initiative, experiment, and use a step by step method to process information and arrive at decisions.
14. UNIVERSITY GRADUATES ARE BETTER LEADERS: University educated police officers are better able to exercise leadership.

G. Attitudes Toward the Police Role

1. MOST POLICE ACTIVITY IS SPENT ON ORDER MAINTENANCE: Much police activity and time is taken up with attending to public disputes, traffic, rowdiness, noise, interpersonal conflicts and disorder.
2. POLICE SHOULD NOT DEAL WITH ORDER MAINTENANCE: Police should not have to deal with attending to public disputes, traffic, rowdiness, noise, interpersonal conflicts and disorder.
3. POLICE SHOULD SERVE AND ASSIST THE PUBLIC: An essential aspect of the role of the uniformed patrol officer is to serve and render assistance to the public.
4. MAIN POLICE ROLE IS CRIME CONTROL: Too many people have lost sight of the fact that the primary responsibility of the police is to control crime through enforcement and investigation.
5. ORDER MAINTENANCE ROLE IS SATISFYING: It is satisfying to deal with the public on a person to person human level and to help keep order in the city by attending to public disputes, traffic, rowdiness, noise, interpersonal conflicts and disorder.
6. HELPING CITIZENS FEELS GOOD: Although we can't stop all crime, I still feel good whenever we have a positive impact by calming or consoling victims of crime, or helping other members of the community with their problems.

H. Job and Career Satisfaction

1. POLICE CAREER IS UNREWARDING: Policing as a career is not as rewarding as I thought it would be.
2. FEEL GOOD KNOWING WE HAVE SOME IMPACT ON CRIME: We may not be able to solve all of the world's crime problems but I still feel good knowing that we are having some impact.

3. PERSONAL IDENTITY AS A POLICE OFFICER IS STRONG: My personal identity as a police officer is very strong. I can hardly imagine myself in any line of work other than policing.
4. POLICE WORK IS DISCOURAGING: Despite our efforts, it is discouraging to see that we, the police, are having so little impact on crime.
5. WONDER WHY I REMAIN IN POLICE WORK: I have quite often wondered why I chose or remain in police work.
6. POLICE CAREER IS FULFILLING: Overall my career as a police officer has been personally fulfilling and satisfying.
7. LEVEL OF CAREER SATISFACTION: What is your level of satisfaction with your overall career as a police officer?
8. LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION: What is your level of satisfaction with the day-to-day work you presently do?

Confounding Variables

Some possible confounding variables have been considered in this study and may be cited as follows:

A. Demographic and Occupation Variables

1. Age
2. Length of Service

B. Reference Group Variables

1. Any University Graduates in Family? (Yes/No)
2. Amount of encouragement received by family members to attend University.
3. Amount of encouragement received by force management to attend university.
4. Amount of encouragement received by peers to attend university.
5. Person(s) having the greatest influence on the respondents' attitude toward obtaining a university education.

Procedure

Research personnel at the Research and Program Development Branch of the Canadian Police College contributed to the selection of police forces

used in this survey. It was decided that two regional police forces in Ontario would be asked to participate in the study. One of these forces (Force A) had the reputation as seen by the Canadian Police College of recruiting university educated police officers and encouraging existing members to attend university to a greater extent than most forces in Ontario while the second force (Force B) was believed by the Canadian Police College to represent a more typical midsize Ontario police force when focusing on the importance of education for policing.

A letter was sent to the Chief of Police (see Appendix C) in each force stating the purpose of the intended study and asking for their cooperation in the survey. Due to a mail strike, however, sending this letter was delayed by about five weeks. The letter informed the Chief who the principal researcher was and that force as well as individual anonymity would be assured. If willing to participate, the Chief was asked to designate a liaison officer who would facilitate the distribution of questionnaires and any other correspondence between the researcher and the force. In order to lend support to the research, the letter was signed by the Director of the Canadian Police College.

After the two forces agreed to participate, a liaison officer from each force was designated. A list of all the constables having between five to fourteen years of service in that force was requested. From the list of constables, a random sample of 125 police officers was selected from each force.

A covering letter signed by the Director of the Canadian Police College (see Appendix D) was drafted and addressed to each police officer selected to be surveyed. The covering letter stated the purpose of the study, named the principal researcher, and asked for the participant's

cooperation. The letter also stressed that responding to the questionnaire was completely voluntary and assured the respondent's anonymity.

A package containing a covering letter addressed to the respondent, a questionnaire, and a stamped return envelope was prepared for each participant. The packages were sent to the liaison officer in the respective forces. It was anticipated that he would distribute the packages by placing them in the prospective participant's mailbox. Before the packages could be sent out, a second mail strike occurred. Questionnaire distribution was delayed since it was believed that the participants may set the questionnaire aside during the strike and forget about them.

Approximately one week after the questionnaires were sent out each police force was visited by the principal investigator and a research officer from the Canadian Police College. A number of police managers were interviewed to ascertain individual beliefs and force policy regarding education. This enabled the researchers to validate the reputation of each force and to determine how upper management viewed education. Both chiefs were interviewed also.

Approximately five weeks after distribution, 130 questionnaires had been returned. Consistent with standard survey methodology, a reminder letter (see Appendix F) was sent out to all of the participants (since there was no way of knowing who had already returned the questionnaires) in order to achieve the highest possible return rate.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Response Rate

Table 1 presents the response rate from the two police forces surveyed. Each force received 125 questionnaires addressed to a sample of police constables randomly selected from a population having between 5 to 14 years service. After the questionnaires were distributed, it was discovered that three members from Force A who had been designated to receive the questionnaire had resigned. This reduced the sample size of Force A to 122.

TABLE 1
RESPONSE RATE¹

	FORCE A	FORCE B	TOTAL
N	84 (53.85%) ¹	72 (46.15%)	156 (100.00%)
Number of Questionnaires Distributed	125	125	250
Return Rate by Force	67.2%	57.6%	62.4%

¹ The percentage of the total number of questionnaires returned by each force is indicated in parentheses.

There was a total of 156 respondents in this study yielding a 62.4 percent return rate (based on the 250 questionnaires sent out). Eighty four respondents were from Force A, yielding a 67.2 percent return rate from that Force, while 72 respondents were from Force B, yielding a 57.4 percent return rate. The response from the reminder letter netted 26 of the 156 questionnaires returned (16.7 percent) or a 10.4 percent increase of the 250 questionnaires distributed.

Sample Demographics

Table 2 presents some of the sample demographics by police force. A Chi² test was used to determine differences on the demographic variables between the two forces. With the exception of educational level, no significant differences were found on the variables between forces.

TABLE 2

THE DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS
AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' POLICE FORCE (IN PERCENT)²

Demographic Variable	Force A	Force B	Total	Chi ²	P
1. AGE (IN YEARS)					
21 - 25	0.0 (0) ¹	4.17 (3)	1.95 (3)		
26 - 30	25.61 (21)	36.11 (26)	30.52 (47)		
31 - 35	42.68 (35)	36.11 (26)	39.61 (61)		
36 - 40	15.85 (13)	18.06 (13)	16.88 (26)		
41 - 45	15.85 (13)	5.56 (4)	11.04 (17)		
				9.013	.061
2. SEX					
Male	92.68 (76)	98.61 (71)	95.45 (147)		
Female	7.32 (6)	1.39 (1)	4.55 (7)		
				3.105	.078

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Demographic Variable	Force A	Force B	Total	Chi ²	P.
3. MARITAL STATUS					
Married	91.46 (75)	94.44 (68)	92.86 (143)		
Not Married	8.54 (7)	5.56 (4)	7.14 (11)		
				0.514	N.S.
4. NUMBER OF CHILDREN					
None	31.71 (26)	23.61 (17)	27.92 (43)		
1	8.54 (7)	20.83 (15)	14.29 (22)		
2-3	58.54 (48)	51.39 (37)	55.19 (85)		
4 or more	1.22 (1)	4.17 (3)	2.60 (4)		
				6.59	.086
5. LENGTH OF SERVICE					
5	0.00 (0)	4.23 (3)	1.94 (3)		
6-10	46.43 (39)	46.48 (33)	46.45 (72)		
11-15	41.67 (35)	42.25 (30)	41.94 (65)		
16-20	8.33 (7)	5.63 (4)	7.10 (11)		
21 or more	3.57 (3)	1.41 (1)	2.58 (4)		
				4.65	N.S.

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Demographic Variable	Force A	Force B	Total	Chi ²	P
6. PRESENT ASSIGNMENT					
Patrol	40.00 (32)	57.97 (40)	48.32 (72)		
Administration	10.00 (8)	11.59 (8)	10.74 (16)		
Investigations	27.50 (22)	18.84 (13)	23.49 (35)		
Technical (e.g. Ident)	5.00 (4)	0.00 (0)	2.68 (4)		
Youth Bureau	6.25 (5)	1.45 (1)	4.03 (6)		
Other (e.g., Tactical Emergency Response)	11.25 (9)	10.14 (7)	10.73 (16)		
				*	
7. EDUCATION					
Less than Grade 12	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)		
Grade 12 or 13	17.86 ^a (15)	48.61 ^b (35)	32.05 (50)		
Any Community College	23.81 ^a (20)	26.39 ^a (19)	24.99 (39)		
Some University	39.29 ^a (33)	22.22 ^b (16)	31.41 (49)		
University Degree	19.05 ^a (16)	22.78 ^b (2)	11.54 (18)		
				24.03	.0000
8. DEGREE/DIPLOMA³					
Community College ⁴	65.00 (26)	90.48 (19)	73.77 (45)		
Bachelor Degree	22.50 (9)	0.00 (0)	14.75 (9)		
Bachelor (Honours)	12.50 (5)	9.52 (2)	11.48 (7)		
				*	

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Demographic Variable	Force A	Force B	Total	Chi ²	P
9. DEGREE/DIPLOMA FIELD³					
Criminal Justice Related	45.00 (18)	68.42 (13)	52.54 (31)		
Arts and Social Science	22.50 (9)	5.26 (1)	16.95 (10)		
Science and Engineering	10.00 (4)	10.52 (2)	10.16 (6)		
Business/ Administration	2.50 (1)	15.79 (3)	6.78 (4)		
Other	20.00 (8)	0.00 (0)	13.56 (8)		
				*	
10. PRESENTLY TAKING UNIVERSITY COURSES					
Yes	19.05 (16)	11.11 (7)	15.65 (23)		
No	80.95 (68)	88.89 (56)	84.35 (124)		
				1.72	N.S.

¹ Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

² Within row values with the same or no superscripts do not significantly differ.

³ Includes only those respondents who have completed a university or college degree/diploma program.

⁴ Some of these community college graduates also have a university degree.

* Chi² is not a valid test due to a number of low cell counts.

The age range of the participants was between 21 and 45 years. Approximately 72 percent of the respondents were 35 years of age or younger. There were 147 males and seven females. The vast majority (93 percent) were married. Approximately 90 percent of the respondents had 15 years of service or less with approximately 46 percent having between 6 to 10 years of service. The majority of the participants were assigned to either patrol (48.32 percent) or investigative duties (23.49 percent).

Force A had a significantly higher proportion of police officers with at least some university education (58.34 percent) than Force B (25.00 percent). Both forces had similar proportions of officers with at least some college education (23.81 percent for Force A; 26.39 percent for Force B). A significantly higher proportion of officers in Force B had high school education only (48.61 percent) than Force A (17.86 percent).

Approximately 19 percent of the respondents from Force A indicated that they were presently enrolled in a university course compared to 11.11 percent of the respondents from Force B. With regard to type of post secondary education completed, Force A had a higher proportion of respondents having either a Bachelor or Bachelor with honours degree while Force B had a higher proportion of respondents with community college diplomas. The majority of the respondents from both forces indicated that their field of study was in the criminal justice area (52.54 percent), followed by the Arts and Social Sciences (16.95 percent) Science and Engineering (10.16 percent) and Business/Administration (6.78 percent).

Factors Influencing One's Decision to Obtain a University Education as a Function of the Respondents' Police Force

Tables 3, 4 and 5 compare the extent to which reference groups may influence the decision to obtain a university education. A significantly higher proportion of Force A respondents had family members with university degrees ($\chi^2 = 4.36$, $p = .037$). Force A respondents were also more greatly encouraged by their family and by the management of their force to obtain a university education. The respondents' peers in both forces encouraged taking university courses to some extent.

TABLE 3

THE PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS HAVING UNIVERSITY GRADUATES IN THEIR IMMEDIATE FAMILY AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' POLICE FORCE (IN PERCENT)

University Graduates in Family?	Force A	Force B	χ^2	P
Yes	47.56 (39) ¹	30.99 (22)		
No	52.44 (43)	69.01 (49)		
			4.36	.037

¹ Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

TABLE 4

THE PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS INDICATING WHO HAD THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' POLICE FORCE (IN PERCENT)

Influential Source	Force A	Force B	χ^2	P
Family	10.39 (8) ¹	9.23 (6)		
Spouse/Combination	6.49 (5)	12.31 (8)		
Self	54.55 (42)	67.69 (44)		
High School Peers	1.30 (1)	3.08 (2)		
Fellow Officers	5.19 (4)	0.00 (0)		
Force Management	22.08 (17)	7.69 (5)		

Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

* χ^2 is not a valid test due to the number of low cell counts.

TABLE 5

THE AMOUNT OF ENCOURAGEMENT THE RESPONDENTS RECEIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES
AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' POLICE FORCE¹

Source	Mean Rating		F	P
	Force A (n = 83) ²	Force B (n = 72)		
Family Members	3.80	3.36 (n = 70)	10.83	.0012
Force Management	4.58	3.68	33.51	.0001
Peer Group	3.26 (n = 80)	3.27 (n = 68)	0.06	N.S.

¹ 1 = Greatly Discouraged; 2 = Somewhat Discouraged; 3 = Neither Encouraged/Discouraged; 4 = Somewhat Encouraged; 5 = Greatly Encouraged.

² Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

The Percentage of University Courses Taken While Serving as a Police Officer

The percentage of university courses taken by those respondents having any university education while serving as a police officer appear in Table 6. This table shows that there is a significant difference between the some university group and the university degree group ($\chi^2 = 22.127$, $p = .0001$). The majority of those respondents (67.39 percent) in the some university group obtained 100 percent of their education while serving as a police officer. The majority of the respondents in the university degree group (77.78 percent) obtained 100 percent of their education prior to becoming a police officer. None from the university degree group obtained 100 percent of their education while serving as a police officer. Twenty-six percent of those respondents in the some university group reported that all of their education was obtained prior to becoming a police officer.

TABLE 6

THE PERCENTAGE OF UNIVERSITY COURSES TAKEN WHILE SERVING AS A POLICE OFFICER AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Percentage of University Courses Taken	Some University	University Degree	Chi ² (*)	P
0	26.09 (12) ¹	77.78 (14)		
25	4.35 (2)	11.11 (2)		
50	2.17 (1)	11.11 (2)		
100	67.39 (31)	0.00 (0)		
			22.13	.0000

¹ Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

(*) The Chi² analysis was performed between those respondents who took either 0% or 100% of their courses while serving as a police officer because the other cells had an insufficient n.

Factors Influencing the Decision to Obtain a University Education as a Function of the Respondents' Level of Education

Tables 7, 8 and 9 compare the extent to which reference groups may have influenced the decision to obtain a university education based on the respondents' educational level. Table 7 shows that university educated respondents were more likely to have family members with university degrees (Chi² = 6.1, p = .047).

Table 8 shows that few respondents attributed referent groups in their decision to pursue university education. Most indicated that attending university was a personal decision. Force management seems to have modestly influenced the some university group in a positive way.

Table 9 shows that the university degree group received significantly more encouragement to obtain a university education by their families than the some or no university groups, although, the some

TABLE 7

THE PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS HAVING UNIVERSITY GRADUATES IN THEIR IMMEDIATE FAMILY AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION

University Graduates in Family?	No University	Some University	University Degree	Chi ²	P
Yes	33.33 (29) ¹	42.86 (21)	64.71 (11)		
No	66.67 (58)	57.12 (28)	35.29 (6)		
				6.1	.047

¹ Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

TABLE 8

THE PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS INDICATING WHO HAD THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION (IN PERCENT)

Influential Source	No University	Some University	University Degree	Chi ²	P
Family	4.94 (4) ¹	13.33 (6)	25.00 (4)		
Spouse/Companion	11.11 (9)	8.89 (4)	0.00 (0)		
Self	60.49 (49)	57.78 (26)	68.75 (11)		
High School Peers	1.23 (1)	4.44 (2)	0.00 (0)		
Fellow Officers	4.94 (4)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)		
Force Management	17.28 (14)	15.56 (7)	6.25 (1)		

¹ Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

* Chi² is not a valid test due to the number of low cell counts.

university group received significantly more encouragement than the no university group ($F = 32.42$, $p = .0001$). Although only approaching statistical significance ($F = 3.03$, $p = .0514$) the some university group seems to have received greater encouragement by their peers to obtain a university education than the other two groups. All three groups indicated that force management strongly encourages pursuing university education.

TABLE 9

THE AMOUNT OF ENCOURAGEMENT THE RESPONDENTS RECEIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}

Source	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=89) ³	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=17)		
Family Members	3.23 ^a (n=87)	3.90 ^b	4.59 ^c	32.43	.0001
Force Management	4.10	4.31	4.06	4.06	N.S.
Peer Group	3.16 (n=85)	3.46	3.12	3.03	.0514

1 1 = Greatly Discouraged, 2 = Somewhat Discouraged, 3 = Neither Encouraged/Discouraged, 4 = Somewhat Encouraged, 5 = Greatly Encouraged.

2 Means with the same or no superscripts do not significantly differ ($p=.05$)

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

Respondents' Career Orientations

Table 10 shows the rankings of the five Career Orientations the respondents claimed to have when they first entered policing. The Self Investor and Careerist categories received relatively few first ratings. The Specialist and Enforcer categories received a greater number of first ratings while the Social Activist category received the greatest number of first ratings.

