Perceptions of a Policing Career Among Twenty-First Century Youth

by

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A Thesis
presented to
The University of Guelph

In partial fulfilment of requirements
for the degree of
Master of Arts
in
Sociology

Guelph, Ontario, Canada

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PERCEPTIONS OF A POLICING CAREER AMONG TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY YOUTH

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To-date relatively little research has explored the perceptions that influence young peoples' interest in policing as a career. This study examined if perceptions of policing are interconnected with desire to be an officer. Overall, the results were inconclusive; however, it was determined that young people interested in a policing career hold moderately accurate perceptions of policing with regards to the application and hiring process, officer salary, the daily tasks performed by officers, and issues of gender. But, these young people have a limited understanding of longstanding issues of race/ethnic discrimination within policing. The implications of this research undertaking for policing organizations and academics are discussed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Countless "thank you's" throughout recent years have now culminated to this exact moment of acknowledgement and appreciation of those who have assisted in the completion of this thesis, both academically and personally. First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude to the Graduate Coordinator Dr. Vivian Shalla and to my advisory committee of Dr. Patrick Parnaby, and Dr. Ronald Stansfield for their unwavering support and commitment to my continual learning. A special thank you must be further extended to Dr. Parnaby, who initially encouraged me to apply to graduate school and who will forever be an academic role model for his dedication and commitment to the creation of knowledge. It is largely because of his continual guidance that this thesis has come to fruition.

Acknowledgement and appreciation must also be extended to my family and close friends. Thank you does not adequately convey the gratitude I want to express to my parents' Vicki and Dale Johnson, my sister Laura Voller, and my brother in-law Chris Voller. It is through their love and support that I have been able to pursue my academic goals and for that, I will be forever grateful. Thank you to them for encouraging me to follow my dreams. My education has taken me thousands of miles away and yet, they are my biggest supporters. Finally, thank you to Laura Devet, Jess Splinder, and Caitlin Cunningham for holding my hand, literally and figuratively, throughout the last two years. Often the place of calm amid the complexities of live and academia, these women are those that I admire most for their tireless support and friendship.

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my niece Maddison Voller. Never be afraid to follow your dreams and when challenges arise never be afraid to ask for help. It is personal determination and the grace of people, such as those who I thank here that will forever ensure your success.
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CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

What is your earliest memory of interacting with a police officer? Did a uniformed individual come to your elementary school to discuss the harm of bullying? Or, did you roll your eyes as an officer poured out your alcoholic beverages after high school graduation? While reflecting on your own experiences, you may remember several encounters with police officers. Though, have you ever considered what officers do on a daily basis and what motivates a Canadian citizen to desire a badge, a uniform, and a gun? The question as to why some individuals in Canada aspire to become officers while others do not has long held relevance; but could there be a relationship between a young person's desire to become an officer and his/her perceptions of a policing career?

Police studies, a relatively small offshoot of sociology, has grown in recent years as academics seek to learn more about policing (Loader, 2011). Much literature exists concerning young peoples' vocational choices, the characteristics of policing that appeal to recruits, and the demographics of new recruits. There is, however, a limited understanding of the perceptions that influence young peoples' interest in policing as a career -- a void this study seeks to address. Various sociological and criminological ideas will be drawn upon, including theories of career choice and recruits’ cited motivations for entering policing. More specifically, this research undertaking is influenced largely by a series of Canadian studies conducted recently by Ipsos Reid on behalf of the Police Sector Council (PSC).

The PSC is a privately funded Canadian research centre which focuses predominately on human resource (HR) related issues within policing (PSC, 2006). The PSC commissioned a series of studies between 2005 and 2011, which initially examined young peoples' perceptions of
policing generally and, more recently, examined perceptions of a policing career (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a; Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011a). Two ideas derived from this research were the impetus for this thesis. Firstly, the PSC findings suggest a disconnect between young peoples' perceptions of policing and the working realities of the profession. Secondly, it was found that young peoples' interest in policing as a career has decreased in recent years (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010b). However, Ipsos Reid did not discuss a possible connection between these ideas. Using a more inductive approach, the aim of this thesis is to explore whether young peoples’ perceptions of policing are associated with their desire to be a police officer. Consistent with this aim, this project seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. How do perceptions of policing as a career vary among young people with respect to the application and hiring process, day-to-day activities, and issues of gender and/or race/ethnic equality?
   i. How do perceptions of policing differ (if at all) from the realities of policing and how might these differences be explained?
   ii. Who is most likely to express interest in becoming a police officer?

2. What are the policy implications of this study for policing organizations and what can academics learn from this research?

Data was acquired through an online survey and qualitative asynchronous email interviews (AEIs) conducted with undergraduate students from the University of Guelph and the University of Guelph-Humber. This was a ‘deception’ study insofar as the survey was designed to appear as investigating career choice among the young generally in order to broaden appeal
and lessen the possibility that only those interested in criminal justice would participate. Unbeknownst to respondents, the survey branched in different directions depending on their individual responses. Respondents were thus separated into three groups: those who expressed no interest in policing as a career choice, those who expressed a current interest in policing as a career choice, and those who expressed a past interest in policing as a career choice. Respondents who expressed no interest in policing were routed to the demographic portion of the survey prior to completion while those who expressed interest in policing (current or past) were asked a series of questions about entry requirements, officer salary, perceptions of occupational danger, gender equality, and race/ethnic equality. A total of 241 respondents completed the survey. Asynchronous Email Interviews (AEIs) were conducted subsequently with four survey respondents who indicated a current or past interest in policing. Both the survey and the AEIs were designed to determine if perceptions among the young differ from the realities of policing and whether specific individuals desire to become police officers.

This thesis utilized a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods to contribute to theoretical and policy based discussions within policing organizations and academia. The results of this study indicate moderate interest in a policing career and provide insight into perceptions of this career among the next generation of perspective officers. It will be demonstrated young people interested in a policing career hold moderately accurate perceptions of policing with regards to the application and hiring process, officer salary, the daily tasks performed by officers, and issues of gender. But, these young people have a limited understanding of longstanding issues of race/ethnic discrimination within policing. The role of post-secondary education and portrayals of policing in popular culture will be argued as explanations for young peoples' moderately accurate understandings. The often secretive nature of policing will then be argued in
relation to their limited understanding of race/ethnic discrimination within the policing subculture.

The following chapters will discuss the various elements of this project. Chapter two will position this study within the relevant research literatures. A variety of topics will be explored including career choice among the young, conceptions of the self, and cited motivations for becoming an officer. Also, a series of studies conducted by Ipsos Reid for the PSC will then be discussed. To conclude, the five hypotheses stemming from this literature review will be described.

Chapter three describes the research methodology used in this study. This discussion will examine the principles of survey and AEI design, the ethical protocol followed, the design of the online survey instrument and AEIs, and the statistical tools used for data analysis. Chapter four describes the results of this study. Statistical techniques including Analysis of Variance (AVONA), cross-tabulations, and regression will be used to analyze the data. Only the statistical survey data will be discussed here given the limited number of AEIs conducted. The results of the AEIs and survey findings will be discussed in detail in chapter five. Also, chapter five will discuss the research findings in light of the research questions posed in chapter two. This chapter will end by addressing the policy implications of this study for policing organizations and academics, the limitations of this project, and the areas that are ripe for future exploration. This thesis will conclude with a brief summation in chapter six.
CHAPTER TWO - A Review of Current Understandings:

Academic interest in the policing profession has increased in recent years (Loader, 2011) but there is limited understanding of the perceptions that influence young peoples’ interest in policing as a career. The aim of this thesis is to explore if young peoples’ perceptions of policing are interconnected with a desire to become a police officer. The intent of this chapter is to situate this research within a larger theoretical/thematic framework as areas of contention and weakness within existing research are revealed. Various sociological, criminological, and psychological ideas are relevant to this discussion.

This examination will begin by broadly defining occupational interests and denoting central ideas within career choice development theory. Various ideas as to when and why young people possess interest in any given career will then be explicated in accordance with sociological and psychological literature on career choice. Next, the discussion will explore the commonly cited motivations for entering policing.1 Building upon the broader discussion of occupational choice and the choice to enter policing more specifically, Canadian studies conducted by Ipsos Reid on behalf of the Police Sector Council (PSC) will be examined as precedent concerning the perceptions thought to influence young individuals' choices to enter (or not) the policing profession. It will be revealed that there is an evident disconnect between the realities of policing and young peoples' perceptions of this career. To conclude, the hypotheses stemming from this literature review will be discussed.

1 The ideas discussed in this segment of this chapter are drawn from American-based research given that Canadian research has largely neglected to explore what motivates the young to become police officers.
Occupational Interests and Career Development Theory

There are a variety of explanations as to why one may possess occupational interests in a given career. Occupational interests can be understood as "an iterative process of increasing fit between the environment and the person--individuals choose activities and interactions that are consistent with their motives, goals, and values" (Low et al., 2005, p. 729). Occupational interests determine largely the vocation individuals select to enter and are thus essential to understanding career choice (Low et al., 2005).

Occupational interests and ideas of career choice have been of interest to scholars for decades. Frank Parsons was the first to generate a decision-making framework with regards to career choice in 1909 (Brown, 2002). Parsons posited "that if people actively engage in choosing their vocations rather than allow chance to operate in the hunt for a job, they will be more satisfied with their careers, employers' costs will decrease, and employees' efficiency [will] increase" (Brown, 2002, p. 4). There are many career development theories and ways of understanding individuals' career related decisions within psychology and sociology; but, these theories and ideas are increasingly questioned today (Collin, 1998).

Written decades ago, two of the often cited theories within the literature on career choice are Ginzberg, Axelread and Herma's Theory (1951) and Donald Super's Theory of Vocational Choice (1953): both contend that throughout the course of one's life an individual will go through a series of stages that allow for experiences to be had and contemplation to occur; these stages allow for the selection and attainment of a career (Super, 1953; Patton and McMahon, 2006). Unlike other theorists of his time, Super recognized that an individual’s sense of self is continually evolving, thereby affecting his/her work-related decisions (Super, 1953). Super's definition of the self is limited as is Ginzberg, Axelread and Herma's. These theorists overlooked
the role of gender, race/ethnicity, and social class in their theoretical conceptions (Super, 1953; Patton and McMahon, 2006). Despite omitting what many consider to be defining aspects of the self today, these theories continue to be used in the area of career choice scholarship. Some, however, question their usefulness as society evolves (see Blustein and Noumair, 1996; Collins, 1998).

Within the literature on occupational interests and career development theories, there are several commonly discussed explanations for career-related decisions. Some suggest that individuals begin contemplating educational and career attainment at a young age (Brinkerhoff and Corry, 1976). These interests are said to develop further throughout the teenage years (Cook et al., 1996; Csikszentmihalyi and Schneider, 2000) and solidify further upon completion of post-secondary education (Low et al., 2005). However, like conceptions of the self, occupational interests are not static over time and are often influenced by one's experiences. Shapiro and Crowley (1982) found that the majority of their sample (individuals aged 14-20) knew the vocation they hoped to enter, with males being more certain than females.

When considering young peoples' reasoning with regards to occupational choice, it should be noted that many scholars have discussed the need for greater career preparation at the high school level in order to hone occupational interests and assist with the school to work transition (see Worthington and Juntunen, 1997; Code et al., 2005; Witko et al., 2008). Greater career preparation is also needed among college and university students to better prepare them for the realities of work. Evers et al. (1998) suggest that graduates face difficulties entering the work force and "need to possess specialized knowledge and skills plus general skills that will provide them with the ability to adapt..." (p, 3) within ever changing work environments. Post-secondary curriculums thus need to better instil skills conducive to the labour market such as
leadership and communication (Evers et al., 1998). Correspondingly, little research has sought to understand the career concerns of young people (Code et al., 2006). When studying such concerns, Code et al. (2006) discovered that students in grades seven through twelve expressed transition anxiety through words such as "discouraged," "afraid," and "stress" (Code et al., 2006). The presence of such anxiety, coupled with a lack of career preparation, presumably impacts the career choices of the young; however such issues are not discussed in the literature. Bregman and Killen (1999), however, discuss the influence of parents and the role of self-agency in adolescents' educational and vocational choices as having largely positive implications with regards to career decision-making. Parental involvement and a strong sense of self can presumably combat the lack of education and lessen corresponding anxiety; however, parents’ over involvement in their child's career decision-making process can be detrimental (see Lopez and Andrews, 1987; Middleton and Loughead, 1993).

Educational and career related decisions are integral to an individual’s separation from his/her family. These decisions are also integral to developing a sense of identity. (Lopez and Andrews, 1987). Although these decisions are personal, research indicates the young appreciate parental involvement when making educational and career-related choices (Youniss and Smollar, 1985; Grotevant, 1988; Palmer and Cochran 1988; Young, 1994), but over involvement, whether in the form of advice or financial resources, is perceived negatively (Lopez and Andrews, 1987; Middleton and Loughead, 1993). Notably, however, while parental involvement is appreciated, Bregman and Killen (1999) determined that adolescents are not opposed going against the vocational path advised by parents. Adolescents are also willing to make career-

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2 For more information concerning the roles of students, educators, and employers in the school-to-work transition among college and university graduates see Evers et al (1998). Evers and Gardner (2002) also authored a book entitled From Backpacks to Briefcases: Making the Transition from College to Work, which is designed to assist graduates entering the work force.
related decisions that do not coincide with societal norms. Regardless of gender and the actual influence of gender stereotypes on career choice decisions, participants subscribed to the belief "that societal traditions should [not] constrict one's freedom in the vocational realm" (Bregman and Killen, 1999, p. 268), thereby highlighting participants’ strong sense of agency.

Further exploring ideas of socialization, Brinkerhoff and Corry (1976) assert that young people are often encouraged to attain higher education and more prestigious occupations. Indeed, “… high levels of occupation and education are symbolic of success both in their own right and because they lead to the attainment of other social rewards which are considered desirable" (Brinkerhoff and Corry, 1976, p. 263). Although the desire for prestige is a common theme in the literature (see Shapiro and Crowley, 1982; Herr and Niles, 1997; Whiston and Keller, 2004) and even though this explanation is consistent with the assertion that individuals make career choices in line with their motives, goals, and values (Low et al, 2005), it is an over generalization. It is also not consistent with Bregman and Killen's (1999) finding that young people believe a lack of prestige (among other factors) should not deter someone from selecting a career of interest. In addition, although individuals are socialized to desire prestige, power, and income in Western culture, not all individuals desire these societal ideals. Thus, the desire for prestige, power, and income is but one explanation for young peoples' career choices. Notably, "no nation can sustain its economic viability with only a highly educated elite" and yet, despite needing skilled workers, young people who enter the work force soon after graduation face stigma and have little to no assistance with this transition (Herr and Niles, 1997, p. 140). In the United States 20 to 50 percent (or more) of high school students within varying districts are work-bound upon graduation. Some of these young people may, however, later enrol in post-secondary education because of increasing educational prerequisites within many fields not for reasons of prestige.
Dated writings suggest additional explanations as to why young people might choose a specific career, including parental education, socio-economic status (Brinkerhoff and Corry 1976; Shapiro and Crowley 1982), race/ethnicity (Shapiro and Crowley, 1982), and gender (Harmon, 1981; Shapiro and Crowley, 1982): but times have changed. Shapiro and Crowley’s work (1982), which discusses the contemporary women's movement in “recent years” and asserts that “[t]he proportion of young women opting for housewifery declined sharply - by well over half for whites, and by two-thirds for blacks” (p. 44) highlights that times have changed. Further exploration is needed to determine if these dated explanations hold credence today, a theme expressed by Collin (1998).

**Motivations for Becoming a Police Officer:**

The career choice literature and the police literature overlap as they help to explain why young people choose to become officers but research in both areas is dated (see White et al., 2010). Limited police research has also sought to explore the perhaps differing motivations of women and minorities who pursue careers in policing (Raganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007; White et al., 2010). However, two recently conducted studies that will be discussed below indicate that such motivations have remained constant over time (see Foley et al., 2007; White et al., 2010).

Throughout recent decades myriad explanations have been advanced as to why young people choose to enter the policing profession, including a desire to help others (Cumming, Cumming, and Edell, 1965; Lester, Arcuri, and Gunn, 1980; Seagrave, 1997), the para-military structure, the good salary, and the appeal of job security and benefits (Reganella and White, 1997).
Additional motivators include, but are not limited to, a longstanding desire to be an officer, the adventurous nature of policing (Harris, 1973; Van Maanen, 1973), the power and authority bestowed upon officers (McNamara, 1967; Niederhoffer, 1967; Lester, 1983; Reganella and White, 2004), and having a family connection to this profession such as having a parent who works or worked as an officer (Seagrave, 1997; Crank, 2004).³

Although research in this area is dated, Reganella and White (2004) and Foley et al. (2007) recently studied why new policing recruits in the United States opted to become officers. Reganella and White (2004) concluded that, independent of gender and minority status,⁴ a desire to help others explained why most individuals choose to enter policing. The appeal of job security and benefits was found to be the second most common motivation. These scholars surmised that aspects of policing such as the para-military structure, the salary, and the power and authority bestowed upon officers can be seen as less important factors (Reganella and White, 2004)⁵ but their conclusions were generalized; the desire to help others was a greater motivator for female recruits compared to males. Females were also more motivated by the possibility of career advancement whereas male recruits were more motivated by good companionship with co-workers and a lack of other career alternatives. Notably, while there were minor motivational differences between black and Hispanic recruits, these visible minorities ranked the desire to help others as a greater motivator than their white peers (Reganella and White, 2004).

The aforementioned differences across gender and race/ethnic lines are, at first glance, minor. Such statistical differences do not change the reality that the desire to help others was

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³ Notably, possessing a family connection was also found in the broader literature on career choice as a possible explanation as to why an individual might select a given occupation (Whiston and Keller, 2004).
⁴ Reganella and White’s (2004) sample population was comprised of 278 male and female New York City Policing recruits. White, Black, and Hispanic individuals participated.
⁵ Other scholars have drawn similar conclusions to Reganella and White (2004) (see Lester, 1983; Foley et al., 2007; White et al., 2010).
cited by the majority of recruits as the most prominent reason they selected to become officers (Reganella and White, 2004). But, these statistics could be suggesting larger trends that need to be tested in the future. Reganella and White (2004) also assert that their results cannot be generalized beyond the New York Policing Department which, again, speaks to the need for additional research.

Similar to the research by Reganella and White (2004), Foley et al. (2007) replicated research conducted by Lester (1983) to decipher if recruits’ motivations for entering policing have remained stable or changed within recent years. They additionally sought to determine how demographic variables such as gender and race/ethnicity might influence the choice to become an officer and whether Lester’s survey instrument remains valid (Foley et al., 2007). Foley et al. (2007) posit that “[d]espite the consistency of previous research findings, significant recent events have changed the public image of the police. Further, some evidence suggests a shift in values of the generation now entering the workforce. Both of these factors merit a reassessment of the variables associated with entry into police work” (p.3); their findings lend credence to the findings of Reganella and White (2004). Foley et al., (2007) studied 131 policing recruits from the North-Eastern State Police Academy. They found that the survey tool used by Lester (1983) continues to hold validity today and argued that recruits’ motivations have remained relatively stable over time (Foley et al, 2007).

Differing only minimally from Reganella's and White's (2004) findings, Foley et al (2007) determined the most frequent reasons for entering policing to be the opportunity to help people, job security, the excitement of police work, the ability to fight crime and the appeal of occupational prestige. These findings were also very similar to Lester’s, the only difference being recruits of yesteryear cited good companionship with co-workers as a motivator while
present day recruits noted the appeal of excitement (Foley et al., 2007). It is unsurprising that
current recruits emphasized the exciting nature of this profession given that research indicates a
relationship between media consumption and perceptions of policing (see Dowler and Zawilski,
2007). While the media often depicts policing as adventurous, dangerous, and thrill seeking,
officers actually spend most of their time completing non-adventurous tasks such as paperwork
(Seagrave, 1997). Thus, the perception that policing is adventurous and exciting illustrates a
disconnect between perceptions of policing among those wanting to be officers and the realities
of the profession. Moreover, although the motivators for entering policing appear to have
remained fairly stable over recent decades (Reganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007, White
et al., 2010), current research is limited. Further study is needed to determine why the latest
generation of soon-to-be officers are choosing policing as a career.

