Police: Male police officers' attitudes toward their female counterparts in the Windsor Police Services (Ontario).

Marco Del Colombo
University of Windsor

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POLICE: MALE POLICE OFFICERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD
THEIR FEMALE COUNTERPARTS IN THE WINDSOR
POLICE SERVICES.

BY

MARCO DEL COLOMBO

A Thesis
Submitted to
the Faculty of Graduate Studies
and Research Through the
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Masters of Arts
at the University of Windsor
Windsor, Ontario, Canada
1995
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ABSTRACT

The attitude of male police officers toward their female counterparts within the Windsor Police Services was the focus of the research. It was proposed that male police officers would hold traditional and negative views toward female police officers. Secondly, the research also proposed that male officers' attitudes towards female police officers would be similar to their attitudes toward women in general. Third, the study also proposed that male police officers' attitudes toward female officers and women in general would be related to the male officers' age, rank, educational level, number of years on the police service and the amount of training and patrolling experienced with a female police officer.

In order to collect the data, a twenty-six item structured questionnaire was employed. The respondents were guaranteed complete confidentiality and anonymity. In order to determine the degree of negativity among male police officers toward female police officers and toward women in general descriptive analysis was used. To determine the relationship between the various demographic variables and the attitudes of male officers, one-way ANOVAS were used.

The study found that in general police officers' attitudes toward female police officers were negative. However, these same male police officers held more positive attitudes toward women in general. The study also found that the older, higher ranking male police officers, with a greater number of years in the police force held significantly more positive attitudes toward female officers.

The results of the research imply that male officers still hold traditional views toward female officers, and have a difficult time accepting them as equals in the
Windsor Police force. Moreover, these attitudes seem to be more a function of the occupation itself. Thus, the study suggests counselling or educational programs within the police department, in order to try and liberalize these attitudes.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Women’s entry into policing has generated a new and pertinent area of study in criminology (Golden, 1981). Policewomen have been a very important topic of research in the literature (Coffey, Brown, Constabulary, & Savage, 1992). However, the majority of research on women police has focused on evaluating their performance, namely, their physical competency, with the intention of finding out whether or not women are physically capable of carrying out police work (Bartol, Bergen, Volchens, Knoras, 1992; Balkin, 1988; Bell, 1982; Sherman, 1975). Most studies suggest women are able to perform as well as their male counterparts (Balkin, 1988; Sherman, 1975; Charles, 1981). In our opinion, more attention needs to be focused upon the relatively unresearched area of attitudes of male co-workers, and supervisors toward the integration of women into modern policing (Golden, 1981).

This is especially important considering the facts that the province of Ontario as well as the rest of Canada has adopted a policy of equity with respect to recruitment to police forces. More specifically, section 48 of the Police Services Act states that every police service must have an employment equity plan that provides for elimination of systematic barriers to the recruitment and promotion of women, aboriginal, visible minorities, and the disabled (Nelson, 1992: 184). Hence, increasing numbers of women are now being recruited to police forces. However, with predominantly negative attitudes among male officers as the research shows, this could
create a very stressful environment for females to work in. In fact, such negative attitudes on the part of the male officers, create a major source of stress for women officers (Wexler & Login, 1983). In a study conducted by Wexler & Login, (1983), dealing with the sources of stress among police officers, they found that 80% of the female officers surveyed reported stress as being due to the negative attitudes of fellow male officers. Moreover, out of all the stressors studied, such as those stemming from the courts, media, poor pay, and exposure to dangerous situations to name a few, the negative attitudes of other male officers was ranked as one of the top stressors for female police officers (Wexler & Login, 1983).

The attitudes held by male supervisors have been demonstrated to affect the supervisors’ perception of female officers’ performance (Golden, 1981). More specifically, according to Golden the attitudes of co-workers and supervisors toward female officers will have a significant impact on the nature of assignments they receive, and how they adapt to the job situation. If negative attitudes predominate then females may receive a limited number of assignments, which will make it extremely difficult for them to fit in to the police subculture. Furthermore, as a result of these attitudes, high expectations may develop toward female officers, which can affect their performance negatively (Golden, 1981). Moreover, these negative male attitudes form one of the main obstacles to women’s progress (Heidensohn, 1992).

In the police organization, traditional gender related norms maintain their dominance, so that the organization remains a male dominated world (Pogrebin, 1986; Heidensohn, 1992). For women in this male subculture, Pogrebin maintains that they have to work very hard in order to convince men that they are able to perform as well
as them. For many women in policing it is not worth the struggle, as is evidenced by the high turnover rates. These rates result from male co-worker attitudes and power struggles with male supervisors (Bartol, et. al, 1992). In addition, women have to struggle against the societal values which try to place women in traditional roles, such as remaining in the home. Thus, according to Pogrebin (1986), these problems faced by female police officers must be addressed.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Historical View

In early Greece, according to Emsley, (1983), Evans, (1974) and Patrick, (1972), the term police was an inclusive term, referred to as the POLITERIA. This term meant all matters affecting the survival and welfare of the polis or state. The Latin term POLITIA, meant the state, and its right to impose prescribed limits on private and public behaviour.

During the Roman Empire the power of the state was held in the hands of the emperor who gave regulations to civil and military officials over matters such as public order, religion, prostitution, morality, etc., which was enforced by patrolmen and magistrates. This was known as the Roman police system. This particular system disappeared however, with the fall of Rome, although some ideas remained such as the concept of police referring to the internal administration of a city (Emsley, 1983).

With the arrival of the Saxons in the fifth and sixth centuries A.D., England had a tribal system of police in which a head man and the members of the community were responsible for the internal peace. When England became a Kingdom ruled by Alfred the Great in 870 to 901 A.D., the earls of the provinces, were responsible for keeping the Kings' peace. Earls were members of the British nobility. Sheriff's were in turn responsible to each Earl in the districts. Essentially this early policing system was a personal, local, and preventative one in which every member of the community was
responsible for his actions as well as the actions of others.

In 1066 came the Norman conquest with the Battle of Hastings, and under William I according to McCormick and Visano (1992) the power allotted to the Sheriff was increased such that part of their responsibility was to look after the Kings rights and interests.

Under Henry I (1100 - 1135) the policing system of England was still maintaining the Saxon tradition, according to McCormick and Visano (1992). There was still the local and personal protection against crime provided by the members of the community banding together as vigilantes or state sanctioned enforcers. Manwaring-White (1983) also concedes that law maintenance was arrived at or based on the traditions and customs of the Saxon era, which were modified by the Normans and entered in the book of statues in 1285. In addition, White maintains that the community was responsible for law and order as well as watch men, who handed criminals over to local constables. This system faded out eventually as England's population grew rapidly in size and mobility (White, 1983).

During the era of Edward III 1344, appointed moral men were to hear all criminal matters and to determine all manner of crimes. These people whom he appointed were known as warders or conservators of peace, and before this time they were known as knights. Moreover, these people were respected by local people, and thus were suitable for this position (McCormick & Visano, 1992). What is also interesting about this time period is that the term constable has its origins from here, especially from the Norman period. The term constable during this time was often known as a comestabuli, the Latin term meaning master of the horse. The specific
duties of the constable were to supervise watchmen, inquire into various offenses, serve summons, execute warrants, take charge of prisoners and prosecute them, and obey the orders from the justices (McCormick & Visano, 1992).

Until the end of the Tudor era (1460 - 1600), every citizen was obligated to assist in apprehending offenders, and were subject to punishment if they refused. Essentially, this was a public duty, and in fact was carried over to modern times to some degree. Basically, it was the responsibility of every male person, except for those in high social positions to bring those transgressors of the law to trial (Critchley, 1978). However, gradually over time, citizens did not see this as a duty anymore and began to pay constables to do citizens' work in this area as well (McCormick & Visano, 1992). In other words, the public did not want to bother with the task of apprehending criminals anymore, so more responsibility was placed on to the constables which created further responsibilities for them, since they now had to do the citizens' work as well. By 1673, Charles III, empowered justices to appoint constables to preserve order who in turn would get paid watchmen to carry out any active police duties.

By the 18th century, England saw a dramatic increase in the lower class population according to Manwaring-White (1983), as well as in the level of anger of these lower class citizens toward the poor working conditions they had to face. An increasing number of riots broke out such as the Luddite Riots of 1811 in response to the industrialization of the weaving industry. Moreover, these riots were in response to high food prices, reduced wages, and rising unemployment due to the collapse of foreign markets (Palmer, 1988). These events raised questions about the use of
soldiers to control such demonstrators, and raised the possibility of passing the police bill that would create a police force to deal with this. However, the public feared this would become a repressive system.

According to Manwaring-Wuite (1983), Silver (1967), Walker, (1977) and Johnson (1979), as the years went on the need for a police force became more and more evident, as rioting, turmoil and political arrest continued. However, other investigators dispute the notion that the need for a police force was due to these events (Monkkonen, 1981; Field, 1981) but rather the need was due to the onset of capitalism which called for new forms of discipline (Harrington, 1979; Reiner, 1992) since new problems of order arose. One attempt was made by the Duke of Wellington to establish a police force, however it was rejected three times in 1816, 1818, and 1822.

With the continual breakdown of law and order, throughout the 18th century, McCormick & Visano (1992) and Hay & Snyder (1989) report that Sir Robert Peel pushed for a police force throughout England. To do this, he collected data on the rapidly rising crime rates to demonstrate the need for a police force. As a result, in 1829 the London Police was divided into 17 different police divisions with 3,000 patrol men (Manwaring-White, 1983). This was the beginning of the bureaucratic organization of the policing profession (Mather, 1967; Smith, 1985; Bordua, 1967). During his time in office Peel used municipal corporations to set up local police forces. It was during this time that the function of the police came to be seen as order maintenance (Manwaring-White, 1983). It is worth noting that even though 1829 was the beginning of a professional police force, this remained a weak form of professionalization long after that date (Styles, 1987).
During the 1850's, there was a push to have local police forces spread all over England. In addition, the Metro police force in London began to expand its role of policing beyond public order and crime prevention (Smith, 1985). In 1877, the Criminal Investigating department was created which was London's first plain clothes department. This department was made up of men from outside the police occupation, who were well educated; however, they lacked the experience of policing, according to Smith (1985). Hence, this system did not work. The late 1800's brought frequent striking by workers as a result of the development of trade unions, which in turn promoted the government to use the police to disperse marchers, protestors and picketers. The state also encouraged more co-operation between different police forces.