TABLE 10

RESPONDENTS' CONCEPTIONS OF WHAT THEIR CAREER ORIENTATION WAS WHEN THEY FIRST ENTERED POLICE WORK (IN PERCENT)¹

	Self Investor	Careerist	Specialist	Enforcer	Social Activist
First Choice	11.38 (14) ²	8.13 (10)	20.32 (25)	26.02 (32)	34.15 (42)
Second Choice	16.10 (19)	17.80 (21)	22.88 (27)	22.03 (26)	21.19 (25)
Third Choice	16.24 (19)	12.82 (15)	28.21 (33)	24.79 (29)	17.95 (21)
Fourth Choice	26.50 (31)	25.64 (30)	20.51 (24)	13.68 (16)	13.68 (16)
Fifth Choice*	29.91 (35)	35.90 (42)	6.84 (8)	12.82 (15)	14.53 (17)

1 Percentages are row percentages.

2 Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

TABLE 11

THE RESPONDENTS' PRESENT CAREER ORIENTATIONS (IN PERCENT)¹

	Self Investor	Careerist	Specialist	Enforcer	Social Activist
First Choice	31.58 (42) ²	21.80 (29)	29.32 (39)	10.53 (14)	6.77 (9)
Second Choice	20.67 (25)	14.05 (17)	28.93 (35)	20.67 (25)	15.70 (19)
Third Choice	16.52 (19)	8.70 (10)	22.61 (26)	32.17 (37)	20.00 (23)
Fourth Choice	13.91 (16)	18.26 (21)	15.65 (18)	25.23 (29)	26.96 (31)
Fifth Choice	16.52 (19)	38.26 (44)	2.61 (3)	13.04 (15)	29.57 (34)

1 Percentages are row percentages.

2 Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

Table 11 shows the rankings of the five career orientations as they apply to the respondents at the present time. There is a noticeable increase in first rankings for the Self Investors, the Careerists, and the Specialists at the present time compared to when the respondents first entered police work. Further, there is a noticeable decrease in the number of first rankings for the Enforcer and Social Activist categories at the present time compared to when those respondents first joined the police force. Approximately 32 percent of the respondents indicated that their primary career orientation at the present time was the Self Investor, while 21.80 percent indicated being Careerists, 29.32 percent indicated being Specialists, 10.53 percent indicated being Enforcers, and 6.77 percent indicated that their primary career orientation was the Social Activist.

The Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents by Career Orientation

Table 12 presents the demographic characteristics of the respondents by career orientation (The Career Orientations were determined by the respondents' first choice at the present time). χ^2 analysis shows no significant differences among the career orientations on respondents' length of service or age. There are, however, significant differences among the career orientations with respect to level of education ($\chi^2 = 12.20$, $p = .016$). The Careerists, Specialists and Enforcers have a significantly greater proportion of respondents with at least some university education than the Self Investors or Social Activists. It is also noteworthy that the Careerists have the highest proportion of respondents with at least some university education (68.98 percent).

TABLE 12

THE DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS BY
CAREER ORIENTATION (IN PERCENT)

Demographic Variable	Self Investor	Careerist	Specialist	Enforcer	Social Activist	Chi ²	P
1. AGE (IN YEARS)							
21-25	4.76 (2) ¹	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	12.50 (1)		
26-30	28.57 (12)	39.29 (11)	28.21 (11)	14.29 (2)	25.00 (2)		
31-35	42.86 (18)	39.29 (11)	41.03 (16)	50.00 (7)	12.50 (1)		
36-40	14.29 (6)	7.14 (2)	20.51 (8)	28.57 (4)	25.00 (2)		
41 or over	9.52 (4)	14.29 (4)	10.26 (4)	7.14 (1)	25.00 (2)		
						16.071	N.S.
2. LENGTH OF SERVICE (IN YEARS)							
5	4.88 (2)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	11.11 (1)		
6-10	36.59 (15)	55.17 (16)	51.28 (20)	28.57 (4)	22.22 (2)		
11-15	48.78 (20)	31.03 (9)	46.15 (18)	50.00 (7)	55.56 (5)		
16-20	7.32 (3)	10.34 (3)	2.56 (1)	14.29 (2)	11.11 (1)		
21 or over	2.44 (1)	3.45 (1)	0.00 (0)	7.14 (1)	0.00 (0)		
						16.773	N.S.
3. EDUCATION							
No University	69.05 (29)	31.03 (9)	51.28 (20)	57.14 (8)	77.78 (7)		
Some University	23.81 (10)	55.17 (16)	35.90 (14)	35.71 (5)	0.00 (0)		
Degree	7.14 (3)	13.79 (4)	12.82 (5)	7.14 (1)	22.22 (2)		
						12.203 ²	.016

¹ Raw numbers are shown in parentheses.

² The Chi² test was performed between the respondents having no university and those having any university (some university and degree) in order to increase the cell sizes.

**Motivations for Obtaining a University Education
Among the Career Orientations**

Table 13 shows the results of a group of comparisons among the five career orientations on the respondents' primary motivations for obtaining a university education while serving as a police officer. There is only one significant difference on the four different motivations. The Self Investors, Careerists, and Specialists all reported that promotion credit motivated them to obtain a university education, significantly more so than the Enforcers. Across all career orientations, subject interest and increased job performance were generally cited as strong motivators to take university courses while preparing for a second career was not strongly rated.

TABLE 13

THE MOTIVATIONS FOR OBTAINING A UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AS A FUNCTION
OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Motivation	Mean Rating					F	p
	Self Investor (n=6) ³	Careerist (n=15)	Specialist (n=11)	Enforcer (n=3)	Social Activist (n=1)		
Subject Interest	3.75 (n=8)	3.80	3.82	3.67	4.0	0.03	N.S.
Promotion Credit	4.00 ^a	4.29 ^a (n=17)	3.90 ^a (n=10)	2.33 ^b	---	3.39	.0298
Prepare For Second Career	1.33	2.07	2.09	1.67	---	0.84	N.S.
Help Do A Better Job	3.50 (n=5)	3.67	3.30 (n=10)	3.33	4.0	0.91	N.S.

1 1 = No Motivation, 2 = Little Motivation, 3 = Some Motivation, 4 = Much Motivation, 5 = Very Much Motivation.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

The Desire for Promotion and Promotion Expectations
Among the Career Orientations

Table 14 shows the results on a group of comparisons among the five career orientations on various measures of promotional desires and expectations. Almost all measures show significant differences. The following findings were observed:

1. Across career orientations, respondents generally desired promotion to the next rank to some extent. The Careerists, however, had a significantly greater desire to be promoted to the next rank than the Self Investors, Specialists and Social Activists. The Enforcers desired promotion to a significantly greater extent than the Self Investors ($F = 6.40, p = .0001$).
2. The Careerists believed they were more deserving of promotion followed by the Specialists, the Social Activists, the Enforcers, and the Self Investors ($F = 2.37, p = .056$).
3. The Careerists also indicated that they hoped to reach a significantly higher rank than the Self Investors and Social Activists ($F = 3.68, p = .007$).
4. The Enforcers had a higher expectancy of reaching their desired rank than the other four career orientations ($F = 2.54, p = .043$).
5. The Careerists expected to retire at a higher rank than the Self Investors and Social Activists ($F = 2.85, p = .026$).
6. There were no differences among career orientations in terms of the number of promotable years the respondents believed they had left. Across all career orientations, the respondents reported having between 8 to 9 years of future promotion eligibility.
7. The Careerists and Enforcers indicated the belief that they had a higher probability than the Social Activists of being promoted to the next rank ($F = 2.96, p = .022$).
8. The Careerists had a higher expectancy that their qualifications for promotion would eventually pay off compared to the Self Investors ($F = 3.35, p = .012$).

TABLE 14

THE DESIRE FOR PROMOTION AND PROMOTION EXPECTATIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATIONS¹

Promotion Variable	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=42) ^b	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=39)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=9)		
Desire Promotion ²	3.55 ^a	4.55 ^c	3.87 ^{ab}	4.21 ^{bc}	3.78 ^{ab}	6.40	.0001
Deserve Promotion ³	3.12	3.76	3.46	3.14	3.33	2.37	.056
Desired Rank ⁴	3.46 ^b (n=41)	4.82 ^a (n=28)	4.44 ^{ab}	4.46 ^{ab} (n=13)	3.44 ^b	3.68	.007
Probability of Reaching Desired (In percent)	35.24 ^b	40.00 ^b	31.80 ^b	58.57 ^a	35.56 ^b	2.54	.043
Expected Retirement Rank ⁴	2.42 ^b (n=40)	3.38 ^a	2.95 ^{ab} (n=38)	3.00 ^{ab} (n=13)	2.22 ^b	2.85	.026
Promotable Years	8.13 (n=40)	8.59	9.37 (n=38)	7.77 (n=13)	8.00 (n=8)	0.45	N.S.
Probability of Reaching Next Rank (In percent)	46.83 ^{ab} (n=40)	65.52 ^a	52.63 ^{ab} (n=38)	67.69 ^a (n=13)	37.78 ^b	2.96	.022
Promotion Qualifications Will Pay Off ⁵	3.27 ^b	4.03 ^a	3.68 ^{ab} (n=38)	3.86 ^{ab}	3.38 ^{ab} (n=8)	3.35	.012

1 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

2 1 = No Desire (for promotion), 2 = A Little Desire, 3 = Some Desire, 4 = Great Desire, 5 = Very Great Desire.

3 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To a Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To a Great Extent, 5 = To a Very Great Extent.

4 1 = Constable, 2 = Sergeant, 3 = Staff Sergeant, 4 = Inspector, 5 = Staff Inspector, 6 = Superintendent, 7 = Deputy Chief, 8 = Chief.

5 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

6 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

The Relationship Between Career Orientation and the Respondents' Attitudes Toward Education, the Police Role, and Career and Job Satisfaction

Tables comparing the five career orientations on attitudes toward education for various police issues, attitudes toward the police role, and level of career and job satisfaction are presented in Appendix H. With the exception of a few expected chance findings, no significant differences were found among the five career orientations with respect to: 1. attitudes toward education, length of service, loyalty and job experience for promotion consideration, 2. the weights assigned to various components used in determining promotion (i.e., seniority, performance evaluations, education, research paper, examinations, oral interview board), 3. the extent to which education should be considered for promotion to different ranks, 4. the extent to which education is related to performance, 5. the respondents' perception of the police role, and 6. the level of the respondents' career and job satisfaction.

Across the five career orientations, the respondents generally indicated that with respect to promotion: 1. experience, length of service, job performance and loyalty should be given primary consideration for promotion with university education having little consideration, 2. the heaviest weights in a promotion system should be given to performance appraisals followed by examinations, formal interview boards, seniority, education and research papers, 3. education should be considered more heavily for promotion as the target rank increases, and 4. university educated officers are receiving undeserved advancement.

With respect to performance, respondents across the five career orientations indicated that: 1. the present minimum education

requirement is enough for the performance of the police role, 2. street experience and recruit training is not enough, 3. a university education will not improve police performance on the whole, 4. personality and attitude, experience, common sense, and training are more important than a university education in performing a variety of police functions, although, a university education was perceived as beneficial for fighting commercial crime, computer crime, and working in the administrative areas. Education was also seen as a method by which to professionalize the police.

The respondents across all career orientations also indicated that: 1. order maintenance is an important role of the police, 2. the prime responsibility of the police is not necessarily crime control, 3. order maintenance work is a source of job satisfaction, 4. they have a high level of career and job satisfaction, although, there is some indication that the Self Investors find their work less rewarding.

The Relationship Between the Respondents' Level of Education with Length of Service and Age

The move to improve the educational level of police officers is fairly recent. Many police forces are actively recruiting individuals with a higher level of education than before. This will result in older police officers having comparatively less formal education. This raises the issue of the relationship between education, length of service and age. In order to determine if level of education was a covariate of age or length of service, correlations were calculated among education, length of service and age. There were no significant correlations between education and length of service ($r = .042$, $p = N.S.$) nor education and age ($r = .133$, $p = N.S.$). Therefore, since neither age nor

length of service are related to educational level; age and length of service can be ruled out as contaminating covariates when education is examined as an independent variable.

Motivations for Obtaining a University Education Among the Levels of Education

Table 15 shows the results of a group of comparisons of the three educational levels on the respondents' primary motivations for obtaining a university education while serving as a police officer. Since the majority of the university degree group obtained their education prior to becoming a police officer, most respondents in this group are not represented in these results. Only one significant F value was found. Compared to the some university group, the university degree group reported that subject interest was not the primary reason for taking university courses. Instead, like the other educational groups, their primary motivation for taking courses was to gain credits for promotion. Across educational groups, the respondents also indicated that they did not take courses to prepare for a second career, and that to some extent, helping them do a better job motivated them to take courses.

The Desire for Promotion and Promotion Expectancies as a Function of the Respondents' Level of Education

Table 16 shows the comparisons among the three levels of education on the various measures of desire for promotion and promotion expectations. The only significant differences were found on "Desired Rank" and "Expected Retirement Rank". The some university and university degree groups generally wanted to achieve a higher rank (in the Inspector to Staff Inspector range) than the no university group (in the Sergeant to Staff Sergeant range) ($F = 5.80, p = .004$). In addition, the

TABLE 15

THE MOTIVATIONS FOR OBTAINING A UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}

Motivation	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University ³ (n=3)	Some University (n=35)	University Degree (n=5)		
Subject Interest	3.61 ^{ab}	4.06 ^a	2.60 ^b	5.93	.0056
Promotion Credit	4.67	3.82	4.50	1.40	N.S.
Prepare for Second Career	1.67	1.94	2.25	0.25	N.S.
Help do a Better Job	3.00	3.72	3.00	1.59	N.S.

1 1 = No Motivation, 2 = Little Motivation, 3 = Some Motivation, 4 = Much Motivation, 5 = Very Much Motivation.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

3 May be presently enrolled in a university course.

university degree or some university groups expected to retire at a higher rank (Staff Sergeant) than the no university group who expected to retire as Sergeants ($F = 7.96$, $p = .0008$). Across all educational groups, the respondents generally indicated that they wished to be promoted to the next rank, that they deserved promotion, and that they believed that their qualifications for promotion would eventually pay off. Respondents across all educational levels generally believe that they have roughly the same chance to reach their desired rank or the next rank. The respondents across the three educational levels indicated that they had approximately the same number of years in which they considered themselves promotable.

TABLE 16

THE DESIRE FOR PROMOTION AND PROMOTION EXPECTATIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION¹

Promotion Variable	Mean Rating			F.	P
	No University (n=89) ⁶	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=18)		
Desire Promotion ²	3.90	4.12	4.22	1.48	N.S.
Deserve Promotion ³	3.33	3.20	3.44	0.45	N.S.
Desired Rank ⁴	3.75 ^b	4.69 ^a	4.72 ^a	5.80	.004
Probability of Reaching Desired (in percent)	39.10	33.06	43.33	1.14	N.S.
Expected Retirement Rank ⁴	2.60 ^b (n=87)	2.94 ^b (n=48)	3.94 ^a (n=17)	7.96	.0005
Promotable Years	8.33 (n=87)	8.76 (n=46)	10.72	1.62	N.S.
Probability of Reaching Next Rank (in percent)	51.26 (n=87)	54.89 (n=47)	66.67	1.98	N.S.
Promotion Qualifications Will Pay Off ⁵	3.52 (n=88)	3.76 (n=47)	3.78	1.22	N.S.

¹ Means with same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

² 1 = No Desire (for promotion), 2 = Little Desire, 3 = Some Desire, 4 = Great Desire, 5 = Very Great Desire.

³ 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

⁴ 1 = Constable, 2 = Sergeant, 3 = Staff Sergeant, 4 = Inspector, 5 = Staff Inspector, 6 = Superintendent, 7 = Deputy Chief, 8 = Chief.

⁵ 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

⁶ Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

Attitudes Toward Education, Length of Service, Loyalty and Job Experience for Promotion as a Function of the Respondents' Level of Education

Table 17 compares the three education groups with respect to the value placed on various measures dealing with promotion. This table

TABLE 17

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION, LENGTH OF SERVICE, LOYALTY AND EXPERIENCE FOR PROMOTION AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}

Question	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=89) ³	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=18)		
Length of service and loyalty should be considered heavily	3.09 ^a	3.08 ^a	2.28 ^b	4.23	.016
University graduates should get advancement priority	1.98 ^b	2.29 ^b	2.94 ^a	10.94	.0001
University educated get undeserved advancement	3.52 ^a (n=88)	3.41 ^a	2.11 ^b	17.77	.0001
Force should reward experience, hard work and long loyal service	4.44 ^a	4.45 ^a	3.78 ^b	5.77	.0038
University education should be weighed heavily	2.18 ^b	2.43 ^b	3.06 ^a	7.29	.0009
Force should reward university educated	2.11 ^b	2.43 ^{ab}	2.65 ^a	3.95	.0213

1 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

shows an interesting pattern. . On every measure, the university degree group significantly differed from the no university or some university groups. The university degree group placed less value on such factors as length of service, loyalty and job experience for promotion and advancement than the other two groups. In addition, the university degree group provided stronger endorsement for university education as a factor used in determining promotion and advancement than the no university or some university groups. It should be noted, however, that despite the stronger endorsement provided by the university degree groups for the measure that "University education should be weighed heavily (in the promotion system)", the mean rating from this group suggests that in general, they neither agree nor disagree with the statement. Further examination of the data concerning this measure, however, shows that a bimodal frequency distribution exists in the response pattern given by the university degree group. Table 18 reveals that the university degree group was divided into two distinct groups on this measure with one group indicating a more positive attitude toward university education than the other. Very few respondents, in fact, indicated that they neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. In addition, although not as pronounced as the previous measure, possibly due to the wording used, a similar distribution was found among the university degree respondents for the measure "Force should reward university educated." This distribution pattern did not appear for the other measures or other education groups throughout the study.