The work of Foley et al. also provides further insight with regards to the motivations of
women and visible minorities. It was determined that, unlike Lester’s (1983) findings, female
and non-white recruits cited the appeal of opportunities for advancement as a prominent reason
for their interest in policing. Non-white recruits of today also placed greater importance on the
opportunity to work independently (Foley et al., 2007). Policing often requires work and
interaction with others, interactions which will likely increase in the future with the advent of
community-based policing (see Trojanowicz and Bucquereux, 1998). Further research is needed
to determine the validity of this and like disconnections. Further research is also needed with
regards to the general motivations for entering policing among women and visible minorities.
While the findings of Reganella and White (2004) also showed that females place more
importance on opportunities for advancement than their male counterparts, the conclusions
drawn within both studies about the motivations for women and non-white recruits should be
interpreted with caution as the sample population consisted prominently of white males.

Despite recent findings that the desire to help others is the most universal motivator for wanting to become an officer (see Lester, 1983; Reganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007), the role of gender must be examined further because most research has focused on males (White et al., 2010). According to Seagrave (1997), "policing attracts working-class, family-oriented white males interested in the security and salary working in law enforcement can bring" (p. 72). These individuals often enter policing having some knowledge of the profession, knowing someone working in the field, and/or subscribing to the belief that policing is an elite occupation (Segrave, 1997). Segrave’s (1997) stereotypical image of who wants to be an officer is consistent with the common conception that a masculine subculture exists within the policing profession (see Collins, 2004; Alt and Wells, 2005; Martin and Jurik, 2007).

The stereotypical masculine nature of policing limits the interest of potential female applicants and creates barriers for females currently working in the field (Martin and Jurik, 2007). Since the early 1970s, when females were first allocated to patrol and permitted to wear the traditional uniform (Schulz, 2003; White et al., 2010), women have made large inroads into this profession. However, male dominance within policing continues to deter females from becoming officers (Seagrave, 1997). It is thus expected that “women will not achieve parity in law enforcement agencies for several generations” (Kakar, 2003, p. 238-239). Moreover, while it is commonly understood that females possess unique and necessary abilities as officers, Martin and Jurik (2007) assert that in occupations such as policing, “women’s employment is less a permanent achievement than a temporary pass through a ‘revolving door’ as females leave this occupation with often little hesitation” (p. 98). It can thus be surmised that policing is an occupation viewed by some females as unwelcoming and if the career choice is made to enter
policing, it is a choice that may be limited in duration. Drawing together various ideas discussed throughout this literature review in relation to females, the conclusions can be drawn that, like males and those of visible minority, females largely enter policing stemming from a desire to help others (Reganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007) but the masculine subculture of this profession may dissuade some females from this occupational choice (Seagrave, 1997). Notably, neither of the recent studies conducted by Reganella and White (2004) or Foley et al. (2007) examined whether the masculine undertones of policing deterred females. Presumably this is because the women studied had already made the choice to enter policing and thus, the perceptions of those dissuaded by the masculine nature of policing were not part of the sample population. Further exploration is needed to determine the extent to which the masculine nature of policing is problematic in the recruitment of females to this profession.

Like women, visible minorities are historically under-represented in policing (Reganella and White, 2004; White et al., 2010; McMurray et al., 2010) with the common explanations being that the negative attitudes of young visible minorities (Reganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007), longstanding conflicts between police and “those of colour” (Reganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007; McMurray et al., 2010), and evident discrimination with regards to policing recruitment (Reganella and White, 2004; McMurray et al., 2010) have resulted in a limited number of visible minorities within this profession. While it is commonly understood that those of visible minority status possess unique and necessary abilities as officers (McMurray et al., 2010), racism within the policing subculture is directly problematic to the recruitment and retention of these officers (Jaeger and Vitalis, 2005). Policing recruitment practices have, however, begun to evolve to promote the inclusion of all people within this profession (Reganella and White, 2004; McMurray et al., 2010). As previously noted, there is an absence
of valid and generalizable research concerning the reasons why those of visible minority status choose to become officers given that there are relatively few officers "of colour" to study. But, the limited findings of Foley et al. (2007) suggest a possible disconnection between the realities of policing and the cited desire to work independently among non-white recruits. This research undertaking aims to further explore this and like disconnections.

Research Undertakings Conducted for the Police Sector Council (PSC)

The Police Sector Council (PSC) is a Canadian-based centre focused on human resources (HR) issues within the policing sector (PSC, 2006). Governed by a Board of Directors including members of government and law enforcement officials, the PSC seeks "[t]o enable Canadian policing organizations, partners and stakeholders to implement innovative, practical solutions to human resource planning and management challenges" through the creation and dissemination of relevant knowledge (PSC, 2006: see "mandate section"). As a central access point for various stakeholders and those interested in policing, the PSC often works to explore HR related issues within contemporary policing through research (PSC, 2006). Studies conducted by Ipsos Reid on behalf of the PSC are useful in better understanding the perceptions thought to influence an individual’s choice to enter the policing profession. These research undertakings, despite some apparent flaws, provide recent and relevant Canadian data that will be used as precedent in the formation of the various hypotheses. Ipsos Reid has undertaken quantitative studies in collaboration with the PSC since 2005 (the exact number of studies is unclear on the PSC's website) examining general perceptions of policing and, in 2010, research more specifically examined youths' perceptions of policing as a career (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a). They then

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6 For further information on the PSC please visit http://www.policecouncil.ca/pages/home.html
conducted a mixed-methods research undertaking in 2011 that sought to contextualize their previous quantitative findings; however, unlike previous explorations this most recent project examined perceptions of a policing career from two perspectives, those of young people and those who often influence the young's decisions such as parents, coaches, and teachers (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011a).

Although the research from 2010 and 2011 is most relevant to this project, trends outlined in the 2005 to 2011 research will be discussed first. However, a limited amount of information can be discerned from these research undertakings as all assertions are based on summations of Ipsos Reid’s findings (i.e. summarized PDF's and PowerPoint presentations not raw statistical data). Differing methodologies across studies also limits the validity of such a discussion to general trends in perceptions of policing versus a statistical understanding of the precise changes in perceptions over time (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a). This discussion will nevertheless help to contextualize many of the ideas that will be explored throughout this project and will highlight areas of consensus and contention.

Drawing together the various Ipsos Reid studies, approximately 3000 youth were asked about their perceptions of policing from 2005 to 2010 in studies commissioned by the PSC. Based on these studies, Ipsos Reid indicates that young peoples' interest in policing has decreased between 2005 and 2010. In 2005, five percent of the sample population expressed interest in policing but, by 2010, interest had lessened to three percent (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). If these percentages are taken at face value, it appears there has been a two percent decrease in youths' interest but the sample populations were not consistent across studies and thus, these percentages cannot be generalized effectively. It can be extrapolated, however, that interest is declining but the exact rate of decline is not discernible (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b).
Despite variation among the sample populations, it was found that males between the ages of 16-17 who have or had a police officer in the family were most frequently those who expressed a desire to become an officer (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). This finding coincides with previous discussions as an individual’s gender and having a family member in policing were identified by Seagrave (1997) and Crank (2004) as common traits among those wanting to become an officer.

Ipsos Reid's findings can be compared and contrasted further with the work of other scholars. That participants viewed job stability as a positive aspect of policing (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b) coincides with the findings of Reganella and White (2004) and Foley et al. (2007). However, the most frequently cited motivation, the desire to help others does not emerge as a powerful predictor in the studies conducted by Ipsos Reid; the desire to help others was only noted as a desirable aspect of policing among those in Canadian criminal justice programs in 2010 (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010b). It is surprising that the desire to help others was not more readily discussed in all related studies conducted by Ipsos Reid given that numerous scholars have found it to be a consistent motivation for wanting to enter policing (see Lester, 1983; Reganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007). It is possible, however, that motivations have begun to change in recent years. This claim is echoed by Foley et al. (2007) who suggests that given the changing value systems of the younger generation and given more recent publications of incidents of police misconduct such as the beating of Rodney King in Los Angeles, the desire to become an officer is perhaps lessening and/or the motivations are changing. More information is needed and thus, this thesis project will in part explore the reasons why the young are inclined to work in law enforcement today.

The aspects of policing and/or outside influences that lessen young peoples' desire to become officers are also of interest. Consistent with the writings of Seagrave (1997), the
masculine nature of policing was perceived by Ipsos Reid's participants as detracting from the appeal of this profession (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). This finding is logical given that the presence of women continues to be comparatively less than men within policing (Martin and Jurik, 2007). Martin and Jurik (2007) elaborate by suggesting that if women hope to be liked as officers, characteristics similar to their male counterparts must be adopted, which is likely to be a detraction for some. Ipsos Reid's findings further revealed previous unpleasant experiences with police and media depictions of this profession also lessen individuals' desire to become officers (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b).

It is logical that negative experiences with police may limit some individuals' desire to become officers, but the finding that media depictions of this profession may generate negative perceptions of a policing career contradicts logic. Ipsos Reid (2011b) explains that media stereotypes appear "to have a strong influence on how youth view the day-to-day work of police" (p. 4). The logical inference is that such depictions, despite being largely inaccurate, would heighten interest as policing is often portrayed as an adventurous profession in which helpful officers quickly capture offenders. Such portrayals highlight two of the often cited motivations for wanting to become police officers: the thirst for adventure (Harris, 1973; Van Maanen, 1973) and the desire to help others (Lester, 1983; Reganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007). Clarity is needed here as a potential bias of these purchased studies is apparent. Although it is outwardly stated that the PSC is interested in issues pertaining to both the recruitment and retention of officers (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a), summarizing media depictions negatively may reveal that the PSC is more concerned with officer retention as once in the field individuals will soon learn how policing in reality differs from stereotypical portrayals. Their summarization is,

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7 Of course, some individuals are less susceptible to media influence than others but the media often manipulates the content published to appeal to audiences. Public perceptions are, thus, influenced strongly by media (Doyle, 2003)
however, logical if it is taken to mean that individuals hold incorrect beliefs about policing as a result of media exposure. But again, one would think the glamorization of policing within media would increase, not detract, overall interest.

Other ideas of relevance can also be deciphered within Ipsos Reid's three most recent studies conducted for the PSC. In 2010 two similar quantitative studies were conducted. The first sampled 1580 young Canadians between the ages of 16-27 (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a) and the second was conducted with 311 college students in criminal justice programs across Canada (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010b). Both used online survey instruments to explore young peoples' perceptions of policing as a career (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a; Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010b) and although the content of these studies is similar in nature, they are by no means identical and further highlight inconsistencies between young peoples' perceptions of policing and the realities of work in this profession.

In the first 2010 study of general Canadian youth, three percent of the sample population selected policing as their desired career, the majority of which were males between the ages of 16 and 17 who had family members who were or are police officers, (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a). As previously noted, Seagrave (1997) and Crank (2004) suggest that having a family connection to policing often increases the appeal of this profession and motivates some individuals to become officers. While this finding is interesting, a comparison cannot be made as to whether the two populations sampled in 2010 reveal differing levels of interest. The summation document for the second study of those in criminal justice programs does not indicate what percentage of this sample showed interest in policing nor if participants’ interest level was even explicitly sought (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010b). It would be expected that those in criminal justice programs would express more interest in this vocation but this cannot be confirmed
through documents published on the PSC’s website. Moreover, this three percent indicator of interest was also used when showing the changing interest level of Canadian youth in policing from 2005 to 2010 (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b), but the presence of this finding in the first 2010 study reveals further issues of inconsistency and generalizability. It appears this finding only reflects the appeal of policing for some of the young people studied by Ipsos Reid in 2010.

Further comparisons can be drawn between the studies conducted in 2010 by Ipsos Reid for the PSC. Young Canadians within the first sample perceived policing as a "rather difficult career choice" (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a, p. 4) with only 23 percent of participants believing they would have family support if they decided to become officers (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a). Participants in criminal justice programs did not perceive policing as negatively. The majority of those in these related programs asserted that their family and friends would support their choice to enter policing, they were more aware of the elements involved in a policing career, and they would encourage those close to them to consider becoming officers (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). From these findings it can be extrapolated that although Ipsos Reid did not publish an exact percentage of those within their sample of criminal justice students that desired to become officers, policing appears to be a more desirable profession among youth with a criminal justice education. These comparative findings also reveal that disconnections between young peoples' perceptions of policing and the realities of this occupation appear to lessen with a criminal justice related education.

Findings further reveal that individuals with a criminal justice education do indeed have a more accurate understanding of the policing profession. When asked about the salary and benefits given to officers those with related education were said to have a good understanding (no percentage was given) (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). Conversely, only 25 percent of those in
the general sample population perceived this vocation as having good pay and good benefits (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a). While the meaning of "good" is ambiguous, Constables within the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) earn $77,944 after three years of employment and the benefits received include vacation pay, a pension plan, and medical and dental coverage (RCMP, 2011). This monetary pay is well above Canadian low income cut offs (see Giles, n.d.; Canadian Council of Social Development, 2012). Thus, the PSC is likely correct in stating that young peoples' perceptions "may not entirely fit with the reality of the type of benefits officers actually receive" (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a, p. 4).

It should be noted, however, that some disconnections between young peoples' perceptions of policing and the realities of this profession persist even among Ipsos Reid participants with a criminal justice education, but perhaps to a lesser extent. When asked about the preferred attributes for new recruits it was found that young people within the general sample of Canadian youth perceived conditioning level, mobility, and physical attributes as most desirable with race/ethnicity, gender, and sexual orientation ranked lowest (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010b). When asked the identical question those with a criminal justice education also cited conditioning level as the most important attribute followed by eye sight and past behaviour. Among this sample population age was thought to be least important (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010b; Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010c). In actuality the RCMP is attempting to better meet the needs of the diverse Canadian populace with increased recruitment of females and race/ethnic minorities (Seagrave, 1997; Freeze, 2010)\(^8\), an assertion that is supported by recent Statistics Canada figures. In 2006 women comprised approximately 18 percent of sworn officers, which indicates an eight percentage increase within the last 10 years (Statistics Canada, 2006). The

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\(^8\) Also see Palmiott and Unnithan (2011) for discussion of increased diversity within policing in coming years.
number of visible minorities within policing has also increased in recent years, doubling between 1996 and 2006 with four percent of police officers in Canada today being of Aboriginal decent (Statistics Canada, 2009). From this it can be extrapolated that improving diversity is increasingly important to Canadian policing organizations.

In Ipsos Reid's concluding report of the 2010 studies it is stated that a similar qualitative study is needed to further conceptualize the various findings to better understand young peoples' perceptions of policing as a career (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010a). Stemming from this apparent need and a desire to better understand how key influencers (parents, teachers, coaches, etc.) perceive the policing profession, Ipsos Reid most recently conducted quantitative surveys and qualitative focus groups in both Toronto, Ontario and Edmonton, Alberta. Both young people and "influencers" in each province completed surveys about their perceptions of policing before and after a recruitment presentation in their given province and upon completion, six to eight participants volunteered to further contribute in a focus group setting. A total of 75 participants completed the quantitative portion across both provinces and a total of three focus groups were conducted, two with young people and one with those determined to be key influencers (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b).

The most recent career related study conducted for the PSC by Ipsos Reid, like those conducted in prior years, is methodologically problematic and the discussion of findings lacks transparency. It is unclear within published documents on the PSC's website how the sample populations in either province were obtained but it is stated that "[t]his research involved a limited number of individuals who were specifically selected according to pre-determined attributes" (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b, p. 5). What said attributes were is not clear. Additionally, different police officers in Toronto and Edmonton conducted the recruitment
presentations. The presentations were also not the same in each city. The implications of differing presentations are undetermined but participants in Toronto held more accurate perceptions of policing after the presentation than those who participated in Edmonton (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). Inconsistencies may be attributable to the differing presentations. The lacking validity and generalizability must thus be remembered when analyzing the findings of this undertaking. The beliefs of the influencers within this study will not be elaborated on here as the published findings of this study continually muddle the perceptions of the young and the influencers. However, given that career choice literature suggests parents often can and do influence youths' career choices (Bregman and Killen, 1999), the role of other influencers is presumably similar.

Despite study limitations within this most recent project conducted for the PSC, some themes of relevance can be ascertained. Fifty four percent of young people within the combined sample populations (it is unclear but it appears that these statistics exclude the influencers) stated they held full time jobs but of that, 70 percent stated they might switch careers or are not sure what they want to do as a career (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). If these statistics are indeed derived from the young study participants, it could suggest that greater career preparation is needed in high school as discussed by Worthington and Juntunen (1997), Code et al. (2005), and Witko et al. (2008). It also could suggest, as briefly noted by Foley et al. (2007), that the priorities and values of this generation have shifted.9

Although it is unclear whether Ipsos Reid's summation of findings includes or excludes the influencers, some general trends are worth noting. Of those who expressed interest in policing, 79 percent of those in the Toronto sample population and 76 percent of those in the

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9 Although this thesis will touch on the career concerns of the young, these concerns are primarily a contextual aspect of this project.
Edmonton sample population - it appears that these figures were based on the young people within these samples - expressed interest in becoming a police officer. Yet, focus group responses indicated that many who expressed interest in policing had a limited understanding as to the realities of this profession. These participants also viewed themselves very differently compared to police officers (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). These findings lend credence to the idea that there are disconnections between young peoples' perceptions and the realities of policing with regards to themselves and the working environment of this profession. However, these sample populations are evidently biased as the majority of participants expressed interest in policing. If the previous findings of Ipsos Reid (2010a) are taken at face value, only three percent of their sample population of general Canadian youth expressed interest in this profession, which confirms the existence of sampling bias and lack of generalizability of the most recent study conducted for the PSC by Ipsos Reid.

In this most recent research undertaking Ipsos Reid (2011b) found that after the recruitment session in Toronto, participants’ perceptions of policing were more positive (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). This finding further supports the idea that as criminal justice related education increases, evident disconnections between individuals' perceptions of policing and the realities of this profession decrease. Yet, such perceptual changes were not noted among the Edmonton sample population and it was concluded that until young people are better able to view themselves as police officers, the benefits of educating them on a policing career are limited "and will likely not be sufficient to attract them to this career" (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b, p. 11). Once again, further research is needed to determine if there is a relationship between individuals’ criminal justice education and their perceptions of policing.
Going Forth: Research hypotheses

It appears the desirability of a policing career is lessening among young Canadians. It also appears that there is a disconnection between perceptions of policing and the working realities of this profession. Using a slightly more inductive approach to research, this thesis will explore a possible interconnection between these ideas. Five hypotheses will be tested within this study. The five hypotheses are:

(H1): Young people are generally informed about all aspects of policing.
(H0): Young people are generally uninformed about all aspects of policing.

(H2): Individuals in criminal justice related programs and disciplines are more knowledgeable about policing than others within their peer group.
(H0): Individuals in criminal justice related programs and disciplines are not more knowledgeable about policing than others within their peer group.

(H3): Those who have a family connection to this profession (i.e. a family member working as an officer, etc.) are not more knowledgeable about policing than others within their peer group.
(H0): Those who have a family connection to this profession (i.e. a family member working as an officer, etc.) are more knowledgeable about policing than others within their peer group.

(H4): Women and visible minorities do not express less desire to become police officers
and less faith in the equality of policing hiring practices than white males.

(H0): Women and visible minorities express less desire to become police officers and less faith in the equality of policing hiring practices than white males.

(H5): Regardless of gender or race/ethnicity, the most commonly cited motivation for wanting to become a police officer is the desire to help others.

(H0): Regardless of gender or race/ethnicity, the most commonly cited motivation for wanting to become a police officer is not the desire to help others.

This chapter has drawn together ideas from sociology, criminology, and psychology to show that little research has sought to understand young peoples' (Canadian or otherwise) perceptions of policing as a career and that which needs to be improved upon. Additionally, while studies conducted by Ipsos Reid for the PSC are relevant, their validity is limited and the findings also suggest the need for additional research in this area. It is the aim of this thesis to test the aforementioned hypotheses to determine if young peoples' perceptions of policing are interconnected with desire to be an officer.
CHAPTER THREE - Methodology

Further academic study is needed to examine young peoples’ perceptions of policing as a career. More specifically, a mix-methods study is needed to explore if young peoples' perceptions of policing are interconnected with desire to be an officer. Consistent with this aim, the selected methodologies employed within this project are a quantitative survey tool and qualitative asynchronous email interviews (AEIs).