Manwarring-White reports that the period leading up to World War I was known as “The Great Unrest,” as there were a series of dozens of strikes. For instance, in 1913 alone, there were over 1,000 strikes. The war itself increased police powers, providing them with new duties such as arousing alien enemies, guarding vulnerable points and dealing with consequences such as air raids. In 1918, the first central conference meeting was held, in which the degree of centralization of policing was to be increased. Hence, the small local type police forces with community roots fizzled out, and the number of police officers flourished (Porter, 1987). Also during this time period, the Desborough Committee was established by Lord Desborough in which a number of changes were introduced and which also was a major impetus for 20th century policing. Some of the changes introduced were increased government influences on policing, abolition of smaller forces, establishment of police service as a profession and the use of the police and army simultaneously to combat rioting.
especially during the 1928's and 30's when rioting escalated as a result of the depression.

The time period during World War II brought further increased government control over regional police forces in Britain. Moreover, the responsibilities of the police continued to extend to such duties as reporting the moods and actions of local people, and to look out for industrial unrest. In 1945, the Police Act abolished all non-county borough forces and by 1949 the number of police forces dropped from 183 to 125. In addition, a uniform training scheme was established, more civilians were hired on the force and more advanced technological aids were developed such as surveillance, information gathering, forensic devices, and riot control technology. With the increasing use of automobiles more civilians were coming into contact with the police which caused a concern among the public for more police accountability. By 1960, the Royal Commission established a system of control over police, accountability for mistakes, and for making sure all public complaints were dealt with (Manwaring-White, 1983:21).

Since the early days of modern policing the move toward consolidating small police units with larger ones has been evident, in an effort to make them more economical and efficient. Furthermore, policing has become more and more uniform in organization, training, practice, and discipline. Today the police occupy an important position in the Commonwealth. They are the primary constitutional force protecting individuals in the enjoyment of legal rights. Moreover, in a consensus view, the police stand between the powerful and the weak, trying to prevent oppression, disaster and crime. In summary, police represent law and order (Manwaring-White, 1983).
However, the police can also be viewed as the protectors of the élite, since according to Quinney (1973), crime control agencies such as police represent the dominant ruling class. This view of the police acting as protectors of the élite has also been expressed by Reiner (1985).

With regard to modern police in North America, they are instruments of public policy according to McCormick & Visano (1992), a public which has become increasingly intolerant of criminality. Furthermore, the public expectations have increased, and have expanded as a result of smaller communities finding it more difficult to control the criminal elements surrounding them.

The development of policing in Canada was quite different from both Britain and the United States (Griffiths & Jones, 1989). According to Chapman (1978), prior to Confederation each region in Canada had its own specific policing characteristics depending on the settlement time, settlers' racial origin, and the characteristics of the country. In the Maritime provinces, naval patrols and the military made up the police, while in the heartland of French Canada, the traditional 17th century French method of employing captains of the militia to make up the police was used. Ontario developed a system of policing from the Common Law. The first organized system of law enforcement was developed in Manitoba. In British Columbia the first colonial constables were used to patrol the gold rush (Newman, 1991), which was a problem that later called for an organized system of police (Talbot, 1985).

After Confederation the British North America Act of 1867 gave the federal government in Ottawa the authority to establish a Criminal Code valid in all the provinces from east to west (Marquis, 1993; Talbot, 1985). What this Act did more
specifically was to assign the task of law enforcement to the provinces, which in turn passed on some of these responsibilities to municipalities (Chapman, 1978; Juliani, Talbot and Jayewardene, 1984). The main tasks of these municipal police forces, according to Juliani et al. (1984:340), were to: (1) prevent conflict between ethnic groups and between labour groups and industry; (2) maintain the moral order through the enforcement of puritanical laws, particularly in the areas of prostitution and drinking; and (3) the apprehension of individuals involved in criminal activity.

The first federal police force was not established until 1868 with the passage of the Police of Canada Act, which was the birth of the RCMP (Griffiths & Jones, 1989). The primary responsibility of the RCMP was that of protecting federal buildings, according to Griffiths & Jones (1989), Kelly (1976) and Talbot (1985). Finally, the passage of the Police of Canada Act was the first major departure from the English model of policing.

During the 1900's the RCMP rapidly expanded into provincial policing and by the 1930's municipalities were allowed to contract with the provincial police for policing services. In addition, the RCMP also contracted with the provincial police, leaving only three provincial police forces left today in Ontario, Québec and Newfoundland (Griffiths & Jones, 1989; Talbot, 1985). Thus, today policing services in Canada are carried out at municipal, provincial and federal levels.
Historical View of Women in Policing

It was not until the 19th century that women's groups across the United States became interested in having women appointed to the police department in order to supervise women and children in custody (Balkin, 1988).

Women were in the police service according to Lunneborg (1988), as early as 1845 in New York City, as matrons. The first women to be named a police officer was Marie Owens, (Lunneborg, 1988). Owens was appointed by the mayor of Chicago in 1893, however she did not have any powers to make arrests. Balkin, (1988) reports that the first woman appointed as a police officer was Alice Stebbins Wells, who was hired in 1910 in Los Angeles. Moreover, Wells was a social worker who lectured in 73 different cities across North America between 1912 and 1914. By 1916, thirty cities in the United States had appointed women to their police departments as a result of Wells' speeches, and by 1925, two hundred and ten cities had followed suit. So by this time period, there were 417 women police officers and 355 matrons, and up until the 1960's there was not much expansion in these numbers nor in the various functions of women police (Balkin, 1988). This may have been due to the prevailing consensus that women were not suited to do regular police work (Sherman, 1975). In turn this was due to the stereotypic female sex role which portrays women as passive as well as physically and emotionally weak. Thus, women in policing were restricted to duties such as meter patrols, juvenile work, processing women offenders and clerical work, reflecting the stereotypic view of a woman's place (Remmington, 1983). In addition, as the men returned from World War II this further increased sex-based hiring problems, limiting women's opportunities (Weisheit & Mahan, 1988).
Rapid changes began to occur however, by the early 1960's. The civil rights act was passed in 1964, which according to Farenholtz & Rhodes (1990), forced many police departments to alter their policies in order to ensure equal opportunities to all persons applying to public service jobs. Women were first assigned to full regular patrol duties in 1968 in Indianapolis. For fifty years, before this time, women had been limited to matron positions, watching public parks, movie theatres, and train stations, as well as protecting women and children from criminal influences (Ullman, 1984). During this time period, according to Ullman (1984) women in policing were the first to recognize the potential for crime in such places as massage parlours, public dance halls, and hotels. Women were also the first to raise public awareness of juvenile delinquency.

In 1972 an amendment was made to the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibited employment discrimination based on gender, and this set in motion another surge of women being hired in policing (Horne, 1980; Pogrebin, 1986). According to Horne this marked the beginning of the modern era for policewomen, or the era in which all significant achievements take place. The era before this Horne refers to as the pioneer period, in which the consensus was that women have an important function in policing, but limited to the traditional duties.

During the next twenty years these numbers grew somewhat, and by 1985 out of 148,956 sworn police officers in the United States 10,129 (6.8%) were female (Balkin, 1988). By 1989, women made up 8.2% of all sworn police officers in municipal police departments (Schultz, 1993). Thus, women still remain very much a minority in the police force even though the numbers are increasing.
Women have been employed in policing since the early 1900's in Canada. Their duties were traditional such as clerical work, working with juveniles and women, and matron positions (Griffiths & Jones, 1991). Although there is little data available in Canada on female police, what is known is that the first female officer was hired in Vancouver in 1912, Toronto followed suit in 1913, and then Winnipeg and Edmonton hired female officers in 1917 and 1919, respectively (Linden, 1982). According to Linden (1982) these early female officers were mainly restricted to traditional police duties associated with women.

In the Vancouver Police Department, Linden reports a Womens' division was formed in 1921 which consisted of an inspector and three females. At this time women were not allowed to work on the streets like their male counterparts. The first female to be assigned to full patrol duties did not occur until 1973, and the RCMP did not even hire a single female until 1970. Since 1975 women have generally made up 10% of new RCMP recruits. Out of the total number of sworn police officers in Canada, females constituted 1.8% in 1978, and 2.2% in 1980. There was a significant increase during the early 1980's. However this was not consistent across all of Canada, since provinces like Quebec had relatively few females on their police forces Linden, (1980).

The influx of female police officers has generally been met with warm acceptance by the public. Martin (1980), reports that the community generally believes female officers add a special style to policing. To begin, Martin contends that the public, generally speaking, perceive female officers to be more polite, compassionate, and better listeners than their male counterparts, hence reflecting widely held sexist
stereotypes of women. Moreover, female officers who are more assertive offer a very broad range of communication, since they can also employ non-threatening traits (Martin, 1980).

Sherman found that the public felt women could handle service and domestic quarrels better than males, and that woman officers were more sensitive to the human elements involved in these types of cases. Bartol, et. al, (1992) also found that the public believe female officers were more able to defuse potentially violent situations better than male officers. Further, the public believed female officers were more responsive to the personal needs of the complainant (Sherman, 1975). Lunneborg, (1989) states that women's greater tactfulness, helpfulness, and less assertiveness in policing, strengthens community relations, since in general women can identify better with the public's needs and complaints.

In an extensive survey of public attitudes toward women police officers in Washington D. C., Bloch & Anderson, (1974: cited in Lunneborg, 1989) found that 46% of citizens approved of women on patrol, 23% were neutral and 31% disapproved. In addition, the survey showed that most citizens preferred a male partnered with a female, rather than a male with a male, in handling domestic disputes. However, it should be noted that handling domestic situations constitutes only one small part of an officer's duties (Griffiths & Jones, 1989). In fact, the majority of the patrol officer's time is spent driving around without any specific duty or direct contact with citizens (Ericson, 1982). Finally, Bloch & Anderson report that citizens feel that the female officers show more respect for the public.