Further examination of Table 17 shows that the no university and some university groups believe to a greater extent than the university degree group that university graduates are receiving undeserved advancement.

TABLE 18

THE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES GIVEN BY THE
UNIVERSITY DEGREE GROUP

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Disagree
University education should be weighed heavily	0 (0.00) ¹	9 (50.00)	2 (11.11)	4 (22.22)	3 ² (16.67)
Force should reward university education	2 (11.76)	8 (47.06)	2 (11.76)	4 (23.53)	1 (5.89)

¹ Row percentages are indicated in parentheses.

**The Weights Given to Various Components of a Promotion System
by the Respondents' Level of Education**

Table 19 shows the comparisons among the three education groups on the desired components in a promotion system. There were significant differences on two components. The some university group indicated that less emphasis should be given to performance appraisals than the no university group. The university degree group did not significantly differ from the no or some university groups, but it is noteworthy that the university degree group allocated fewer points to the performance appraisal than the no university group. In addition, the university degree group indicated that more points should be given for education than the no university group.

**The Extent to Which Education Should be Considered For
Promotion to Various Ranks as a Function of the
Respondents' Level of Education**

Table 20 presents the comparisons among the three education groups on the extent to which education should be considered for promotion to various ranks. With the exception of Chief and Deputy Chief, there is a significant difference among the groups for promotion to all ranks.

TABLE 19

THE WEIGHTS GIVEN TO PROMOTION COMPONENTS AS A FUNCTION OF THE
RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION¹

Promotion Component	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=86)	Some University (n=48)	University Degree (n=18)		
Performance Appraisal	37.97 ^a	31.04 ^b	33.87 ^{ab}	4.07	.0189
Examinations	19.42	19.06	18.61	0.09	N.S.
Interview	13.46	14.69	15.56	1.03	N.S.
Education	10.58 ^b	12.15 ^{ab}	15.00 ^a	3.75	.0259
Seniority	13.22	14.94	11.94	1.32	N.S.
Research Paper	2.67	2.19	3.33	0.50	N.S.
Other Points	2.67	5.31	1.67	1.73	N.S.

¹ Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

The Deputy Chief rank did, however, approach significance with $F = 2.69$, $p = .0709$. With the exception of Chief, the university degree group gave greater weight to university education as a means of deciding promotion to the various ranks than the other two groups. At the Sergeant rank, the some university group gave significantly greater weight to university education than the no university group. Across all education groups, greater weight was given to education for determining promotion as the rank increased. At the Deputy Chief and Chief ranks, it appears that the respondents across the three education groups generally believe that education should be strongly considered.

TABLE 20

THE EXTENT TO WHICH EDUCATION SHOULD BE CONSIDERED FOR PROMOTION TO VARIOUS RANKS
AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1,2}

Rank	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=87) ³	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=18)		
Corporal	1.55 ^b (n=86)	1.83 ^b (n=46)	2.61 ^a	13.11	.0001
Sergeant	1.66 ^c	2.04 ^b	2.83 ^a	18.30	.0001
Staff Sergeant	2.09 ^b	2.35 ^b	3.17 ^a	13.28	.0001
Inspector	2.64 ^b	3.06 ^b	3.50 ^a	8.07	.0005
Superintendent	3.06 ^b	3.45 ^b	4.00 ^a	6.96	.0013
Deputy Chief	3.57 ^b	3.92 ^{ab}	4.17 ^a	2.69	.0709
Chief	3.71	3.98	4.11	1.24	N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

Value Placed on Education, Length of Service and Loyalty for Policing as a Function of the Respondents' Level of Education

Table 21 presents the comparisons among the three education groups on attitudes toward education, length of service, and loyalty. Five significant F values emerged on these measures. These include:

1. compared to the university degree group, the other two groups more strongly believe that university educated officers perceive themselves as being more superior to the others,
2. the no university group more strongly believes that the education issue is political than the university degree group,
3. the university degree group is more positive in their rating that university education has overall value for police forces,
4. the university degree and some university groups more

TABLE 21

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD EDUCATION, LENGTH OF SERVICE AND LOYALTY FOR POLICING AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}.

Question	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=89) ³	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=18)		
Loyalty and dedication	2.98	2.77 (n=48)	2.61	1.47	N.S.
Veterans	2.40	2.47	2.29	0.22	N.S.
Education is not overemphasized	2.40	2.31 (n=48)	2.18 (n=17)	0.39	N.S.
Loyalty is a promotion smokescreen	2.34	2.18	2.12 (n=17)	1.17	N.S.
University educated feel superior	3.27 ^a (n=88)	3.02 ^a (n=47)	2.06 ^b	13.07	.0001
Police education is a political exercise	2.72 ^a (n=88)	2.40 ^{ab} (n=47)	2.06 ^b	4.57	.0118
University education has overall value for policing	3.27 ^c	3.69 ^b (n=48)	4.24 ^a (n=17)	11.90	.0001
University education upgrades and professionalizes	3.24 ^b	3.73 ^a	3.88 ^a (n=17)	7.13	.0011
Police professionalism	4.52 ^a	4.47 ^a (n=47)	4.06 ^b	3.70	.0271

1 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree,, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

strongly believe that a university education would help professionalize policing than the no university group, and 5. the university degree group consider themselves to be more committed to police professionalism than the other two groups.

Across the three groups, the respondents generally indicated that loyalty and job experience is positively related to length of service and that loyalty is not a smokescreen to promote senior officers.

**Attitudes Held Toward Education and Experience on Job Performance
as a Function of the Respondents' Level of Education**

Table 22 compares the three education groups on attitudes toward education and job experience. There are significant F values on almost all of the measures. Overall, the university degree group provided a more positive indication that a university education enhanced performance than the no or some university groups. The no and some university groups more strongly endorse instincts over education than the university degree group. The no and some university groups also provide stronger endorsement of the current minimum education standard (grade 12) than the university degree group.

The university degree and some university groups believe more strongly than the no university group that a university education:

1. helps police officers to develop a better awareness of what goes on around them,
2. enhances one's ability to function in a complex society,
3. increases one's understanding of human behaviour,
4. better enables one to tolerate differences and ambiguities,
5. gives one a better understanding of the causes of crime, and
6. better prepares one to evaluate situations and arrive at a balanced judgement.

Further,

TABLE 22

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE FOR JOB PERFORMANCE
AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1,2}

Question	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=89) ³	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=18)		
Instincts are more important than education	2.88 ^a	2.55 ^a	1.82 ^b (n=17)	11.48	.0001
Recruit training and street education is enough	1.71	1.45	1.53 (n=17)	3.10	.0481
University education develops awareness	2.28 ^c	3.04 ^b	3.65 ^a (n=17)	16.12	.0001
Minimum force education requirement is enough	3.26 ^a (n=88)	3.17 ^a (n=47)	2.39 ^b	5.72	.0040
Street experience is enough	1.86 (n=88)	1.83 (n=47)	1.83	0.06	N.S.
University education helps one function in a complex society	1.90 ^b (n=88)	2.49 ^a (n=43)	2.78 ^a	17.49	.0001
University education helps one understand human behaviour	1.90 ^b	2.58 ^a	2.94 ^a	16.82	.0001
University education helps one tolerate differences and ambiguities	1.87 ^c	2.45 ^b	3.17 ^a	22.84	.0001
University education helps one understand the causes of crime	2.07 ^b	2.58 ^a	2.78 ^a	7.44	.0008

TABLE 22 (Continued)

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE FOR JOB PERFORMANCE
AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}

Question	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=89) ³	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=18)		
University education helps one evaluate situations	1.82 ^b	2.35 ^a	2.67 ^a	13.04	.0001
University educated have improved personality characteristics	1.83 ^b	2.13 ^b	2.61 ^a	8.06	.0005
University education provides advanced knowledge of police work	2.12	2.21	2.06	0.21	N.S.
University graduates take more initiative	1.92 ^b	2.15 ^b	2.94 ^a	13.40	.0001
University graduates are better leaders	1.70 ^b (n=88)	2.00 ^b	2.50 ^a	11.31	.0001

1 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

compared to the other two groups, the university degree group is more positive about rating university graduates as leaders.

Across the three groups, the respondents generally indicated that job experience, street education and recruit training are not sufficient for becoming effective police officers.

Tables 23 through 27 compare the three groups on the extent to which they believe that the attributes of experience, common sense, university education, personality and attitude, and training are related to the performance of a number of police functions. No significant differences were found among the education groups with respect to experience, common sense, personality and attitude, and training. A number of significant differences were found, however, among the education groups on performing various police functions, as related to the need for a university education. Overall, the university degree group indicated that a university education is more strongly related to performing the various police functions than the some or no university groups. The respondents across all education groups indicated that a university education was strongly related to conducting commercial crime investigations or preparing budgets.

Attitudes Held Toward the Police Role as a Function of the Respondents' Level of Education

Table 28 compares the three education groups on attitudes toward some measures of the police role. There were no significant differences found among the three groups on any measures dealing with the order maintenance roles. The measure dealing with crime control did approach significance ($F = 2.90$, $p = .058$), however, and there is some indication that the university group less strongly endorses the role of the police as being solely crime control. The university degree group, however, rated helping victims or citizens as being less rewarding than did the other two groups. Across all education groups, the respondents generally indicated that much of their time is taken up with order maintenance

TABLE 23

THE EXTENT TO WHICH EXPERIENCE IS RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1,2}

Function	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=87) ³	Some University (n=47)	University Degree (n=18)		
Handling interpersonal disputes	4.07	4.32 (n=49)	4.06	1.48	N.S.
Drug investigations	4.29	4.53 (n=49)	4.17	2.58	N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	4.11	4.35 (n=48)	4.28	1.76	N.S.
Identification	3.87	4.25 (n=48)	4.11	2.75	N.S.
Computer crime investigations	4.10	4.17	4.22	0.21	N.S.
Hostage negotiations	4.56	4.66	4.44	0.86	N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	4.39	4.46	4.33	0.28	N.S.
Investigating property crime	3.73	3.72	3.83	0.08	N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	3.86	4.06	3.78	1.01	N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	4.09	3.83	3.67	1.80	N.S.
Writing incident reports	3.89	3.81	3.78	0.16	N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	4.39	4.47	4.50	0.30	N.S.
Conducting classroom training	4.18	4.13	4.00	0.37	N.S.
Writing policy related papers	4.18	4.40	3.94	2.51	N.S.
Preparing budgets	4.23	4.23	3.72	2.48	N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 24

THE EXTENT TO WHICH COMMON SENSE IS RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}

Function	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=86) ³	Some University (n=47)	University Degree (n=18)		
Handling interpersonal disputes	4.41 (n=87)	4.43 (n=49)	4.44	0.04	N.S.
Drug investigations	3.84	3.84 (n=49)	3.78	0.03	N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	3.63	3.71 (n=48)	3.50	0.35	N.S.
Identification	3.38	3.41 (n=48)	3.39	0.02	N.S.
Computer crime investigations	3.13	3.35 (n=48)	3.22	0.71	N.S.
Hostage negotiations	4.67	4.60	4.44	1.09	N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	4.22	4.21	4.00	0.59	N.S.
Investigating property crime	3.79	3.68	3.67	0.34	N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	3.90	4.13	3.83	1.41	N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	4.45	4.34	4.11	1.55	N.S.
Writing incident reports	3.43	3.45	3.50	0.03	N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	4.15	4.17 (n=46)	4.00	0.35	N.S.
Conducting classroom training	3.67	3.66	3.61	0.05	N.S.
Writing policy related papers	3.90	3.89	3.89	0.00	N.S.
Preparing budgets	3.71	3.63	3.33	0.95	N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

TABLE 25

THE EXTENT TO WHICH UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IS RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}

Function	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=86) ³	Some University (n=47)	University Degree (n=18)		
Handling interpersonal disputes	1.76 ^b	1.90 ^b (n=49)	2.44 ^a	6.11	.0028
Drug investigations	1.57 ^b	1.59 ^b (n=49)	2.22 ^a	6.20	.0026
Commercial crime investigations	2.86 ^b	3.15 ^b (n=48)	3.67 ^a	4.43	.0135
Identification	2.35	2.38 (n=48)	2.67	0.65	N.S.
Computer crime investigations	3.43	3.55	4.06	2.27	N.S.
Hostage negotiations	2.08 ^b	2.66 ^b	2.83 ^a	7.01	.0012
Investigating serious crimes against persons	1.87 ^b	2.17 ^{ab}	2.56 ^a	5.07	.0074
Investigating property crime	1.66 ^b	1.76 ^b	2.33 ^a	5.79	.0038
Investigating crimes involving public morality	1.65 ^b	2.02 ^b	2.56 ^a	11.36	.0001
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	1.34 ^b	1.51 ^b	2.17 ^a	12.78	.0001
Writing incident reports	2.32 ^b	2.42 ^b	3.28 ^a	4.80	.0095
Interviewing witnesses and victims	1.77 ^b	1.98 ^b (n=46)	2.72 ^a	9.12	.0002
Conducting classroom training	2.77 ^b	3.17 ^{ab}	3.47 ^a	4.33	.0149
Writing policy related papers	3.09 ^b	3.51 ^{ab}	3.94 ^a	5.94	.0033
Preparing budgets	3.27	3.51	3.72	1.59	N.S.

¹ 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

² Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

³ Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 26

THE EXTENT TO WHICH PERSONALITY AND ATTITUDE ARE RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}

Function	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=86) ³	Some University (n=47)	University Degree (n=18)		
Handling interpersonal disputes	4.07	4.29 (n=49)	4.11	1.40	N.S.
Drug investigations	3.12	3.26 (n=49)	2.94	0.68	N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	2.84	2.98 (n=48)	3.00	0.44	N.S.
Identification	2.56	2.67 (n=48)	2.94	1.19	N.S.
Computer crime investigations	2.46	2.67	2.83	1.38	N.S.
Hostage negotiations	4.57	4.68	4.44	0.70	N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	3.72	3.93	3.83	0.86	N.S.
Investigating property crime	3.03	3.14	3.05	0.22	N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	3.50	3.70	3.44	0.93	N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	4.03	4.14	4.00	0.33	N.S.
Writing incident reports	2.55	2.38	2.56	0.42	N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	4.08	4.22 (n=44)	4.11	0.53	N.S.
Conducting classroom training	4.17 (n=85)	4.26	4.12	0.23	N.S.
Writing policy related papers	3.01	2.98	3.39	1.04	N.S.
Preparing budgets	2.54 (n=85)	2.55	2.67	0.09	N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

3 Means with different superscripts indicated.

TABLE 27

THE EXTENT TO WHICH TRAINING IS RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1,2}

Function	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=86) ³	Some University (n=47)	University Degree (n=18)		
Handling interpersonal disputes	3.31 (n=85)	3.57 (n=49)	3.22	1.61	N.S.
Drug investigations	4.13	4.08 (n=49)	4.06	0.09	N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	4.21	4.27 (n=48)	4.50	1.17	N.S.
Identification	4.59	4.83 (n=48)	4.78	3.10	.0482
Computer crime investigations	4.56 (n=85)	4.59 (n=46)	4.56	0.02	N.S.
Hostage negotiations	4.50	4.63	4.39	0.93	N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	4.15 (n=85)	4.23	4.00	0.64	N.S.
Investigating property crime	3.67	3.66	3.67	0.00	N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	3.80	3.76	3.72	0.08	N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	3.56 (n=85)	3.47	3.44	0.22	N.S.
Writing incident reports	3.84	3.74	3.72	0.22	N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	3.88 ^a	3.84 ^a (n=44)	3.33 ^b	3.12	.0471
Conducting classroom training	4.24 (n=85)	4.19	3.82 (n=17)	1.99	N.S.
Writing policy related papers	3.87	3.83	3.67	0.36	N.S.
Preparing budgets	3.88	3.72	3.56	0.86	N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

duties, that it is the role of the police to deal with this function, and that the order maintenance functions as well as serving and assisting the public is a source of job satisfaction.

TABLE 28

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE ROLES AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1, 2}

Question	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=89) ³	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=18)		
Most police activity is spent on order maintenance	3.98	4.00	4.12	0.46	N.S.
Police should not deal with order maintenance	1.52 (n=88)	1.60 (n=47)	1.67	0.67	N.S.
Police should serve and assist the public	4.14 (n=88)	3.96 (n=47)	4.00	0.89	N.S.
Main police role is crime control	3.31 ^a (n=84)	3.10 ^{ab} (n=48)	2.72 ^b	2.90	.0581
Order maintenance role is satisfying	3.61 (n=84)	3.73 (n=48)	3.72	0.52	N.S.
Helping citizens feels good	4.27 ^a	4.15 ^{ab}	3.89 ^b	3.12	.0470

¹ 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Disagree.

² Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

³ Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

Job and Career Satisfaction as a Function of the Respondents' Level of Education

Table 29 compares the three education groups on career and job satisfaction. There were no significant differences among the three

TABLE 29

JOB AND CAREER SATISFACTION AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION^{1,3}

Question	Mean Rating			F	P
	No University (n=89) ⁴	Some University (n=49)	University Degree (n=18)		
Police career is unrewarding	2.58	2.57	2.53 (n=17)	0.02	N.S.
Feel good knowing we have some impact on crime	4.13 (n=88)	4.06 (n=47)	4.00	0.29	N.S.
Personal identity as a police officer is strong	3.39 (n=88)	3.15 (n=47)	2.94	1.22	N.S.
Police work is discouraging	2.81 (n=84)	2.88 (n=48)	2.44	1.28	N.S.
Wonder why I remain in police work	2.39 (n=83)	2.42 (n=48)	2.17	0.36	N.S.
Police career is fulfilling	3.98 (n=88)	3.96 (n=47)	3.72	0.64	N.S.
Level of career satisfaction ²	1.93 (n=88)	1.98 (n=47)	2.00	0.07	N.S.
Level of job satisfaction ²	2.01 (n=88)	2.06 (n=47)	1.89	0.22	N.S.