This chapter will outline the methods used to gather data for this project. To begin, the principles of survey and AEI design will be explored. After a brief review of the ethical protocol, the survey tool and interview method will be discussed. To conclude, the statistical techniques used for data analysis will be outlined in preparation for the results chapter.

Survey Design Literature

Surveys have, for decades, served as a means of inquiry (Dillman, 2007). According to Janes (2001), a survey is "at its best when getting a snapshot of the current state of affairs in a given group or population" (p. 419) and thus, as many contend, survey research cannot reflect evolving attitudes and experiences over time (Jackson, 1988). Regardless of this limitation, self-administered surveys are one of the most commonly used research tools in the Western world today (Nardi, 2003; Dillman, 2007). Self-administered surveys can be disseminated to a sample population in many ways. Questionnaires can be distributed in person, through the mail service, via email, or posted on a website (Tuten et al., 2002; Nardi, 2003). Questionnaires distributed in person are considered generally to have the highest response rates given that research premises can be thoroughly explained, questions can be asked by respondents, and surveys can be
manually collected (Jackson, 1988; also see Tse et al., 1995; Swoboda et al., 1997); however, web-based data collection is becoming increasingly prevalent (Dillman and Bowker, 2002; Tuten et al., 2002; Nardi, 2003; Dillman, 2007).

Despite the abundant use of surveys, self-administered and otherwise, the flaws of this method extend beyond an inability to measure changes over time. Surveys are cost effective but generalizing survey findings can be problematic as surveys can have insufficient sample sizes, respondents can lie about their experiences, and questions can oversimplify complex social behaviours (Jackson, 1988). More specifically, recent literature on the generalizability of online surveys is limited. Writing 12 years ago, Brenner (2000) suggested the generalizability of online research was still undetermined. Three years later Andrew et al. (2003) took the position that online and offline populations were not alike. It was explained that inferences from the online population to the offline population (or general population) could be made once these groups of people were reflective of each other (Andrew et al., 2003). Given the increasing usage of the Internet today, it can be assumed that the online and offline populations mirror the other more than ever before and, thus, inferences can likely be made with greater certainty.

Further challenges also plague electronic surveys. Sample populations are limited to those with Internet access (Nardi, 2003; Dillman, 2007) and surveys can be cumbersome to design using online survey providers (Nardi, 2003); those designing online surveys must be mindful that aspects of the survey including colours and question formatting may appear different on participants’ screens than intended by design (Dillman, 2007). The aforementioned flaws within survey research can, however, be minimized and overcome (Nardi, 2003).

There are, however, notable advantages to using online surveys within research. These electronic questionnaires are cost effective as they do not require printing, postage, or data to be
input (Tuten et al., 2002). Online questionnaires are also easy to distribute. Distribution can occur in one of two ways: a survey can be posted on a website or access to a survey can be sent to participants via email. The former is commonly referred to as a web-based survey and the latter is known as an email survey (Andrews et al., 2003; Nardi, 2003; Dillman, 2007). Email surveys are those of interest here. If distribution occurs via email and response rates are less than desired, reminder emails can be sent at little to no cost to increase response rates. Online surveys have also been shown to have quicker response times than their mail counterparts (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998; Andrews et al., 2003) and online surveys can, in some cases, be completed at the participants’ convenience (Nardi, 2003; Dillman, 2007). This method of inquiry has been tested repeatedly and shown to produce reliable and valid findings (Jackson, 1988; also see Nardi 2003; Dillman, 2007) but scholars are mixed as to whether mail or online surveys provide more thorough responses (Tuten et al., 2002).

Some debate exists over the extent to which online surveys are similar to mail and telephone questionnaires. While Nardi (2003) discusses online surveys within a wider conversation of survey design, Andrews et al. (2003) cautions that "electronic surveys have distinctive technological, demographic and response characteristics that affect how they should be designed, when they can be used and how they can be implemented" (p. 185; also see Sohn, 2001). Like traditional surveys, the formatting of online questionnaires can be tedious. Surveys should begin with an intriguing question to capture respondents' interest and from there questions should be ordered logically; however, researchers must be mindful that earlier questions can influence participant’s later responses. Section headings and question numbers should also be used to organize a survey. The survey as a whole and each section within should begin with a brief set of instructions that are clear and concise (Nardi, 2003). Formatting a survey can, in
some instances, be easier using an online survey provider (Nardi, 2003). Those designing online surveys can utilize various texts, colours, and graphics (Andrews et al., 2003; also see Yun and Trumbo, 2000; Dillman, 2007). Limitations can also be placed on the number of responses within a given question (Andrews et al., 2003) and "branching" or "skip logic" can be inserted efficiently within an online survey (see FluidSurveys, n.d.). Branching within a survey is when questions are included or excluded depending on participants' previous responses to questions within the given survey (Nardi, 2003). Given the finicky nature of survey design, online or otherwise, all questionnaires should be pre-tested before wide distribution (Andrews, 2003; Nardi, 2003).

Central aspects within survey research are also the rate at which respondents complete the survey (response rate) and the time taken by respondents to complete the survey (completion time). When discussing surveys generally Nardi (2003) suggests that approximately 20% to 30% of those given questionnaires return them promptly. This percentage often increases to 50% or more once reminders have been sent. Response rates less than 60% or 70% are, however, problematic as questions of reliability arise (Nardi, 2003). The rates at which online surveys are completed are debated continually. Response rates for both web-based and email surveys range from 20% to over 70% (Andrews et al., 2003). However, it is suggested by some that low response rates among web-based and email surveys threaten their use within research as postal surveys frequently produce higher rates of completion (Schafer and Dillman, 1998; Couper et al., 1999). If these assertions are taken as facts, researchers should design electronic surveys that appeal to their sample population. Bosnjak and Batinic (2002) found that electronic survey respondents frequently completed questionnaires out of curiosity, a desire to contribute to research, to acquire personal knowledge, and for material incentives. It was also found that
access to the researcher's email address was important to those completing online surveys (Bosnjak and Batinic, 2002). If electronic surveys are designed using these appealing characteristics, response rates are likely to be higher.

Moreover, the adequate completion time required for online surveys has yet to be widely agreed upon; however, Bosnjak and Batinic (2002) found that 79% of their 140 English-speaking participants\(^{10}\) were willing to spend a minimum of 10 minutes completing an online survey. Based on the findings of Bosnjak and Batinic (2002) with regards to both response rate and the completion time of electronic surveys, it appears online respondents are willing to spend time participating in online research if a survey, first and foremost, appeals to their curiosity. Survey design evidently requires much thought. While many write about designing quality surveys (see Jackson, 1988; Nardi, 2003; Dillman, 2007), there are no explicit design guidelines that will ensure success (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998; Nardi, 2003). Researchers must thus tailor a survey's design to match a project's objectives.

The choice to use an online survey as part of this project was made primarily because the method is suited to the age-range of study participants. It can be difficult to study young adults given their often un-cooperative attitudes and the various transitional phases that occur between high school and young adulthood (Best, 2007; Kasesniemi, 2003). Students are, however, among those most likely to complete questionnaires (Goyder, 1982) and often spend a large amount of time online. According to Anderson (2001), the average college student spends 100 minutes on the Internet each day whereas the average user spends about 15 minutes online daily. The use of an online survey for this thesis was thus appropriate given the frequency of Internet usage among the sample population. Aside from selecting a research method that directly appealed to the

\(^{10}\) It should be noted that although Bosnjak and Batinic’s (2002) sample size was small, limited research has explored completion times of online surveys. It is thus a relevant precedent here.
target population, an online survey was also cost effective (Tuten et al., 2002; Nardi, 2003; Dillman, 2007). The questionnaire utilized here was also designed to avoid many of the design flaws outlined in the survey design literature. Access to the questionnaire was distributed to a large target population, a variety of options were given within each question in order to encompass a wide array of social behaviours and/or ideas, and survey data added a quantitative element within this mix-methods project. While the content of the survey was of utmost interest when constructing the survey here, in accordance with Dillman (2007) much time was spent designing the survey and ensuring that the survey would appear to participants as it did to the researcher.

**Asynchronous Email Interview (AEI) Literature**

AEIs have emerged recently as a useful qualitative tool of inquiry (Meho and Tibbo, 2003; Meho, 2006; McCoyd and Kenson, 2006; Hunt and McHale, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010). According to Maho (2006) most of the studies concerning AEIs "conducted before 2003 were methodological in nature, aiming simply to test the suitability of e-mail for qualitative interviewing" (p. 1285). Since 2003 the majority of AEI studies have not been methods focused. These findings are not to suggest that scholars are no longer interested in the validity of AEIs, but rather given their apparent validity, AEIs are being used increasingly as a method of qualitative inquiry (Maho, 2006).

While many scholars note increasing usage of AEIs in research (Mann and Stewart, 2000; Egan et al., 2006; McCoyd and Kenson, 2006; Dillman, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010), there is not one consistent format for conducting these online interviews. Generally, an AEI consists of a series of email-based exchanges between a researcher and a study participant based
on a number of predetermined semi-structured interview questions (McCoyd and Kenson, 2006; King and Horrocks, 2010). Unlike a traditional face-to-face interview, a researcher can be conducting several interviews at the same time and an interview can transpire for several days, weeks, or even months (Meho and Tibbo, 2003; Meho, 2006; Hunt and McHale, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010). Like other forms of interviewing (see King and Horrocks, 2010), an AEI is complete once the researcher believes that he/she has acquired all necessary information (Hunt and McHale, 2007) or if a respondent no longer wants to participate (Hodgson, 2004; Hunt and McHale, 2007).\(^\text{11}\) If participation is maintained until the researcher is satisfied that all necessary information has been gathered, the participant should be asked if they have any further questions. A participant should also be told upon finishing that they can contact the researcher should questions arise in the future (Hunt and McHale, 2007). These instructions for "closing" an interview are not static. Interview procedures do differ to some extent depending on the topic (see Meho, 2006; McCoyd and Kerson, 2006; Hunt and McHale, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010).

There are numerous reasons why a researcher may opt to conduct AEIs. These reasons include (but are not limited to) geographical distance between researcher and participant, limited research funds, and availability of participants (see Meho and Tibbo, 2003; Meho, 2006; McCoyd and Kerson, 2006; Hunt and McHale, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010). There are many advantages and disadvantages to this method of inquiry. While the flexible nature of completing AEIs can be beneficial for both the researcher and study participants (Mann and Stewart, 2000; Hunt and McHale, 2007; Ison, 2009; King and Horrocks, 2010), a lengthy interview can result in reduced completion rates and frustration for those involved (Meho and Tibbo, 2003; Hunt and

\(^{11}\) See Mann and Stewart (2000) for a discussion of participant retention in online interviews, which can sometimes be a problem when acquiring data.
McHale, 2007; also see Hodgson, 2004). To minimize the possibility of frustration and maintain a manageable research schedule, researchers should inform participants as to the time commitment involved (Hunt and McHale, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010).

The caveat to specifying the duration of an interview is that necessary rapport between interviewer and interviewee takes time to establish. Establishing time constraints controls the pace of exchanges but limits the development of relationships (King and Horrocks, 2010). While the argument can be made that web-based interactions do not generate the same rapport as those completed face-to-face, this is not always true (see Markham, 2004; Hunt and McHale, 2007; Derks et al., 2008). If genuine rapport is an essential ingredient in all qualitative interviews, then the point of interest is whether online methods of inquiry such as AEIs generate similar results to more traditional techniques. If results are similar across methods, it can be extrapolated that rapport can be established in an online environment. Numerous studies indicate similar findings are garnered by both traditional and newer methods of online inquiry (see Curasi, 2001; Denscombe 2003; Meho and Tibbo, 2003; Murray, 2004; Murray and Harrison, 2004; Ross et al., 2005; McCoyd and Kerson, 2006), highlighting that rapport can be established in an online setting and emphasizing the reliability and validity of online research methods. Studies also reveal that compared to those who completed face-to-face interviews, AEI participants were more focused on the question at hand and gave responses of greater depth. While Meho (2006) cautions that these findings do not discredit face-to-face interviewing, the asynchronous nature of this method allows for the necessary time and space to formulate thoughtful responses (see Egan et al., 2006; McCoyd and Kerson, 2006).

There are further advantages and disadvantages to the use of AEIs. Acquiring a sample population can be challenging as emails are often deleted without being read (Meho, 2006) and
not everyone has Internet access (Meho, 2006; Hunt and McHale, 2007) but the online environment allows researchers access to populations which may not otherwise be available. AEIs also allow for the participation of those who may not be able or willing to express themselves in a face-to-face setting such as those with disabilities (see Egan et al., 2006: Ison, 2009). AEIs are also cost effective firstly because they do not require travel (Mann and Stewart, 2000; Meho, 2006; Hunt and McHale, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010). However, given that no face-to-face contact is made, participants’ response times may be longer than expected, responses may be brief, and questions of rapport building arise. AEIs are also cost effective because they do not require transcription, however multiple email exchanges do require the researcher to be very organized, frequently gathering all collected data into an electronic document (see Meho and Tibbo, 2003; Meho, 2006; Hunt and McHale, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010).

The use of AEIs requires the researcher to do a "cost benefit analysis." There are evident disadvantages to the use of AEIs but studies have revealed that data generated from AEIs is comparable to that gathered from face-to-face interviews and is better in some instances. Opinions, however, continue to be somewhat mixed. Hunt and McHale (2007) contend that given the limitations of AEIs, it is best used in triangulation with other tools of inquiry. Meho (2006), however, notes that the disadvantages of AEIs can be overcome easily and suggests that “[t]his method can be employed quickly, conveniently, and inexpensively and can generate high-quality data when handled carefully” (p. 1293). The researcher is thus left to determine for themselves if AEIs are fitting for their project.

---


13 AEIs are beneficial for people who cannot adequately express themselves verbally (Egan et al., 2006; Meho, 2006; Ison, 2009). I, the researcher, have a speech impediment and thus, AEIs were used in part to limit the amount
Ethical Protocol

This study received the approval of the Research Ethics Board (REB) at the University of Guelph on January 4, 2012 (see Appendix A for the ethics certificate). REB approval signified that this study was safe for human participation. This research undertaking exposed participants to minimal physical and psychological risk (as do all activities undertaken by individuals) but this risk was not significant enough to warrant managing. That said deception was used to avoid response bias.

Participants’ privacy is also an area that warrants a brief discussion. Individuals’ participation and the data collected was entirely anonymous unless participants opted to supply their email addresses. If an email address was voluntarily supplied, this contact information was used to garner participation in the AEIs. All email addresses were stored with the corresponding data on an encrypted USB key. Confidentiality was maintained at all times.

The Survey: Designed and Administered

The survey instrument designed for this thesis (see Appendix B) was tailored to the project's research objectives. The study sampled undergraduates from the University of Guelph and Guelph-Humber who were initially invited to participate via course instructors within the Social Sciences. An initial outreach email was sent to approximately 27 course instructors asking if they would be willing to send an email to their students seeking participation in this study. Of the 27, 24 agreed to send the email to their students. This student email (see Appendix C) explained the premise of the study and provided the hyperlink to the online survey. The survey was hosted by the Canadian-based company fluidsurveys.com.

of necessary speaking. AEIs were also used as they do not require travel, which is often necessary for face-to-face interviewing (see Mann and Stewart, 2000; Meho, 2006; Hunt and McHale, 2007; King and Horrocks, 2010).
Upon clicking the hyperlink, individuals were presented with a welcome screen where they were asked to read the necessary consent information (see pages two and three of Appendix B) and were given the option to provide their email address for possible study follow up. By clicking “Yes, I agree” they were declaring they had read, understood, and accepted the research terms and conditions. If they clicked “I disagree” they were redirected to an exit screen where they were thanked for their interest. Upon completing the survey respondents who agreed to participate clicked “Submit” and were redirected to an exit screen where they were thanked. The true intent of the study was not revealed to survey participants. If the true intent of the project was revealed outright, it can be assumed that those who possessed an interest in policing as a career would be those most likely to participate and thus, an inherent sampling bias would exist.

The survey instrument was designed to conceal the actual intent of the research. While all participants answered the first four questions, participants were automatically directed to one of three survey branches depending on whether they expressed no interest in policing as a career choice, a current interest in policing as a career choice, or a past interest in policing as a career choice. Questions one through four were designed to convey to participants a project that was examining the general career aspirations of young people. More importantly, these questions provided insight into the general perceptions and thought processes of undergraduates with regards to occupational interest and career desirability. Question three was, however, the true launching point for this study as it asked respondents to rate the appeal of eleven occupations/careers across a spectrum of employment fields. This question was used to differentiate participants. Those who rated the appeal of policing as a four or five on the five point scale within question three, were immediately re-directed to question five while all other respondents completed question four before being re-directed to the demographic questions
Participants who rated policing as highly appealing in question three were re-directed to question five. Here they were asked to indicate if they currently possessed interest in working as an officer or if they have considered a career in policing in the past but are no longer interested. Those who expressed current interest in becoming an officer were re-directed to question nine.
and subsequently completed question 10. Question nine asked those interested in becoming an officer to indicate what makes policing a desirable career choice. Question 10 asked respondents about policing stereotypes in Canada and thus began to investigate how perceptions of policing differ from the realities of police work. Similarly, those who indicated they were no longer interested in pursuing a career as an officer carried on to complete questions six, seven, and eight. Question six asked respondents what made policing an appealing career and question seven asked participants to explain why they were no longer interested in policing as a future career. Question eight, like question nine given to those who expressed current interest in policing, used policing stereotypes as a means of examining if and how perceptions of policing differ from the vocational realities of this occupation.

All participants who expressed interest in policing (current or past interest) completed the remaining survey questions from question 11 onwards. Respondents were asked a wide array of questions regarding the policing application process, the hiring process, and the realities of working as an officer. More specifically, questions 11 through 30 explored concepts including entry requirements, officer salary, perceptions of occupational danger, and gender differences between male and female officers. These concepts were derived from the policing literature, many of which were discussed in chapter two. The general goal of this research and correspondingly, the aim of questions 11 through 30, was to better understand the perceptions that influence individuals' desire (or lack thereof) to enter policing. The secondary aim was to determine if indeed perceptions among the sample population differ from the realities of policing.

Questions 31 through 38 of the survey were demographic questions asked to all respondents regardless of interest in policing. Respondents were asked about their age, cultural
origin, program of study, and parents' educational levels. Participants' responses to the questions of cultural origin and program of study were fundamental to this thesis. Race/ethnicity and exposure to a criminal justice education within undergraduate study were commonly discussed within policing literature and subsequently explored throughout this thesis.

Questions 39 through 41 were the final questions completed by all participants. Questions 39 and 40 asked respondents to indicate their confidence in the Canadian police and the Canadian justice system. Derived from the writings of Box et al. (1988) and Roberts (2007), respondents’ confidence (or lack there of) in these institutions may help to explain why some young people express interest in becoming police officers while others do not. Public confidence levels in the Canadian Criminal Justice System as a whole and its inner elements such as policing have been little studied; however, high levels of confidence are essential to their functioning (Roberts, 2007). Confidence in the Canadian police and justice system, if indicated here, have direct implications with regards to the recruitment of officers. Question 41 then outwardly asked respondents if, in their opinion, men or women make better police officers. The option was also given to state that both genders were equally effective as officers. This gendered question was asked to determine if inherent biases exist among the sample population as to whether males or females are better law enforcers.

Asynchronous Email Interviews: Designed and Administered

Upon completion of survey data collection, respondents who indicated in the online survey a current or past interest in policing were isolated within the data set. Of this segment of respondents, any who supplied their email addresses were sent a follow up email seeking their participation in AEIs (see Appendix D) with a consent form for further participation attached
(see Appendix E). If further participation was agreed upon, they were asked to reply to the email and attach the completed consent form. Twenty respondents were originally sent recruitment emails out of the 69 respondents (29%) who expressed a current or past interest in policing in the survey. Of that, four individuals agreed to participate in the AEIs. A series of email exchanges then began (see Appendix F for semi-structured interview guide). Once the researcher had acquired all needed information from an interview participant, the participant was asked if they had any further questions or concerns. If no issues arose, a participant was finally asked if contact could be made at a later date if further questioning was needed; the interview was then complete.