According to Martin, (1991) the growth in female police officers is compatible
with the recent emphasis on community policing. Despite this tremendous influx of woman police, and general acceptance by the public, female police do not occupy the full range of roles or ranks within the service, compared to their male counterparts (Coffey, et. al., 1992). They are still largely underrepresented as police officers and supervisors in the higher ranks, although affirmative action has had some impact in changing this (Martin, 1991). Womens' groups have been able to make significant changes in the law, and in practice, however they have not been able to eradicate the dominant negative attitudes among male co-workers, and supervisors. This continues to create difficulty for women in fitting into police organizations, and in advancing to top positions within the department (Feinman, 1986).

Charles (1981) asserts that many male officers are socialized into believing that female officers should be restricted to traditional duties, and hence they will not accept women into the police culture. As one police chief explained it, many male supervisors and officers held the attitude that female officers:

"Don't belong, are too sensitive for the job, are only good for a limited number of tasks in law enforcement, and we always lose them to motherhood" (Bartol, et. al., 1992:257).

This, in turn, results in lack of support from male co-workers and can weaken female performance, since according to Charles female officers are also evaluated on ability to fit into the police culture. Many female officers no matter how much they try to fit into the police organization, face questions regarding their role and status, experience sexism, and ostracism by male co-workers. As one female officer stated "complete acceptance is a dream" (Heidensohn, 1992:130). Bartol, et. al., (1992) reports that many female officers expressed the belief that these negative male attitudes will not
change in the near future. Furthermore, many female police officers maintain that they feel their male counterparts are confused as to how to respond to them, whether as a woman or a police officer. In one case a female officer reports,

"I was just about to enter a dark alley to investigate a robbery in progress when my male backup motioned for me to fall back. He said I might get hurt. I did not know whether to be flattered at his chivalry or angry at his lack of confidence in me" (Johnson 1991:15).
Male Officer Attitudes

Despite the significant increase in the numbers of female police officers, this has been met with strong resistance from administrators and other male officers (Martin, 1991; Sherman, 1975). This opposition is many times manifested in the form of open sexual harassment, and gender discrimination from male colleagues and supervisors (Timmins & Hainsworth, 1989). Police officers, especially veterans, carefully scrutinize new recruits' performance and are especially critical of the female officers' ability to live up to the department standards (Bell, 1982; Lord, 1986). In addition, this resistance by male co-workers is also manifested in the form of negative attitudes (Balkin, 1988), anti-women remarks, sexual comments, as well as refusal to communicate to a female officer (Wexler & Logan, 1983). Wexler & Logan report one instance where a female officer spent eight hours in a patrol car with a male partner in which he did not say a word to her the entire time. The research indicates that male police officers find it difficult to accept females in this line of work.

The tremendous level of male resistance reported by researchers can partially be explained by the belief that the females cannot or will not conform to the stereotypical masculine definition of police work (Balkin, 1988; Martin, 1991). Even when the female officers do try to display masculine traits however they are ostracized by their male peers (Berg & Budnick, 1986). Timmins & Hainsworth (1989), found in their study of 541 female officers in nine different U.S. cities that female officers were perceived as trouble makers if they displayed masculine traits such as aggression. Thus, these officers according to Timmins & Hainsworth were caught in a catch-22, under constant pressure to become more masculine, yet at the same time being
criticized for doing so. Berg & Budnick, (1986) state that in order for female officers to be successful in policing they must adopt some masculine traits, or else maintain traditional traits and limit their career opportunities. Furthermore, these researchers found a relationship between female officers' job satisfaction and adopting masculine personality traits such as aggression, assertiveness, and cynicism. Simply stated, female police officers are not accepted in the male fraternity mainly because they are perceived as the weaker gender, and are considered "bad police material" by male officers (Poole & Pogrebin, 1988). Moreover, based on this, women police must be willing to put up with increased harassment, teasing, and intimidation by male co-workers, when it comes time for competing for promotions. This may be too much to put up with, according to Poole & Pogrebin, hence women adopt lower aspirations in respect to career advancement.

Bell (1982) reports in his study that male officers believed the lack of masculine traits in female officers such as aggression and physical strength create difficulties for them in dealing with violent situations. Based on these beliefs 68% of white male officers and 33% of black male officers opposed assigning women to patrol duties, and believed their presence would make their job more difficult.

Consistent with Bell's findings, Balkin, (1988) also found that most male officers believed that the presence of too many female officers on the force could deteriorate the quality of service in policing, because they lack the physical strength necessary for police work.

Charles (1981) also found that the male police recruits from the Michigan state police that he interviewed, showed respect for the level of vigour women presented in
self-defense training, but still believed that female recruits could not handle the physical aspects of police work as well as them. Vincent, (1990) who studied the Windsor police department found that the male officers generally thought that female police officers weaken the image of policing, create awkwardness and tension, and are not suited to cope with the rigorous of police work. In addition, Vincent also reported that male officers felt that they had to be there to protect the female in violent situations, because they believed woman were useless in these instances. Finally, the males did feel that females should share in all aspects of police work, and not be given special privileges. Even though there was tremendous resentment among male officers to having females on the police force, they did concede that females were advantageous in calming domestic quarrels (Vincent, 1990).

In Remmington's (1983) study the general consensus among male officers was that women did not belong in all facets of policing. Moreover, these male officers expressed the view that they could be easily conned by victims or perpetrators because they have a less dominating and imposing physical presence. Another interesting finding in Remmingtons' study was that most male officers preferred males for patrol partners. This is not surprising, since many male officers lack confidence in the ability of females to handle potentially dangerous patrol situations, and feel they have to have male backup in these situations.

Bloch & Anderson, (1974) (cited in Lunneborg, 1989), using a survey of 86 women officers and 86 male officers in a major study of women police in Washington D.C., found that before women were assigned to patrol, 92% of the male officers stated that women on the police force would make their job more difficult. More
specifically, both male and female officers believed that fewer female officers with less than one year experience could handle drunks, disorderly males, and threatening situations with weapons than their male counterparts. As a result of such attitudes, males and even female officers both expressed their preference for male partners during patrol work. With regard to the male officers, they did not believe that female officers were equal to them in most patrol skills.

Rick Linden (1980), studied the Vancouver police department using questionnaires and interviews, with male and female officers as well as their supervisors. Moreover he also gathered data through observation via rides along with the police. Linden also examined departmental records, and found first of all that the supervisors held favourable opinions of the female officers. The male general duty officers, however, held strong negative attitudes toward females. Most of these officers felt that females in policing should be restricted to dealing with juveniles and rape victims, more traditional female activities. Furthermore, despite little differences in performance, male officers, generally speaking, held strong negative attitudes toward female officers, according to Linden.

An interesting finding in Linden’s study however was that more positive attitudes were found among male officers that actually worked with a female officer. In addition, Linden also looked at citizen attitudes toward female police and found them to be generally positive. More specifically, citizens were found to be more respectful toward female police, and expressed the belief that they were more effective in their interactions with the public (Linden, 1980:70-74).

Despite these findings, however, most of the Canadian research shows a
prevalence of negative attitudes (Linden, 1982). Whatones' (1978) survey in Alberta for instance showed male police officers believed females do not perform as well as males (cited in Linden, 1982). Laronde (1979) carried out a survey of 30 men and 30 women RCMP officers and found that the males believed the female officers were not capable of carrying out all aspects of police work like males were. Laronde asserts that these attitudes are prevalent for several reasons. The first reason is that male officers feel that the image of policing suffers with the intrusion of women police. In fact, Laronde did find that 38% of the male officers felt public esteem had suffered because of hiring women.

In closer analysis some studies have found several factors that mitigate against these negative male attitudes, one of which is the age of the officer. Weischeit (1987), for instance, using systematic sampling procedures, drew a survey sample of 255 of which 233 responded, 191 males and 42 females. The type of study conducted was exploratory. Its purpose was to develop several response scales by using mailed surveys to the Illinois State Police. Weischeit found that older male officers were more resistant to hiring female officers than younger males. However, even the younger males still showed resistance in accepting females as legitimate police officers. According to Weischet, older male officers are socialized into believing that the police occupation is not conducive to the presence of woman, while the younger police officers have more working experience with females. Sherman (1975) conducted a study of 16 female and 16 male officers in a suburban area in St. Louis County. Using field observations, and attitude surveys of the entire police force of which all officers worked in one-person cars, he compared different departments to his sample. He found
that his sample showed more positive attitudes, partly because his respondents were slightly younger, and thus more susceptible to change. Vincent (1990), reports that the older an officer is, the more likely they will oppose radical change. Despite these findings however, other researchers have found no differences in male officer attitudes toward their female counterparts, with regard to age of the male officer (Jones, 1986; Vega & Silverman, 1982). More specifically, Vega & Silverman (1982), who surveyed 826 police officers, 53 of whom were women, in Tampa, Florida, found that the age factor was not as strong as the other demographic variables analyzed. The data showed that while younger male officers tended to be more positive toward females in policing, they also responded more negatively than the older officers on one-third of the 38 items which examined the effectiveness of women as police officers in various situations such as in patrolling, arresting, traffic control, etc.

The age variable seems to be related to level of education among male officers. In other words younger male officers seem more educated (Sherman, 1975), which in turn may liberalize their attitudes toward female officers. Thus, this may lead to a greater acceptance of female officers by male officers according to Vega & Silverman (1982), who looked at this relationship using chi square analysis. What these researchers discovered, was that education made these men more egalitarian, as shown by their greater acceptance of females on patrol and more willingness to work with a female on patrol duties, unlike their non-college counterparts. According to Vega & Silverman, this was possible because police officers who attend college may be influenced by the general liberal atmosphere of the institution and this may be carried over into the police department.
In a study comparing male police officers without university education to a sample of 184 male university students planning law enforcement careers, Golden (1981) employed a 15-item Likert-type survey to capture the attitudes of male students at a midwestern university toward policewomen's effectiveness in policing, especially with regard to patrol work. What he found was that the latter expressed more favourable attitudes toward the employment of female officers regarding general overall abilities. On the other hand, when Golden looked at specific abilities such as physical, and emotional stability, he discovered that the male university students' attitudes were more similar to the male officers' attitudes, which were largely negative. Finally, Golden found that the senior or more advanced students held more positive attitudes toward the use of women on the police force. Hence, there seems to be a correlation between level of education and attitude toward female officers. Golden concludes from this that education may work to liberalize male officer attitudes.