1 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2 1 = Very Satisfied, 2 = Satisfied, 3 = Neither Satisfied/Unsatisfied, 4 = Unsatisfied, 5 = Very Unsatisfied.

3 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

4 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

groups. Across the education groups, the respondents on average stated that their careers were rewarding and fulfilling, indicating that they were satisfied with their police career. Generally, the respondents did not question why they chose or remain in police work. The respondents overall further indicated that they were satisfied with the day to day work they do as a police officer and that police work is not discouraging.

Attitudinal Differences Between Force A and Force B

A potential source of variance in police research is the effect the specific police organization may have on the respondents' answers to the dependent measures. That is, apart from the respondents' level of education, there may exist cultural influences within each police force that affect responses. Therefore, it is important to examine possible force effects on the dependent measures. In this study, however, such an analysis would be confounded because there is a significantly higher proportion of university educated respondents in Force A than in Force B. This difference itself may also reflect a difference of organizational cultures. Analyses partialling out education from the two forces would not be effective since there is virtually no university degree effect in Force B. Therefore, the education effect would mask any differences between the two forces. An analysis finding differences between the forces would most likely be attributed to education.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Review

This study has attempted to bring some order to the issue of university education for police officers. Many police administrators have argued university education would help policing achieve higher status and a more professional image. Recently, police researchers and administrators have suggested that a university education would give police officers a broad and liberal outlook, that a higher education would elevate one's understanding of society and human behaviour thereby enhancing performance, and that university education should be a requirement for promotion to the managerial levels as is common in many other professions. The literature, to date, however, does not provide conclusive evidence of a positive relationship between higher education and performance. There has also been a lack of research examining the effects of higher education on individual police officer attitudes and beliefs.

Two major issues examined in this study were the individual officers' level of education and career orientation. The impact of these independent variables on attitudes toward promotion, the police role and performance were of particular interest.

As a result of the literature review, five career orientations were identified as being associated with police work. These five career orientations were a derivation of the Cherniss (1980) and Walsh (1977) career typologies. Career orientation refers to the way in which individuals adapt to their work. It includes personal and work related goals, personal interests, perceived job functions, and career

aspirations and rewards. It was proposed that attitudes toward university education vary according to career orientation. Individuals of a particular career orientation may have different perspectives on education for police work. The five career orientations included: Self Investors, Careerists, Specialists, Enforcers, and Social Activists.

Self Investors are primarily concerned with their personal lives rather than their work. Their job provides them with a source of economic security and stability. This is not to say that they are not loyal to their job, but rather, these individuals try to maintain a balance between it and their personal lives. They do not want job demands to interfere with family and personal goals and well being. Career advancement and challenging work are not priorities in their lives.

Careerists are interested in recognition and advancement. Prestige, respect, and financial progress are important to them. They believe that they can make worthwhile contributions at the managerial levels. They work hard, trying to impress supervisors who control the advancement of their careers. They actively seek out ways of improving themselves in order to get ahead. They are interested in credentials, and often compare themselves with other candidates with respect to competition for promotion.

Specialists are primarily interested in doing good work according to their own standards. They prefer challenging jobs which provide new experiences and require the use of their technical or specialized skills. Promotion and financial success are less important than engaging in work that interests them. They want their jobs to provide them with an inner sense of accomplishment.

Enforcers enjoy the investigative aspects of police work. Their work provides them with a sense of excitement. For these individuals, police work involves gathering evidence and solving crimes. These individuals receive a sense of satisfaction when they apprehend criminals and obtain convictions. Financial security is not as important to them as fighting crime.

Social Activists are more interested in improving society. Their major career motivation is to help people. Police work does not solely encompass law enforcement, but also includes a strong public assistance role. Personal status and job security are not important to these individuals.

In addition to the five career orientations described, it was proposed that one's level of education would be related to one's attitude toward education. The respondents were categorized into one of three levels of education: no university, some university, or university degree.

It was suggested in the literature review that level of education and career orientation were both products of socialization. That is, educational achievement and career orientation may be a result of contact with reference groups (Shibutani, 1968; Hyman, 1942). It was further suggested that situational influences may be directly related to one's career orientation. Prior research (Becker, 1963 and 1961; Hughes, 1958) indicates that career orientation may be influenced by the length of time spent on a career and the events that occur during that time. Therefore, reference groups and career stage may influence level of education and career orientation, consequently affecting attitudes toward education for police work.

The Effect of Socialization on Level of Education
and Career Orientation

Before examining the specific hypotheses, it would be beneficial to discuss the effect socialization has on level of education and career orientation since acceptance or rejection of some of the hypotheses may be explained with reference to the socialization process.

The data in this study provided evidence that one's level of education was related to one's reference groups. Respondents who had earned a university degree more commonly had university graduates in their immediate family than did those with some or no university education. In addition, those with university degrees received more encouragement from their families to pursue higher education. The data further suggested that the attitudes of the senior management of one's police force may be related to whether or not an individual will pursue a higher education and, in turn, function as a reference group. The respondents from Force A indicated that management strongly encouraged members to pursue university education. Force B respondents indicated that their force management encouraged members to obtain a university education to a significantly lesser degree. Barring the fact that Force A actively recruits university graduates, the amount of encouragement management has given its members to obtain a university education may account, in part, for the higher proportion of university educated police officers in that force since more individuals may be inclined to enroll in a university. Although the evidence to support this statement is statistically weak ($p = .07$), there is some indication that there is a higher proportion of police officers from Force A who are presently attending university. Further, with the higher proportion of university educated police officers available as a reference group in Force A, officers without a

university education may be more inclined to enroll in university courses.. There is evidence to suggest, therefore, that reference groups are related to level of education, which, in turn, may influence attitudes toward university education for police work.

Consistent with the literature on career stages, the data provides some evidence to suggest that police officers change their career orientations over time. Table 10 shows that the more common career orientations when people enter police work are Social Activists, Enforcers and Specialists. Few begin their career as Self Investors or Careerists. The data presented in Table 11, however, shows that after at least five years of service, few individuals remain as Enforcers or Social Activists.

Consistent with Burke's (1984) findings, it was found that some of the Social Activists may have burned out realizing that the helping role that they had adopted was hampered by limitations that they could not control. Their quest to bring about social change was long and frustrating. Perhaps as a result of not being able to bring about desired changes, the Social Activists changed their career orientation. Similarly, Enforcers may have become frustrated and discouraged in their attempts at fighting crime. Like the Social Activists, the Enforcers may have adapted to their situation by changing their career priorities and as a result, their career orientation. Alternatively, some Social Activists and Enforcers may not have been able to readjust and resigned.

As well as adapting to situational circumstances, some Social Activists and Enforcers may have adopted new reference groups. These new reference groups may also influence their career orientation through socialization. Some Social Activists and Enforcers may have been socialized into becoming Careerists valuing prestige, promotion, and

becoming police managers. Some may have adopted reference groups who valued specialized work and may have been socialized into becoming Specialists. Depending on the reference group, the specialty that an individual prefers may vary. Others may not believe that they have the qualifications to become Careerists or Specialists, or may not be willing to make the effort, and instead identify with a reference group who are Self Investors.

It is not only Social Activists and Enforcers who reorient their careers. Those who entered as Self Investors, Careerists, or Specialists may adopt a new, more suitable career orientation. Careerists who perceive that they have a poor chance of being promoted may become Self Investors. Self Investors may realize that their promotion qualifications are good and become Careerists. The findings suggest that one's career orientation is not necessarily static, but rather, may change depending on the situations one encounters and the person's current reference group.

This study presented nine hypotheses concerning the impact level of education and career orientation have on the perceived value of education with respect to promotion, job performance, job and career satisfaction, and the respondents' perception of the police role.

Career Orientation as Related to Career Aspirations

The data did not support the hypothesis that Careerists aspire to a higher rank than other career orientations. Contrary to expectation, the respondents from all career orientations generally desired promotion to a higher rank. The Careerists did aspire to a higher ultimate rank than the Self Investors and Social Activists, but the Careerists did not significantly differ from the Specialists or Enforcers. In addition, the

Self Investors and Social Activists did not significantly differ from the Specialists and Enforcers. Overall, the Careerists, Enforcers and Specialists expressed the desire to reach the Inspector to Staff Inspector rank. Self Investors and Social Activists expressed the desire to reach the Staff Sergeant to Inspector level. Overall, the respondents believed that they deserved promotion.

A number of explanations may account for the lack of support given to the hypothesis that Careerists aspire to a higher rank than other career orientations. While Careerists desire promotion for the recognition, prestige, and to become police managers, Enforcers and Specialists are likely to desire promotion for different reasons. Promotion may be the way by which these individuals obtain entry into a particular kind of work. Enforcers desiring investigative type work such as CID (Criminal Investigation Division) may be required to become detectives which are Sergeant level jobs. These individuals may eventually wish to run a division and lead investigations requiring an even higher rank (e.g., Inspector). Specialists may be in a similar position to the Enforcers since entry to a specialized field may require higher rank.

Contrary to expectation, Self Investors also desired promotion and career advancement. The Self Investors may recognize that their qualifications for promotion are below that of the others, but this does not mean that they do not desire advancement. What it does suggest is the possibility that the Self Investors have adapted to their current situation and have lowered their career expectations. To compensate for this, the Self Investors have shifted their priorities from career to family and personal lives. Although a desire for promotion may still remain, career advancement no longer becomes a priority but becomes instead a secondary goal. The hope of being promoted, however, still remains, and

if the opportunity arises where promotion becomes available, they will accept it. If a promotion is not offered, these individuals have adjusted themselves in such a way that the impact or disappointment of not receiving promotion is not as great as for those who greatly desire advancement.

Social Activists may be similar to Self Investors in their desire for promotion but it is possible as the data suggests that they have come to believe that their perceived qualifications for promotion will not help them advance. Instead, these individuals have adjusted to the limitations of their work which accounts for the high level of job and career satisfaction they expressed.

Interestingly, Careerists strongly believe that their promotion qualifications will pay off, more so than the Self Investors. The university educated Careerists may believe that their education will help them advance while those without university education may believe that other qualifications will help them advance. The Self Investors, on the other hand, despite their qualifications, believe that their qualifications will not pay off. These beliefs may be part of the reason that these individuals adopt their particular career orientation.

Career Orientation as Related to University Education and Performance

Contrary to the expectation that Social Activists would consider education to be more beneficial to the performance of police functions than the other career orientations, no significant differences were found among any of the career orientations. This may be partly attributed to the surprisingly low number of university educated individuals found among the Social Activists. It was predicted that Social Activists would have a higher proportion of university educated officers and that their

education would affect their style of policing. Also, it was believed that due to their policing style, Social Activists would perceive university education as a method with which to enhance performance. The lack of university educated Social Activists found in the data, however, suggests that the individuals who remain in this career orientation believe that they can fulfill this role despite their education.

In addition, it was concluded from the literature that Specialists would place more value on education for certain facets of police work than the other career orientations. The data in this study does not support this hypothesis. Most members seem to recognize that in certain cases, a university education is beneficial. Therefore, it may be safely stated that career orientation is not related to the perceived value of education with respect to performance of police functions.

Career Orientation as Related to Order Maintenance

Contrary to the hypothesis that Social Activists would place more value on the order maintenance functions of police work than the other career orientations, no statistically significant differences were found among any of the career orientations. This finding may not mean that the Social Activists are any less oriented toward order maintenance than what was originally believed. Social Activists may still have different priorities. What the findings do suggest, however, is that while those espousing different career orientations do not value order maintenance to the same degree, they all still believe that it is an important aspect of police work. These individuals recognize that police work does not solely encompass law enforcement. In addition, it may be said that Social Activists recognize the importance of the law enforcement facets of police work.

Career Orientation as Related to Career Satisfaction

The data do not provide evidence to support the hypothesis that compared with other career orientations, Self Investors would have a lower level of career satisfaction. Compared with the other career orientations, however, the Self Investors did indicate that their career was less rewarding. This may be due to the discouragement and fading prospects for promotion that categorize this career orientation.

As a result of the literature review, it was believed that the majority of Self Investors were made up of the "burned out" Social Activists and Enforcers, the Careerists who recognized that their chances for advancement were limited, and those individuals who entered police work primarily for job security. Considering that these individuals would not find their career rewarding and the earlier findings by Burke (1984) that Self Investors had a low level of career satisfaction, it was believed that the Self Investors in this study would suffer the lowest level of career satisfaction. The data indicated otherwise.

The reasons the high level of career satisfaction were encountered may differ among the career orientations. The high level of career satisfaction found in the data by the Self Investors may be due to the age group of respondents examined in this study. Given the relative youth of the sample as a whole, most Self Investors were young, and although they see their prospects for promotion as being lower than the others, they still believe that promotion in the future is possible. They have not been hit by the full impact that career advancement may no longer be attainable. Other studies such as Burke (1984) or McGinnis (1988b) have examined a full range of service lengths and found that as age or seniority increases, especially for those who are Self Investors, career satisfaction decreases. It may be further possible that the high

level of career satisfaction found in this study was related to the reference group concept along with the readaptation process that may occur during one's career. Those individuals who began as Social Activists and Enforcers who became disillusioned with police work may have changed their priorities and concentrated instead on personal interests and family. Their lives no longer centered around their work which they now consider as a source of financial income and security. These individuals may have adjusted themselves around this orientation and within these career expectations became satisfied with their outcomes. The individuals who began their careers as Careerists, primarily interested in career development and advancement, but recognizing that promotion was out of reach, may have adopted a reference group more closely resembling themselves. As suggested by the Reference Group Theorists (Shibutani, 1968; Hyman, 1942) these individuals come to identify with other Self Investors noting the similarities between their qualifications for promotion. As a result of this process, these individuals believe that the outcomes they received for their perceived qualifications are equitable. Adapting to these lower expectations, these individuals become satisfied with their careers. Their job becomes a source of financial security while they center their interests on family and personal well being.

The individuals presently identified as Careerists may display a high level of career satisfaction because they still believe that their chances for promotion to their desired rank is high. The Careerists identified in this study still believe that they have a number of years ahead in which they will be considered promotable. Given that this study concentrated on those with less than 14 years of service, they have not yet reached the stage in their careers where they feel that promotion

opportunities are numbered. These individuals have not faced disappointment with their careers, and their optimistic outlook accounts for their level of career satisfaction.

The Specialists are content with their careers as they are either in the line of work they desired or perceive themselves as entering it in the future. As suggested by Hughes (1958) and Becker (1961), those who are presently Social Activists or Enforcers may have adapted to the limitations encountered in their work. Within these limitations, they are content with their job and the future their career holds for them.

In any event, if an individual becomes dissatisfied with the present situation, this individual may adapt by changing career orientations. A consequence of one not changing career orientation may be a low level of career satisfaction.

Level of Education as Related to University Education for Promotion

The data provided strong support for the hypothesis that university graduates would weigh education more heavily in their ideal promotion scheme than non graduates. The data clearly show that respondents who did not have a university degree did not believe that university education should be considered for promotion. Compared to the university graduates, the non graduates assigned very little weight to education as a weighting factor for promotion. Further, compared to the university graduates, the non graduates placed more emphasis on performance, experience, and length of service measures for determining promotion eligibility.

There were, however, some unanticipated results. While the initial conclusion drawn from the results was that university graduates believed university education should be weighed more heavily in promotion than non

graduates, the university graduates' base mean rating indicated that they neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. This suggested that university graduates were on average ambivalent while non graduates firmly disagreed with the statement. Further exploration of the data, revealed that a bimodal distribution pattern existed among the university graduate respondents. The reason this difference in opinion exists, may be partly due to the respondents career orientation, length of service or career stage, age, reference groups, and/or whether or not their education was obtained prior to becoming a police officer.

University educated Specialists or Careerists may perceive more value to university education than Self Investors since Specialists or Careerists are more interested in promotion. University education, therefore, becomes a relevant input for the Specialists and Careerists. Length of service or career stage may affect a university graduate's perception of university. Officers with longer tenure may place less value on education because they may have retained the older traditional force philosophies from their time of joining and these did not support university education. Obtaining a university education prior to joining may affect the officers' perception of university education for promotion for a number of reasons. First, some individuals attend university with the belief that their education will help them get ahead. Apart from interest, this is the reason they went to university. Second, university graduates have not as yet been socialized into a police culture which has typically not highly valued formal education, in fact has been hostile towards it. As a result, they may enter police work believing that education should be recognized for advancement. Officers who obtained their degree after joining the force, may recognize that it is a method by which to get ahead, but they may still retain their old organizational

cultural beliefs and actually perceive education as irrelevant for promotion.

The culture of the force may influence an individual's beliefs concerning the relevance of education for promotion. The data suggested that management in Force B does not strongly encourage its members to obtain a university education; nor does the force actively recruit university graduates. Therefore, few officers from this force may pursue a university education since the force's culture is not one that advocates the need for university education for job performance or promotion. When university graduates join this force, two contrasting possibilities may occur. Consistent with Equity Theory, they may note that they have academic qualifications that are greater than those of most members in the force. They may believe that given this quality and the extra effort they have made in obtaining their education, that education is a relevant input for promotion. They may retain this belief throughout their careers. If promotion never arises, they may believe that the system treated them inequitably. Another possibility consistent with the socialization process, however, may occur. Given the small number and low power of university educated officers, such officers may come to believe that a university education is not a relevant input for promotion. In fact, they may come to believe that university education is irrelevant to policing at all since their colleagues seem quite capable of performing their jobs. Support for either of these two explanations, however, is limited since an inadequate number of university graduates was obtained from Force B to conduct statistical analyses.

Management at Force A strongly encourages officers to obtain a university education. They have a policy of actively recruiting

university graduates into their force. Due to the higher number of university educated police officers in this force, education may no longer be perceived as a unique qualification for getting ahead. Individuals may recognize that education is necessary but not sufficient for career advancement in this force.