The semi-structured AEI guide consisted of nine questions. The questions were premised on ideas and concepts discussed throughout the policing literature and built upon the ideas discussed throughout the survey. The interview questions had two objectives: to better understand the perceptions that influence individuals' desire (or lack thereof) to enter policing and to determine if indeed perceptions among the young differ from the realities of policing. All AEIs conducted began with an email that thanked individuals for their participation, denoted how an email interview transpires, reassured participants there were no "correct" answers to any of the questions, and initiated the conversation by asking what sparked their interest in policing. The goal of this first email and all subsequent email interactions was to foster a good rapport with participants. The emails to follow asked for response clarity as needed, a technique discussed by Meho (2006), and probed participants about various aspects of policing including the hiring process, the daily tasks performed by officers, and the interactions between male and female officers. While the order of interview questions differed, each interview always unintentionally concluded with a discussion of how a policing career would impact one's family.
life. The use of AEIs here adds a qualitative dimension to the quantitative data acquired through the survey. AEIs also add greater analytical depth to the project as they allowed the researcher to probe for more information where necessary.

**Data Analysis**

It should be noted the findings of this research undertaking cannot be generalized to all young adults within the Western world; however, the results are likely generalizable to English-speaking university students in the province of Ontario. Students from the University of Guelph and Guelph-Humber, including those who participated in this study, share characteristics similar to other English-speaking university students throughout the province. Thus, distinctions can be drawn as to the thought processes and/or actions of English-speaking undergraduates in Ontario based on the results of the administered survey and AEIs.

**Use of Excel**

The quantitative data collected from the survey was first downloaded into Excel; Excel is a spreadsheet program. It was then formatted and coded. Variables were labelled, text responses were given numerical values, and new variables were created. All responses of "not sure" were coded 95, all responses of "other" were coded 96, and all responses of "do not know" were coded 97. Once all variables were labelled and coded, new variables were added. The variable labeled "birthyear" was manipulated to generate the new variable of "age." All responses of "Q (the question number) nointeresttext" associated with "other" responses were then analyzed to determine if consistent themes were evident within each category. This examination generated four new variables. In question three a variable labelled "law" was generated to encompass the
responses of those who desired to work in the area of law and more specifically, those who expressed interest in a career as a lawyer and/or a judge. In question four, the text responses given within "other" showed that some found personal fulfillment/the level of on-the-job enjoyment to be an appealing characteristic of an occupation/career. A variable of "enjoyment" was thus added here. Two variables were also generated with regards to race/ethnicity based on the text responses given by participants, "First nations" and "European." A final variable was also added when the "program" variable was manipulated. The data acquired through question 36, which asked participants to specify their program of study, was categorized based on the extent to which participants had been exposed to a criminal justice education based on their given undergraduate program. A new variable labeled "exposure" was generated.14

Categories were then added within some variables and one category was removed from the "gender" variable. Text questions seven, eight, and 10 were analyzed to determine if any consistent themes could be ascertained from participants' responses. While no dominant consistencies were found among responses in questions eight and 10, text responses within question seven were divided into four categories, which in essence summarize why some participants were no longer interested in a policing career. These categorizations were "more interested in a different career path," "too dangerous," "dislike shift work," and "other." Categories were also added within questions 37 and 38, which pertained to the education level of participants' parents. Within the variables labelled "father" and "mother," the categorization of "elementary school" was added based on text responses provided in the "other" segment of each question. Finally, the category of "transexual" within the "gender" variable was removed as no study participants self-identified as anything other than male or female.

14 Please see chapter four for more detail on the "exposure" variable within this analysis.
Use of SPSS

Once variables were coded and manipulated in Excel, the quantitative survey data was imported into SPSS, a statistical analysis program, for further exploration. In SPSS any missing labels were first added, the values of each variable were imputed, missing values for each variable were inserted, and each variable was given a measure of nominal, ordinal, or scale. In questions where "not sure" (95) and "do not know" (97) could be selected by participants, SPSS was instructed to treat these numbers as missing values. SPSS was also instructed to treat "Haven't seriously considered this career" (94) as missing when running analyses on the occupational variables from question three. When running some analyses "other" (96) was also treated as a missing value.

In the early stages of data analysis, it was determined that two new variables were needed. First, to examine whether perceptions of policing as a career differ with regards to race/ethnicity, a variable labeled "ethnicity2" was generated, which divided participants into one of two categories, “white” or “non-white,” by manipulating the race/ethnicity variables identified in question 33 of the survey, which asked participants to self-identify their race/ethnicity. The choice to divide participants into the categories of "white" and "non-white" was made to determine if ideas of policing differ among these segments of peoples and subsequently fill a void within existing literature. While it would have been ideal to examine differing races/ethnicities individually, this study’s sample population was predominately white and thus little variability existed among races/ethnicities. To increase variability and better understand the desire to enter policing among those of differing race/ethnic origins, the categories of "white" and "non-white" were therefore added within the variable "ethnicity2." Second, a variable

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15 For clarity, a list of ethnic categories derived from the General Social Survey was provided as part of a survey question for this project. Respondents were asked to identify their ethnicity(ies) and these responses were
labeled "interest2" was generated to differentiate those currently or formally interested in policing from the majority of the sample who expressed no interest in policing. "Interest2" was generated by manipulating the "interest" variable derived from question five. Using the aforementioned variables and categories the data was analyzed. Various statistical tests were used, including basic descriptive statistics, frequency scores, analysis of variances (ANOVAs), and chi-square tests of significance (which are classified within cross-tabulations).

Use of Content Analysis:

Upon completion of each interview, the qualitative data was copied and pasted into a Word document and was content analyzed. Content analysis is a research method used to analyze visual, written, or verbal communications (Cole, 1988; also see Morgan, 1993; Cavanagh, 1997; Elo and Kyngas, 2007) and can be used as a quantitative or qualitative tool (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). However, its use in academia has long been questioned as some argue the method is little more than counting codes (Downe-Wamboldt 1992; Morgan, 1993; Elo and Kyngas, 2007). In actuality, qualitative content analysis is a methodical process of generating codes\(^{16}\), examining the occurrences of each code, and then interpreting the data patterns (Morgan, 1993). This methodology is used increasingly as scholars in disciplines such as sociology and healthcare studies see benefit (Elo and Kyngas, 2007).

There are numerous types of content analysis, including inductive and deductive approaches: inductive content analysis is used when knowledge on a topic is limited. It is thus exploratory in nature. Deductive content analysis is typically used when the conducted research

\(^{16}\) For clarity, scholars often interchange the words “codes” and “categories” within discussions of content analysis.
is premised on existing knowledge (Elo and Kyngas, 2007); when, for example, hypotheses can be tested based on existing understandings. For the purpose of this project, an inductive approach to content analysis was used as the interconnection between perceptions of a policing career and desire to be an officer has not been examined. This project is largely exploratory.

Focusing more specifically on the form of content analysis used here, "qualitative content analysis is [..] a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; p.1278). By coding data into categories the researcher is able to describe a given idea or phenomenon and generate understanding (Cavanagh 1997). There is no exact method used to perform an inductive analysis on qualitative data but commonly, text is organized and a phase of "open coding" begins. Open coding is the process by which content is read and a series of notes/codes are written in the margin. These writings are preliminary ideas and codes that strike the researcher when reading the text; the aim of this coding phase being to generally understand the analyzed content. The notes are then transferred to a coding sheet where additional categories are often generated. Categories are then combined and grouped hierarchically to lessen the number of categories and identify ideas of importance. In the "abstraction" phase categories are honed and sub-categories are generated in final preparation for a discussion of results (Elo and Kyngas, 2007; also see Burnard 1991, Downe-Wamboldt 1992, Dey 1993; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005).

After reading each AEI transcription twice, open coding was performed. The notes in the margins were brief statements about what was read. Three margin notes written, for example, read "wanted to be officer since middle school;" "time spent as officer = patrolling, doing paperwork, and responding to calls;" and "App Process = lengthy." All margin notes were then
transferred to a coding sheet (see Appendix G) and possible categories were determined. Notably, seven categories continually arose when the coding notes for each interview were analyzed. These categories were "reasons for interest," "application and hiring process," "tasks performed," "level of understanding," "gender roles/perceptions of gender," "family life," and "media portrayals." These categories thus appeared to be representative of the qualitative content.

The seven categories were then hierarchically organized based on a logical progression of ideas; "level of understanding" was first followed by categories which concerned perceptions of a policing career (i.e. "application and hiring process," "tasks performed," etc.). The category of "reasons for interest" was last on the list. The categories were then given a corresponding colour and each of the bullet-point notes generated through open-coding were placed in one of the six categories. For example, the category of "family life" was red so the bullet-point of "higher divorce rates" from interview two was highlighted red. Given the limited number of interviews, familiarity with the interview content, and because responses were similar among all participants, response patterns were easily discernible using the discussed seven categories. A final decision was thus made not to generate any further categories or subcategories. The interview results were thus ready for interpretation.

Conclusion

This chapter has explored the research methods used within this research project including a quantitative survey and qualitative AEIs. These methods of inquiry were specifically tailored to achieve the research aims of this project in an informative yet innovative manner. The aforementioned statistical tests and content analysis run on study data will be further denoted and
examined in the following results chapter. The results stemming from these methods of data analysis are the cornerstone of all future discussions within this thesis.
CHAPTER FOUR: An Overview of Survey Findings

My research questions will be answered through statistical analysis of survey data and critical analysis of asynchronous email interview transcriptions. This chapter will, however, only describe the survey results. Given the limited number of AEIs conducted, interview results will be explored in the following discussion chapter in relation to the survey findings.

This chapter will begin by outlining the demographic characteristics of the sample population, including age, gender, race/ethnicity, and program of study. Next, statistical techniques including AVONA cross-tabulations, and regression will be used to interpret the data. It should be noted that not all survey results will be examined within this chapter and used within this thesis. Data will be highlighted that best addresses the central objectives of this project: to better understand the perceptions that influence one’s desire to enter the policing profession and to determine if perceptions among the young differ from the realities of policing.

The generalizability of this study requires a brief reiteration. The sample used within this research was not randomly selected; thus, the results may be generalized only with caution. This study does, however, allow us to better understand the career-related perceptions of English-speaking university students and more specifically, English-speaking university students in Ontario.

Sample Demographics

Three hundred and eleven undergraduate students at the University of Guelph and Guelph-Humber returned surveys and of that, 241 were completed fully. Of the 241 students who completed the survey, 174 (72.2%) were female and 67 (27.8%) were male. At the University of
Guelph, 62.1% of the school's student population is female and 37.9% is male, which helps explain why the sample population was predominantly female (Byer, 2004; also see Clancy, 2007).

The demographics derived from the survey also reveal necessary information with regards to the age and race/ethnicity of participants. The majority of survey respondents (217 individuals or 90%) were between the ages of 19-23 (see Table 1). Moreover, the race/ethnic composition of the sample was 85.5% (206 respondents) White with several other races/ethnicities lesser identified (see Table 2). Thus, the initial identity variable needed to be collapsed because of the limited number of respondents in each category. A new variable coded "ethnicity2" was thus created and consisted of two inner categories: “White” and “non-White.” Within this new variable, 186 (77.2%) respondents were classified as White and 55 (22.8%) respondents were classified as non-White.

### Table 1: Age of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17 Official data concerning the gender breakdown of University of Guelph-Humber students is not available. It is suspected, however, that the student body is female-dominated based on informal conversations.

18 Informal conversations revealed that the student population at the University of Guelph-Humber is more ethnically diverse than the student population at the University of Guelph because of Guelph-Humber's proximity to Toronto. The greater diversity of Guelph-Humber has no technical bearing on the results discussed throughout this chapter as only six students from there participated in this study.

19 The variable “ethnicity2” will be used for the remainder of this thesis to increase the validity of assertions concerning similarities and differences among those of differing ethnic origins.
Table 2: Race/Ethnic Breakdown of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity/Race</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>85.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asian</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Nations</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Asian</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southeast Asian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>241</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final demographic of relevance is program of study. As noted in chapter two, it can be extrapolated from a summation document authored by Ipsos Public Affairs (2011b) on behalf of the PSC that those in criminal justice-related programs better understand the realities of police work compared to their peers. Policing also appeared to be a more desirable profession among youth with a criminal justice education (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2011b). To explore these ideas, the variable "exposure" was created, consisting of three inner categories: "almost certain" exposure, "likely" exposure, and "unlikely" exposure. Survey respondents' exposure to a criminal justice education was determined on the basis of their self-identified program of study (see Table 3). It
hould be noted that at the University of Guelph, both the Sociology and Criminal Justice and Public Policy (CJPP) programs consist of some criminal justice courses; thus, students within both programs were deemed to have "almost certain" exposure. If students majored or minored in Sociology, CJPP, Criminology, or Justice Studies\(^20\)(the programs resulting in "almost certain" exposure to criminal justice teachings - see Table 3), they were categorized as "likely" having exposure. Students within other programs of study (e.g. Political Science, Psychology, or Zoology) were categorized as "unlikely" to have been exposed to a criminal justice education.

**Table 3: Categorical Breakdown of Exposure Variable**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of Exposure Variable</th>
<th>Programs of Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>Sociology, CJPP, Criminology, or Justice Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>Those who majored or minored in Sociology, CJPP,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Criminology, or Justice Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>Political Science, Psychology, Zoology, Etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data indicated that 100 (41.5%) respondents “likely” or “almost certainly” had been exposed to a criminal justice education (see Table 4). The high percentage of respondents in the “likely” or “almost certain” categories is explained by the fact the study was distributed predominantly to University of Guelph students within the College of Social and Applied Human Sciences and to University of Guelph-Humber students within the Justice Studies Program to ensure a sufficient number of participants had an interest in policing to adequately evaluate perceptions of the policing profession among the young.

\(^{20}\)“Justice Studies” is a criminal justice-based program offered at the University of Guelph-Humber.
Table 4 – Frequency Statistics of Exposure Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>58.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Career Choice Among the Young

The first questions in the survey asked respondents about their future career aspirations. Of the 241 respondents who completed the survey, 163 (67.6%) stated they had given their future career aspirations a great deal of thought, 70 (29%) stated they had given it some thought, and 8 (3.3%) stated they had not given it much thought. Students were then asked to rank the appeal of possible career options on a five-point Likert scale with one being least appealing and five being very appealing. The descriptive statistics revealed that careers within the federal government are most appealing to males and females with mean scores of 3.53 (sd=1.405) and 3.51 (sd =1.427) respectively. A career in agriculture was found to be the least appealing career for male respondents with a mean score of 1.75 (sd=1.136) and a career in the military was least appealing for females with a mean score of 1.64 (sd=1.068). Only four of the 12 careers listed were found to have statistically significant differences in desirability by gender, including the trades (f=5.062; df=1; p<.05), policing (f=7.515; df=1; p<.01), the non-profit sector (f=10.940; df=1; p<0.001), and the military (f=20.958; df=1; p<.001) (see Table 6). Of these four careers, all were rated more appealing by males with the exception of the non-profit sector (see Table 5).
### Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Career Options by Gender of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Mean (/5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trades</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>1.87</td>
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</table>

### Table 6: Statistically Significant Career Options by Gender of Respondents

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Trades</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>6.055</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.055</td>
<td>5.062</td>
<td>.025</td>
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<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>254.801</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>1.196</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>214</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>20.873</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.873</td>
<td>10.940</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>414.040</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>1.908</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>434.913</td>
<td>218</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>15.865</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15.865</td>
<td>7.515</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>472.900</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.111</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>488.765</td>
<td>225</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>28.855</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28.855</td>
<td>20.858</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>301.581</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>1.383</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330.436</td>
<td>219</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: The careers/occupations that were not statistically significant were excluded to ensure clarity.*
After identifying which career/occupational fields were most appealing, those who ranked policing as a four or higher on the five-point scale were redirected to a second branch of the survey, which asked those interested in being an officer a series of policing-related questions. All other respondents were asked which of six given characteristics make a career/occupation appealing. Respondents could also state any occupationally appealing characteristics in the given text box, but of the text responses given, no common themes were apparent during coding. When a cross-tabulation was run on the six variables within this question while testing the relationship between gender and characteristics of appeal, it was found that the majority of males (34 out of 40 or 85%) and females (119 out of 132 or 90.2%) noted the appeal of income. The desire to help others was perceived by males (24 out of 40 or 60%) and females (103 out of 132 or 78%) as the second most appealing characteristic of a career/occupation. The least noted characteristic of appeal by both males (1 out of 40 or 2.5%) and females (6 out of 132 or 4.5%) was having a family connection to a career/occupation. The chi-square test indicated that only opportunity for advancement (p<0.05) and opportunity to help others (p<0.05) were statistically significant (see Table 7); therefore, it can be said with some certainty that the results of these two variables are likely not the product of chance.

Table 7: Characteristics of Appeal by Gender of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>........................</th>
<th>Pearson Chi-Squared Value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income potential</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status/prestige</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity for advancement</td>
<td>4.428</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to help others</td>
<td>5.166</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental connection</td>
<td>.329</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.566</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When a second cross-tabulation was run testing the relationship between race/ethnicity and the characteristics that make a career/occupation appealing, there was no evidence of statistically significant differences. It can thus be extrapolated that the apparent distribution of data is likely attributed to chance and not a function of race/ethnicity or preference.

After identifying the characteristics that make a career/occupation appealing, those who did not previously rank policing as a four or higher on the five-point scale were redirected to the demographic questions while those who rated policing as highly appealing continued on. Those who expressed interest in becoming an officer were further divided into two groups: those currently interested in policing and those who once possessed interest in becoming an officer. Of the 241 respondents who completed the survey, 32 (13.3%) expressed current interest in becoming a police officer and 37 (15.4%) had considered a career in policing but were no longer interested (see Table 8).

**Table 8: Respondents’ Interest in a Policing Career**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently interested in pursuing policing</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once interested in policing but no longer</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No interest in policing</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>71.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those who expressed current or past interest in policing were then asked which of a specific set of characteristics make or made policing an appealing career. Cross-tabulations were first run on the data by those currently interested in policing. When exploring the relationship
between the appealing characteristics of policing and gender and the relationship between the appealing characteristics of policing and race/ethnicity, the desire to "help others" was most frequently expressed across all groups with parental or family connection noted least. However, no statistically significant differences were found between the variables.

**Perceptions of Policing**

*Perceptions Concerning the Application and Hiring Process*

The second section of the survey was designed to examine respondents' perceptions and knowledge of the policing application and hiring process; only those who expressed a current or past interest in policing completed this section. Respondents were asked to rank (on a three-point scale) the importance of possessing qualities such as a high school education, emotional stability, and willingness to relocate when applying to become a police officer. When controlling for gender, the mean scores (see Table 9) revealed that male respondents perceived ability to problem solve (mean=2.96; sd=.192) as a very important quality for policing applicants while females saw importance in a high school education (mean=2.98; sd=.156). Moreover, both males and females perceived the ability to speak English and French was the least important quality among policing applicants with mean scores of 1.67 (sd=.679) and 1.75 (sd=.776) respectively. While these descriptive results are notable, the standard deviations indicated considerable variability and thus, the ANOVA revealed no differences of statistical significance when controlling for gender.
Table 9: Descriptive Statistics of Necessary Applicant Qualities by Gender of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualities</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Mean (/3)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highschool</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physicalability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>.431</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>.526</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problemsolve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.284</td>
<td>.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.297</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>.362</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>.628</td>
<td>.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td>.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>.776</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>.679</td>
<td>.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>.735</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>.694</td>
<td>.111</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.26</td>
<td>.594</td>
<td>.114</td>
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<td>66</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.080</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, when controlling for race/ethnicity, the descriptive statistics showed some data were clustered near the mean while others were not (see Table 10). These statistics also indicated that White respondents perceived ability to problem solve (mean=2.96; sd=.20) as the most important quality for policing applicants while those of mixed race/ethnicity noted the importance of a high school education (mean=3.0; sd =0). Across race/ethnic lines, the ability to speak both English and French was perceived to be the least important quality among policing
applicants (White: mean=1.60, sd= .644; non-White: mean=2.0, sd=.882). Unlike the previous ANOVA, when controlling for race/ethnicity, statistically significant differences were found (see Table 11). Ability to problem solve and ability to speak both English and French were significant at the 0.05 level. The previous assertions were therefore presumably correct; generally speaking, White individuals likely perceive a policing applicants' ability to problem solve as an important quality and bilingualism is likely perceived across all races/ethnicities as less important.