Sherman (1975) also found that level of education can act as a buffer against negative attitudes. In addition, Sherman looked at experience with a female officer as another possible variable affecting attitudes. In testing this hypothesis Sherman surveyed attitudes of male police officers prior to the entry of women on patrol and six months later, in St. Louis county. Furthermore, Sherman compared his results to the Washington and New York police departments. What was found in this study, was a slight increase in the level of egalitarian attitudes toward woman officers over the six month period. Despite this however, it must be noted that this finding was not statistically significant, and that male officer attitudes on the whole were still largely negative. In explaining these results Sherman asserts that because the officers in his
study were generally more educated than his comparison departments, they were more susceptible to change after having worked with female police officers. Thus, experience as well as level of education seem to interact in improving male attitudes at least marginally. Sherman notes that with regard to experience, this variable on its own is not enough to reduce negative attitudes among males, but rather it is the nature or quality of the experience which is more important.

Vega & Silverman (1982) also looked at degree of experience working with a female officer, and found a strange relationship. More specifically, they report that the proportion of positive responses increased among male officers who worked with a female officer. However, at the same time, the proportion of negative responses also increased. According to these investigators, these officers already held preconceived notions about female officers which were merely reinforced by the experience. Moreover, these preconceived ideas may have been either negative or positive, resulting in the dual increase of both opinions.

In one of the most comprehensive studies done on women police, Bloch & Anderson, (1974; cited in Lunneborg, 1989), conducted a major study in Washington D. C. This study looked at the relationship between male officers' working experience with female officers, and their attitude toward them. It was hypothesized by these researchers that males who experience working with women on the job, experience a reduction in the negative attitudes they held. The investigators discovered, however, that patrolmen working in the same districts as females were even more negative toward them than those males who did not work in the same districts. Moreover, male officers who worked directly with female officers were more negative than those males
who did not.

Several studies have found relationships between male officers’ attitudes toward women in general and male attitudes toward women police. Lord (1986), using a comparative-descriptive design, randomly sampled a survey of 125 nonsupervisory sworn male and female police officers in a large Southern Californian metropolitan police department in order to study this relationship. Using the Sex Role Stereotypic Questionnaire, he found that the male officers’ stereotypic perceptions of female police officers closely paralleled their attitudes and perceptions toward women in general. The males in this survey perceived women as too soft, weak, emotional, and too irrational for police work, the same perceptions they had of women in general.

Darrell Steffensmeier (1979), surveyed 89 female criminology students and 100 male criminology students planning careers in law enforcement and wanted to investigate the relationship between egalitarianism toward female police, and attitude toward sex roles. Steffensmeier found that 79% of males believed males were better at most types of police work, while only 34% of males thought females were good at police work. These attitudes were found to be related to traditional attitudes toward sex roles, and were a major obstacle for females seeking law enforcement careers.

Weisheit, (1987), also looked at the relationship between male officer attitudes toward female officers and several demographic variables. He employed systematic sampling in order to draw a sample of 255 male officers out of an initial list given by the Illinois State Police of 1, 256 officers whose primary duty was patrol work. The study produced a 75% response rate, which according to Babbie (1989) is a very good response. This was partly because the superintendent emphasized the importance of the
study and insisted on the officers' cooperation. The importance of this study resides in
the fact that it was exploratory in nature. It used existing literature, as well as
conversations with officers to construct several Likert scales. Weisheit named the
overall scale the Ladycops scale, which measured the attitudes toward women in
policing, in the form of 14 items, which will also be employed in the study at hand.
Some important findings in this particular study were that the female officers scored
higher on the Ladycops egalitarian scale than the male officers even when age was
controlled. In other words, the female officers felt that they could be just as good a
police officer as a male. Another finding in this study was the fact that male officers
would respond to female officers as a general class, demonstrating a tendency to
stereotype. For instance, a poor marksmanship score by a female recruit, may be used
to judge all other female officers.

This is consistent with the findings in Martins' (1980) study. Another
interesting finding by Weisheit, (1987) was that 56% of male police officers, but only
14% of female police officers said they would discourage a daughter from entering the
police force. However, only 22% of male officers and 14% of female officers said
they would discourage a son from entering the police force. These relationships held
even when age was controlled for. Hence, male officers seem to be less egalitarian in
general, toward both males and females, but more so toward females. In addition,
Weisheit (1987), also found that the resistance among males to having their own
daughters on the police force was strong even among males who believed that women
had job related advantages because of their sex. More specifically, over 90% of male
officers thought that females were more likely to get promotions because of their sex.
However, 55% of these males said they would discourage a daughter from entering policing, but again only 22% said they would discourage their son from entering policing. Thus, while most male officers believe female officers are given special treatment because of their sex, they still would discourage their entry into policing. This may actually be due to the fact that most male officers are aware of the resentment toward female officers by their male counterparts.
Theoretical Perspective

There are several theories which could be used to explain the prevalence of male police officers’ negative attitudes toward female officers. The development of these attitudes, however, seems to be linked to the socialization process, which is "the process through which individuals learn their culture and prepare to become functioning members of society (Lindsey, 1990: 37).

The Social Learning Theory (SLT) considers the socialization in terms of rewards and punishments. It is essentially a modification of reinforcement theory, and deals with the modelling of behaviour according to Lindsey (1990). According to Bandura (1963), we learn at a very early age which behaviours are gender role appropriate by observing and imitating adult and peer models. Parents map out gender roles for children by using rewards or punishments, and providing children with role models to imitate at a very young age. Perry & Bussey (1979) report that the child is rewarded differentially for adopting “girl-appropriate behaviours” or “boy-appropriate behaviours” which are consistent with their gender. For instance, girls may be rewarded for playing with dolls while boys for playing sports. This enables the formation of appropriate gender-role behaviours. More specifically, we observe at a very young age different frequencies with which males and females perform certain behaviours in given situations and we may use these observations to construct abstract models of male and female appropriate behaviours. Lips (1988) reports that in this process we are more likely to imitate the same sex-model persons behaviour if whom we are modelling is consistent with that model. Davidson (1979) postulates that we learn the attitudes and motivations which are consistent with our social positions, and
internalize these through socialization. The learning of this social position includes "the development of an awareness of the socially defined ideal-role performance and the more sophisticated understanding of the range of acceptable role-enactments found within the society or the social group into which one is being socialized (Davidson, 1979: 9).

As mentioned role models are a very important factor in the socialization process, and these role models are prevalent in all the socialization agents. In the family the parents are the role models who play a major role in gender-role formation at a very young age. The family is known as the primary socialization agent according to Lindsey, (1990). Parents can shape a child's sense of gender-role by providing "masculine" type toys for boys which advocate competitiveness and toys for girls which advocate domesticity such as dolls. In addition, the gender of the child can be a major determinant of a parents' behaviour towards their child, according to Lindsey, (1990). For instance, it is known that girls learn to behave passively merely because mothers expect them to behave this way, hence give less stimulation to them. On the other hand, boys who are perceived as more aggressive are more likely to receive stimulation. So it is this differential treatment which seems important, because this seems to shape their behaviour. With regard to fathers, they have been shown to be more likely to play rough with their sons than daughters. Mothers are more likely to play a caretaking role. Boys are more likely to imitate the father's masculine behaviour, according to researchers, since they are more likely to copy a same sex model (Lindsey, 1990).

The school is also a major socialization agent which engages in gender-role
stereotyping (Lindsey, 1990). For example, in school, females are encouraged in their verbal abilities, while males are encouraged in their mathematical abilities. Furthermore, boys are taught the value of competitiveness, which encourage breadwinner roles, while girls are taught the values of nurturance. School textbooks encourage gender-role stereotypes in portraying males in competitive roles and females in nurturance or caretaking roles (Lindsey, 1990).

The media is another source of socialization. In 1970, the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada accused the mass media of perpetuating stereotyping of both genders (Hagedorn, 1983: 106). Besides T.V., magazines, newspapers, and novels are also major contributors to society's gender scripts. In these sources males are usually presented as "infallibly successful, accomplished virile male", females as "house bound-mother-wife-maid-mistress" (Hagedorn, 1983: 106). However, it is the T.V. which seems most important for gender stereotypes since most children spend one-third of their time watching it. In addition, males are more likely to be presented in significant roles in which young boys are more likely to imitate. Girls are more likely to identify with characters possessing physical attractiveness, while boys are more likely to identify with characters possessing physical strength (Lindsey, 1990).

Finally, other socialization agents responsible for general-role stereotyping are peers who become influential during adolescent years. First of all peers play activities which socialize us. Boys tend to play more competitive games, while girls less competitive games. Hence these games are strongly related to gender roles. Moreover, reinforcement for same sex peers occurs more frequently during interaction
than it does with opposite sex peers (Lindsey, 1990).

An integrated theory dealing with the primary socialization agent, the family, was developed by David Lynn (1966) in which he combined the SLT with psychoanalytic theory. It is important to note that Lynn's theory applies more to the traditional type family, and today there are several types of families. Essentially Lynn postulates that unlike their female counterparts, males follow more rigidly the rules of their role than females, and that males lack a clear model of masculinity, since the father is more likely to be absent. Therefore, males must learn their gender role from teachers and mothers who reward masculine behaviour, and punish feminine behaviour. So the boy comes to identify with a stereotypical masculine role, in the relative absence of a father role-model, and is punished for violating these roles. This tends to cause anxiety about gender-role behaviour; hence boys are more concerned with behaving according to the stereotypic gender role. Moreover, boys are more often punished, and punished more severely, than girls, for opposite gender behaviour which creates hostility and dislike for females. Therefore, it seems boys undergo much more intense gender-socialization pressure than girls and are threatened by anxiety when their masculinity is threatened.