The consequence of introducing education as a factor for promotion may lead to feelings of inequity by those officers who are not university educated, since they do not perceive it as a relevant input. This was clearly expressed when the mean score for the non graduates indicated that university graduates should not get advancement priority and in the mean score for the belief that university graduates receive undeserved advancement.

Feelings of inequity may result for those university graduates who perceive education as a valuable input and who believe that their education is not being recognized and rewarded. Those who spent three or more years earning a university degree prior to becoming a police officer may believe that they are entitled to some type of reward such as accelerated advancement. An officer interviewed at the Canadian Police College having obtained a degree prior to joining the force noted that he lost three years seniority not to mention pay by attending university prior to joining. Further, this officer believed that he could have been promoted sooner at a younger age had he not spent three years in university since promotion is often heavily based on seniority. In a sense, this officer felt cheated by the system.

Further, it is possible that university educated officers believe that the knowledge obtained in a university setting is beneficial at the managerial levels and that they are better qualified than non university educated officers to perform at these ranks.

It is possible, however, that if a university educated officer is socialized into a group of officers who do not perceive education as valuable, the university graduate will also not perceive education as a relevant input and believe that a system stressing education is inequitable. This explanation may be reason, in part, that the data indicated some university graduates perceived university education as irrelevant for promotion. Instead, these individuals may start placing more value on the traditional promotion factors considered more appropriate by non graduates such as experience, seniority, and performance.

It is also worth noting that the Self Investors and Enforcers, who on average had a lower level of education believed that little consideration should be given to education for promotion to Sergeant. This may be related to their desire to aspire to at least this rank, a rank with which a high proportion of police officers desire (McGinnis, 1988), given their education. McGinnis (1988b) has noted that if promotion is not forthcoming, many officers believe that others will see them as failures or losers. Social Activists, despite their lower level of education did weigh education heavily for promotion to Sergeant. This attitude may be related to their orientation and personal career goals. Although it may be desired, advancement may not be a priority for these individuals.

Level of Education as Related to University Education and Performance

The data provided strong support to the hypothesis that university graduates would consider university education to be more beneficial in the performance of police functions than non graduates. The belief

system of the university graduates, however, was not as positive as anticipated. The university graduates in most cases did not indicate that university education was beneficial for performance. Instead, the mean scores indicated that they exhibited either less disagreement compared to the non graduates or expressed neither agreement nor disagreement. University graduates did indicate that education was related to the performance of certain police functions more so than the non graduates, but the university graduates did not rate education as highly as the attributes of common sense, training, experience, and personality and attitude. The belief, therefore, may be that university education only supplements the other attributes.

The low emphasis placed on university education by the graduates may be attributed to socialization and job experience. The respondents may have adopted reference groups who do not perceive any value to education for police work. University graduates may begin to identify with this belief and incorporate it into their value systems. Further, the graduates in their day to day work may not see the need for a university education and come to believe that it is indeed irrelevant. They may be failing to recognize, however, that some of the qualities that they have acquired through the university atmosphere is actually being put to use on the job. They may not realize that, as suggested by some police researchers (McGrath, 1978; Sherman, 1978; Weiner, 1974; Berkley, 1969), they have a better understanding of certain situations or are handling these situations differently and perhaps more appropriately. This process, however, because it has become an ingrained part of the individual, is not apparent. The individual may not recognize that certain qualities in their character may be the result of a university education.

Level of Education as Related to Order Maintenance

The data did not support the hypothesis that university graduates would perceive more value to the order maintenance functions of police work than non graduates. It is possible that university educated individuals are more oriented towards the order maintenance role, but the results suggest that all police officers recognize that this function is an important and appropriate function of police work.

Level of Education as Related to Job Satisfaction

It was hypothesized that university graduates would display a higher level of job satisfaction than non graduates. They were expected to see their job from a broader and different perspective. From the literature review, it was believed that educated officers would be less discouraged by the limitations encountered on the job and appreciate the intrinsic rewards that come along with the job such as the ability to help others. Contrary to expectations, there were no significant differences found among the three levels of education.

One's career orientation may account for the finding that all respondents indicated a high level of job satisfaction. Despite their education, it has been seen that individuals will seek a career orientation which is best suited to their present situation. One's career orientation is related to the way in which one perceives one's job. By adopting a career orientation the individual is comfortable with, job satisfaction will be high.

Level of Education as Related to Career Satisfaction

It was hypothesized that university graduates would have a higher level of career satisfaction than non graduates. It was believed that

university graduates felt that given their qualifications, they had a good chance for promotion and career development. The non graduates were thought to be more susceptible to dissatisfaction with their career believing that advancement opportunity was limited. The results did not support this hypothesis.

Non university educated officers who desire promotion believed that they still have a good chance to be promoted. This belief may be strengthened if they see other non graduates advance. They have not been subjected to the disappointment of being passed over. In addition, some individuals without a degree may not aspire to promotion or career advancement. They are content with their present position. University graduates who desire advancement also believe that their chances for promotion are high and that their careers will progress as expected. It is important to note, that both the graduates and non graduates still consider themselves highly promotable because they still have many years left to serve in which promotion is possible. They do not share the views of older officers who have not been promoted. McGinnis (1988) has noted that such individuals are less satisfied with their careers. The lack of older police officers in this study precludes giving a great deal of weight to this finding.

Implications

This study has provided evidence that one's level of education is related to one's attitude toward education for police work for both promotion issues and job performance. It was also suggested throughout this paper that one's attitude may be the result of socialization. Socialization, therefore, may be partial reason that university graduates endorse university education more strongly than non graduates. The data shows

that the majority of those who earned degrees did so prior to becoming police officers. They entered police work from a culture whose peers were students strongly endorsing the value of university education. Therefore, they may enter police work believing that university education is beneficial for the job, and that the work put into obtaining their degree should be recognized in the promotion process. This conclusion is based on Equity Theory and the evidence presented in this study provided strong support to this notion. The data showed that non graduates did not perceive education as a viable factor for promotion whereas university graduates indicated stronger support to education. Further, non graduates indicated that graduates were receiving undeserved accelerated advancement, an expression of inequity. Surprisingly two groups of university graduates were found, those who strongly supported university education for promotion, and those who did not. Therefore, the amount of inequity felt by the university graduates would depend on which group they fell into. That is, those who value university education highly for promotion would believe the system is inequitable if education is not considered in the promotion process. Those who do not value it as strongly would not perceive the system as inequitable.

One question which did arise from this study concerned the reason that the university graduates fell into the two distinct groups mentioned above. The explanation suggested was that the respondents in this study have been police officers for some time and that they had reference groups and career orientations that either supported or did not support university education. Therefore, the socialization process that they encountered as police officers may have played a major role in forming their perceptions about education. Since the vast majority of police officers do not have a university degree, adopting these non university

educated individuals as a reference group may influence the university graduates' belief systems whereby they may begin to perceive less value to education. Still, since their education was obtained prior to becoming a police officer, the university graduates may be more resistant to changing their views and still perceive more value to university education than the others. In addition, some graduates may have retained some of their older university educated peers as a reference group or have adopted university educated police officers as a new reference group.

There was no clear cut pattern displayed by the respondents having some university. These individuals tend to side randomly with the no university or university degree respondents throughout the study and occasionally fell somewhere in between the two groups. Most of those with some university have obtained their education while serving as police officers. They have already been socialized into a police culture which generally does not advocate the need for university education. Attending a university may not affect their belief systems since they have already identified with their present police culture. Interestingly, it would seem that these individuals have come to recognize that if they wish to get ahead, a university education may increase their chances.

The pattern that emerges from this study is apparent. Those who do not have any university education do not perceive it as having any value for either job performance or promotion. Those with some university education recognize that a university education may help them advance, but again do not strongly perceive it as a relevant input at the operational or managerial positions. University graduates are divided on this issue. Approximately half strongly believe that university

education is a relevant qualification for promotion, whereas the other half does not. Although, the mean rating for this group shows that they perceive university education as being more valuable for promotion consideration and job performance than the non university educated group.

One's career orientation does not seem to be related to attitudes toward university education, although, there may be circumstances where one's career orientation is an important factor. Careerists would seem to be a highly competitive group with respect to promotion. Due to the low number of university graduates, the study could not examine this issue, but it would be worthwhile to conduct a study on Careerists and break this career orientation down into the three levels of education and examine how each level values education with respect to promotion. More pronounced results may be obtained from a study of this nature providing stronger support to Equity Theory. As seen from the Equity Theory Formula, the desired output for the Careerists, that is, promotion, is high. Despite their actual qualifications, if they perceive that their expected rewards are not forthcoming for what they perceive are relevant qualifications, the feeling of inequity may be high. Alternatively, Self Investors have lowered their outputs recognizing that their perceived inputs are low. By doing this, equity for these individuals may be restored resulting in higher career satisfaction.

Certain conclusions and explanations were drawn from this study which warrant further investigation. Some of the conclusions related to the socialization process in this investigation were based on past studies and theories and not with direct evidence produced by this study. This investigation did, however, lay a foundation for further research into the socialization process in police work. Further studies could examine more extensively the socialization process encountered in

policing. This would include asking police officers the reasons they chose certain career orientations at various times and the reasons they perceive university education as being valuable or not valuable in various facets of policing. It would also be worthwhile to ask questions concerning one's reference groups in order to determine the demographics of the individuals one identifies or associates with. These questions would provide direct evidence as to the influence reference groups have on one's career orientation and level of education.

Past research has indicated that Self Investors are primarily dissatisfied with their career. This study indicated otherwise. One reason suggested was that the length of service range of the respondents was limited. Therefore, it would seem that further investigation into this area should examine a wider length of service range in order to determine the effect length of service has with career satisfaction.

This investigation concluded that although Social Activists were more oriented toward order maintenance functions, overall, all respondents believed that order maintenance was important. Further studies could explore the desirability for police officers in each career orientation to perform order maintenance functions. This may better test the hypothesis that Social Activists are more order maintenance oriented than the others.

The low number of university graduates hampered many of the analyses intended for this study. For instance, ideally two-way ANOVA'S would have been performed in order to examine education effects within each career orientation. The method by which the sample was obtained ensured to a high probability that the sample represented a cross section of the two forces surveyed. This in itself proved valuable as it served as an indicator as to the demographic structure of the two forces. It would

now seem appropriate, however, to control for the number of university educated and non university educated officers selected in future research. That is, potential subjects should be categorized into the various levels of education desired to be studied, and from each of these educational groups, an equal number of subjects should be randomly selected. This would enable the researcher to better analyze statistically the results obtained. Such a modification in the subject pool of the present study would have allowed the researcher to draw certain conclusions such as examining differences between Force A and Force B university graduates. As was suggested earlier, the attitudes of university graduates toward university education may be contingent on certain force philosophies. Where there are a higher number of university graduates as is the case in Force A, attitudes toward education may differ from that of forces where there are few graduates such as in Force B. No firm conclusion could be drawn from this study concerning this issue.

The present research was limited in that it was primarily interested in examining those who were at a career stage during which promotion was a salient issue. It would now seem that a study of police officers over a wider range is warranted. This would include surveying police officers from time of recruitment to retirement and at all ranks. It would also be worthwhile to examine one's past and present duties along with their desired postings. In addition to career orientation and level of education, the study would be able to explore length of service and rank effects. As well, the study would be able to take into account one's past, present, and desired postings in order to better understand how career paths may affect career satisfaction or one's attitude toward education. This would enhance generalizability to other police officers.

An interesting observation made from this study is that despite the clamour for recruiting educated police officers, the data shows that few graduates are entering police work. Studies should be conducted to investigate the reasons for this. If it is found that police work is not attracting university graduates, perhaps policy changes in policing are warranted encouraging graduates to join.

The attitudes police officers hold toward university education may stem from some genuine and realistic concerns they have with their career. Some officers, especially those who are more senior and less educated may not appreciate that university education is being forced upon them as a solution to enhance their image, especially if these officers are more traditionally oriented where higher education is not perceived as relevant. Lesser educated officers may perceive university education as a threat to their careers, much like the situation encountered in corrections as described in the literature review. On the other hand, some university educated officers may believe that their education is not helping them advance their careers, and perceive the system as unjust. In both cases, morale and career satisfaction may be adversely affected.

Considering the state of affairs policing is in today, as long as police administrators perceive education as a method by which to professionalize the service and enhance its image, higher education will remain in the forefront as a possible solution. This is not to say that university education will necessarily bring about a more efficient and responsive police service. It makes little sense to expect that a multitude of higher educated police officers alone will automatically produce a better police organization. A better educated police force may, however, increase public confidence in the service and in effect,

gain higher respect. The problem, therefore, is to find a method by which all police officers will come to accept university education as beneficial for both themselves and police work. This will not be achieved if police administrators solely advocate education as the panacea to upgrade and correct the problems encountered in policing. Police administrators must realize that they must consider higher education as only one of numerous strategies for improving the quality of police service, that is, education must be seen as a factor complimenting the others. It is this view that must be conveyed to the rest of the police organization. This way, all police officers may come to appreciate the true value of higher education.

APPENDICES

DISCUSSION REGARDING THE RESEARCH DESIGN

VARIABLES

Classification Variables

In many social science experiments, the independent variables are not treatment variables but are in fact classification variables; "that is, subjects are classified according to a characteristic which was present prior to the conduct of the experiment and did not result from the manipulations of the investigation" (Ferguson, 1981, p. 230). Classification variables are often used in ex post facto research. The different values or categories of the variable are often referred to as levels. This way, we may have two, three, or more levels of a factor. The respondents in an investigation, therefore, may be categorized by such factors as their type of occupation or level of education. No treatment by the researcher is involved. In this type of investigation, it is not possible to randomly assign subjects to experimental groups. Randomization is not possible because the attribute which determines which group the subject will fall into is not controlled by the researcher.

A situation involving classification variables may be recognized when:

the sample of subjects used may be a random sample drawn from a defined population, and the proportions in the various classes, or strata, may within the limits of sampling error, correspond to the population proportions. The object of the investigation is to describe relations between the classification variable and some other variable. An investigation of this type is, in effect, not an experiment at all, but a correlational study.

(Ferguson, 1981, p. 230).

This situation accurately describes the present investigation.

The classification variables used in this study were chosen as being related to the attitudes a police officer may have toward university education. One's career orientation along with one's level of education address the specific concerns of this research as being the fundamental correlates to a police officer's attitude toward education.

Three levels of education were used to examine the response variables in this investigation. These three levels include: 1. those respondents not having completed any university courses (labelled No University), 2. those respondents having less than 3 completed years of a university education (labelled Some University) and 3. those respondents having completed at least 3 years of university (labelled University Degree).

There were two reasons for collapsing the educational levels into these three categories. The first pertained to the primary interests of this research, that being, to explore the differences in attitude toward education between police officers having a university education with those who do not. This interest, however, is not reason enough to justify using these three levels. It is possible that significant relationships exist within each level of education. This leads to the second reason for selecting these levels. Preliminary analyses revealed certain patterns among the educational levels before they were collapsed into the three levels used. High school and community college education were collapsed into one level as the preliminary analyses showed no significant differences among the high school and community college levels on the response measures. Further, of those respondents who had taken any university courses, preliminary analyses revealed no overall significant differences among those respondents having less than 3 years of university education. This left a third level, those respondents

having completed at least 3 years of university. Collapsing education into these three levels allowed for an increased n for each educational level, resulting in more significant ANOVA'S. It also allowed the researcher to make better sense of the patterns found.

Response Variables

Response or dependent variables are influenced by the classification variables. In this investigation, the response variable may be described as the attitudes toward university education with respect to such factors as promotion and job performance.

In order to measure this construct, the questionnaire was designed to explore the reactions to statements about education in relation to policing. The questionnaire further contained statements regarding the importance of job seniority and work experience in order to put the attitude toward education variables into some perspective.

Confounding Variables

Ideally, changes in the response variable should clearly and unequivocally reflect the effects of the classification variable. Unfortunately, this is not always the case. There are numerous instances when factors other than those intended as part of the experiment have been introduced and have confounded the interpretation of experimental outcome. Quite often, certain factors related to a person's background (independent of occupation) will influence his attitudes. For this reason, a short series of demographic variables are included in this research. Certain factors in one's occupation may be related to attitudinal constructs and, therefore, a series of occupation variables have been included. In addition, police attitudes may derive from

occupational socialization (Skolnick, 1966). Therefore, a series of reference group variables have been included. These relate to how significant persons or groups may influence the respondents' attitudes toward education.

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Level of Measurement

The level of measurement is determined by the type of data collected in an experiment, and in turn, determines the statistical technique used to analyze the data. There are four levels of measurement possible (Glass and Stanley, 1970).

The nominal level is considered as the lowest level of measurement since it makes no assumption whatsoever about the values being assigned to the data. Each value is seen as a distinct category and the value itself simply serves as a label. No attempt is made to determine if one category is larger or smaller than the other, to rank order the categories or to determine the distance between categories (eg., sex, marital status).

The ordinal level is achieved when it is possible to rank order all of the categories according to some criterion, without making references as to the distance between categories (eg., rank, education).

The interval level of measurement, as well as being able to rank order the categories, has the property that distances between categories are set in terms of fixed and equal units. There is, however, no fixed zero point (eg., the attitude toward education variables).

The ratio level has the property of the interval scale with the addition of a fixed zero point as part of the measurement format (eg., age, length of service).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of Variance is a statistical technique used to test the significance of the differences between the means of a number of different populations (Ferguson, 1981). For instance, this study is concerned with examining the differences in attitude toward education (the response variable) among the three levels of educational attainment (the classification variable). The ANOVA will tell us how likely it is that the differences found among the three educational levels are just random variation not of a magnitude that requires explanation, as opposed to being of a magnitude that reflects something really different about the groups.