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics of Necessary Applicant Qualities by Race/Ethnicity of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualities</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Mean (/3)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highschool</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.523</td>
<td>.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physicalability</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.410</td>
<td>.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>.446</td>
<td>.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problemsolve</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.284</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>2.91</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stability</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>.366</td>
<td>.082</td>
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<td></td>
<td>White</td>
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<td>2.90</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>2.88</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>.752</td>
<td>.177</td>
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<td>2.45</td>
<td>.580</td>
<td>.083</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>2.40</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td>.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
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<td>2.00</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>.202</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>White</td>
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<td>1.60</td>
<td>.644</td>
<td>.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>.735</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.716</td>
<td>.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.628</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.080</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11: Statistically Significant Applicant Qualities by Race/Ethnicity of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Between Groups</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problemsolve</td>
<td>.360</td>
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<td>.360</td>
<td>4.711</td>
<td>.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
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<td>67</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within Groups</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problemsolve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>2.133</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>4.141</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33.479</td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>35.612</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: The qualities that were not statistically significant were excluded to ensure clarity.

The educational requirements for entering policing were next explored. Respondents were asked what education level is required to enter policing. A cross-tabulation was run to test the relationship between the variable "edrequirement" and exposure to a criminal justice education. It was found the majority of those with "almost certain" exposure (22 respondents or 66.7%) stated that a high school diploma was necessary while the majority of those with "likely" (2 respondents or 8.3%) and "unlikely" (11 respondents or 45.8%) exposure believed a college diploma or certificate to be an entry requirement within policing (see Table 12); however, these results should be interpreted with caution. While these findings do provide further insights into the perceptions of respondents, the sample population was rather small (as seen in Table 12) and these results were not statistically significant ($X^2=2.834$; df=4; p value=.586).

Table 12: Education Requirement for Entering Policing by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Edrequirement (BA or BSc)</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Almost certain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count % within Exposure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>% within</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A college diploma or</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44.0%</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>certificate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A high school</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diploma</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questions continued to probe those interested in policing about entry into the profession. Respondents were asked how long it takes someone to proceed through the policing application and hiring process. When a cross-tabulation was run to explore the relationship between the variable "appprocess" and exposure, 15 cells (71.4%) had expected counts less than five and therefore, some categories within this variable needed to be collapsed.\footnote{When analyzing a Chi-Squared test, if expected cell counts are less than five, it is commonly understood that categories should be combined (or collapsed) to accurately determine the approximant distribution of data.} A new cross-tabulation was run (see Table 13) where responses of "not sure" or "don't know" were treated as missing and the variable of "appprocess" was collapsed into three categories (“0 to 5 months,” “6 to 11 months,” and “more than 12 months”). As seen in Table 13, the majority of respondents (31 out of 61 people or 50.8%) thought the policing application and hiring process takes someone about 6 to 11 months to complete. Although this finding provides some insight into young peoples' perceptions of the policing application and hiring process, the results were not significant ($X^2$ of 4.170; df= 4; p value=.383).
Table 13: Police Application Process by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Almost certain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appprocess 0 to 5 months</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to 11 months</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>45.0%</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>56.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 12 months</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two cross-tabulations were then run on the variable "hiringprocess." The first tested the relationship between "hiringprocess" and gender and the second tested the relationship between "hiringprocess" and exposure. Respondents were asked about gender equity with regards to police hiring. When exploring this variable’s relationship to gender and treating the categories of "not sure" and "don't know" as missing values, both male and female respondents generally believed that males are more likely to be hired than females, indicating a perception of hiring bias within policing. Thirty respondents out of 66 (45.5%; 19 females and 11 males) suggested that males are more likely to be hired as officers compared to females (with all things being equal) while 23 respondents out of 66 (34.8%; 13 females and 10 males) perceived that males and females have equal chance of being hired (with all else being equal). Only 13 out of 66 (19.7%) respondents (7 females and 6 males) perceived that females are more likely to be hired as officers compared to males (with all things being equal). These results were not found to be
statistically significant \((X^2=.434; \text{ df}=2; \text{ p value}=.805)\) because females and males were essentially in agreement.

**Table 14: Police Hiring Process by Gender of Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hiringprocess</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% within Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, males are more likely to be hired compared to females.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>48.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, females are more likely to be hired compared to males.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, males and females have equal chances of being hired</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>37.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>66</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, when a cross-tabulation was run testing the relationship between the variable of "hiringprocess" and exposure (treating the categories of "not sure" and "don't know" as missing values) a similar division among respondents was apparent (see Table 15). Thirty respondents out of 66 (45.5%; 12 with "unlikely" exposure; 2 with "likely" exposure; and 16 with "almost certain" exposure) suggested that males are more likely to be hired as officers compared to females (with all things being equal) while 23 respondents out of 66 (34.8%; 8 with "unlikely" exposure; 1 with "likely" exposure; and 14 with "almost certain" exposure) posited that males and females have equal chance of being hired (with all else being equal). The observed differences were not statistically significant \((X^2=.596; \text{ df}=4; \text{ p value}=.964)\) given the level of
agreement between respondents. The findings of both cross-tabulations could be showing evolving perceptions of policing as many respondents noted an equal chance of males and females being hired within this often male-dominated profession (see Martin and Jurik, 2007) but further study is needed as neither cross-tabulation revealed findings of statistical significance. It appears that the distribution of data here could be a product of chance and thus, perceptions of police hiring are likely not a function of gender or exposure.

Table 15: Police Hiring Process by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hiring process</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Almost certain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, males are more likely to be hired compared to females.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>42.1%</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, females are more likely to be hired compared to males.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, males and females have equal chances of being hired</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ideas of equality within police hiring were further explored with regards to race/ethnicity. Here survey respondents were questioned as to the likelihood of someone of visible minority
status being hired as an officer compared to a White peer. A cross-tabulation was performed to explore the relationship between the variable of "comparablehiring" and race/ethnicity (see Table 16). A slight majority of respondents (32 out of 62 or 51.6%) suggested that, with all else being equal, visible minorities are more likely to be hired compared to non-visible minorities. Interestingly, slightly more than half of White respondents (25 out of 43 or 58.1%) perceived that those of visible minority status were more likely to be hired as officers while 7 out of 19 (or 36.8%) non-White respondents believed this to be true. While these findings could suggest evolving attitudes and perceptions, the observed differences were not statistically significant ($X^2=2.501; \text{df}=2; \text{p value}=0.286$).

**Table 16: Equity in Police Hiring by Race/Ethnicity of Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparablehiring</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% within Ethnicity2</th>
<th>Ethnicity2</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, visible minorities are more likely to be hired compared to non-visible minorities.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
<td>51.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, non-visible minorities are more likely to be hired compared to visible minorities.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>17.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With all else being equal, visible minorities and non-visible minorities have equal chances of being hired</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42.1%</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>30.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A second cross-tabulation was run on the variable "comparablehiring" to test its relationship to exposure (see Table 17). Here 21 out of 37 (56.8%) respondents with "almost certain" exposure to a criminal justice education posited that, with all else being equal, visible minorities are more likely to be hired compared to non-visible minorities. Those classified as having "unlikely" exposure were further divided. While 10 out of 21 (47.6%) respondents within this classification perceived that visible minorities are more likely to be hired as officers, 9 out of 21 (42.9%) suggested that those of all races/ethnicities have equal chance of being hired. Like the previous results concerning the variable of "comparablehiring," the differences were not statistically significant ($X^2=5.524; \text{df}=4; \text{p value}=.238)$.

**Table 17: Equity in Police Hiring by Exposure of Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Almost certain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comparablehiring</td>
<td>With all else being equal, visible minorities are more likely to be hired compared to non-visible minorities.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>With all else being equal, non-visible minorities are more likely to be hired compared to visible minorities.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Perceptions Concerning the Working Realities of Policing

The third section of the survey examined respondents' perceptions and knowledge of the realities of police work. Those who expressed a current or past interest in policing only completed this section. This section began by asking how long, on average, respondents thought Canadian officers remain in the policing profession. A cross-tabulation was run to explore the relationship between the variable "careerduration" and exposure. When the categories of "not sure" and "don't know" were treated as missing values, 11 cells (73.3%) had expected counts less than five. Categories within this variable were consequently collapsed and a new cross-tabulation was run (see Table 18). The variable "careerduration" then consisted of three main categories ("0 to 10 years," "11 to 20 years," and "more than 21 years"). Regardless of exposure, the general perception was that the career duration of the average Canadian officer exceeds 5 years. The majority of those with "unlikely" exposure (14 respondents out of 24 or 58.3%) thought the average policing career was 21 years or more in duration. Those with "likely" and "almost certain" exposure were more divided (which was likely a product of low cell counts). The observed differences were not, however, statistically significant (X^2 of 2.835; df=4; p value=.586). Two additional cross-tabulations were run on the variable "careerduration" to test
its relationships to race/ethnicity (see Table 19) and gender (see Table 20). Again, the categories of "not sure" and "don't know" were treated as missing values and the variable consisted of three main categories: "0 to 10 years," "11 to 20 years," and "more than 21 years." The results of both cross-tabulations were largely mixed and not statistically significant (race/ethnicity, $X^2=1.255; df=2; p$ value=.534; gender, $X^2=.720; df=2; p$ value=.698). The analysis run on the variable "careerduration" indicated that perceptions of time spent working as an officer are not likely a function of exposure, race/ethnicity, or gender.

Table 18: Career Duration of Officers by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Careerduration</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Almost certain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 to 5 years</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 20 years</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>44.7%</td>
<td>39.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 or more years</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>58.3%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>39.5%</td>
<td>47.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19: Career Duration of Officers by Race/Ethnicity of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Careerduration</th>
<th>Ethnicity2</th>
<th>Non-White</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 to 5 years</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Next, respondents were questioned as to their perceptions of officer salary. First respondents were asked how much officers earn after six months of successfully working in policing and secondly they were asked how much officers earn after 15 years of successfully working in policing. Cross-tabulations were run on the variables "@6months" and "@15years" to test their relationships to exposure. Each cross-tabulation had numerous cell counts less than five but collapsing existing categories, with the exception of the top pay-grades, would have made the monetary categories too broad. Thus, to lessen the number of cells less than five while
still maintaining the integrity of the categories, new cross-tabulations were run with the categories of "$90,000 to $100,000" and "over $100,000" combined. The categories of "not sure" and "don't know" were also treated as missing values. These alterations lessened the number of cells with expected counts less than five to 7 (58.3%) in each cross-tabulation.

When the variables "@6months" (see Table 21) and "@15years" (see Table 22) were run in relation to exposure to a criminal justice education, responses were mixed and the results of both analyses were non-significant. The variable of "@6months" had an $X^2$ = 4.610, df=6; p value=.595 and the subsequent variable of "@15years" had an $X^2$ of 9.001; df=6; p value of .174.

Regardless of exposure, the majority of respondents in each category (aside from the category of those with "likely" exposure that consisted of 4 respondents) posited that after six months of work the average officer earns between $30,000 and $69,000. When the perceived earnings of officers after 15 years of police work were examined an increase was apparent. The majority of respondents with "unlikely" and "almost certain" exposure suggested the average salary for an officer is $70,000 or more after 15 years in policing. These results, although not statistically significant, provide some insight into perceptions of officer salary among the young; perceptions of officer salary will be thoroughly examined in the next chapter.

Table 21: Officer Earnings After Six Months of Work by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Almost certain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>@6months Less than $30,000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Exposure</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| $30,000 – $49,000 | Count | 10 | 16 | 27 |
Table 22: Officer Earnings After 15 Years of Work by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Almost certain</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>@15year $30,000 – $49,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$50,000 – $69,000</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>60.9%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>48.7%</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$70,000 – $89,000</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>60.9%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>48.7%</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$90,000 or more</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perceptions of police work were further explored with regards to the personal sacrifices
officers make. It was explained to respondents that approximately 48% of Canadian marriages now end in divorce. It was then asked how the divorce rate among officers (a partnership consisting of one police officer or a partnership of two officers) compares to the national average. A cross-tabulation explored the relationship between the variable "divorce" and exposure to a criminal justice education; 10 (66.7%) cells were found to have expected counts less than five. This cross-tabulation was rerun where the categories of "not sure" and "don't know" were treated as missing values, which resulted in only 4 (44.4%) cells having expected counts less than five. This cross-tabulation showed the majority of respondents (38 out of 64 or 59.4%) perceived the divorce rate among officers to be above the national average regardless of exposure; however, the observed differences were not statistically significant ($X^2=2.073; df=8; p \text{ value}=0.079$).

A second cross-tabulation was performed on the variable “divorce” to test its relationship to gender (see Table 23). When all categories including "not sure" and "don't know" were included in the analysis, 5 cells had expected counts less than five but the results were found to be statistically significant at ($p<.05$) ($X^2=9.879; df=4; p \text{ value}=0.043$). Nineteen (27.5%) males and 19 (27.5%) females indicated that they perceive the divorce rate among officers to be above the national average with less than half of the sample population suggesting that officer divorce rate is below or about average. Perceptions of divorce are thus likely a function of gender.

### Table 23: Divorce Rate Among Officers by Gender of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divorce</th>
<th>Below average</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% within Gender</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorce</td>
<td>Below average</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>% within Gender</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

73
Further examining respondents' perceptions and knowledge of police work, respondents were asked to rank how much time an officer in large urban environments (e.g. Halifax, Toronto, Vancouver) is likely to spend doing specific policing tasks each day including foot patrol, completing paperwork, and directing/managing traffic flow. A ranking of 1 was "not much time at all" and a ranking of 5 was "a great deal of time." When controlling for exposure to a criminal justice education, the mean scores (see Table 24) showed that across all levels of exposure respondents perceived paperwork as being the most time consuming task for officers with a total mean score of 4.09. The least time consuming task for officers appeared to vary more with exposure. While those with "unlikely" exposure posited that little time is spent directing/managing traffic (mean=2.48), those with "likely" (mean=1.25) and "almost certain" (mean=1.98) exposure contended that foot patrol is the least time consuming task officers perform. The ANOVA run on these daily policing tasks indicated differences of statistical significance with regards to foot patrol at the .05 level (f value=4.621; df =2; p value =.013). None of the other variables (i.e. tasks) run in this ANOVA were found to have statistically significant differences.
Table 24: Descriptive Statistics of Daily Policing Tasks by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Mean (/5)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vehicle patrol</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>.735</td>
<td>.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Footpatrol</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.917</td>
<td>.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.500</td>
<td>.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>1.025</td>
<td>.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.019</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Paperwork</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>.776</td>
<td>.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Court</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.821</td>
<td>.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.155</td>
<td>.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.040</td>
<td>.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.978</td>
<td>.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Serious calls</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.061</td>
<td>.212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.258</td>
<td>.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.199</td>
<td>.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.144</td>
<td>.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Investigating</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.847</td>
<td>.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.500</td>
<td>.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.177</td>
<td>.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.036</td>
<td>.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accidents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.957</td>
<td>.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.057</td>
<td>.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.005</td>
<td>.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Traffic</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>.963</td>
<td>.193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.291</td>
<td>.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.083</td>
<td>.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.050</td>
<td>.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonserious calls</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td>.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.291</td>
<td>.645</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A second set of descriptive statistics and an ANOVA were run on the data pertaining to the time spent completing specific policing tasks controlling for gender. Like the previous analysis where exposure was controlled, the mean scores here revealed that both males and females perceived that officer time is spent predominantly completing paperwork (total mean score=4.09). Both genders further agreed that foot patrol is the least time consuming task for officers (total mean score=2.14) (see Table 25). When controlling for gender, the variable of "accidents" (which refers to attending a motor vehicle accident) was found to have statistically significant differences at the .05 level with a f value=4.076; df=1, p value=.047. For males the variable “accidents” had a mean score of 3.70 and for females a mean score of 3.21. When these scores are compared to others within the descriptive statistics table (see Table 25), attending car accidents is considered by many to be a task that requires a moderate amount of time. Males perceived the amount of time officers spend handling accidents to be slightly more than females, a statistically significant finding.

Table 25: Descriptive Statistics of Daily Policing Tasks by Gender of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vehiclepatrol</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.675</td>
<td>.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Footpatrol</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.024</td>
<td>.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>.974</td>
<td>.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.019</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Paperwork</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>.813</td>
<td>.127</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A final set of descriptive statistics and an ANOVA were performed on the daily tasks (i.e. variables) of constables in large urban environments controlling for race/ethnicity. While paperwork was the task understood to be most time consuming for officers, non-White respondents perceived paperwork (mean=4.32) to be slightly more time consuming than their White peers (mean=4.0). Foot patrol was also perceived by all as being least time consuming but non-White respondents again suggested foot patrol (mean=2.25) requires more time than that perceived by White respondents (mean=2.10) (see Table 26). When the ANOVA was analyzed, the variables of "seriouscalls" (responding to serious calls for service) and "investigating" (investigating criminal activity) were found to have statistically significant differences, which suggest that the results of these two variables were not likely the product of chance (see Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>26</th>
<th>3.92</th>
<th>1.017</th>
<th>.199</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>.943</td>
<td>.146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.980</td>
<td>.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.978</td>
<td>.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seriouscalls</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.074</td>
<td>.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.266</td>
<td>.248</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.144</td>
<td>.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigating</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>.921</td>
<td>.144</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.201</td>
<td>.235</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.036</td>
<td>.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.001</td>
<td>.154</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>.953</td>
<td>.183</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.005</td>
<td>.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.085</td>
<td>.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>.989</td>
<td>.190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.050</td>
<td>.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonseriouscalls</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.211</td>
<td>.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>.195</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.145</td>
<td>.138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
"Seriouscalls" was significant at (p<.05) and "investigating" was significant at (p<.05). The mean scores of both variables (see Table 26) revealed that both tasks were perceived by respondents as requiring little officer time daily. However, non-White respondents again suggested that each task ("seriouscalls" mean=3.37; "investigating" mean=3.16) requires more time than that suggested by White respondents ("seriouscalls" mean=2.47; "investigating" mean=2.48).

Table 26: Descriptive Statistics of Daily Policing Tasks by Race/Ethnicity of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Mean (/5)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Footpatrol</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paperwork</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>1.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seriouscalls</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigating</td>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>1.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Note: Only the policing tasks discussed with regards to race/ethnicity were included to ensure clarity.

Table 27: Statistically Significant Policing Tasks by Race/Ethnicity of Respondent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seriouscalls</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>11.066</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.066</td>
<td>9.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>76.625</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>1.161</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>87.691</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigating</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>6.271</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.271</td>
<td>6.319</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Perceptions of police work were further explored when respondents were asked to rank the likelihood that a policing supervisor would assign them a specific task because of their gender on a five point scale. On the scale 1 was "very unlikely" and 5 was "almost certain." Descriptive statistics and ANOVA's were run on the variable of "taskassignment" controlling for gender and exposure to a criminal justice education. When controlling for gender the mean scores revealed that both males (mean=2.85) and females (mean=2.81) thought that it was unlikely that policing supervisors assigned tasks based on gender. When controlling for exposure it was found that those with "unlikely" exposure ranked the likelihood of gendered task assignment highest with a mean score of 2.92 while those with "likely" exposure ranked gendered task assignment lowest with a mean score of 2.0. Those with "almost certain" exposure fell in between with a mean score of 2.85. The corresponding ANOVA's controlling for gender and race/ethnicity showed that neither analysis produced differences of statistical significance.

Ideas of gender in the assignment of policing tasks were further explored when respondents were given a scenario and asked which of three outcomes is most likely to occur in everyday policing. The scenario read:

A male and a female officer have responded to a sexual assault call while on patrol. When they arrive on the scene the female victim is clearly injured inside the home as an unidentified male is yelling outside about his girlfriend cheating on him.

Descriptive statistics and ANOVA's were performed on the variable "scenario" controlling for gender and exposure. While no results of statistical significance were apparent, responses are consistent with gender stereotypes in Western culture. Of the 69 responses to this question, 62 (89.9%) individuals said that the male officer would tell his female partner to go speak to the
victim as he attempts to calm and detain the unidentified man. Not one respondent selected the scenario where the roles were reversed. Neither gender nor exposure appeared to influence the selected outcome of this scenario.