Applying this to women in policing, women are a threat to this gender identity of masculinity (Martin, 1980; Horne 1980A). Hence, anxiety could be expected for male officers as well as hostility, as they are unwilling to accept the thought of policing involving feminine characteristics. Males join the force partly because of the masculinity of the profession which reinforces their sense of masculinity (Balkin, 1988).
A somewhat similar theory is Sullivan's interpersonal theory (1952) cited in Balkin (1988). This theory asserts that we are socialized as children by approval or disapproval from parents. This form of approval or disapproval is based on the values of the parents, which in turn are based on cultural values. Furthermore, what is disapproved by parents becomes associated with anxiety. It is this anxiety, then, which the person seeks to avoid. Applying this to policing, a male will seek this occupation out in order to enhance male qualities and avoid the anxiety associated with unmanliness. These male qualities such as physical strength, aggression, and bravery are threatened in the sense of security when women are on the police force (Vincent, 1990). This causes male police officers to feel less masculine. It is especially threatening for a male officer to perceive accurately a female officer's performance if it is up to par with a male. This would necessarily lead to anxiety. Thus, a male on the police force will tend to distort a female's performance, and perceive them as unmanly, not aggressive, and therefore unsuited to policing. These views are collectively reinforced by other male police officers as well. Hence, since policewomen are a potential source of anxiety for male officers, women police are either avoided or distorted in order to protect the sense of security of a male officer, which is based on manliness. Research even shows that a male officers' sense of masculinity is threatened when females are simply present on the force (see Horne, 1980A; Martin, 1980; & Wexler & Logan, 1983). Furthermore, this theory may also explain why male officers overprotect female officers on duty. Perhaps males are attempting to prevent displays of competence by female officers, in order to save their (males) sense of security. Another possibility could be that males feel they have to
play the male's role of protecting females.

Overall, it is our cultural values toward gender-roles such as the traditional views that women are expected to stay home and take care of the family which contribute to male's negative attitudes. Physical strength, courage, and authority attributed to masculinity and police work are traditionally reserved for males only. Policemen have tended to hang on to these traditional values, and have therefore remained resistant to having women in policing, possibly because of the potential threat to their sense of security (Balkin, 1988). Finally, this situation will remain as long as male officers hang on to these traditional beliefs.

Although the socialization process begins rather early in life and has a significant impact on subsequent attitudes, this does not mean that socialization in the later years of life is irrelevant. More specifically, a secondary type of socialization is what is referred to here. This notion is dealt with by the occupational socialization perspective (O.S.P.).

According to the O.S.P., true socialization begins when one becomes a member of an occupation (Vincent, 1990). Hence, what is meant by the O.S.P. is that when one enters an occupation he or she internalizes the occupational subculture (Vincent, 1990). Just as there are role models in early socialization as seen in social learning theory, so too there are role models in the work setting. These role models socialize us by how they present themselves in the work setting. Moreover, there is a system of informal social control by occupational members or role models who also evaluate others' role performance (Vincent, 1990).

Worden (1993) reports that this system of O.S. may be more important in
influencing male police officer attitudes than prior socialization. This particular notion according to Worden, has been overlooked. The police department has a powerful socialization influence because of its informal culture (Worden, 1993). In addition, this organization is not conducive to alternative or divergent reference groups values, and may induce both male and female police recruits to internalize prevailing norms (Bennett, 1984).

According to Bennett, there are three specific stages of the O.S. process the first of which is the anticipatory stage. This particular stage actually begins before entry into an occupation, in which applicants to a particular occupational role start to anticipate the demands of that occupation. In addition reference groups such as members of the occupation, as well as friends, media etc., act to transmit the values, principal status, future role expectations, and self-conceptions of the occupation.

The next stage of the O.S. process is the formal socialization stage according to Bennett. This particular form of socialization plays a major role especially in the formal police organization. It is at this stage that new occupational members learn appropriate roles, attitudes, and values of the occupation, by turning to their various reference groups. These reference groups actually provide four main functions in the socialization process. First of all, reference groups according to Bennett, provide a set of normative prescriptions which include certain values, attitudes, and behaviours. Secondly, reference groups allow cognitive comparison, that is police recruits can evaluate values, behaviours, and performance of the more experienced officers. Thirdly, reference groups provide support for new recruits in their expression of appropriate cognitions. Finally, reference groups act as a control mechanism to ensure
cognitive compliance of its members. This can easily be accomplished by withholding acceptance of the recruit by other members. Hence, affiliation and influence by police reference groups determine the extent to which the recruit learns and abides by the norms of the group and how successful he or she will be.

Finally, the third stage of the O.S. process entails learning the appropriate cognitions for successful functioning within the everyday working world of a particular occupation. It is the unique structure of the police role which also determines the group's message and influence, as well as subsequent change in probationary officers' cognitions. Indeed, this was actually found by Bennett (1984) who discovered that training in the police academy changed the values and attitudes of the new recruits, in the direction of those held by more experienced officers.

Besides these factors in the O.S. process, the ambiguity of the police role, social isolation, and depersonalization of the police officer are further determinants of the officers' actions to establish and maintain an occupationally unique set of cognitions.

Lefkowitz asserts that police officers can be viewed as a distinct group with a unique set of personality attributes as a result of a secondary socialization process which is inherent in the police organization. In addition, many researchers using this approach advocate that whatever police characteristics that exists, are mainly fostered by the police system itself. More specifically, the set of traits which are usually associated with policing such as authoritarian, suspiciousness, physical courage, cynicism, conservatism, loyalty, secretiveness, and self-assertiveness are all fostered by occupational demands according to Lefkowitz (1975). This is evident by the finding
that these occupational traits are not present in those police candidates who may have not yet been exposed to the life of a police officer. In sum, police are an isolated occupational group who develop an unique perspective on the world, which sets them apart from the general public and other occupations as well (Lefkowitz, 1975).

Based on the G.S.P., these distinctive personality traits or attitudes displayed by police officers become more apparent with longer experience on the police force, or after a long period of identification with the police occupation (Rokeach, Miller, & Snyder, 1971). Thus stated otherwise, the longer one is in the work setting, the more their perspectives on work change toward those of more seasoned employers (Worden, 1993).
Hypothesis

This review of the literature has enabled the researcher to generate the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: The attitudes of male police officers toward female officers will be generally negative.

Hypothesis 2: The attitudes of male police officers toward female police officers will be similar to their attitudes toward women in general.

Hypothesis 3: The attitudes of male police officers toward female police officers will significantly differ by a male officers' degree of education, amount of experience working with a female officer, male officers' age, rank, number of years on the force, and by the frequency of training and patrolling with female police officers.
CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Subjects

In the present study the Windsor Police Services were surveyed. In total 370 surveys were distributed to all male police officers of all ranks, of which 180 surveys were returned. The amount of surveys returned produced a response rate of 48%. This is considered an adequate response rate, which means there is less of a chance of significant response bias (Babbie, 1989:242). Out of this sample of 180 respondents, 13.3% were between the ages of 24-28, 25.6% were between the ages of 29-33, 18.3% were between 34-38, 8.9% were between 39-43 years of age, 23.9% were between 44-48 years of age, and 9.4% were over 49 years of age.

With regard to the rank in this sample, 66.1% were police constables, 6.7% were detectives, 11.7% were sergeants, 7.8% were staff sergeants, 3.9% were inspectors, 1.1% were staff inspectors, and 1.1% were superintendents.

In looking at the educational levels among the male officers, 46.7% had university level education, 18.3% had obtained college level education, and 33.9% had high school level education. The percentage of male police officers with 1-5 years on the police service was 15.6%, where 25.6% had 6-11 years on the police service, 13.9% had 12-17 years on the service, 18.9% had 18-23, 21.7% had 24-29 years, and 1.7% had 30 years or more on the police force.

Regarding the amount of training male police officers had with female officers, 129 trained with females, while 46 did not. In analyzing the frequency of that
training, 25.6% trained frequently with them (once a week), 18.9% trained infrequently with females, (once a month), 27.8% trained very infrequently (once a year), and 1.1% never trained with a female officer.

In analyzing the frequency of patrolling that a male police officer had with a female officer, 161 did patrol with a female, while 17 did not. Out of the male officers who did patrol with female officers 46.7% patrolled frequently (once a week), 29.4% patrolled infrequently (once a month), 13.3% patrolled very infrequently (once a year), and 0.6% never patrolled with a female officer.

Survey Research

Survey research was employed in this particular study, which is basically a method that allows one to measure phenomena inaccessible to the investigators' direct observation. Stated differently, the researcher asks the respondent to reconstruct experiences which cannot be directly observed (Namchias & Namchias, 1992).

The advantages of employing the survey method are found in the ability to describe the characteristics of large populations. Moreover, surveys make large sampling feasible and are flexible in that they permit the development of operational definitions from actual observations. Finally, surveys are characterized by good reliability, especially if they are carefully worded (Babbie, 1989).

It is just as important to outline the flaws of survey research as well. As reported in Babbie, (1989), surveys are superficial in covering complex topics and become problematic in dealing with the context of social life. Even though surveys are flexible, they are inflexible in another way as manifested in their inability to change
the initial research design. This, in turn, can cause important new variables to be missed. Another disadvantage of surveys is their inability to measure social action. With regard to the responses themselves, they may be given with little or no thought, and may have no connection to the behaviour in question. Finally, survey research is characterized by weak validity (Babbie, 1989). The reason for the weak validity characteristic of survey research, according to Babbie, (1989) resides in its artificiality, which puts a strain on the validity. Moreover, the responses are merely approximate indicators of the attitudes in question, which rarely take the form of a definite "strongly agree" for instance. However, even the concept of what validity is remains unclear still, since there is not a clear definition of what is being measured (Babbie, 1989).