Analysis of Variance is based on the assumption that the samples are chosen randomly in order to be representative of the population. Assuming that there is a relationship between the classification variables and response variables, the ANOVA is used to determine whether the relationship is significant or if it may have occurred by chance. In this study, the researcher has chosen only one sample from the population. It is possible, that it is just a chance occurrence that a sample has been drawn where a relationship has been found to be significant. At the outset, then, a confidence interval or parameters of acceptability must be established by which to retain or reject a given relationship. Social science research generally accepts .05 as a legitimate level of significance; which is to say that a given relationship could have occurred by chance only five times out of 100. Stated differently, one can say that the chances are 95 percent or greater than 19 out of 20, that there is a statistically significant difference between the groups on a classification variable.

In this study, the ideal statistical technique would have been a two way or Factorial Analysis of Variance. This involves the introduction of a second classification variable. Instead of examining the respondents' level of education alone, the analysis would also include the respondents' career orientation. This way, it would be possible to examine the interaction effects level of education and career orientation have on the response variable. Kerlinger (1973) describes the two-way ANOVA as follows:

In a one-way analysis, we simply say, if p, then q: if such and such methods, then so and so outcomes. In factorial analysis, however, we utter richer conditional statements. We can say if p, then q and if r then q, which is tantamount to talking about the main effects in factorial analysis We can also say, however, if p and r, then q which is equivalent to the interaction of [classification variables]. Interaction can also be expressed by: If p, then q under condition r.

(p. 258).

Within the scope of the two-way ANOVA, we can identify factors affecting the response variable as being either 1. the main effects (variable A or variable B), or 2. the interaction effect (variable A X variable B).

In order for the two-way ANOVA to be valid, the sample must be of sufficient size so that an adequate number of respondents fall into the different levels of education-by-career orientation categories. The present study does not meet this criterion. There are three levels of education by five levels of career orientation resulting in 15 possible combinations or cells. Due to an insufficient number of respondents having university degrees, all of the cells could not be adequately filled rendering a two-way ANOVA invalid. Therefore, only one-way ANOVA'S could be performed separately on the education and career orientation variables.

Duncan's New Multiple Range Test

When more than two levels of a classification variable exist (such as with the level of education or career orientation variables), it is often useful to employ a multiple comparison procedure to determine which means significantly differ from each other. This technique is ordinarily a probing technique used after a significant F value has been found on the ANOVA. Duncan's New Multiple Range Test is probably the most popular procedure used in the behavioural sciences (Glass and Stanley, 1970). The following example demonstrates the way in which this test was used for this study.

The classification variable, level of education, has three categories: no university, some university, university degree. Suppose these three levels are compared on the response variables X, Y and Z with the following results:

Response Variable	No University	Some University	University Degree	F	pl
X	4.12	4.06	4.00	.29	NS
Y	2.61 ^a	2.12 ^b	1.83 ^b	8.06	.0005
Z	4.14 ^{ab}	4.27 ^a	3.89 ^b	3.12	.05
1. Means with the same or no superscripts do not significantly differ.					

Superscripts are used in order to specify which means are significantly different from each other. For response variable X, no significant differences exist among the three means as indicated by the lack of superscripts. For variable Y, those respondents with some university and with a degree do not significantly differ from each other, but both these levels do significantly differ from those respondents with no

university. For variable Z, those respondents with some university significantly differ from those with a university degree, but both these groups do not significantly differ from those respondents with no university education.

Chi Square

In many experimental situations, the nature of the data may be such that we are required to compare a set of observed frequencies with a set of theoretical frequencies to determine if significant differences exist among groups rather than comparing the means of different groups as is done in the ANOVA. The observed frequencies are those obtained empirically by direct observation or experiment. The theoretical frequencies are generated on the basis of some hypothesis or line of theoretical speculation which is independent of the data at hand (Ferguson, 1981). The question to be addressed is whether or not there lies a significant difference between the observed and the theoretical frequencies. In this context, the null hypothesis states that no significant differences exist between the observed and theoretical frequencies. If the observed frequencies differ significantly from the theoretical frequencies, the null hypothesis is rejected, and in turn, so is the theory that gave rise to the theoretical frequencies. The theoretical frequencies are usually referred to as the expected frequencies. This is the frequency the researcher would expect to get if the particular theory in question were true. As in the ANOVA, the level of significance generally accepted is .05.

Correlation Coefficient

The data under consideration in this event consists of pairs of observations or measurements; that is, we have two observations or

measurements for each member of a group. Such data are called bivariate data. Examples include height and weight or IQ and scholastic performance. The essential feature of such data is that one observation or measurement can be paired with another observation or measurement for each member of that group. The correlation coefficient (r) assesses the extent of the relationship between the two variables. This value can range from -1.00 through 0 to +1.00. A positive correlation indicates that as one variable increases, so does the other. Positive correlations may be found between height and weight or training and performance. The value r , then, describes the covariance between two variables, that is, to what extent and in what direction does a change in the value of X result in the value of Y .

CAREER ORIENTATION DESCRIPTIONS

SELF
INVESTOR

I enjoy my career as a police officer, although I ensure that there is a balance between it and my personal life. A major motivation in my career as a police officer is to have a good source of financial security. Off the job interests such as family, personal interests and well being are a major source of pleasure for me. I do not want job demands to interfere with my personal life. I am not particularly striving for promotion.

CAREERIST

I am interested in recognition and advancement in my police career. Prestige, respect, and financial progress are important to me. I feel that I can make a worthwhile contribution at the managerial levels. I work hard at my job in order to make a good impression on superiors who might control the advancement of my career. I study hard for exams and seek out training or education opportunities if I think they will help me get ahead.

SPECIALIST

I value the opportunity to do good work according to my own standards. I prefer jobs that provide challenge, new experiences, and the development of my technical or specialized skills. Promotion and financial success are less important than the opportunity to be involved in work that interests me.

ENFORCER

I enjoy the enforcement aspect of police work. I feel a sense of excitement when pursuing a case. Gathering evidence and solving crimes is what policing is all about to me. I achieve a sense of satisfaction by apprehending criminals and obtaining convictions. Financial security is not what drew me to police work.

SOCIAL
ACTIVIST

I feel that as a police officer, I am contributing to improving Canadian society. I feel that police work not only encompasses law enforcement but also includes a strong public assistance role (settling disputes, assisting victims, etc.). Personal status and job security are not my primary motivations. My major career motivation is to help people.

APPENDIX C

LETTER TO THE CHIEF OF POLICE

CANADIAN POLICE COLLEGE



COLLÈGE CANADIEN DE POLICE

BOX (C.P.) 8900 OTTAWA, CANADA K1G 3J2
(613) 993-9500

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

TO: Chief of Police

FROM: S.H. Schultz
Director
Canadian Police College

SUBJECT: CAREER DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

As you are no doubt aware, the Canadian Police College frequently conducts studies of issues related to the Canadian police community. In conjunction with the knowledge and expertise of the staff and other resource persons available to the College, it is advantageous to obtain input from the Canadian police community at large.

For some time now, the College has been concerned with the development of police careers. The Research and Program Development Branch is now conducting a study of factors associated with police attitudes toward promotion.

Mr. L. Buckley, who has been associated with the College for several years, will be conducting this project on our behalf, as part of a program of academic studies under the guidance of Drs. J. McGinnis and G. Booth. Part of this project will involve distributing questionnaires regarding attitudes toward careers and promotion to force members. Your cooperation and participation in the conduct of this study would be appreciated.

The College would like to target those members below the rank of sergeant in your force who have between 5 and 15 years of service. We are requesting that you provide us with a list of officers in your force who fall into this category.

A questionnaire, which may be completed at their own convenience, will be mailed for distribution directly to individual members. Their participation will be completely voluntary, although, your endorsement of it would be appreciated. As the College has no interest in linking responses to

.../2

individual members, the questionnaire was designed so that the anonymity of the respondents can be assured. Further, since the College is seeking the participation from more than one force, we can also assure force anonymity.

Should you be willing to assist us in this project, I would ask that a member be designated as a liaison officer. Once you have identified a member of your force to serve as project liaison officer, he or she should contact Dr. Jim McGinnis at (613) 998-0794 or Dr. Gordon Booth at (613) 998-0797 to discuss the logistics of the study. ✓

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for whatever cooperation you can provide with this project.

S.H. Schultz, C/Supt.
Director
Canadian Police College

APPENDIX D

COVERING LETTER FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

CANADIAN POLICE COLLEGE



COLLÈGE CANADIEN DE POLICE

BOX (C.P.) 8900 OTTAWA, CANADA K1G 3J2

(613) 993-9500

Your file Votre référence

N275-93

To: _____

Our file Notre référence

From: S.H. Schultz, C/Supt.
Director
Canadian Police College

Subject: Career Attitude Survey

The Canadian Police College offers courses related to police manager development (e.g., Senior Police Administration Course and Executive Development Course) and many of the technical aspects of police work (e.g., Identification Methods and Techniques Course, Polygraph Examiners' Course, and Police Explosives Technicians' Course) to members of the Canadian police community. In order to discharge this function, the Canadian Police College frequently conducts studies of issues of concern to members of the police community.

For some time now the police community has been concerned with the development of police careers. The Research and Program Development Branch of the College has undertaken to conduct a study of factors associated with police attitudes toward careers. This project will be conducted by Mr. L. Buckley, who has been affiliated with the College for several years, under the guidance of Dr. Gordon Booth, who is a Canadian Police College Research Officer.

To complement the knowledge and expertise of the persons available to the College, it is advantageous to obtain input from the police community in general, and from police force members in particular. This particular study is designed to permit you, as a member of a few selected police forces, to express your opinions about current career related issues. Therefore, it would be appreciated if you would take the time to respond to the enclosed questionnaire and return it to the Canadian Police College.

.../2

As the College has no interest in linking responses to either the individuals or to the police forces involved, the questionnaire was designed so that your anonymity can be assured. To further protect your anonymity, and that of your force, any report which might appear as an article in the Canadian Police College Journal, or used in conjunction with a program of academic study, will be based on aggregate data only. For example, while information regarding the opinions of persons in various age groups may be presented in reports, the way in which the data will be collected ensures that no individual within any force can be identified.

Since this covering letter is the only part of this package that clearly identifies you, it is important that you remove it prior to returning the completed questionnaire. Should you have any questions about the questionnaire, or if you require assistance, please contact Dr. Gordon Booth at (613) 998-0797.

Thank you for the time and attention you are able to give to this study.

S.H. Schultz, C/Supt.
Director
Canadian Police College

Attachment - Questionnaire and Envelope

APPENDIX E

THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

CANADIAN POLICE COLLEGE



COLLÈGE CANADIEN DE POLICE

BOX (C.P.) 8900 OTTAWA, CANADA K1G 3J2

(613) 993-9500

CAREER ATTITUDE SURVEY

Your file

Votre référence

PART A

Our file

Notre référence

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Although you may complete this questionnaire anonymously, some background information is desired so that the results can be reported in more depth. This reporting will be in group form only - for example: Police officers with 5 to 10 years of service indicated that ... ; Police officers of constable rank felt that In each question, please check off the appropriate information which relates to you.

1) Age (in years):

18-20	_____	31-35	_____	46-50	_____	61 or over	_____
21-25	_____	36-40	☒	51-55	_____		
26-30	_____	41-45	_____	56-60	_____		

2) Sex:

Male _____
Female _____

3) Marital status:

Married _____
Not Married _____

4) Number of children:

None _____
1 _____
2-3 _____
4 or over _____

- 5) Years of service as a police officer (please include service in all forces if you served in more than one):

Less than 2	_____	16-20	_____
3-5	_____	21-25	_____
6-10	_____	26 or over	_____
11-15	_____		

- 6) Present assignment (eg., patrol, CID, drugs, administration, ident., etc.): _____

- 7) Type of force:

Municipal	_____
Regional	_____
Provincial	_____
R.C.M.P.	_____

- 8) Education (please check highest level completed)

Less than grade 11/12 (junior matriculation) _____

Grade 11/12 (junior matriculation) _____

Grade 12/13 (senior matriculation) _____

Community College: 1st year _____

2nd year _____

3rd year or greater _____

University: 1st year _____

2nd year _____

3rd year _____

4th year _____

5th year or greater _____

9) a) Diplomas or degrees obtained (please specify)

College diploma _____
Bachelors _____
Bachelors (Honours) _____
Masters _____
Doctorate _____

b) Please specify the field in which these diplomas/degrees were earned: _____

10) If you do not have a full year of university, have you completed any courses offered by a university:

Yes _____ No. of courses _____
No _____

11) If you have taken any university courses, what percentage of these courses have been taken while serving as a police officer

0% _____
25% _____
50% _____
75% _____
100% _____

12) What type of courses have you studied:

Criminal Justice related _____
General Arts _____
Social Science _____
Computer Science _____
Science and Engineering _____
Business/Administration _____
Other (please specify) _____

13) Are you presently taking university courses?

Yes _____
No _____

- 14) If you have taken university courses since joining your force, what were your primary motivations?

NOT AT ALL SOMEWHAT VERY MUCH

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) General interest in the subject; | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2) To get credit from my force for improving my abilities with regard to promotion consideration; | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3) To prepare for a second or other career; | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4) To help me do a better job as a police officer. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- 15) Are any members in your immediate family (parents, brother(s), sister(s), spouse) university graduates?

Yes _____

No _____

- 16) To what extent have you been encouraged by your family members to pursue a university education?

Greatly discouraged _____

Somewhat discouraged _____

Neither encouraged nor discouraged _____

Somewhat encouraged _____

Greatly encouraged _____

- 17) To what extent is a university education encouraged by the management in your Force?

Greatly discouraged _____

Somewhat discouraged _____

Neither encouraged nor discouraged _____

Somewhat encouraged _____

Greatly encouraged _____

18) To what extent is a university education encouraged by those members that you consider as your peer group?

Greatly discouraged _____
Somewhat discouraged _____
Neither encouraged nor discouraged _____
Somewhat encouraged _____
Greatly encouraged _____

19) Who has been the greatest influence on your attitudes (positive or negative) toward a university education? (please check one only)

Your family _____
Your spouse or companion _____
Your self _____
Your high school peers _____
Your fellow officers _____
Your force's management _____
Other (please specify) _____

Please continue on the next page.

PART B

CAREER ORIENTATION

INSTRUCTIONS (Please read carefully)

On the following page you will find five different descriptions of how most people have oriented themselves to police work. Your orientations may have changed since you first entered policing. Therefore, in the **LEFT HAND** column, please number in order of importance these five descriptions from 1 to 5 for when you first joined the force. Assign a 1 to the description that most accurately described your career orientation, then a 2 to the second closest, a 3 to the third closest, a 4 to the fourth, and 5 to the description least like you.

7 In the **RIGHT HAND** column, please number these descriptions again in order of importance from 1 to 5 with regard to how similar they are to you at the present time. Assign a 1 to the description most like you, a 5 to the description least like you and 2, 3, and 4 to those that fall in between.

Example:

When First Joined		At Present Time
<u>3</u>	A) I enjoy my career ... for promotion.	<u>5</u>
<u>4</u>	B) I am interested in ... get ahead.	<u>4</u>
<u>2</u>	C) I value the opportunity ... interests me.	<u>1</u>
<u>1</u>	D) I enjoy the enforcement ... to police work.	<u>2</u>
<u>5</u>	E) I feel that as a police ... to help people.	<u>3</u>

NOTE: You may or may not agree with the order of importance placed on the career orientations in this example. These are only shown to demonstrate how to complete this section of the questionnaire.

Please continue on the next page.

When First
Joined

At Present
Time

- _____ A) I enjoy my career as a police officer, although I ensure that there is a balance between it and my personal life. A major motivation in my career as a police officer is to have a good source of financial security. Off the job interests such as family, personal interests and well being are a major source of pleasure for me. I do not want job demands to interfere with my personal life. I am not particularly striving for promotion.
- _____ B) I am interested in recognition and advancement in my police career. Prestige, respect, and financial progress are important to me. I feel that I can make a worthwhile contribution at the managerial levels. I work hard at my job in order to make a good impression on superiors who might control the advancement of my career. I study hard for exams and seek out training or education opportunities if I think they will help me get ahead.
- _____ C) I value the opportunity to do good work according to my own standards. I prefer jobs that provide challenge, new experiences, and the development of my technical or specialized skills. Promotion and financial success are less important than the opportunity to be involved in work that interests me.
- _____ D) I enjoy the enforcement aspect of police work. I feel a sense of excitement when pursuing a case. Gathering evidence and solving crimes is what policing is all about to me. I achieve a sense of satisfaction by apprehending criminals and obtaining convictions. Financial security is not what drew me to police work.
- _____ E) I feel that as a police officer, I am contributing to improving Canadian society. I feel that police work not only encompasses law enforcement but also includes a strong public assistance role (settling disputes, assisting victims, etc.). Personal status and job security are not my primary motivations. My major career motivation is to help people.

PROMOTION AND ADVANCEMENT

INSTRUCTIONS.

The following statements reflect a variety of attitudes about promotion and advancement. Please read each of the following statements. Consider the extent to which you agree or disagree with it. Then circle the letters at the right that correspond to your opinion.