Respondents were also asked to rank how dangerous they perceived policing in an urban environment to be on a five-point scale. On the scale 1 was "not dangerous" and 5 was "very dangerous." Descriptive statistics and ANOVA's were run on the variable of "urbanenvironments" controlling for gender and exposure. While neither ANOVA showed results of significance, the descriptives provide some general insights into the thought processes of those interested in policing. When controlling for gender (see Table 28), the total mean score of 3.29 indicated that respondents thought policing in an urban environment was moderately dangerous. More specifically, females (mean= 3.43) perceived urban policing to be slightly more dangerous than males did (3.07). When controlling for exposure (see Table 29), those with "almost certain" exposure thought urban policing was the least dangerous with a mean score of 3.25, which was followed by those with "likely" exposure with a mean score of 3.5. Those with "unlikely" exposure ranked urban policing as the most dangerous of all three exposure classifications with a mean score of 3.50. It should be remembered, however, that all analysis run on the variable of "urbanenvironments" did not result in statistically significant differences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Mean (1/5)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>.909</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 28: Descriptive Statistics of Urban Policing by Gender of Respondents

---

Dangerous is referring to risk of serious or fatal injury.
Table 29: Descriptive Statistics of Urban Policing by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mean (1/5)</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.954</td>
<td>.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>.909</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The working realities of policing were further explored when respondents were asked if, as officers, they would expect a coworker of the opposite sex to interact with them differently because of their sex. When testing the variable of "coworkers" in relation to gender and exposure to a criminal justice education, respondents were divided largely between "somewhat" and "no." Only 7 (10.1%) respondents answered "yes." When exploring the relationship between "coworkers" and gender, (see Table 30), 19 (27.5%) females and 12 (17.4%) males suggested that coworkers would treat them differently based on their sex. The exact same number of respondents took the position of "no" while 4 (5.8%) females and 3 (4.3%) males answered "yes." These results were, however, non-significant ($X^2=0.45$ df= 2; p value=.978). When exploring the relationship between "coworkers" and exposure (see Table 31), response patterns were mixed. Thirty-one (44.9%) of all respondents suggested they expected a coworker of the opposite sex to treat them "somewhat differently because of their sex while 31 (44.9%) of all respondents also answered "no." Exposure to criminal justice teachings does not appear to influence perceptions of coworker bias as the results here were not statistically significant ($X^2=4.708$; df= 4; p value=.447).
Further probing ideas of coworker interactions within policing, respondents were asked if a non-visible minority officer is likely to treat a visible minority officer as an equal peer.
Respondents stated overwhelmingly (50 out of 66 respondents or 75.8%) that "yes" those of visible minority are treated equally by non-visible minority officers. When testing the relationship between the variable "equal peer" and exposure, the categories of "not sure" and "don't know" were treated as missing values but 6 cells still had expected counts of less than 5. No noteworthy trends were apparent and the results were not found to be statistically significant ($X^2=5.367$; df= 4; p value=.252). When testing the relationship between "equal peer" and race/ethnicity (see Table 32), the categories of "not sure" and "don't know" were again treated as missing values but in this instance only 3 cells had expected counts of less than 5. Notably, the majority of non-White respondents (12 out of 19 or 63%) perceived that those of non-visible minority would treat those of visible minority as equals. No results here were, however, statistically significant ($X^2=.3.705$; df= 2; p value=.157).

**Table 32: Race/Ethnic Bias by Race/Ethnicity of Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equalpeer</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Non-White</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Yes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63.2%</td>
<td>63.2%</td>
<td>80.9%</td>
<td>75.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Somewhat</strong></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No</strong></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Who Wants to be an Officer?**

Utilizing the data collected from several survey questions, a regression was run to
explore what variables (including confidence in the police, the desire to help others, etc.) are likely to predict desire to become a officer. The variable "policing" was the dependent variable as it consisted of all respondents who expressed a current or past desire to become an officer.

Eight variables were then used as independent variables: "confidence," "justice system," "gender," "ethnicity2," "shiftwork," "overtime," "risk," and "help." The regression output showed an Adjusted R Squared of .218 indicating that the independent variables explain 21.8% of the variation in wanting to become an officer. The ANOVA also showed that this regression was statistically significant at the .01 level (f value=3.374; df=8; p value .003).

The coefficients table (see Table 33), reveals a number of interesting effects. The variables "confidence" (p<.05), "shiftwork" (p<.05), and "risk" (p<.05) were all found to be statistically significant; it can thus be extrapolated that those who express confidence in the police, those who like shift work, and those who seek risk and adventure are the individuals most likely to desire working as an officer. The five other independent variables within this regression were not found to be motivators for those who expressed interest in a policing career but they did illuminate some patterns of note. The variable "help" showed very little effect when controlled within this regression (B= -.001; se =.073; β=.002; p value=.984). However, the variables "justicesystem" (B= -.034; se =.033; β= -.115; p value = .305), "gender" (B= -.030; se=.124; β= -.030; p value -.807), and "ethnicity2" (B= -.073; se=.120; β= -.067; p value =.545) were found to have negative B values, which in essence indicated that as faith in the justice system increases, that the desirability of a policing career decreases: that males are slightly less likely than males to want to become officers; and that those of non-white race/ethnicity are more likely than their White peers to want to become officers. The logic of these results will be further explained in the discussion chapter.
Table 33: Regression on the Dependent Variable “Policing”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>3.268</td>
<td>.492</td>
<td>6.643</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.254</td>
<td>2.276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justicesystem</td>
<td>-.034</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>-.115</td>
<td>-1.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.030</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>-.030</td>
<td>-.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity2</td>
<td>-.073</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>-.067</td>
<td>-.609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shiftwork</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.318</td>
<td>2.525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overtime</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>1.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>2.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Closing Remarks:

One final variable of relevance must be explored. The survey concluded by asking all respondents who, in their opinion, makes for a better police officer. Two cross-tabulations were run on the variable "better" in relation to gender and exposure to a criminal justice education. The majority of respondents (193 out of 241 or 80%) perceived that both genders are equally effective as officers. When testing the relationship between the variable "better" and gender (see Table 34), the results were statistically significant at the .05 level ($X^2=8.231; \text{df}=2; p\text{ value}=.016$), which is likely because the sample was imbalanced. One hundred forty-seven out of 174 (76.2%) females perceived males and females to be equally effective.
Table 34: Perceptions of Officer Effectiveness by Gender of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>% within Better</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Males make better officers</th>
<th>% within Better</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>They are equally effective as officers</th>
<th>% within Better</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Females make better officers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>76.2%</td>
<td>174</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>241</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>47.1%</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>23.8%</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, when "better" was tested in relation to exposure, no results of statistical significance were apparent ($X^2 = .648; df = 4; p value = .958$) but some findings are of note (see Table 35). The large majority of those with "almost certain" (66 respondents out of 85 or 77.6%) perceived both genders to be equally effective. Those with "unlikely" exposure were additionally those most likely to believe that males and females make better officers than each other compared to those with "likely" or "almost certain" exposure. It cannot be said with certainty, however, that perceptions of officer effectiveness are related to exposure to a criminal justice education.
Table 35: Perceptions of Officer Effectiveness by Exposure of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>Better</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females make</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>They are</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>better officers</td>
<td>make</td>
<td>equally</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>better</td>
<td>effective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>officers</td>
<td>as</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>officers</td>
<td>officers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlikely</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Better</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
<td>59.6%</td>
<td>58.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likely</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Better</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost certain</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Better</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>34.2%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>241</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Better</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This chapter has described the results of a survey designed and conducted for this thesis project. In the following Discussion Chapter, these results will be explored in conjunction with the qualitative data acquired through AEIs to better understand why some individuals desire to become officers and how perceptions of policing differ from the realities of police work.
Chapter Five: Discussion

This research undertaking was designed to examine if perceptions of policing are interconnected with desire to be an officer. To-date little research has sought to explore the perceptions that influence young peoples' interest in policing as a career, but the results of this project are intended to fill this void. In this chapter, it will be explained that while desire to be an officer was relatively moderate among those studied, it cannot be conclusively said if perceptions of policing are associated with desire. The results of this research do, however, provide insight into the perceptions of policing held by those who expressed interest in becoming officers. It will be argued that young people interested in a policing career hold moderately accurate perceptions of policing with regards to the application and hiring process, officer salary, the daily tasks performed by officers, and issues of gender. But, these young people have a limited understanding of longstanding issues of race/ethnic discrimination within policing. The role of post-secondary education and portrayals of policing in popular culture will be used to explain young peoples' moderately accurate understandings; their limited understanding of race/ethnic discrimination will be explained as stemming from the often secretive nature of policing organizations.

Drawing on the results of the online survey and asynchronous email interviews (AEIs), this chapter will begin by explaining how perceptions of policing varied among participants who expressed interest (current or past) in becoming an officer. It will then be shown that those interested in policing had a moderately accurate understanding of policing with the exception of perceptions concerning race/ethnic equality. Several explanations will be advanced to explain this level of understanding. Next, those who are most likely to express interest in becoming a
police officer will be identified and the interconnection between perceptions of a policing career and desire to be an officer will be examined. The six hypotheses central to this thesis will then be revisited. To conclude, the policy implications of this study and what academics can learn from this research will be discussed. This final conversation will reveal the limitations of this project and the areas ripe for future study.

Variability in Perceptions

The quantitative results indicated that perceptions of policing as a career vary minimally when gender, race/ethnicity, and educational background of participants were accounted for. Perceptions of policing as a career were, therefore, rather homogeneous across groups. Perceptions converged on measures including gender equity in police hiring (see Tables 14 and 15), the length of the average policing career (see Tables 18, 19, and 20), the daily tasks performed by officers (see Tables 24, 25, and 26), and the dangers of policing in urban environments (see Tables 28 and 29). It might be surprising to some that perceptions of a policing career were largely convergent among those studied. This convergence is arguably due to socio-economic trends that have resulted in a concentration of similar students attending the University of Guelph.

Those studied, with the exception of the six respondents from the University of Guelph-Humber, study at the University of Guelph. This university is situated just outside of the Greater-Toronto Area in a city that is more economically advantaged and less diverse when compared to other areas of Ontario such as North York, Scarborough, or Pickering. Research suggests that young disadvantaged males of visible minority status are most likely to encounter the police. These males often hold negative attitudes towards law enforcement (see Norris et al., 1992;
Brunson and Miller, 2006; Brunson, 2007; Rios, 2009); thus, it is fair to assume that many University of Guelph students have only had minor contact with police officers throughout their lives and subsequently hold less hostile perceptions of law enforcement. Students' perceptions likely stem from those around them, the media and courses they have taken at the university, an assertion echoed in the AEI's. When asked what sparked their interest in policing an interview participant said, "...school I think. I have never been in trouble but when I got to Guelph, I took a criminal justice course and the idea of becoming an officer struck me." When discussing their understanding of a policing career another said, "my uncle just went through the recruitment and hiring process so I am pretty aware of the steps." It would be expected that those in more diverse regions of Ontario would have different perceptions of policing given that experiences are shaped, partly, by surroundings. In essence, the argument can be made that little variability in perceptions of policing here could be, in part, a function of socio-economics as similar students have converged at the University of Guelph.

Accuracy of Perceptions

Although the survey results indicated that perceptions of policing as a career varied minimally among respondents, a pattern in perceptions is discernible. As discussed in chapter two, a series of recent studies conducted by Ipsos Reid on behalf of the Police Sector Council (PSC) indicate that young peoples' perceptions of policing do not accurately reflect the realities of the profession. However, disconnections between young peoples' perceptions of policing and the realities of this occupation appear to lessen if the young have a criminal justice related education. This thesis project has explored these ideas but due to the use of differing methodologies, results cannot be directly compared. Rather, distinctions can be made with
caution and conclusions drawn from Ipsos Reid's research are a start for further discussion. Ipsos Reid's findings will thus be discussed in this chapter.

Drawing together the quantitative and qualitative results gathered for this thesis, it will be argued that young people interested in a policing career held moderately correct perceptions of this vocation, but had a limited understanding of longstanding issues of race/ethnic discrimination within policing. Explanations will be argued to explain this level of perceptual understanding including individuals' post-secondary education, the often secretive nature of policing organizations, and portrayals of policing in popular culture. To illustrate respondents’ levels of understanding several findings will be explored in relation to the "true" or factual realities of policing.

With regards to perceptions of the application and hiring process and, more specifically, the educational requirement for entering policing, the survey data demonstrated that slightly less than half of respondents (47.8%) suggested a high school diploma is the educational requirement that must be met to enter policing (see Table 12). This perception is correct in regards to both the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP) and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) (Queen’s Printer for Ontario, 2009a; RCMP, 2012). The results, therefore, showed a moderate understanding of the application and hiring process among the young people sampled. Further examining perceptions of the educational requirement by exposure to a criminal justice education, 55% of respondents with "almost certain" exposure perceived that a high school diploma was needed for entry. Respondents with "likely" and "unlikely" exposure stated a high school diploma to a lesser extent, supporting the position that those with a criminal justice education hold slightly more accurate perceptions of policing than their peers.

Respondents also held a moderately accurate understanding of officer salary. According
to the Queen’s Printer for Ontario (2009b), after six to nine months of work within the Ontario Provincial Police, an officer is considered a fourth class Probationary Constable and earns $58,437 per year. A Constable in the RCMP earns slightly more after six months of work with a yearly salary of $63,595 (RCMP, 2011). When survey respondents were asked how much officers earn after six months of employment, 37.3% stated "$50,000 to $69,000" showing a moderate understanding among respondents (see Table 21). When perceptions of officer salary are analyzed by exposure, those with an "almost certain" criminal justice education were again found to hold more accurate perceptions than their peers.

Respondents’ understandings of the daily tasks performed by officers were moderately accurate but those with exposure to criminal justice teachings did not hold a stronger understanding of these tasks than their peers. When survey respondents were asked to rank the amount of time an officer in a large urban environment (e.g. Halifax, Toronto, Vancouver) is likely to spend doing specific tasks each day including foot patrol, completing paperwork, and directing/managing traffic flow, the results were similar across all groups with a slight exception (see Tables 24, 25, and 26). Paperwork was considered to be the most time consuming task by all groups, a perception echoed by AEI participants. When asked how a Constable spends his or her time, a participant replied "I would assume there would be a lot of paper work...due to the professional/legal nature of the role I would imagine most if not all police actions must be documented in one way or another." This perception of paperwork is reflective largely of the working realities of policing.

Numerous studies have examined the workload of officers prior to the introduction of "community policing" (Webster, 1970; Reiss, 1971; Cordner, 1979; Greene and Klockars, 1991), but little research has examined officers’ workload in an era that often combines elements of
"traditional policing" and community policing (Smith et al., 2001). Smith et al (2001) explored the tasks performed by both traditional officers and community-oriented officers during a series of eight hour shifts in Cincinnati, Ohio. It was found that officers spent approximately 125 minutes per shift (26%) doing motor patrol and approximately 101 minutes per shift (21%) completing administrative tasks, including paperwork (Smith et al., 2001). From these findings and the similar assertions of Seagrave (1997), the perception that a great deal of time is spent doing paperwork does not appear to be far from the truth.

Additional findings from the work of Smith et al. (2001) suggest participants held an accurate perception of the least time consuming task for officers. Foot patrol was perceived to be the least time consuming task across all gender, race/ethnic, and exposure groups except for those with "unlikely" exposure to a criminal justice education. Those with "unlikely" exposure posited that the least time consuming task was directing/managing traffic (see Table 24). Smith et al. (2001) found that Cincinnati officers spent only one minute of their shift (0%), the least amount of time, conducting foot patrols. Those with "unlikely" exposure were thus incorrect. Cincinnati officers spent 24 minutes of their shift (5%) doing traffic-related duties, which was found to be a moderately time consuming task. Using the work of Smith et al. (2001) as a means of comparison, those sampled appear to have a moderate to good understanding of the daily tasks performed by officers regardless of exposure to a criminal justice education.

Delving deeper into survey and AEI results, young people interested in a policing career appeared to hold moderately correct perceptions of the inherent subcultural values within policing with regards to gender. When survey respondents were asked if, as officers, they would

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23 Smith et al (2001) explained that contemporary policing is often a mix of "traditional" and "community-oriented" policing styles, an assertion that is alluded to throughout the RCMP's website (see www.rcmp-grc.gc.ca). The results discussed here are thus the average amount of time that both "traditional" and "community-oriented" officers spent doing each task during a series of shifts.
expect a coworker of the opposite sex to interact with them differently because of their sex, respondents were divided largely between "somewhat" and "no" with exposure to criminal justice teachings having no effect (see Tables 30 and 31). Slightly over 10% of the sample alternatively answered "yes." Notably, a higher percentage of females stated "yes" or "somewhat" indicating that more females than males expect gender-based differences within policing.

Interestingly, the assertions of two AEI participants contextualize the role of gender within policing in two slightly different ways, which tap into central gender-based debates within policing literature. Talking generally about the role of gender in policing one individual said, "I think an officer's gender is taken into account sometimes but I'd like to think it isn't" while another spoke about the role of gender in her decision to become an officer saying "We learned about the harassment of female officers in my policing class. There is a wall of silence that everyone thinking about joining should consider. My gender will create constant struggles...". Policing literature suggests that in some instances males and females are treated very differently as officers (see Kakar, 2002; Collins, 2004; Alt & Wells, 2005; Stroshine and Brandl, 2011). In fact, the sexual harassment of female officers comes in many forms including unwanted physical touching and gender specific jokes (Collins, 2004; Alt & Wells, 2005); the verbal abuse of female officers by their male counterparts, however, is most common (Collins, 2004). Survey respondents who answered "somewhat" or "yes" (55% of respondents) were thus correct as male and female officers are, at times, treated differently because of their gender. Analyzing both the quantitative and qualitative data within this project, respondents appeared to hold moderately correct understandings of gender-based interactions within policing. The quantitative data also showed that those with a criminal justice education did not appear to hold more accurate
perceptions than their peers with respect to issues of gender.

Like the challenges faced by women in policing, visible minority officers are considered by some to be unequal peers within the policing subculture (Stroshine and Brandl, 2011). But, policing organizations have begun to enact recruitment practices that foster the inclusion of visible minorities (Reganella and White, 2004; McMurray et al., 2010), an assertion echoed by just over half (51.6%) of those surveyed (see Tables 16 and 17). Although respondents had a reasonable understanding of the hiring of visible minorities, they had a limited understanding of the larger race/ethnic-based tensions within the policing subculture. Today, visible minorities remain underrepresented and experience harassment, discrimination, and high stress levels in an environment that is dominated by white males (Felkenes and Schroedel, 1993; Haarr and Morash, 1999; Stroshine and Brandl, 2011). When asked if a non-visible minority officer is likely to treat a visible minority officer as an equal peer (see Table 31), a shocking 75.6% of respondents answered "yes," which is incorrect as explained above. There was again no discernible pattern between perceptions of equality and exposure to a criminal justice education here.

These quantitative and qualitative findings highlight that young people interested in a policing career hold moderately correct perceptions of this vocation, but have a limited understanding of longstanding issues of race/ethnic discrimination within policing. They also indicate that those with a criminal justice education did, in some instances, hold more accurate perceptions of policing than their peers. These instances involved perceptions of the application and hiring process and perceptions of officer salary. While the results provide insight into perceptions of policing among the sample population, the absence of statistical significance in most cases means that the results cannot be generalized to the wider population.
Explanations for Respondents’ Differing Levels of Understandings

Why is it that young people interested in a policing career hold moderately accurate perceptions of policing with regards to the application and hiring process, officer salary, the daily tasks performed by officers, and issues of gender? There are two overarching explanations that will be used to answer this question: the role of post-secondary education and portrayals of policing in popular culture. The corresponding question of why the young have a limited understanding of race/ethnic discrimination within policing will be answered through a discussion of secrecy within policing organizations.

Students have moderately correct understandings of the application and hiring process, officer salary, the daily tasks performed by officers, and issues of gender within policing because of their undergraduate education. These "aspects" of policing are well researched and commonly taught at the undergraduate level. To substantiate this assertion, one has to look no further than the dozens of introductory policing textbooks on the market today (see Seagrave, 1997; Rowe, 2008; Dempsey and Forst, 2011); many of which, expose the undergraduate reader to a comprehensive overview of policing. Given that the "realities" of policing are commonly taught in lecture halls, one would assume that students' perceptions of policing would be more accurate than this study revealed but we are witnessing the "pitfalls" of university in contemporary times as discussed by Ryback (2007) and Cote and Anton (2007).