The specific form the survey took in this study was a mailed questionnaire (see Appendix A). The advantages of using mail questionnaires are that they are low in cost; they reduce the chance of biasing errors, since no researcher is present; and they allow greater anonymity with no researcher present, which in turn increases the response rate. On the other hand, mail surveys: limit the amount of probing that can be done; do not allow a researcher to know if the appropriate respondents filled out the proper survey; make it difficult to know the results of those who do not respond; and finally generate low response rates. Despite the low response rates characteristic of mail surveys, there are methods that can be used to increase the response rate. One method which can be employed is financial payments to each participant, however this tends to be quite costly. Another less expensive method is to explain the importance of the study, and stress that the researcher needs the respondents' co-operation. This was
the inducement used in this particular study (see cover letters in Appendix A).

Attitudes

Essentially, attitudes are nothing more than hypothetical constructs, which can only be inferred from what people say and do. In addition, attitudes vary in type, intensity, and in the degree of centrality or importance. Gordon Allport (1935), a major contributor to attitude research defined attitude as:

"a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individuals' response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (Alcock, Carment, and Savada, 1988:96).

Yarmey, (1990) reports that the concept attitude is characterized by misunderstanding over the term, mainly because the term is not specific enough. In addition, merely having knowledge of someone's attitude does not predict behaviour, except in concrete situations, because peoples' behaviour is usually different from their private thinking (Yarmey, 1990). This is further strengthened by studies which have found that attitudes have very little predictability in behaviour, such as Wicker's' (1969) study, which reviews several dozen other research studies.

Despite these studies, attitudes can predict behaviour under certain circumstances such as when attitudes are rooted in experience, because attitudes can become more defined, stable, and easily remembered (Myer, 1990). Furthermore, attitudes can also predict behaviour when outside influences are minimized. This can be accomplished by careful wording of the survey questions, and finally when the measured attitude is specific to the relevant behaviour (Myer, 1990).

The measurement of attitudes is a highly technical process (Secord & Backman,
1964). What makes attitude measurement so problematic is that they are measures of expressed attitudes, which are subject to social influence (Myer, 1990). In addition, we often tend to express what we think others want to hear, hence peoples' real attitudes can be distorted when expressed, according to Myer, (1990). The most widely used method of attitude measurement is the Likert scale, which is being employed in this study. Basically, the Likert scale is simple for subjects to understand and respond to, and allows the researcher to perform complex statistical analysis. Essentially, the Likert scale is comprised of a list of statements about an attitudinal object, in which subjects are to respond on a 5-7 point scale. These scores are than added up to give the summated score (Alcock, et. al., 1988). The responses generally range from "strongly agree" (1) to "strongly disagree" (5), and thus the respondents choose one out of five possible responses, weighted 1-5 (Babbie, 1989:405).

**Instrument**

The survey used in this study was divided into three parts. The first part dealt with demographics, such as age, ethnicity, number of years on force, education, prior police experience, etc., similar to Weisheit's study. The second part measured male attitudes toward women in general, and constituted the first 15 survey questions. More specifically, this scale was called the Attitude Toward Women Scale (ATWS), which was obtained from Spence & Helmreich (1978), and contained 15 items describing the rights, roles, and privileges women ought to have. For instance, some of the items stated "A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage" and "Woman should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men."
The ATWS required respondents to indicate their agreement with each statement on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to "strongly disagree". The items were scored 1-4, with the highest scores indicative of a more pro-feminist, egalitarian attitude, and total scores ranged from 15 to 60. The scale was a shorter version of the original scale, which contained 55 items, however, the shorter version was found to be correlated .91 with the original. The cronbach alpha was .89, and was tested using college students. Spence & Helmreich (1978), reported a strong construct validity as evidenced by the fact that they found extensive data on score differences between various groups which were consistent with the expected scores. For instance, women who were more profeminist consistently scored higher than males. Finally, the ATWS is the most commonly used scale in gender ideology measurements for psychology (Etaugh, 1986, cited in Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

Finally the LADYCOPS scale was used for the remainder of the questions, which dealt with male police officer attitudes toward their female counterparts. This scale was adapted from Weisheit, (1987) and consists of 14 items, which were selected from an initial group of 26 items. These initial 26 items were constructed on the basis of literature reviews as well as interviews with local and state police officers. However, the initial pool of 26 items were dropped due to the finding that they overlapped, the correlation coefficient being .50 among the scales. Hence, because of this finding, factor analysis was used to arrive at the shorter 14 item scale, which has an alpha of .86. The total scores ranged from 14-56, with the high scores reflecting more acceptance or egalitarian attitudes toward female officers, as measured by the 4-point Likert scale. For the purposes of this study, only 10 of Weisheit's 14 items were
used as the research director for the Windsor Police Services requested that the survey be limited to an instrument that would not take more than 10 minutes to complete. This put a strain on the study as it limited the amount of information that could have been obtained if more time were allotted. Thus, 10 minutes seems an unrealistic amount of time to conduct this. The actual items adopted from Weisheit constituted several different scales. The first scale measured the males' perceived performance of the female officer with such questions as "Female officers will be more likely to panic in tense situations than will male officers", (alpha=.80). The next scale measured the perception among male police officers that female officers are given special treatment by the police organization, because of their sex. The item used in this scale was "Female officers are more likely to get special assignments because of their sex" (alpha=.73). The final scale measured the perception among male officers of the public response to female officers, with items such as "The use of female uniformed officers in highly visible police activity will reduce public confidence in the police" (alpha=.76).

With regard to the items that were dropped, two of them were dropped because they were merely support items for others already used. In other words, the item "Females are more likely to get promotions because of their sex" was a support item for "Female officers are more likely to get special assignments because of their sex," hence the latter was dropped because it was more a reiteration of the former. The item "If the public believed that a female officer would be responding to their call, they would be more reluctant to request assistance" was a support item for "The use of female uniformed officers in highly visible police activity will reduce public
confidence in the police,” thus the former was dropped. The two other items which were dropped were “Female recruits have an easier time than males during training at the academy” and “Female officers won’t show as much of a long-term or career commitment to policing as male officers”. These items were dropped because they did not deal directly with actual police work itself, such as on the job patrolling, which was what the other items did deal with. The present study dealt more with male attitudes toward females’ job performance in policing, hence items addressing this area were used.

**Procedure**

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the attitudes of male police officers toward women in policing, and toward women in our society in general. More specifically, the study looked at the degree to which male police officers accepted women as equals in the police occupation, or whether they held the traditional view toward women in society that women should remain in their traditional subordinate roles such as house work, and are not suited for the police occupation. After a thorough review of the literature, the study surveyed a sample of 370 police officers, in the Windsor Police Services, all of whom were male. In addition, all possible police ranks were looked at, from constable to chief. The survey was administered to ALL male police officers in the Windsor Police Service, in order to look at this problem across all ranks. The survey was taken from a couple of different sources. The items dealing with attitudes towards female officers were adopted from Weishet (1987), since this survey had a good reliability measure, and the items were relevant for the
present study. The items dealing with attitudes toward women in general were adopted from Spence & Helmreich (1978) again because of high reliability and validity.

Dr. Fleming the research advisor wrote a letter requesting permission to conduct this study, to Police Chief James Adkin. The Police Chief then wrote back requesting that the survey be shortened to something which would not take up more than 10 minutes. In addition, the chief requested a meeting with Barry Horrobin, in order to address the length issue. After the survey was shortened, permission was granted to conduct the study. Mr. Horrobin contacted Mary Jane MacMillan who gave input regarding the distribution of the surveys. The one concern expressed by the police department was that these surveys not be distributed at inconvenient times or that they not be too long. The rationale for this was that a lengthy survey would take time out of their paid working time.

The respondents in this study were contacted by the staff inspector Glenn Stannard and the director of research and planning for the Windsor Police Services, Barry Horrobin. The surveys were placed in the mailbox of each male officer, at a time which was convenient for the department, which was scheduled with them. An information page explaining the essence of the study, and an assurance that the responses would be held in strict confidence was attached to the front of the survey (see Appendix A). This was likely to increase the response rate. In addition, the information page also explained to each officer, that the results would be published in the police newsletter The Informant. This providing of feedback in turn, was used in order to increase the response rate. The respondents were then instructed to fill out the surveys then seal them in the envelopes provided, which had stickers on them
labelled Ms Betty Louis personnel branch. Each officer was then instructed to return the surveys to the personnel department, via the police services inter mail system, within three weeks of the initial distribution, where they were collected for data analysis. Once the surveys were collected, they were analyzed using the SPSS computer statistical program, which performed various correlations and ANOVAS on the data. Finally, this study was reviewed by the ethics committee, of the Sociology department, and was approved, after several revisions of the cover page of the survey were complete.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Reliability

The alpha reliability coefficients were computed to determine the degree of internal consistency among the scale. Specifically reliability deals with the issue of whether or not a particular instrument produces consistent results when applied repeatedly to the same object (Babbie, 1989). In the present study three different scales were combined to form one complete instrument, these were the ATWS, the LADY COPS scale, and two items were taken from Goldens’ (1981) study. Together these scales made up the 20-Likert type items which yielded an alpha reliability coefficient of 0.8751, as computed by the SPSS/PC+ reliability procedures.

Factor Analysis

In order to determine the existence of any underlying constructs that may be present in the research instrument, a factor analysis was conducted. Factor analysis is used to determine various patterns among the variations in values of several variables. Moreover, artificial dimensions are generated, which correlate highly with several of the variables and are independent of one another (Babbie, 1989).

The factors which emerged from the 20 Likert-type items came to three, which had prerotational eigenvalues greater than unity. The three factors were than rotated to the varimax criterion. Factor I accounted for 39.2% of the variance across the solution and contained a pre-rotational eigenvalue of 7.83. Factor I was highly correlated with
items 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, and 20. A minimum factor saliency criterion of 0.50 was used to derive these items. These 10 items which were correlated highly with Factor I dealt with male police officer attitudes toward female police officers, specifically regarding their degree of acceptance or egalitarianism toward females in the police occupation, and male officers’ perception of females’ performance in policing. Hence Factor I was labelled “attitudes toward female police”.