The letters mean: SD - Strongly Disagree
D - Disagree
NAD - Neither Agree nor Disagree
A - Agree
SA - Strongly Agree

-
- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|-----|---|----|
| 1. Factors such as length of service and loyalty to the force should be given primary consideration for promotion. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 2. Today, police departments should be giving priority to the hiring and advancement of university graduates. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 3. A dedicated officer with 5 years service is usually just as loyal as a 20 year officer. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 4. In most Canadian police forces today, university educated officers are receiving undeserved preferential treatment in terms of advancement. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 5. Experience, hard work, and long loyal service should be rewarded through advancement and promotion opportunities. Police forces should not ignore these qualities to promote younger, less experienced officers just because they possess a university degree. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 6. The extra effort a university educated officer has put into developing his abilities should be recognized by the police force by weighing education heavily in the promotion system. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 7. Much police activity and time is taken up with attending to public disputes, traffic, rowdiness, noise, interpersonal conflicts and disorder. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |

8. University educated police officers are likely to think too much. This is an "action" profession and instincts are more important than education. SD D NAD A SA
9. All other things being equal, female candidates have a definite advantage over male candidates in likelihood of advancement and promotion. SD D NAD A SA
10. There is a lot of truth to the statement that many veteran officers have one year's experience repeated twenty times. SD D NAD A SA
11. Beyond recruit training a patrol officer has nothing to learn in a classroom. The street and his fellow officers will teach him all he needs to know. SD D NAD A SA
12. Many police officers feel threatened by university graduate officers and therefore exclude them from their circles. SD D NAD A SA
13. A university education makes a police officer more effective by exposing him to different ideas which makes him more aware of what goes on around him and gives him different perspectives on problems and potential solutions. SD D NAD A SA
14. A university education is a valuable asset that contributes to the overall value of the force. SD D NAD A SA
15. Police officers should be encouraged to obtain a university education to both upgrade themselves and help make their force more professional. SD D NAD A SA
16. Since a police force benefits from promoting university educated people they should advance those who make the effort to educate themselves by weighing education heavily in the promotion system. SD D NAD A SA
17. All this education stuff is overdone. In this force each member is judged on his merits regardless of his formal education. SD D NAD A SA
18. The notion of loyalty is just a smokescreen to promote the most senior people. SD D NAD A SA
19. Policing as a career is not as rewarding as I thought it would be. SD D NAD A SA

20. In terms of education for police officers, the minimum force requirement (grade 12) is sufficient in keeping with the role we perform. SD D NAD A SA
21. The only education a police officer needs can be found on the street and will come with experience. SD D NAD A SA
22. Police should not have to deal with attending to public disputes, traffic, rowdiness, noise, interpersonal conflicts and disorder. SD D NAD A SA
23. Many university educated officers feel superior to the non-university educated officers. SD D NAD A SA
24. In order to function in a complex society with increasing expectations on police, patrol officers should possess a university education. SD D NAD A SA
25. All the importance recently placed on education for police officers is strictly a political exercise, thought up by politicians and academics, and has little to do with day to day police work. SD D NAD A SA
26. An essential aspect of the role of the uniform patrol officer is to serve and render assistance to the public. SD D NAD A SA
27. We may not be able to solve all of the world's crime problems but I still feel good knowing that we are having some impact. SD D NAD A SA
28. The commitment to police professionalism is just as strong among officers who do not possess a university education. SD D NAD A SA
29. My personal identity as a police officer is very strong. I can hardly imagine myself in any line of work other than policing. SD D NAD A SA
30. Overall, my career as a police officer has been personally fulfilling and satisfying. SD D NAD A SA
31. My qualifications for promotion have not yet paid off, but I am confident that they will. SD D NAD A SA

32. Too many people have lost sight of the fact that the primary responsibility of the police is to control crime through enforcement and investigation. SD D NAD A SA
33. Despite our efforts, it is discouraging to see that we, the police, are having so little impact on crime. SD D NAD A SA
34. It is satisfying to deal with the public on a person to person human level and to help keep order in the city by attending to public disputes, traffic, rowdiness, noise, inter-personal conflicts and disorder. SD D NAD A SA
35. I have quite often wondered why I chose or remain in police work. SD D NAD A SA
36. Although we can't stop all crime, I still feel good whenever we have a positive impact by calming or consoling victims of crime, or helping other members of the community with their problems. SD D NAD A SA

Please continue on the next page.

EDUCATION

INSTRUCTIONS

The following statements are 8 assertions that have been made about university education for police officers. Consider the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Then circle the letters after it that tell how you feel.

The letters mean: SD - Strongly Disagree
D - Disagree
NAD - Neither Agree nor Disagree
A - Agree
SA - Strongly Agree

-
- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|-----|---|----|
| 1. University educated police officers are better able to understand the complexity and range of human behaviour. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 2. University educated police officers are better able to tolerate differences and ambiguities. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 3. University educated police officers are better able to understand the causes of crime and the nature of deviance. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 4. University educated police officers are better prepared to evaluate a difficult and sensitive situation and arrive at a balanced judgement. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 5. University educated police officers are more flexible, less hostile, less prejudiced, less authoritarian, and less cynical. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 6. University educated police officers have an advanced knowledge in special areas of police work that can only be derived from university training. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 7. University educated police officers are more willing to take initiative, experiment, and use a step by step method to process information and arrive at decisions. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |
| 8. University educated police officers are better able to exercise leadership. | SD | D | NAD | A | SA |

EDUCATION AND RANK

INSTRUCTIONS

Below various ranks are listed. Please provide your opinion as to what extent a university education should be considered in promotion to these ranks. Circle the number that best categorizes your opinion.

The numbers mean:

- 1 - To no extent
- 2 - To a little extent
- 3 - To some extent
- 4 - To a great extent
- 5 - To a very great extent

	<u>NONE</u>		<u>SOME</u>		<u>VERY GREAT</u>
1. Corporal	1	2	3	4	5
2. Sergeant	1	2	3	4	5
3. Staff Sergeant	1	2	3	4	5
4. Inspector	1	2	3	4	5
5. Superintendent	1	2	3	4	5
6. Deputy Chief	1	2	3	4	5
7. Chief	1	2	3	4	5

Please continue on the next page.

DESIGNING A PROMOTION POLICY

INSTRUCTIONS

If you had the opportunity to allocate a total of 100 points for the factors shown below in the promotion policy of a police force, how would you allocate these points? Please ensure that the total is 100. Your response may range from (1) giving 100 points to one of the factors and zeros to the rest, (2) to giving roughly equal points to all six, or (3) to any combination of points that totals 100.

Performance Appraisal _____

Examinations _____

Oral Interview Board _____

Education _____

Seniority _____

Research Paper (Essay) _____

Other (please specify) _____

TOTAL 100

Please continue on the next page.

JOB SATISFACTION

INSTRUCTIONS

The following questions deal with promotion and job satisfaction. Please read each statement and check the appropriate response which reflects your feelings for each question below.

1. How do you feel toward future promotion to the next rank.
 - a) I very much want to be promoted. _____
 - b) I want to be promoted. _____
 - c) I will accept a promotion if it is available. _____
 - d) I have little interest in being promoted. _____
 - e) I have no interest in being promoted. _____
2. To what extent do you feel deserving of a promotion at this time.
 - To no extent _____
 - To a little extent _____
 - To some extent _____
 - To a great extent _____
 - To a very great extent _____
3. What is the highest rank you would like to reach: _____
4. What is the probability that you will reach that rank:
 - a) 0% _____
 - b) 20% _____
 - c) 40% _____
 - d) 60% _____
 - e) 80% _____
 - f) 100% _____
5. At which rank do you expect to retire: _____
6. It is common that at a certain length of service, people are considered "passed over". For how many more years will you be considered promotable before you reach a stage of being passed over:
_____ years.

7. During those prime promotion years, what is the probability that you will be promoted to the next rank?

- a) 0% _____
- b) 20% _____
- c) 40% _____
- d) 60% _____
- e) 80% _____
- f) 100% _____

8. What is your level of satisfaction with your overall career as a police officer.

- a) Very satisfied _____
- b) Satisfied _____
- c) Neither satisfied nor unsatisfied _____
- d) Unsatisfied _____
- e) Very unsatisfied _____

9. What is your level of satisfaction with the day-to-day work you presently do:

- a) Very satisfied _____
- b) Satisfied _____
- c) Neither satisfied nor unsatisfied _____
- d) Unsatisfied _____
- e) Very unsatisfied _____

Please continue on the next page.

JOB PERFORMANCE

INSTRUCTIONS

Various attributes such as experience, common sense, university education, personality and attitude, and training have been linked to the ability to perform various job functions. Please indicate the extent to which you feel each attribute is related to the ability to perform each duty by circling the appropriate number for each of the five attributes on the following pages.

The numbers mean: 1 - To no extent

2 - To a little extent

3 - To some extent

4 - To a great extent

5 - To a very great extent

Example:

	EXPERIENCE	COMMON SENSE	UNIVERSITY EDUCATION	PERSONALITY & ATTITUDE	TRAINING
0					
Driving Instructor	1 2 3 <u>4</u> 5	1 2 <u>3</u> 4 5	1 <u>2</u> 3 4 5	1 <u>2</u> 3 4 5	1 2 3 <u>4</u> 5
Director of Police College	1 2 3 4 <u>5</u>	1 2 3 <u>4</u> 5	1 2 3 <u>4</u> 5	1 <u>2</u> 3 4 5	1 2 <u>3</u> 4 5

NOTE: You may or may not agree with the ratings in this example. These are shown to demonstrate how to complete this section of the questionnaire.

Please continue on the next page.

Please circle the number which corresponds to the extent to which you feel each attribute is related to the ability to perform each function.

The numbers mean:

- 1 - to no extent
2 - to a little extent
3 - to some extent
4 - to a great extent
5 - to a very great extent

FUNCTION	EXPERIENCE	COMMON SENSE	UNIVERSITY EDUCATION	PERSONALITY & ATTITUDE	TRAINING
1. Handling interpersonal disputes	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2. Drug investigations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3. Commercial crime investigations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4. Identification	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5. Computer crime investigations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6. Hostage negotiations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7. Investigating serious crimes against persons	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8. Investigating property crime	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9. Investigating crimes involving public morality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10. Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11. Writing incident reports	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12. Interviewing witnesses and victims	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
13. Conducting classroom training	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14. Writing policy related papers	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
15. Preparing budgets	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Thank you very much for your responses as they are an important contribution to the career attitude study. Now, please ensure that the covering letter has been removed. Place the completed Questionnaire into the envelope provided and drop it into the nearest mailbox.

APPENDIX F

FOLLOW UP LETTER TO THE RESPONDENTS

CANADIAN POLICE COLLEGE



COLLÈGE CANADIEN DE POLICE

BOX (C.P.) 8900 OTTAWA, CANADA K1G 3J2
(613) 993-9500

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence
N275-93

87 12 08

Déar Constable _____

About two weeks ago you received a questionnaire entitled Career Attitude Survey. Since it was to be completed anonymously, we have no way of knowing whether your questionnaire is among those that have been returned. If you have returned the questionnaire you received, thank you very much for your cooperation and for your participation in this study.

In the event that you have not returned the questionnaire, or if you have been on leave, etc., we would appreciate it if you would take a few minutes to complete and return the questionnaire.

Thank you.

Yours truly,

J.A. Gordon Booth, Ph.D.
Research Officer
Research and Program
Development Branch
Canadian Police College

APPENDIX G

THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF PERFORMING RESEARCH
WITHIN A POLICE ORGANIZATION

The conduct of research on the police involves a number of obstacles which may hinder the efforts of researchers outside the police organization. A major problem encountered by researchers is the characteristic secrecy of both the police organization in general and its personnel individually (Van Maanen, 1978). Certain activities of the police require confidentiality in the performance of their work. Operational policies may require the need for secrecy in order that criminals not learn about them and get an opportunity to foil police operations. Certain information, therefore, may be inaccessible to the researcher.

Police research may be further restricted due to the suspicious nature that police organizations and individual police officers hold toward academics and outside agencies. Antipathy toward and distrust of the academic researcher is a problem - real or imagined - in many police departments (Van Maanen, 1978). The researcher is sometimes seen as a social critic who is subversive and out to display the organization in a negative fashion. This belief may be further reinforced when research such as Ericson's (1981), Making Crime: A Study of Detective Work, negatively criticizes the activities of the police. Independent and outside researchers, therefore, are rarely welcome by police forces. Further, behavioural scientists have often appeared at police departments, administering a battery of questionnaires and tests, recognizing various problems concerning the organization, and coming up without solutions.

This experience has left police administrators with the impression that social science research is useless, irrelevant, and unintelligible (Van Maanen, 1978). The research is also seen as an inconvenience and an imposition on police personnel.

The police often tend to distrust the motives behind any type of investigation. The organization itself may fear that certain potentially embarrassing and illegal activities may be exposed. Police administrators may worry about the resulting image of their organization. Individual police officers may believe that individual results on tests and questionnaires will be reported to their superiors (even when assured anonymity). This may lead to reluctance and lack of cooperation on the part of police departments and police personnel to participate in any type of research when approached.

Police officers are quite often reluctant to allow outsiders into their fraternity. They feel that a person has no business studying them unless they belong to the club (Van Maanen, 1978). The argument is that unless the researcher knows what it is like to be a police officer, the researcher has no business studying them since the researcher does not understand the problems the police encounter. The only way to understand them is to be a police officer.

Van Maanen (1978) notes how difficult it is to gain access to study a police department as an outside researcher. He believes that unless the researcher has an inside connection, gaining access is very difficult. When he asked a number of forces for permission to study them, he found that not having an inside connection created a number of problems. In some instances, letters asking for permission to study the department were not answered. Sometimes answers were given, but were non committal. Many departments gave him the run around. Even when permission was

granted to study a force by the management, the individual police officers were not cooperative and at times difficult to convince to participate.

A further example where outside researchers face lack of cooperation by individual police officers can be seen in the poor response rate experienced by Kiedrowski, (1983) who had a mere 21 percent return rate when he surveyed the Brampton police force.

A number of methods may be used to enhance the cooperation by police forces (Van Reenen, 1983).

1. Gather as little data as possible from the police. This would require that the researcher obtain much of his information from other sources such as previously published reports.
2. Gather data which evokes little resistance. This would involve asking non threatening questions or using methods of gathering data which require little effort on the part of the police. This, however, may restrict the questions asked and important research questions may not be addressed. Van Reenen (1983) believes that this would mean that the research would soon become superficial.
3. Persuade police management to cooperate. This in many cases is not difficult. Having the cooperation of the management, however, is quite often insufficient. Not all of the opposition has been alleviated. The nature of the research now becomes important (Van Reenen, 1983). Where police performance is the

topic of concern, gaining the cooperation of individual police officers may be difficult.

4. Approach the police through influential institutions such as other police organizations. Institutions such as the Canadian Police College who have a good relationship with various police departments may quite often enhance the cooperation received by police departments in terms of soliciting information.
5. Involve police personnel in the research. Better cooperation may be obtained by police departments if they believe that someone from within the police organization is involved in the research since they have better trust in their own.

Using these five methods may help alleviate some of the suspiciousness held by police departments and its personnel, and in turn, may provide a method by which to deal with the secrecy surrounding police organizations. There is the suggestion that in order to break through the barriers of a closed and distrustful police culture, it is important that the researcher be known and trusted. In terms of gathering data, an internal researcher has the advantage of encountering less resistance in obtaining information. On the other hand, theory oriented research may suffer since police departments are interested in policy and operational matters, not theory. Further, there remains a problem in that internal researchers are controlled by the management and certain issues are sometimes not allowed to be examined and, therefore, certain results and conclusions are not drawn.

In order to enhance the cooperation of both the police departments surveyed and the individual police officers, this research was conducted under the auspices of the Canadian Police College. The researcher presented a statement of the research problem to the Research and Program Development Branch of the Canadian Police College who then agreed to provide support for the study.

The advantages that came along with conducting this research through the Canadian Police College, however, were not without some costs. A number of disadvantages were incurred, which, along with the advantages obtained deserves some attention.

Van Reenen (1983) has summarized a number of advantages and disadvantages encountered by researchers when working within and outside of police organizations. Many of them pertain to this research. According to Van Reenen (1983) external researchers are at a disadvantage because they tend to have

less insight in the specific policy problem... [have] less influence in the policy, less grip on the policy, ... and the research takes longer.

(p. 17)

Internal researchers are at a disadvantage because they have

less role autonomy, less independence, ... [and] are less objective and neutral in the approach to the problem, ... [and] the management can easily ignore the research results.

(Van Reenen, 1983, p. 17)

External researchers, however, have the advantage that they have a

more objective, independent way of thinking and/or approach, ... [have] greater role autonomy, [are] not as easy to influence, ... [have] more expertise, [and have] more specialized knowledge.

(Van Reenen, 1983, p. 17)

Internal researchers are at an advantage in that they have

more insight in the subject matter, better formulation of the problem, ... [have] more contacts, better communication with the person who ordered the research, ... [and have a] higher level of implementation of the results.

(Van Reenen, 1983, p. 17).

Many of the hindrances and restrictions described were encountered while performing the present research at the Canadian Police College. Quite often, the research was detained due to "bureaucratic red tape". Approval to do the research had to go through a number of levels from approaching a research officer, then obtaining permission from the branch manager, to obtaining approval from the Director of the Canadian Police College. By working within the confines of the Canadian Police College, the researcher was pressured to make certain concessions which affected both his professional freedom and integrity. Approval of the survey instrument was required at various levels resulting in delays with its implementation. Certain questions were censored and not permitted to be included on the questionnaire because Canadian Police College officials believed that these questions were of a personal and threatening nature which might adversely affect the return rate. This resulted in pertinent background information concerning the respondents' reference groups being left out and some important policy and research questions not being fully addressed.

A further problem encountered was that the Canadian Police College in the official letters accompanying the questionnaire (see Appendices C and D) did not give an entirely accurate representation of the role of the principal researcher. For example, the researcher was identified not as a university student but only as an affiliate of the Canadian Police College. All correspondence to the police forces portrayed the research as a Canadian Police College endeavour (which it certainly was in part).

without mentioning that the study was being carried out as a Master's thesis. This was done on the professed basis that to do otherwise might discourage cooperation by police officials and reduce the response rate.