These scholars suggest that one of the major problems with post-secondary education today is the perception that all high school students should enrol. Ryback (2007) explains that attending university has become a fetish in Western culture as individuals enrol, not because of a desire to learn, but because it is commonly believed that getting a degree will determine one's future. Lacking the desire to learn, many students do not prepare for lectures, do not attend their
scheduled classes, and do not internalize the course materials (Ryback, 2007). The goal of enrolling in courses, as explained by Cote and Anton (2007) is to achieve good grades with minimal effort. Today's undergraduates have become lazy academics who expect nothing less than a "B" (70%) (Cote and Anton, 2007). This lazy undergraduate mentality has wide-reaching implications (Ryback, 2007; Cote and Anton, 2007). From the writings of Ryback (2007) and Cote and Anton (2007), it can be extrapolated that despite students being taught about the actual realities of policing, they have not internalize the course content. Lessons were simply forgotten or little attention was paid when reading and/or attending lecture so the content is unlikely to have altered their perceptions of policing. Thus, many hold only moderately accurate understandings of a vocation they may or may not select to enter.

Inaccurate media portrayals of policing in popular culture is a second explanation why the young hold moderately accurate perceptions of policing with regards to the application and hiring process, officer salary, the daily tasks performed by officers, and issues of gender. This assertion is premised on the idea that popular culture, including television and movies, influences the beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours of audience members through the transmission of imagery and messages (Doyle, 2003). As Doyle (2003) argues, the messages and imagery that popular culture transmits are not simply reflections of events, rather the media "shapes the things it records" (p. 4). In recent decades numerous policing dramas have hit the airwaves as the public's fascination with crime and law enforcement increases (Souliere, 2003); but, in accordance with Doyle's (2003) argument, the media has opted to capitalize on the dramatic and relatively infrequent aspects of policing, which leaves viewers with inaccurate perceptions (Robinson, 2000; Souliere, 2003).

Given the proliferation of these policing dramas and other frequent depictions of policing
in popular culture, it is logical that those interested in policing hold moderately correct perceptions of this vocation. They clearly demonstrate some knowledge about policing but some of this knowledge is incorrect and reflects exaggerated portrayals of policing in popular culture. To illustrate this, let's compare the data about gender-based interactions to television portrayals of how male and female officers interact on the job. As previously noted, when survey respondents were asked if, as officers, they would expect a coworker of the opposite sex to interact with them differently because of their sex, respondents were divided largely between "somewhat" and "no." The respondents who answered "no" (slightly less than half) were incorrect. Policing literature suggests that in many cases males and females are treated very differently as officers (see Kakar, 2002; Collins, 2004; Alt & Wells, 2005; Stroshine and Brandl, 2011). This policing reality is, however, rarely reflected in policing dramas such as *Rookie Blue* or *NYC 22* as males and females work together to solve the latest dramatic event while joking and flirting. If weekly policing dramas routinely depicted the harassment of female officers, it would be expected that the public would voice opposition as the unequal treatment of females is not acceptable in Western culture. Such depictions, however, illustrate why young people only hold moderately correct perceptions of policing; they are bombarded with messages and imagery that contradict the "true" realities of this vocation.

When considering why the young have a limited understanding of race/ethnic discrimination within policing, the two aforementioned explanations of post-secondary education and inaccurate media portrayals are not sufficient. The reason why young people hold weak perceptions of race/ethnic discrimination within policing is because the policing subculture attempts to mask these issues from the public. Scholars have long suggested that police organizations have an unwritten code of silence among officers known as the "blue wall," "the
"the cocoon of silence," and "the curtain (Sholnick, 2001; also see van Maanen, 1978; Colbert, 1993; Chin and Wells, 1998; Nolan, 2009). According to Chin and Wells (1998), this code prevents officers from "disclosing perjury or other misconduct by fellow officers, or even testifying truthfully if the fact would implicate the conduct of a fellow officer" (p. 237). If an officer goes against this unwritten rule he/she will likely face retribution, including shaming and lack of backup in potentially dangerous situations (Sholnick, 2001).

Officers of visible minority status continue to face harassment in a subculture dominated by white males (Felkenes and Schroedel, 1993; Haarr and Morash, 199; Stroshine and Brandl, 2011). While female officers also face harassment within policing (Collins, 2004; Alt and Wells, 2005), the public is arguably more aware of the unequal treatment of women within policing, an assertion supported by this research. The police subculture continues to shield the public from the realities of race/ethnic discrimination, which is why young people have a limited understanding of race/ethnic issues within police organizations. Given the findings of research in the area, it can be assumed that if the police subculture was not hiding the internal discrimination of minorities, the public would be outraged.

**Interest in a Policing Career**

Scholars have long theorized about young people’s occupational interests (see Super, 1953; Brinkerhoff and Corry, 1976; Shapiro and Crowley, 1982; Blustein and Noumair, 1996; Collins, 1998; Patton and McMahon, 2006) and research has explored in detail why police recruits often choose to become officers (see Lester, 1983; Reganella and White; 2004; Foley et al., 2007). However, research in this area of policing is largely dated and has only minimally examined the possibility of differing motivations among women and those of visible minority
status who opt to become officers (White et al., 2010; also see Reganella and White; 2004; Foley et al., 2007). Research to-date has also not explored the characteristics of policing that are likely to predict desire to become an officer among the young; a void this project fills. If policing organizations, for example, were aware of the characteristics of policing that are likely to predict desire, recruitment campaigns could promote these characteristics to generate interest.

Premised on the work of Lester (1983), Reganella and White (2004), Foley et al. (2007) and the recent studies commissioned by the PSC on perceptions of policing, it was determined that eight prominent factors impact desire to become an officer among the young. These eight factors are confidence in the criminal justice system, confidence in the police, one's gender, one's race/ethnicity, liking shift work, liking overtime, the desire to help others, and the desire for risk and adventure. When a regression was run on these eight factors, the results were somewhat surprising. The desire to help others, which scholars typically cite as the most common motivation for becoming an officer (see Raganella and White, 2004; Foley et al., 2007, and White et al., 2010) was not a significant predictor of desire to become an officer. Instead, the results indicated that those who express confidence in the police, those who like shift work, and those who seek risk and adventure are those most likely to desire to become an officer. The assertions of the AEI participants both support and contradict the results of this regression. When asked about their interest in becoming an officer, two out of four discussed a desire for risk and adventure, which lends credence to the regression results. But, all four interviewees asserted that the ability to help others is the most appealing aspect of policing, an assertion not reflected in the regression results.

Survey participants who expressed a past interest in policing were asked why they no longer desired to become an officer but no response patterns were discernible from their text responses. Additionally, all participants who chose to partake in the AEIs expressed a current desire to become an officer. Future research would benefit from investigating what makes young people lose the desire to enter policing.
The results of this regression should be interpreted with caution. While various regression coefficients were found to be statistically significant and the results are partly supported by qualitative interview data, some regression results contradict logic and existing research. It was found that as faith in the justice system increases, the desirability of a policing career decreases; that males are slightly less likely than females to want to become officers; and that non-white participants are more likely than their white peers to want to become officers. Further analyzing these results, the effects of these variables tap into major principles within policing literature. Policing has long been a male dominated profession that caters to the stereotypical "white male" while hesitating to embrace women and visible minorities (see Seagrave 1997, Martin and Jurik, 2007; Stroshine and Brandl, 2011). Why would females and visible minorities be more likely than others to join an occupational subculture with longstanding issues of gender and race/ethnic discrimination? Moreover, a negative connection between confidence in the justice system and desire to become an officer is also illogical. Policing is known for attracting those with confidence in the criminal justice system (see Roberts, 2007). Why, then, would someone who expressed little confidence in the institution desire a policing career? Past research, logic, and the assertions of the AEI participants suggest the observed effects of these variables are unusual and that sampling error might be an issue.

The Possible Interconnection Between Perception and Desire

A sociological explanation for the interconnection between perceptions of a policing career and interest in this vocation will be argued with caution. Using the studies conducted by Ipsos Reid as a general point of reference in relation to this study's findings, conclusions can be drawn. While survey respondents cannot be aligned to a particular response(s), Ipsos Reid's
findings and those within this study indicate a modest relationship between understanding and desire. That is, it appears that as perceptions of policing become more accurate, the desirability of a policing career also increases. The same holds true for the converse. Granted, numerous issues such as sampling method have not been accounted for here and Ipsos Reid's description of findings is not overly clear (see chapter two) nevertheless, an interconnection can be argued.

The qualitative AEI data also supports this relationship. The three interviewees who clearly desire to become officers in the future, identified numerous perceptions of the policing application and hiring process, gender roles within policing, etc. that were correct. However, a fourth participant was undecided about whether to go to graduate school, law school, or become an officer. This participant struggled to answer a large majority of questions. When asked about the application and hiring process, he/she responded, "My knowledge of policing is limited...". When the AEI responses are examined in relation, they also suggest a reciprocal relationship between perceptions of a policing career and interest in policing. This area is ripe for future research. If there is an interconnection between perceptions of policing and desire to be an officer, this information would be useful to policing organizations and academics interested in recruitment.

**Hypotheses: Revisited**

For hypothesis one, the null hypotheses that young people are generally uninformed about all aspects of policing can be rejected. Results show that those studied are moderately informed about policing with regards to the application and hiring process, officer salary, the daily tasks performed by officers, and issues of gender within policing. However, participants were less
informed about issues of race/ethnicity.

For hypothesis two, we can reject the null hypothesis that individuals in criminal justice related programs and disciplines are not more knowledgeable about policing than others within their peer group. It was found that those with a criminal justice-related education hold more accurate perceptions about policing than their peers in some areas including the application and hiring process and officer salary.

For hypothesis three, we must fail to reject the null at this time. Given that no respondents with a family connection to policing were identified within the study, it cannot be determined if young people with a family connection are more knowledgeable about policing than those in their peer group.

For hypothesis four, we must again fail to reject the null given the possibility of sampling error and limited information. The regression run indicates that females are slightly more likely than males to desire being officers. It also indicates that visible minorities are more likely than others to want to become officers. Both results are likely the product of sampling error. Additionally, males and females of visible minority status were not separated from each other when examining perceptions of hiring so no conclusions can be drawn here.

For hypothesis five, although the desire to help others was well represented in the summary data (univariate statistics), it did not predict desire in the regression (multi-variate statistics). We must, therefore, fail to reject the null that regardless of gender or race/ethnicity,
the most commonly cited motivation for wanting to become a police officer is not the desire to help others.

**Implications of this Research**

*For Policing Organizations*

This study holds implications for policing organizations with regards to the recruitment of young people. Prior to this project, research to-date had not investigated the characteristics of policing that are likely to predict desire to become an officer from the vantage point of the young. Survey results indicated that those who express confidence in the police, those who like shift work, and those who seek risk and adventure are those most likely to desire to become an officer. Although ability to help others was not found to predict desire among survey respondents, those who completed the AEIs overwhelmingly stated that the ability to help others makes policing a desirable career choice. If policing organizations were aware of the characteristics of policing that are likely to predict desire, recruitment campaigns could promote these characteristics to generate interest in this profession.

Additionally, although this research sought to determine if there is an association between perceptions of policing and desire to be an officer, the results here were not *conclusive*. If, however, I am correct that as perceptions of policing become more accurate, the desirability of a policing career also increases (and vice-versa), policing organizations should focus on educating young people about officers' working realities. If accurate perceptions of policing foster desire to become an officer, educating the young would likely spark desire to become an officer in many individuals.
For Academics

This study essentially broke away from convention. It examined perceptions and desirability of a policing career from the perspective of the young and not from the vantage point of those already working within policing (see Lester, 1983; Reganella and White; 2004; Foley et al., 2007). Such a break from convention allowed for new ideas to be advanced and tested. There are several "take-aways" here for academics; the most prominent are: there may be an association between perceptions of policing and desire to be an officer; that those with a criminal justice-related education hold more accurate perceptions about policing than their peers in some areas including the application and hiring process and officer salary; and that young people interested in policing hold perceptions that vary from moderately accurate to limited. All of these ideas are ripe for future exploration as this area of research is relatively untouched. Explorations here have direct implications for policing organizations interested in the recruitment of young people.

There are, however, limitations within this project that should be noted. The sample sizes for the surveys and the AEI's needed to be larger. Larger samples would have decreased the likelihood of sampling error, which might have impacted some of the results here. Larger samples would have likely increased the race/ethnic diversity of those studied. The samples were largely homogeneous, which limited findings. Moreover, this study did not investigate how perceptions of policing differed between those who expressed a current interest in policing and those who had considered a policing career but were no longer interested. If perceptions of policing differ among these groups, the findings could have direct implications when recruiting the young. If we could better understand the thought processes of those who are no longer interested, perhaps we could curb perceptions that lessen desire to be an officer. This study holds
many lessons and is essentially the starting point for research concerning young peoples’ perceptions of a policing career.
CHAPTER SIX: Conclusion

This project explored the perceptions that influence young peoples' interest in policing as a career. The impetus of this project was two ideas derived from a series of studies conducted by Ipsos Reid on behalf of the Police Sector Council (PSC). Ipsos Reid's findings suggested a disconnect between young peoples' perceptions of policing and the working realities of the profession. Additionally, it was found that youth's desire to enter policing has decreased in recent years (Ipsos Public Affairs, 2010b). However, Ipsos Ried did not discuss if these ideas were possibly connected. The aim of this project was thus to examine if young peoples' perceptions of policing were interconnected with desire to be an officer by answering the following research questions:

1. How do perceptions of policing as a career vary among young people with respect to the application and hiring process, day-to-day activities, and issues of gender and/or race/ethnic equality?
   
   i. How do perceptions of policing differ (if it all) from the realities of policing and how might these differences be explained?

   ii. Who is most likely to express interest in becoming a police officer?

2. What are the policy implications of this study for policing organizations and what can academics learn from this research?

Data was acquired through an online survey and subsequent asynchronous email interviews (AEIs). These quantitative and qualitative methods were designed to explore
perceptions of a policing career among young people who expressed a current or past interest in this vocation. The data revealed that young people interested in a policing career hold moderately accurate perceptions of policing with regards to the application and hiring process, officer salary, the daily tasks performed by officers, and issues of gender. But, these young people have a limited understanding of longstanding issues of race/ethnic discrimination within policing. The explanations of post-secondary education and portrayals of policing in popular culture were used to account for young peoples' moderately accurate understandings. The often secretive nature of policing was then discussed to contextualize their limited understanding of race/ethnic discrimination within the policing subculture.

This study examined perceptions and desirability of a policing career from the perspective of the young and not from the vantage point of those already working within policing. Subsequently, this project holds relevance for policing organizations and academics interested in ideas of officer recruitment as new ideas were examined and explored. Going forth, the association between perceptions of policing and desire to be an officer is ripe for academic exploration. If, as suggested in this thesis, there is a positive and negative relationship between perceptions and desire, policing organizations would benefit from educating young people about the working realities of this vocation.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A –

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL FROM THE RESEARCH ETHICS BOARD

RESEARCH ETHICS BOARD
Certification of Ethical Acceptability of Research Involving Human Participants

APPROVAL PERIOD: May 13, 2011 to May 13, 2012
REB NUMBER: 11AP014
TYPE OF REVIEW: Delegated Type 1
RESPONSIBLE FACULTY: PATRICK PARNABY
DEPARTMENT: Sociology and Anthropology
SPONSOR: N/A
TITLE OF PROJECT: The Appeal of Sirens, a Uniform, and Life with a Badge: Perceptions of a Policing Career among Twenty-First Century Youth

CHANGES: 04 Jan 12: A.1 Title; B.9 Purpose; B.10 Methodology; B.12 Participants; B.13 Recruitment; D.17 Consent; E.22 Confidentiality

The members of the University of Guelph Research Ethics Board have examined the protocol which describes the participation of the human subjects in the above-named research project and considers the procedures, as described by the applicant, to conform to the University’s ethical standards and the Tri-Council Policy Statement.

The REB requires that you adhere to the protocol as last reviewed and approved by the REB. The REB must approve any modifications before they can be implemented. If you wish to modify your research project, please complete the Change Request Form. If there is a change in your source of funding, or a previously unfunded project receives funding, you must report this as a change to the protocol.

Adverse or unexpected events must be reported to the REB as soon as possible with an indication of how these events affect, in the view of the Responsible Faculty, the safety of the participants, and the continuation of the protocol.

If research participants are in the care of a health facility, at a school, or other institution or community organization, it is the responsibility of the Principal Investigator to ensure that the ethical guidelines and approvals of those facilities or institutions are obtained and filed with the REB prior to the initiation of any research protocols.
The Tri-council Policy Statement requires that ongoing research be monitored by, at a minimum, a final report and, if the approval period is longer than one year, annual reports. Continued approval is contingent on timely submission of reports.

Membership of the Research Ethics Board: B. Beresford, Ext.; F. Caldwell, Physician; K. Cooley, Alt. Health Care; J. Clark, PoliSci (alt); J. Devlin, OAC; J. Dwyer, FRAN; M. Dwyer, Legal; D. Dyck, CBS; D. Emslie, Physician (alt); H. Gilmour, Legal (alt); G. Holloway, CBS (alt); B. Ferguson, CME (alt); S. Henson, OAC (alt); L. Kuczynski, Chair; J. Minogue, EHS; I. Newby-Clark, Psychology (alt); L. Niel, OVC (alt); A. Papadopoulos, OVC; B. Power, Ext.; L. Robinson, CBS; V. Shalla, SOAN (alt); L. Son Hing, Psychology; J. Srbely, CBS (alt); T. Turner, SOAN; E. van Duren, CME.

Approved: ______________________

per
Chair, Research Ethics Board

Date: ______________________
APPENDIX B – ONLINE SURVEY

Occupational Interests among the Young

Welcome
Thank you for showing interest in this survey. On the following screen is important consent information. Please read carefully before you proceed.
Consent Information
You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Nicola Walker from the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at the University of Guelph. If you have any questions or concerns about this research undertaking, please contact myself or my primary supervisor, Dr. Patrick Parnaby:

Nicola Walker
Department of Sociology/Anthropology
University of Guelph.
Email: nwalker@uoguelph.ca

Dr. Patrick Parnaby
Department of Sociology/Anthropology
University of Guelph.
Tel: 519-824-4120 (extension 53941)
Email: pparnaby@uoguelph.ca

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
This study is designed to explore the career aspirations and occupational choices of young people in Canada

PROCEDURES
If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be completing a brief online survey consisting of fewer than 25 questions. The survey should take you about 5-7 minutes to complete. If you choose to enter your email address prior to completing the survey, you name, survey responses, and email address will be stored together and may be used for further follow up. However, all personal information will remain confidential and all data collected from this survey and any follow up conducted will be used for research purposes only.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS
This research project presents no foreseeable physical or psychological risks.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR SOCIETY
The benefits of this study for participants are minimal, if any. Generally speaking, this survey will ask those involved to contemplate their futures with regards to career attainment. Such contemplation is arguably beneficial at a young age. Additionally, it is hoped that this project will introduce some new ideas to the sociological/criminological research community.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION
You will not be compensated for completing the survey.

CONFIDENTIALITY
The data collected from this survey will be confidential.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL
You can choose whether to take part in this study or not. You may abort the survey at any time by simply closing your browser window. However, please understand that unless you select to provide your email
address. I have no way of identifying your data after you withdraw, I will be unable to delete your answers. That said, it is likely that partial responses of any kind will be removed from the data set prior to analysis.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through the University of Guelph Research Ethics Board. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact:

Research Ethics Coordinator
University of Guelph
437 University Centre
Guelph, ON  N1G 2W1

Telephone: (519) 824-4120, ext. 56606
E-mail: sauld@uoguelph.ca
Fax: (519) 821-5236

Consent
☐ I AGREE, let’s begin.
☐ I DISAGREE

Please enter your email address (Optional)
Should you opt to provide your email address all personal information will remain confidential but your name and survey responses will be stored together.
In this section, you are asked to consider and share your career aspirations.

1
Generally speaking, to what extent have you thought about the kind of career you would like to have in the future?
- I’ve given it a great deal of thought.
- I’ve given it some thought.
- I’ve not given it much thought at all.
- I’m not sure

2
Indicate how important you believe the following criteria are when considering your career prospects.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>1 - Not important at all</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5 - Very important</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
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<td>Employment incentives (e.g., vacation time, benefits, pension plan)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Opportunities for bonus pay</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pay/salary</td>
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<td>Opportunities for advancement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Working with others in a team environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>That your parents or other family members work or have worked in this field</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other:</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
3
Rank the careers/occupational fields you have considered seriously using the scales provided with 1 being LEAST appealing and 5 being MOST appealing. (If a differing career/occupational field(s) is of interest to you, please specify below.)