The second factor was found to have accounted for 9.2% of the variance across the solution, and yielded a prerotational eigenvalue of 1.84. Factor II was highly correlated with items 3, 4, 5, 7, and 17, as computed by the minimum factor saliency criterion of 0.50. These particular items dealt with male police officer attitudes toward women in general terms, not confined necessarily to policing. This factor was therefore named “attitudes toward women in general”.

Finally, the third factor was found to contain 5.3% of the variance across the solution, and had a prerotational eigenvalue of 1.05. Only one item was found to be above the minimum factor saliency criterion of 0.50, and this was item number two. However, several other items did come extremely close to the minimum factor saliency criterion, and these were items 1, 6, and 8. This particular factor seemed to deal more specifically with male attitudes toward women having equal opportunities and duties. Hence, this factor was called “equality in opportunities and duties”. See Table 3.1 for factor analysis summary.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>FACTOR I</th>
<th>FACTOR II</th>
<th>FACTOR III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>-.10709</td>
<td>.19490</td>
<td>-.48218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>-.05416</td>
<td>-.06317</td>
<td>.76693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>.18329</td>
<td>.63149</td>
<td>.38040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>.19762</td>
<td>.75887</td>
<td>.08128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>.27294</td>
<td>.74398</td>
<td>.20898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>-.27547</td>
<td>-.28676</td>
<td>-.48058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>.04167</td>
<td>.68681</td>
<td>.26402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>.48138</td>
<td>.25834</td>
<td>.43327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 9</td>
<td>.74704</td>
<td>.24004</td>
<td>.17117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>.66458</td>
<td>.08695</td>
<td>.15657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 11</td>
<td>.48817</td>
<td>.25798</td>
<td>.12232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 12</td>
<td>.69745</td>
<td>.08808</td>
<td>.27044</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 13</td>
<td>.72848</td>
<td>.12020</td>
<td>.04224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 14</td>
<td>.80889</td>
<td>.21495</td>
<td>.09335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 15</td>
<td>.73574</td>
<td>.19085</td>
<td>.20088</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 16</td>
<td>.64491</td>
<td>.18138</td>
<td>.12366</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 17</td>
<td>.49251</td>
<td>.51096</td>
<td>.15701</td>
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<td>Item 18</td>
<td>.65477</td>
<td>.13634</td>
<td>.03659</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 19</td>
<td>.72816</td>
<td>.19029</td>
<td>.25239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 20</td>
<td>.67567</td>
<td>.38595</td>
<td>.10113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Coefficients greater than 0.5 are underlined.
One-Way Anovas

One-way ANOVAS were employed in order to determine whether attitudes of male police officers toward female officers differed among the independent variables (age, rank, education, length of service, frequency of training and patrolling). The one way ANOVAS were determined with each of the three factors. A complete discussion of these results will follow as well as the implications of them.

For Factor I or degree of egalitarianism toward female officers, age of the male officer was significantly related to this factor \( F(5, 173) = 4.734, p<0.05 \) (\( F \) prob = .0004), as shown in Table 3.2.

**TABLE 3.2**

*Analysis of Variance: Age with Factor I*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1196.5226</td>
<td>239.3045</td>
<td>4.7348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>8743.7791</td>
<td>50.5421</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>9940.3017</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post-hoc test revealed that Group 4 (ages 39-43) scored significantly higher (mean =26.62) than Group 2 (ages 29-33) (mean 22.54). Group 5 (ages 44-48) scored significantly higher (mean = 27.06) than group 1 (ages 24-28) (mean = 22.50), group 2 (ages 29-33) (mean = 22.54) also group 3 (ages 34-38) (mean =23.24). Group 6 (ages 49 or more) scored significantly higher (mean = 30.11) than groups 1 (mean = 22.50), group 2 (mean = 22.54) and group 3 (mean = 23.24).

The one-way ANOVA revealed that male police officers' attitudes differed
significantly by rank in Factor I (attitudes toward female officers), F (7, 170)=4.058, p<0.05 (F prob = .0004), as shown in Table 3.3.

**TABLE 3.3**

*Analysis of Variance: Rank with Factor I*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1423.2092</td>
<td>203.3156</td>
<td>4.0588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>8515.7346</td>
<td>50.0926</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>9938.9438</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post-hoc analysis showed that group 4 (Staff Sergeants) scored significantly higher (mean = 29.64) than group 1 (police constables) who had a mean = 23.31. Group 5 (Inspectors) scored significantly higher (mean = 32.00) than group 1 (Constables) (mean = 23.31) group 2 (Detectives) (mean = 25.08), and group 3 (Sergeants and sergeant constables) (mean = 25.47). Group 6 (Staff Inspectors) scored significantly higher (mean = 34.00) than group 1 (Constables) (mean = 23.31). Group 8 (Chief) scored significantly higher (mean = 39.00) than group 1 (Constables) (mean = 23.31).

The one-way ANOVA analysis for educational level and factor I (attitudes toward female officers), revealed that attitudes did not differ significantly by educational attainment, F (2, 125)=1.706, p<0.05 (F prob = .1845). (See Table 3.4).
TABLE 3.4
Analysis of Variance: Education and Factor I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>189.9893</td>
<td>94.9947</td>
<td>1.7067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>9740.2578</td>
<td>55.6586</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>9930.2472</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The one-way ANOVA for length of service on the police force and Factor I revealed a significant relationship with attitudes, F(5, 169)=7.809, p<0.05 (F prob. = .0000), as shown in Table 3.5.

TABLE 3.5
Analysis of Variance: Length of Service with Factor I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
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<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1823.2818</td>
<td>364.6564</td>
<td>7.8096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>7891.1882</td>
<td>46.6935</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>9714.4800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post-hoc analysis showed that group 3 those officers with 12-17 years on the police force scored significantly higher (mean = 24.7600) than group 2 officers with 6-11 years on the force who had a mean of 20.5000. Group 1, officers with 1-5 years on the police force scored significantly more (mean = 25.1429) than group 2, or officers with 6-11 years (mean = 20.5000). Group 4 (18-23 years on the force) (mean
25.9118) and group 5 (24-29 years on the force) (mean = 28.0256) both scored significantly higher than group 2 (6-11 years on force).

The one-way ANOVA for Factor I and amount of training the male officer had with a female officer was also non-significant, F(3, 128) = .2637, p<0.05 (F prob = .8514), as shown in Table 3.6.

**TABLE 3.6**

**Analysis of Variance: Amount of Training and Factor I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>44.9570</td>
<td>14.9857</td>
<td>.2637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>7273.1036</td>
<td>56.8211</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>7318.0606</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The one-way analysis for Factor I and frequency of patrolling a male officer had with a female officer was non-significant, F(3, 158) = 1.2967, p<0.05 (F prob = .2776) as shown in Table 3.7. Male police officers attitudes toward female police officers did not differ by frequency of patrolling.
TABLE 3.7  
Analysis of Variance: Frequency of Patrolling with Factor I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>205.1359</td>
<td>68.3786</td>
<td>1.2967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>8331.9752</td>
<td>52.7340</td>
<td>( p &lt; .05 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>8537.1111</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For Factor II or male police officer attitudes toward women in general one-way ANOVAS were also computed for all independent variables (age, rank, education, number of years on the force, training and patrolling with female police officers). Overall, the one-ways showed less significance in Factor II than Factor I.

The one-way ANOVA for age of the male officers and Factor II proved to be a non-significant relationship, where male attitudes toward women in general did not differ by the male officers age, \( F(5,173) = .7831 \), \( p < .50 \) (F prob = .5560). (See Table 3.8)

TABLE 3.8  
Analysis of Variance: Age with Factor II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27.4359</td>
<td>5.4871</td>
<td>.7831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>1196.8888</td>
<td>6.9184</td>
<td>( p &lt; .05 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>1224.3240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The one-way analysis for Factor II (male attitudes toward women in general) and educational level was also shown to be non-significant, male police officers' attitudes toward women in general did not differ by educational level, $F(2, 175)=.3597$, $p<.05$ (F prob. .6984). (See Table 3.9).

**TABLE 3.9**

*Analysis of Variance: Educational Level with Factor II*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9946</td>
<td>2.4973</td>
<td>.3597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>1215.0559</td>
<td>6.9432</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>1220.0506</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The one-way ANOVA for rank and Factor II (attitudes toward women in general) demonstrated another non-significant relationship, male police officers attitudes toward women in general did not differ by rank, $F(7,170)=1.4157$, $p<0.05$, (F prob. = .2018). (See Table 3.10).

**TABLE 3.10**

*Analysis of Variance: Factor II with Rank*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>67.3885</td>
<td>9.6269</td>
<td>1.4157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>.1156.0497</td>
<td>6.8003</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>1223.4382</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The one-way ANOVA for Factor II (attitudes toward women in general) and number of years on the police service was shown to be non-significant, male officers’ attitudes toward women in general did not differ by their number of years with the police service, F(5,169)=1.3131, p<0.05 (F prob. = .2607). (See Table 3.11).

**TABLE 3.11**

*Analysis of Variance: Factor II with Years on Police Service*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>SS</th>
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<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>44.1911</td>
<td>8.8382</td>
<td>1.3131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>1137.5232</td>
<td>6.7309</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>1181.7143</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The one-way analysis for Factor II and the amount of training a male officer had with a female officer was non-significant, where male police officers’ attitudes toward women in general did not differ by the amount of training a male officer had with a female police officer. The analysis were F(3,128) = 1.3268, p<0.05 (F prob. = .2686), as shown in Table 3.12.
TABLE 3.12
Analysis of Variance: Factor II and Amount of Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24.5572</td>
<td>8.1857</td>
<td>1.3268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>789.7080</td>
<td>6.1696</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>814.2652</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The one-way ANOVA for Factor II and frequency of patrolling that male police officers had with female officers proved to be non-significant, F(3,158)=.4175, p<0.05 (F prob. = .7407) as shown in Table 3.13. The frequency of patrolling that a male police officer had with a female officer did not affect male officers attitudes toward women in general.