Despite the disadvantages encountered at the Canadian Police College, certain advantages were obtained as well. Letters asking the Chiefs of Police of each department permission to survey their force was signed by the Director of the Police College which may have enhanced the likelihood that the police departments would cooperate. Further, the Director signed the covering letter of each questionnaire requesting the cooperation of the individual police officers. In addition, all correspondence, including the letters to the Chiefs of Police, the covering letters, and the questionnaires used the Canadian Police College letterhead. Seeing this may have led to an increase in cooperation by the participants resulting in a higher response rate. Working within the Canadian Police College also allowed the researcher access to a number of resources which may not have been available to outside researchers such as internal reports. In addition, the researchers at the College offered advice on what forces to stay away from (because they had just received a number of questionnaires from other studies) and were better able to identify forces which would be best suited for this study (for example, they had the knowledge that certain forces endorsed university education). Further, experienced police research staff well-informed on police issues were available to give advice on the questions that should be asked on the survey and issues that should be addressed.

Working within a police organization, therefore, is a tradeoff. Certain limitations and restrictions are imposed on the researcher. On the other hand, the researcher has improved access to information which would not otherwise be available to him.

APPENDIX H

TABLES OF THE CAREER ORIENTATION RESULTS

TABLE 30

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION, LENGTH OF SERVICE, LOYALTY, AND EXPERIENCE FOR PROMOTION AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Question	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=42) ³	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=39)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=9)		
Length of Service and Loyalty Should Be Considered Heavily	3.14	2.83	2.85	2.93	3.00	0.47	N.S.
University Graduates Should Get Advancement Priority	1.89	2.34	2.31	2.14	2.22	1.90	N.S.
University Educated Get Undeserved Advancement	3.50	3.21	3.24 (n=38)	3.21	3.22	0.51	N.S.
Force Should Reward Experience, Hard Work and Long Loyal Service	4.36	4.28	4.44	4.36	4.00	0.53	N.S.
University Education Should be Weighed Heavily	2.21	2.59	2.26	2.86	2.33	1.72	N.S.
Force Should Reward University Educated	2.17	2.48	2.23	2.62 (n=13)	2.11	1.09	N.S.

1 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 31

THE WEIGHTS GIVEN TO PROMOTION COMPONENTS AS A FUNCTION OF THE
RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION¹

Promotion Component	Mean Rating					F.	P
	Self Investor (n=41)	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=38)	Enforcer (n=12)	Social Activist (n=9)		
Performance Appraisal	34.89	34.83	34.74	36.25	30.00	0.30	N.S.
Examinations	18.54	19.83	19.34	20.00	21.11	0.25	N.S.
Interview	14.63	13.03	14.87	13.75	16.11	0.54	N.S.
Education	11.95	11.21	11.45	9.00	12.22	0.59	N.S.
Seniority	15.12	13.52	13.03	12.67	11.11	0.86	N.S.
Research Paper	2.68	2.24	2.90	2.08	4.44	0.51	N.S.
Other Points	1.95	5.35	3.16	6.25	5.00	0.88	N.S.

¹ Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

TABLE 32

THE EXTENT TO WHICH EDUCATION SHOULD BE CONSIDERED FOR PROMOTION TO VARIOUS RANKS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Rank	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=42) ³	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=38)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=9)		
Corporal	1.50	2.00	1.81 (n=37)	1.62 (n=13)	2.11	2.03	.09
Sergeant	1.60 ^b	2.17 ^{ab}	2.00 ^{ab}	1.71 ^b	2.33 ^a	3.14	.017
Staff Sergeant	2.10	2.52	2.34	2.36	2.56	1.22	N.S.
Inspector	2.64	3.14	2.89	2.79	3.22	1.49	N.S.
Superintendent	3.19	3.59	3.08	3.36	3.78	1.46	N.S.
Deputy Chief	3.60	4.10	3.53	3.93	4.11	1.50	N.S.
Chief	3.69	4.21	3.66	4.07	4.22	1.41	N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 33

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION, LENGTH OF SERVICE AND LOYALTY FOR POLICING AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Question	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=42) ³	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=39)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=9)		
Loyalty and Dedication	2.83	2.96 (n=28)	2.87	2.93	3.11	0.18	N.S.
Veterans	2.33	2.48	2.41	2.46 (n=13)	2.89	0.63	N.S.
Education is Not Overemphasized	2.20 (n=41)	2.34	2.38	3.00 (n=13)	2.67	1.63	N.S.
Loyalty is a Promotion Smoke Screen	2.29	2.17	2.23	2.46 (n=13)	2.67	1.15	N.S.
University Educated Feel Superior	3.32 (n=41)	3.03	2.74 (n=38)	2.86	2.88 (n=8)	1.97	N.S.
Police Education is a Political Exercise	2.78 (n=41)	2.34	2.39 (n=38)	2.71	2.50 (n=8)	1.45	N.S.
University Education has Overall Value For Policing	3.43	3.55	3.56	3.69 (n=13)	3.33	0.35	N.S.
University Education Upgrades and Professionalizes	3.21	3.79	3.38	3.46 (n=13)	3.78	2.06	.089
Police Professionalism	4.54	4.41	4.45	4.36	4.13 (n=8)	0.64	N.S.

1. 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2. Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3. Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 34

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE FOR JOB PERFORMANCE AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Question	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=42) ³	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=39)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=9)		
Instincts are More Important Than Education	2.81	2.41	2.62	2.92	2.56	1.11	N.S.
Recruit Training and Street Education is Enough	1.71	1.41	1.62	1.69 (n=13)	1.56	1.12	N.S.
University Education Develops Awareness	2.40	3.14	2.74	2.46 (n=13)	2.56	1.90	N.S.
Minimum Force Education Requirement is Enough	3.29 (n=41)	2.76	3.24 (n=38)	3.29	2.88 (n=8)	1.68	N.S.
Street Experience is Enough	1.90 (n=41)	1.72	1.84 (n=38)	1.93	1.75 (n=8)	0.58	N.S.
University Education Helps One Function in a Complex Society	1.93	2.38	2.26	2.21	2.50	1.87	N.S.
University Education Helps One Understand Human Behaviour	2.07	2.61 (n=28)	2.13	2.07	2.33	1.65	N.S.
University Education Helps One Tolerate Differences and Ambiguities	2.07	2.32 (n=28)	2.15	2.36	2.33	0.48	N.S.

TABLE 34 (Continued)

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE FOR JOB PERFORMANCE AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Question	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=42) ³	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=39)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=9)		
University Education Helps One Understand the Causes of Crime	2.24	2.46 (n=28)	2.18	2.21	2.67	0.76	N.S.
University Education Helps One Evaluate Situations	2.02	2.25 (n=28)	2.05	1.93	2.11	0.45	N.S.
University Educated Have Improved Personality Characteristics	2.00	2.04 (n=28)	2.00	2.00	2.11	0.04	N.S.
University Education Provides Advanced Knowledge of Police Work	2.19	2.21 (n=28)	1.95	2.21	2.33	0.57	N.S.
University Graduates Take More Initiative	2.17	2.11 (n=28)	2.08	2.14	2.22	0.09	N.S.
University Graduates are Better Leaders	1.71	1.89 (n=28)	2.00	1.93	2.22	1.25	N.S.

1 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 35

THE EXTENT TO WHICH EXPERIENCE IS RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1,2}

Function	Mean Rating				F	P
	Self Investor (n=41) ³	Careerist (n=28)	Specialist (n=38)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=8)	
Handling interpersonal disputes	4.20	4.14 (n=29)	4.15 (n=39)	4.00	4.50	0.41 N.S.
Drug investigations	4.37	4.28 (n=29)	4.36 (n=39)	4.36	4.25	0.10 N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	4.12	4.28 (n=29)	4.18	4.36	4.38	0.46 N.S.
Identification	3.85	4.38 (n=29)	3.84	3.86	4.25	2.07 N.S.
Computer crime investigations	3.90	4.24 (n=29)	4.19	4.00	4.25	1.00 N.S.
Hostage negotiations	4.43	4.57	4.58	4.79	4.75	1.04 N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	4.34	4.54	4.32	4.43	4.63	0.61 N.S.
Investigating property crime	3.85	3.57	3.47	3.93	4.13	1.33 N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	4.05	3.75	3.71	3.93	4.13	0.94 N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	4.24 ^{ab}	3.57 ^b	3.68 ^{ab}	3.86 ^{ab}	4.38 ^a	2.57 .0410
Writing incident reports	4.02	3.68	3.63	4.00	4.13	1.31 N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	4.59	4.36	4.26	4.43	4.50	1.06 N.S.
Conducting classroom training	4.12	4.04	4.08	4.14	4.50	0.47 N.S.
Writing policy related papers	4.17	4.32	4.24	4.50	4.13	0.58 N.S.
Preparing budgets	4.15	4.10	4.16	4.21	4.25	0.05 N.S.

¹ 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

² Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

³ Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

TABLE 36

THE EXTENT TO WHICH COMMON SENSE IS RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Function	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=41) ³	Careerist (n=27)	Specialist (n=38)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=8)		
Handling interpersonal disputes	4.39	4.32 (n=28)	4.41 (n=39)	4.43	4.88	1.19	N.S.
Drug investigations	3.73	3.79 (n=28)	3.77 (n=39)	3.79	4.25	0.52	N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	3.51	3.82 (n=28)	3.50	3.50	4.13	1.36	N.S.
Identification	3.29	3.61 (n=28)	3.16	3.21	3.88	1.42	N.S.
Computer crime investigations	3.10 ^{bc}	3.43 ^{ab} (n=28)	3.29 ^{ab}	2.57 ^c	3.88 ^a	2.87	.026
Hostage negotiations	4.65	4.78	4.45	4.64	4.88	1.54	N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	4.20	4.22	4.02	4.21	4.38	0.45	N.S.
Investigating property crime	3.56	3.78	3.66	3.93	4.13	1.10	N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	4.02	4.04	3.74	4.07	4.13	0.96	N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	4.59 ^{ab}	4.11 ^b	4.21 ^{ab}	4.29 ^{ab}	4.75 ^a	2.47	.0481
Writing incident reports	3.29	3.56	3.26	3.50	3.63	0.54	N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	4.12	4.26	3.92	4.14	4.13	0.81	N.S.
Conducting classroom training	3.66	3.78	3.50	3.93	3.75	0.63	N.S.
Writing policy related papers	3.98	4.18	3.66	3.79	4.00	1.45	N.S.
Preparing budgets	3.34	3.81	3.68	3.64	3.88	1.07	N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 37

THE EXTENT TO WHICH UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IS RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Function	Mean Rating				F	P
	Self Investigator (n=41) ³	Careerist (n=27)	Specialist (n=38)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=8)	
Handling interpersonal disputes	1.80	1.92 (n=28)	2.00 (n=39)	1.64	2.38	1.45 N.S.
Drug investigations	1.59	1.61 (n=28)	1.69 (n=39)	1.64	2.38	1.97 N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	3.07	3.25 (n=28)	2.92	3.21	3.38	0.55 N.S.
Identification	2.49	2.46 (n=28)	2.39	2.50	2.63	0.08 N.S.
Computer crime investigations	3.66	3.33	3.39	3.93	4.00	1.20 N.S.
Hostage negotiations	2.37	2.41	2.37	2.29	2.88	0.43 N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	1.95	2.00	2.13	1.93	2.63	1.04 N.S.
Investigating property crime	1.66	1.70	1.81	1.86	2.38	1.50 N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	1.73	1.93	2.03	1.71	2.38	1.50 N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	1.34	1.44	1.58	1.50	2.00	1.75 N.S.
Writing incident reports	2.61	2.56	2.50	1.64	2.88	2.01 N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	2.05	1.96	1.97 (n=37)	1.79	2.38	0.54 N.S.
Conducting classroom training	3.00	3.08 (n=26)	2.87	2.71	3.38	0.62 N.S.
Writing policy related papers	3.49	3.52	3.08	3.36	2.88	1.33 N.S.
Preparing budgets	3.66	3.26	3.26	3.36	3.50	0.87 N.S.

¹ 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

² Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

³ Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

TABLE 38

THE EXTENT TO WHICH PERSONALITY AND ATTITUDE ARE RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS
AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Function	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=41) ³	Careerist (n=27)	Specialist (n=38)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=8)		
Handling interpersonal disputes	4.05	4.29 (n=28)	4.10 (n=39)	4.21	4.25	0.51	N.S.
Drug investigations	3.07	3.00 (n=28)	3.23 (n=39)	3.57	3.25	0.87	N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	2.68	3.03 (n=28)	2.97 (n=39)	2.93	3.63	2.28	N.S.
Identification	2.63	2.71 (n=28)	2.60	2.42	3.00	0.50	N.S.
Computer crime investigations	2.63	2.40 (n=28)	2.74	2.29	3.00	1.12	N.S.
Hostage negotiations	4.66	4.67	4.47	4.57	4.50	0.68	N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	3.76	3.81	3.76	3.86	4.00	0.15	N.S.
Investigating property crime	3.02	3.04	3.05	3.14	3.38	0.26	N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	3.73	3.52	3.34	3.93	3.50	0.49	N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	4.30 (n=40)	3.89	3.92	4.07	4.13	1.29	N.S.
Writing incident reports	2.41	2.41	2.55	2.36	3.25	1.22	N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	4.25	4.15 (n=26)	3.78 (n=37)	4.36	4.13	2.36	N.S.
Conducting classroom training	4.20	4.23 (n=26)	3.97	4.42	4.50	1.29	N.S.
Writing policy related papers	2.90	3.04	3.05	3.43	3.75	1.56	N.S.
Preparing budgets	2.37	2.58 (n=26)	2.68	2.50	3.13	0.95	N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 39

THE EXTENT TO WHICH TRAINING IS RELATED TO VARIOUS POLICE FUNCTIONS AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Function	Mean Rating				F	P
	Self Investor (n=41) ³	Careerist (n=27)	Specialist (n=38)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=8)	
Handling interpersonal disputes	3.28 (n=40)	3.46 (n=28)	3.46 (n=39)	3.50	3.38	0.29 N.S.
Drug investigations	4.12	4.04	4.10	4.00	4.62	0.95 N.S.
Commercial crime investigations	4.15	4.21 (n=28)	4.29 (n=39)	4.36	4.63	0.82 N.S.
Identification	4.65	4.79 (n=28)	4.68	4.71	4.63	0.27 N.S.
Computer crime investigations	4.65 (n=40)	4.56	4.55	4.29	4.86	1.18 N.S.
Hostage negotiations	4.51	4.48	4.60	4.42	4.75	0.40 N.S.
Investigating serious crimes against persons	4.10	4.22	4.08	4.36	4.25	G.47 N.S.
Investigating property crime	3.68	3.67	3.44	3.93	3.83	1.11 N.S.
Investigating crimes involving public morality	3.80	3.67	3.63	4.07	3.88	0.87 N.S.
Responding to complaints regarding rowdiness and disorder	3.42 (n=40)	3.48	3.55	3.21	3.75	0.51 N.S.
Writing incident reports	3.95	3.89	3.50	3.57	4.13	1.75 N.S.
Interviewing witnesses and victims	3.88 (n=40)	3.73 (n=26)	3.76 (n=37)	3.79	3.88	0.16 N.S.
Conducting classroom training	4.20 (n=40)	4.26	4.10	4.21	4.38	0.29 N.S.
Writing policy related papers	3.80	3.92	3.79	3.86	4.00	0.16 N.S.
Preparing budgets	3.90	3.81	3.68	3.50	4.25	0.83 N.S.

1 1 = To No Extent, 2 = To A Little Extent, 3 = To Some Extent, 4 = To A Great Extent, 5 = To A Very Great Extent.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ ($p = .05$).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 40

THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD POLICE ROLES AS A FUNCTION OF
THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1, 2}

Question	Mean Rating					F	P
	Self Investor (n=42) ³	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=39)	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=8)		
Most police activity is spent on order maintenance	4.07	4.00	4.00	3.93	4.22 (n=9)	0.20	N.S.
Police should not deal with order maintenance	1.49	1.72	1.53	1.57	1.50	0.90	N.S.
Police should serve and assist the public	4.15 (n=41)	4.10	3.97 (n=38)	3.79	3.75	0.93	N.S.
Main police role is crime control	3.03 (n=40)	3.14	3.26 (n=38)	3.25 (n=12)	3.13	0.31	N.S.
Order maintenance role is satisfying	3.75	3.69	3.63 (n=38)	3.92 (n=12)	3.63	0.47	N.S.
Helping citizens feels good	4.38 (n=40)	4.14	4.21 (n=38)	3.92 (n=12)	4.25	1.75	N.S.

1 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

3 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

TABLE 41

JOB AND CAREER SATISFACTION AS A FUNCTION OF THE RESPONDENTS' CAREER ORIENTATION^{1,3}

Question	Mean Rating					F.	P
	Self Investor (n=41) ⁴	Careerist (n=29)	Specialist (n=38) ⁴	Enforcer (n=14)	Social Activist (n=8)		
Police career is unrewarding	2.90 (n=42)	2.38	2.31 (n=39)	2.08 (n=13)	2.44 (n=9)	2.20	.072
Feel good knowing we have some impact on crime	4.29	4.20	3.95	4.14	4.13	1.45	N.S.
Personal identity as a police officer is strong	3.05	3.34	3.39	3.79	3.25	1.04	N.S.
Police work is discouraging	2.93 (n=40)	2.66	2.76	2.33 (n=12)	3.00	0.99	N.S.
Wonder why I remain in police work	2.51 (n=39)	2.17	2.21	2.25 (n=12)	2.25	0.57	N.S.
Police career is fulfilling	3.85	4.14	4.00	4.14	3.75	0.74	N.S.
Level of career satisfaction ²	2.00	1.97	1.97	1.54 (n=13)	1.89 (n=9)	0.77	N.S.
Level of job satisfaction ²	2.00	1.97	2.00	1.62 (n=13)	1.78 (n=9)	0.67	N.S.

1 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

2 1 = Very Satisfied, 2 = Satisfied, 3 = Neither Satisfied/Dissatisfied, 4 = Unsatisfied, 5 = Very Unsatisfied.

3 Means with the same or no superscript do not significantly differ (p = .05).

4 Sample size unless otherwise indicated.

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