<table>
<thead>
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<th></th>
<th>1 - Not at all appealing</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5 - Very appealing</th>
<th>Haven’t seriously considered this career</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internet &amp; high-tech</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Federal government</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-profit</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial government</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4
Which characteristics make an occupation/career appealing to you? (choose all that apply)

☐ Job security
☐ Income potential
☐ Status/prestige
☐ Opportunities for advancement
☐ Opportunity to help others in need
☐ Your parent(s) or other family member(s) works or worked in this career/occupation
☐ Other:
5
You included “policing” as one of the careers you have considered and find appealing. Which of the following statements is most appropriate?

☐ I am currently interested in pursuing a career as a police officer.
☐ I have considered policing as a career, but am no longer interested.

In this section, you are asked generally about your thoughts regarding policing in Canada.

6
What was it about policing that made this occupation/career choice appealing? (choose all that apply)

☐ Job security
☐ Income potential
☐ Status/prestige
☐ Opportunities for advancement
☐ Opportunity to help others in need
☐ Your parent(s) or other family member(s) works or worked in this career/occupation
☐ Other:

7
Briefly explain why you are no longer interested in policing as a future career.

8
Given the large number of policing stereotypes in Western culture which, if any, in your in your opinion do you think are accurate about policing in Canada?

In this section, you are asked generally about your thoughts regarding policing in Canada.
9
What is it about policing that makes this occupation/career choice appealing? (choose all that apply)

☐ Job security
☐ Income potential
☐ Status/prestige
☐ Opportunities for advancement
☐ Opportunity to help others in need
☐ Your parent(s) or other family member(s) works or worked in this career/occupation
☐ Action/excitement
☐ Other:

10
Given the large number of policing stereotypes in Western culture which, if any, in your opinion do you think are accurate about policing in Canada?

In this section, you are asked to share your knowledge about policing as a career choice.

11
To the best of your knowledge, when applying to become an officer, how important do you think the following qualities are? (If you think a differing quality(ies) is important when applying to become an officer, please specify below.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualities</th>
<th>Not very important</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A high school education</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical ability (strength, endurance etc.)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to reason and problem solve</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A college or undergraduate education</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ability to speak both English and French

Willingness to work outside your home region or municipality

Other:

12
Which, if any, of the qualities discussed in the previous question do you possess? (check all that apply)

☐ Having a high school education
☐ Physical ability
☐ Ability to reason and problem solve
☐ Emotional stability
☐ Having a college or undergraduate education
☐ Bilingualism (able to speak both English and French)
☐ Ability and willingness to relocate
☐ Other:

13
What level of education do you think is REQUIRED to start a career in policing?

☐ A graduate degree (MA and/or PhD)
☐ A bachelors degree (BA or BSc)
☐ A college diploma or certificate
☐ A high school diploma
☐ Not sure
☐ Don’t know

14
How appropriate do you think the education requirement you identified in question 13 is for those who hope to enter policing?

☐ Very appropriate
15
To the best of your knowledge, how long does it take someone to proceed through the application and hiring process to become a police officer?
- Less than 3 months
- 3 to 5 months
- 6 to 8 months
- 9 to 11 months
- More than 12 months
- Not sure
- Don’t know

16
Please choose the statement you believe is most accurate with respect to the police hiring process.
- With all else being equal, males are more likely to be hired compared to females.
- With all else being equal, females are more likely to be hired compared to males.
- With all else being equal, males and females have equal chances of being hired
- Not sure
- Don’t know

17
Please choose the statement you believe is most accurate with respect to the police hiring process.
- With all else being equal, visible minorities are more likely to be hired compared to non-visible minorities.
- With all else being equal, non-visible minorities are more likely to be hired compared to visible minorities.
- With all else being equal, visible minorities and non-visible minorities have equal chances of being hired
In this section, you are asked to share your perceptions concerning work as police officer.

18
On average how long do you think Canadian officers remain in the policing profession?
- Less than 5 years
- 5 to 10 years
- 11 to 20 years
- 21 to 30 years
- More than 30 years
- Not sure
- Don't know

19
What do you think an officer earns per year after successfully completing <u>6 months</u> on the job?
- Less than $30 thousand
- $30,000 – $49,000
- $50,000 – $69,000
- $70,000 – $89,000
- $90,000 - $100,000
- Over $100,000
- Not sure
- Don't know

20
What do you think an officer earns per year after successfully completing <u>15 years</u> on the job?
21
Approximately 48% of Canadian marriages end in divorce. How do you think marriages where one or both partners are officers compare to the national average?

- Above average
- About average
- Below average
- Not sure
- Don't know

22
Below is a list of a constable’s daily responsibilities while working in large urban environments (e.g., Halifax, Toronto, Vancouver). How much time do you think is spent by an officer on each?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>1 - Not much time at all</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4 - A great deal of time</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patrolling by vehicle</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patrolling on foot</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completing paperwork</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearing in court</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding to serious calls for service (e.g. domestic assaults, child abduction, etc.)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigating criminal activity</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attending to motor vehicle accidents</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing/managing traffic flow</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding to non-serious calls for service (e.g. noise complaints, lost or stolen wallets, etc.)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**23**

In your opinion, how likely is it that you would be assigned specific tasks by your superiors because of your gender?

- 5 - Almost certain
- 4
- 3
- 2
- 1 - Very unlikely

**24**

In your opinion, how dangerous is policing in large urban environments (e.g., Halifax, Toronto, Vancouver). By dangerous we are referring to the risk of serious or fatal injury.

- 5 - Very dangerous
- 4
- 3
- 2
- 1 - Not dangerous

**25**

To what extent do the following aspects of policing appeal to you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>1 - Not appealing</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5 - Very appealing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shift work</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over time</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The potential for risk and excitement</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to help others</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paperwork</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
26
In the scenario below, in your opinion, what is the most likely outcome to occur? A male and a female officer have responded to a sexual assault call while on patrol. When they arrive on the scene, the female victim is clearly injured inside the home as an unidentified male is yelling outside about his girlfriend cheating on him.

- The male officer tells his female partner to go speak to the victim as he attempts to calm and detain the unidentified male for questioning.
- The female officer tells her male partner to go speak to the victim as she attempts to calm and detain the unidentified male for questioning.
- Both officers ensure the victim is okay and then begin questioning the male outside.

27
As an officer, would you expect your coworkers of the opposite sex to treat you differently because of your sex?

- Yes
- Somewhat
- No
- Not sure
- Don’t know

28
Would you expect a non-visible minority officer to treat a visible minority officer as an equal peer?

- Yes
- Somewhat
- No
- Not sure
- Don’t know

29
In your opinion, which of the following statements is most accurate? Generally speaking, the public perceives:

- Female officers to be more effective than male officers.
30
In your opinion, which of the following statements is most accurate? Generally speaking, the public perceives:
- Non-minority officers to be more effective than visible minority officers.
- Non-minority officers as less effective than visible minority officers.
- Non-minority officers and visible minority officers to be equally effective.
- Not sure
- Don't know

In this section, you are asked to share your demographic information.

31
In what year were you born?
- 1980
- 1981
- 1982
- 1983
- 1984
- 1985
- 1986
- 1987
- 1988
- 1989
- 1990
- 1991
- 1992
135

☐ 1993
☐ 1994
☐ 1995

32
What is your sex?
☐ Male
☐ Female
☐ Transsexual

33
What were the ethnic or cultural origins of your ancestors (choose all that apply)?
☐ White
☐ Chinese
☐ Black
☐ Filipino
☐ Latin American
☐ Arab
☐ South Asian (e.g., East Indian, Pakistani, Sri Lankan, etc.)
☐ Southeast Asian (e.g., Vietnamese, Cambodian, Malaysian, Laotian, etc.)
☐ West Asian (e.g., Iranian, Afghan, etc.)
☐ Korean
☐ Japanese
☐ Other:
☐ Don’t know

34
In what province is your permanent residence?
☐ British Columbia
☐ Alberta
☐ Saskatchewan
Ω Manitoba
Ω Ontario
Ω Quebec
Ω New Brunswick
Ω Nova Scotia
Ω Prince Edward Island
Ω Newfoundland and Labrador
Ω Yukon
Ω Northwest Territories
Ω Nunavut

35
What is the highest level of education that you have completed to date?
Ω A graduate degree (MA and/or PhD)
Ω A bachelors degree (BA or BSc)
Ω A college diploma or certificate
Ω A high school diploma
Ω Other: ________________

36
What is your current program of study?

37
What is the highest level of education your father has completed to date?
Ω A graduate degree (MA and/or PhD)
Ω A bachelors degree (BA or BSc)
Ω A college diploma or certificate
Ω A high school diploma
Ω Other:
38
What is the highest level of education your mother has completed to date?

○ A graduate degree (MA and/or PhD)
○ A bachelors degree (BA or BSc)
○ A college diploma or certificate
○ A high school diploma
○ Other, please specify: ____________________

39
Generally speaking, how much confidence do you have in the Canadian police?

○ 10 - A great deal of confidence
○ 9
○ 8
○ 7
○ 6
○ 5
○ 4
○ 3
○ 2
○ 1 - Very little confidence

40
Generally speaking, how much confidence do you have in the Canadian justice system and courts?

○ 1 - Very little confidence
○ 2
○ 3
○ 4
○ 5
○ 6
○ 7
8
9
10 - A great deal of confidence

41
Generally speaking, and in your opinion, who makes for a better police officer?

- Females make better officers
- Males make better officers
- They are equally effective as officers
Thank You

Thank you for your interest in this study. If you have any questions or are interested in the research findings when they become available, please contact myself or my primary supervisor,
Dr. Patrick Parnaby:  Nicola Walker Department of Sociology/Anthropology University of Guelph. Email: nwalker@uoguelph.ca  Dr. Patrick Parnaby Department of Sociology/Anthropology University of Guelph. Tel: 519-824-4120 (extension 53941) Email: pparnaby@uoguelph.ca
APPENDIX C –
EMAIL TO STUDENTS SEEKING SURVEY PARTICIPATION

Hello!

My name is Nicola Walker and I am a Masters student in the Department of Sociology/Anthropology at the University of Guelph. I am now conducting research and require student participation in my project. My research primarily explores the occupational choices of young people in the Western world.

I am looking for volunteers who are willing to complete a brief online survey. The survey should take approximately 5-7 minutes to complete. Unfortunately, volunteers will not be compensated for their time.

If you are willing to participate please go to:
http://app.fluidsurveys.com/s/occupationalchoice/

Please feel free to contact me via email at nwalker@uoguelph.ca should you have any questions. Alternatively, questions and/or concerns can also be directed to my supervisor, Dr. Patrick F. Parnaby, via email at pparnaby@uoguelph.ca.

Sincerely,

Nicola Walker  B.A (Honours)  
MA Candidate  
Department of Sociology & Anthropology  
University of Guelph.
Hello!

My name is Nicola Walker and I am a Masters student in the Department of Sociology/Anthropology at the University of Guelph. You recently completed an online survey examining occupational choices of young people in the Western world. Prior to completing the survey, you indicated that you would be willing to participate in study follow up.

I am now conducting email interviews with many of those who expressed interest in the profession of policing, such as yourself. I am writing in the hopes that you will participate. If you agree, I will email you a consent form and approximately 10 questions that you can respond to at your convenience. Should I need clarification on any of your responses, I would appreciate brief further communication. Unfortunately, volunteers will not be compensated for their time.

If you are willing to participate, please read the attached consent form and indicate that you agree to participate at the bottom of this document. By indicating that you agree to participate you are declaring that you have read, understood, and accepted the research terms and conditions. Please send your completed consent form as an attachment to me email at nwalker@uoguelph.ca and I will send you the questions that you are asked to answer. Should you not wish to participate please disregard this email and the attached consent form. Should you have any questions and/or concerns please contact myself or my supervisor, Dr. Patrick F. Parnaby, via email at pparnaby@uoguelph.ca.

Sincerely,

Nicola Walker B.A (Honours)
MA Candidate
Department of Sociology & Anthropology
University of Guelph.
APPENDIX E –
CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE ASYNCHRONOUS EMAIL INTERVIEWS

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Nicola Walker from the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at the University of Guelph. If you have any questions or concerns about this research undertaking, please contact myself or my primary supervisor, Dr. Patrick Parnaby:

Nicola Walker  
Department of Sociology/Anthropology  
University of Guelph.  
Email: nwalker@uoguelph.ca

Dr. Patrick Parnaby  
Department of Sociology/Anthropology  
University of Guelph.  
Tel: 519-824-4120 (extension 53941)  
Email: pparnaby@uoguelph.ca

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The initial phase of this study that you previously participated in was designed to explore the career aspirations and occupational choices of those 16-27 years of age. Further research is now being performed with participants who expressed interest in the policing profession as an occupation they had once considered or are currently considering as a career.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in the second phase of this study, you will be asked to complete a brief questionnaire via email consisting of approximately 10 questions. The questionnaire can be completed at your convenience and should take about 20 minutes to complete. The data collected will be used for research purposes only.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

This research project presents no foreseeable physical or psychological risks.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR SOCIETY

The benefits of this study for participants are minimal, if any. It is hoped that this project will introduce some new ideas to the sociological/criminological research community.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

You will not be compensated for completing the email interview.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The data collected from this interview will be confidential.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to take part in this study or not. You may abort the interview at any time by not answering the email containing the interview questions. If you choose to withdraw after you have provided an
email response to the interview questions, simply reply via email to the researcher informing that you wish to withdraw from the study.

**RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS**

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through the University of Guelph Research Ethics Board. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact:

Research Ethics Coordinator  
University of Guelph  
437 University Centre  
Guelph, ON  N1G 2W1  
Telephone: (519) 824-4120, ext. 56606  
E-mail: sauld@uoguelph.ca  
Fax: (519) 821-5236

I AGREE. Let’s begin.  
I DISAGREE
APPENDIX F – ASYNCHRONOUS EMAIL INTERVIEW GUIDE

(Questions for those who expressed a current interest in policing)

1) What sparked your interest in policing as a career?

2) What qualities do you possess that would make you a strong policing applicant should you choose to apply?

3) Describe the typical application and hiring process you expect to experience should you apply to become a police officer.

3) Describe a usual day for a Constable. If you become an officer, what sorts of things will you do and how will your time be spent?

4) What – if any – policing activities do male officers do better than female officers?

5) What – if any – policing activities do female officers do better than male officers?

6) In what ways – if it all – do higher ranking officers take an officers’ gender (identifying as male, female, or transsexual) and race/ethnicity into account in the daily assignment of policing tasks?

7) In what ways – if it all – do male officers interact with female officers differently than other males within this profession?

8) If you become an officer, in what ways – if at all - do you think policing will impact your family or home life?

9) How do media portrayals of policing differ from the realities of this profession?

(Questions for those who expressed a past interest in policing)

1) What sparked your interest in policing as a career?

2) What qualities do you possess that would have made you a strong policing applicant?

3) Describe the typical application and hiring process for becoming a police officer.

3) Describe a usual day for a Constable. What sorts of things do officers do and how is their time spent?
4) What – if any – policing activities do male officers do better than female officers?

5) What – if any – policing activities do female officers do better than male officers?

6) In what ways – if it all – do higher ranking officers take an officers’ gender (identifying as male, female, or transsexual) and race/ethnicity into account in the daily assignment of policing tasks?

7) In what ways – if it all – do male officers interact with female officers differently than other males within this profession?

8) In what ways – if at all - do you think a policing career impacts the family and home lives of officers?

9) How do media portrayals of policing differ from the realities of this profession?
APPENDIX G –
ASYNCHRONOUS EMAIL INTERVIEW CODING SHEET

Notes from Interview One:

- Wanted to be officer since middle school.
- Positive experiences with policing when caught doing illegal activities
- Solidified interest = positive experiences with police, criminal justice studies at university, and trip to OPP headquarters.
- Wants to become specialized within policing.
- Hatred/fear of police stems from negative experiences and the media
- Canadian and USA policing are different but not reflected in media = misperceptions of Canadian police.
- Self – identified as having “very good” understanding of policing at the constable level.
- General knowledge of policing rated “fair” but later suggests a limited knowledge.
- “Correctly” described application and hiring process.
- Officers’ days are unpredictable to some extent.
- Constables do much paperwork
- Constables do traffic patrol.
- Females make better officers in every way EXCEPT horrific scenes (i.e. death of child) and physical ability.
- Women better = try to avoid confrontation.
- Male officers = often consciously or unconsciously encourage violence.
- Male officers = more likely to use force.
- Both genders are equal when doing paperwork.
- Female officers = abilities downplayed in assignment of policing tasks.
- Glass ceiling in policing
- Impact of policing on personal life = significant (but less in Canada than U.S.)
- High rates of alcoholism.

Possible Codes from Interview One:

- Application and hiring process
- Tasks performed
- Level of understanding
- Gender roles/perceptions of gender
- Family life
- Media portrayals

Notes from Interview Two:

- No family connection
- Policing simply a career of interest.
- Wants to protect community and set good example.
- Criminal justice education helped solidify desire to become officer.
- Self-identified as having a “very good understanding” (thanks school).
- Has good decision-making skills
- Has necessary post-secondary.
- Has volunteering.
- Is in good physical shape.
- No criminal record.
- Application process = long and competitive.
- Does not like the possibility of relocating
- Time spent as officer = patrolling, doing paperwork, and responding to calls
- Not sure about gender roles: females better at conflict resolution and with assault calls; Males better with physical ability.
- Policing is becoming “modern” concerning gender roles.
- Males and females respect each other.
- Males realize that females are needed now BUT subculture may foster long-routed sexism.
- Media = glorifying policing.
- Media = makes policing look very exciting
- Media = simplifies investigation process.
- Can have negative impacts on family life.
- Higher divorce rates.
- Would like to work near the majority of family to lessen family burden of police work.

**Possible Codes from Interview Two:**

- Reasons for interest
- Application and hiring process
- Tasks performed
- Level of understanding
- Gender roles/perceptions of gender
- Family life
- Media portrayals

**Notes from Interview Three:**

- Definitely interested in policing but may go to law school.
- Criminal justice education.
- “Fair understanding of policing” but contradicted later when said does not know realities of policing.
- App Process = lengthy
- Would be good because fit, good written.communication skills, organized, good at diffusing situations, and empathetic.
- Lot of paperwork.
- Unsure how much time is spent doing traffic patrol, appearing in the community and answering service calls BUT knows these are all duties.
- Assignment of policing tasks not based on gender
- Gender roles within policing reflective of roles in Western culture
- Females are better in assault situations but males are better with physical strength.
- Females also better at conflict resolution.
- Those of race/ethnic minority treated equally by other officers.
- Media exaggerates what policing is really like
- Wants to help others.
- Wants to set a good example
- Policing impacts family life: adds stress

Possible Codes from Interview Three:

- Reasons for interest
- Application and hiring process
- Tasks performed
- Level of understanding
- Gender roles/perceptions of gender
- Family life
- Media portrayals

Notes from Interview Four:

- Popular culture sparked interest in policing
- Media = glamorizes policing
- Criminal justice education.
- No family connection to policing.
- Wants to solve crimes.
- App process – lengthy.
- “Fair understanding” of policing.
- Knows the task officers perform but not how much time is spent doing each task on daily basis.
- Lots of paperwork.
- Answer emergency calls.
- Help the community.
- Gender is not usually accounted for in assignment of policing tasks but females are better with assaults.
- Knows the policing subculture is male-dominated and is unsure of the dynamics but “would like to think” that co-workers treat each other equally.
- Significant impact on family life: long hours, shift work, seeing emotionally difficult situations.
- Would leave policing if it became too much for family.

Possible Codes from Interview Four:

- Reasons for interest
- Application and hiring process
- Tasks performed
- Level of understanding
- Gender roles/perceptions of gender
- Family life
- Media portrayals

**Order of codes:**

7 - Level of understanding
6- Tasks performed
5 - Application and hiring process
4 – Gender roles/perceptions of gender
3 - Family life
2 - Media portrayals
1- Reasons for interest