TABLE 3.13
Analysis of Variance: Factor II and Frequency of Patrolling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.4761</td>
<td>4.8254</td>
<td>.4175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>1826.0239</td>
<td>11.5571</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>1840.5000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA analysis were also conducted for factor three and the independent variables. Factor III or male officer attitudes toward equal opportunities in general for women generally speaking, showed very little significance among the six
independent variables.

For Factor III and the age of the male police officer, there was an non-significant relationship in that male officers' attitudes toward equal opportunities for women in general, did not differ by age, \( F(5,173) = 1.5056, P<0.05 \) (F prob. = .1904), as shown in Table 3.14.

**TABLE 3.14**

*Analysis of Variance: Factor III and Age*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.5632</td>
<td>1.1126</td>
<td>.1904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>127.8446</td>
<td>.7390</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>133.4078</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The relationship between Factor III (opportunities for women in general) and level of education was also non-significant, \( (2,175) = .1534, \) p<0.05 (F prob. = .8579). Male police officers' attitudes toward equal opportunities for women in general did not differ by level of education, as shown in Table 3.15.


TABLE 3.15
Analysis of Variance: Factor III and Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.2232</td>
<td>.1116</td>
<td>.1534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>127.3273</td>
<td>.7276</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>127.5506</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For Factor III and rank of the male officer there was also a non-significant relationship, F(7,170)=.5486, p<0.05 (F prob. = .7966). Male police officers’ attitudes toward equal opportunities did not differ by rank of the officer. See Table 3.16.
TABLE 3.16
Analysis of Variance: Factor III with Rank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.9392</td>
<td>.4199</td>
<td>.5486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>130.1225</td>
<td>.7654</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>133.0618</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The one-way analysis for Factor II and years on police service showed a non-significant relationship. A male police officers' attitude toward equal opportunities for women in general, does not differ by number of years on the police service, F(5,169)=.8660, p<.05 (F prob. = .5053), as shown in Table 3.17.

TABLE 3.17
Analysis of Variance: Factor III and Years of Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3024</td>
<td>.6605</td>
<td>.8660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>128.8919</td>
<td>.7627</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>132.1943</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For frequency of training with a female police officer and male attitudes toward general opportunities for women in general, the one-way showed a non-significant relationship, F(3,128)=.3081, p<0.05 (F prob. = .8195). See Table 3.18.
Finally, the one-way ANOVA for Factor III and the frequency of males patrolling with female police officers was non-significant, F(3,158)=.9022, p<0.05 (F prob. = .4416). Male police officers’ attitudes toward equal opportunities in general for women did not differ by frequency of male patrolling with female officers. Refer to Table 3.19.

### TABLE 3.19
Analysis of Variance: Factor III and Patrolling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0456</td>
<td>.6819</td>
<td>.9022 p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>119.4112</td>
<td>.7558</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>121.4568</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The descriptive analysis for the three factors showed a wide variation. An explanation of these data will follow with regards to implications as well. In Factor I which included items 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, and 20 which dealt with male
officers' degree of acceptance of egalitarianism toward female officers, the responses varied. For item number 9 "The use of female uniformed officers in highly visible police activity will reduce public confidence in the police" the responses were almost evenly divided as shown in Table 3.20. For the strongly agree category 12.2% responded, 26.7% mildly agreed, 26.7% mildly disagreed and 34.4% strongly disagreed. Thus, this means that 38.9% showed some form of agreement.

Table 3.20
ITEM #9
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For item number 10 "Offenders will show less respect for female patrol officers than for male patrol officers" the majority of responses were in the strongly agree category, where 27.8% strongly agreed, 37.8% mildly agreed, 18.9% m.d. and 15.6% strongly disagree, as shown in Table 3.21. Thus, this means that 65.6% of the male respondents showed some form of agreement with this statement.
Table 3.21
ITEM #10
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In item number 12 "female officers who patrol alone are in greater physical danger than male officers who patrol alone 41.7% strongly agree, 36.7% mildly agree, 8.9% mildly disagree, and 12.2% strongly disagree, which means that 65.6% of the male officers showed some form of agreement with the statement. Thus, the bulk of the responses clustered in the agree categories as shown in Table 3.22.

Table 3.22
ITEM #12
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For item number 13 "Female officers will be more likely to get special assignments because of the sex", the majority of respondents agreed. For instance, 31.7% strongly agree, 42.8% mildly agree, 16.7% mildly disagree, and 8.3% strongly disagree (see Table 3.23). Thus, an overwhelming 74.5% or nearly three-quarters of
the male officers agreed to some extent with this item.

Table 3.23
ITEM #13
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In item number 14 “Female officers will be more likely to panic in tense situations than will male officers, the responses were evenly split. As shown in Table 3.24, 19.4% strongly agree, 27.8%, mildly agree, 29.4% mildly disagree, and 23.3% strongly disagree. Thus, there were 47.2% of the male officers with some form of agreement with the statement.

Table 3.24
ITEM #14
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For item number 15 “Female officers will be less at ease than males with guns and other weapons used by the police” the responses were also evenly split (see Table 3.25). The percentage of respondents who strongly agree with this item was 11.1,
32.8% mildly agree, 30.6% mildly disagree, and 25.6% strongly disagree. In this case almost half or 43.9% of the male officers had some form of agreement with the statement.

Table 3.25
ITEM #15
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In item 16 “For a woman to be an effective police officer it will usually be necessary for her to give up some of her femininity”, 11.1% strongly agree, 43.3% mildly agree, 25.0% mildly disagree, and 20.0% strongly disagree. Thus, just over half or 54.4% of the male officers showed some form of agreement with the statement (see Table 3.26).

Table 3.26
ITEM #16
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In item 18 “Female officers more often call for backups and assistance than do
male officers”, there was also an even split in responses. For strongly agree 18.3% responded, 28.3% mildly agree, 28.3% mildly disagree, and 21.1% strongly disagree (see Table 3.27). Therefore, 46.6% of the male officers showed some form of agreement with the statement.
Table 3.27
ITEM #18
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For item 19 which read "Women do not possess the strength or physical skills needed to do police work" 19.4 strongly agree, 39.4% mildly agreed, 23.3% mildly disagreed, and 17.8% strongly disagree as shown in Table 3.28. Thus, over half or 58.8% of respondents showed some form of agreement with this item.

Table 3.28
ITEM #19
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In item 20, the final item in Factor I, the majority of responses fell in the disagree spectrum. This item read "Women in law enforcement and criminal justice should be limited to working in positions involving juvenile delinquents, female offenders, and rape cases" in which 8.9% strongly agree, 15.6% mildly agree, 25.6% mildly disagree, and 50.0% strongly disagree as shown in Table 3.29. Thus, in this
case only 24.5% of male officers had some form of agreement with this statement.

Table 3.29  
ITEM #20  
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factor II which dealt with male police officer attitudes toward women in general with regard to degree of egalitarianism in various activities. Items 3, 4, 5, 7, and 17 made up this factor. To begin with item 3 which was “Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers” the responses were mostly in disagreement with this statement. For instance, 10.0% strongly agree, 20.6% mildly agree, 26.6% mildly disagree, and 42.2% strongly disagree (see Table 3.30). Therefore only 30.6% showed some form of agreement with this item.

Table 3.30  
ITEM #3  
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For item 4 which read "Women should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man" the bulk of responses fell in the strongly disagree category. Specifically, 3.9% strongly agree with this item, 13.9% mildly agree, 25.0% mildly agree, and 57.2% strongly disagree (see Table 3.31). In this case only 17.8% showed some form of agreement with this item.

Table 3.31
ITEM #4
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In item 5 the responses were also mostly in disagreement with the statement which read "The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men". The results were as follows 6.1% strongly agree, 12.2% mildly agree, 30.0% mildly disagree and 51.1% strongly disagree, as shown in Table 3.32. Hence, 18.3% showed some form of agreement with this item.
Table 3.32
ITEM #5
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In item number 7 the respondents mostly disagreed with the statement “In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in bringing up the children”. For this item 3.9% strongly agree, 10.6% mildly agree, 20.6% mildly disagree and 65.0% strongly disagree (see Table 3.33). Thus, there were only 14.5% of male officers who showed some form of agreement in this case.

Table 3.33
ITEM #7
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>65.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item number 17 also showed strong disagreement (see Table 3.34). The item “New female recruits don’t know as much as new male recruits about what police work is really all about” and 3.3% strongly agree, 19.4% mildly agree, 27.8% mildly disagree, and 48.3% strongly disagree. In this case 22.7% showed some form of
agreement.

Table 3.34
ITEM #17
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was only one item to analyses for Factor III which dealt with male police officer attitudes toward equal opportunities and duties. The item was number 2 which read "A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage" in which 61.1% strongly agree, 23.9% mildly agree, 10.0% mildly disagree, and 5.0% strongly disagree (see Table 3.35). For this item, an overwhelming 85% of male officers showed some form of agreement.

Table 3.35
ITEM #2
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>61.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next chapter will provide a complete comprehensive discussion of what all these data mean in terms of the present status of this issue, as well as implications of these
results.

The following items were not significant in any of the three factors; however they are very important items, thus must be reported. One of these items was item number 1 "Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry". For this particular item 80.0% strongly agreed, 18.3% mildly agreed 1.1% mildly disagreed, and 0.6% strongly disagreed, as shown in Table 3.36. In this case nearly all (98.3%) of male officers showed some form of agreement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.36
ITEM #1
n=180

The responses were similar in item number 6 where almost all male officers were in agreement with the statement “Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades”. The responses were as follows 60.0% strongly agreed, 30.0% mildly agreed, 6.7% mildly disagreed, and 2.8% strongly disagreed as shown in Table 3.37. Thus, 90% of male officers showed some form of agreement with this item.
Table 3.37
ITEM #6
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For item number 8 which read "There are many jobs in which men should be given preferences over women in being hired or promoted" the responses were not so skewed, but much more evenly divided. For this item 13.9% strongly agreed, 32.2% mildly agreed, 26.1% mildly disagreed, and 26.7% strongly disagreed (see Table 3.38). In this case 46.1% showed some form of agreement.

Table 3.38
ITEM #8
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The responses for item 11 or "The extensive use of female officers will increase the likelihood of interpersonal conflict within a police department" were as follows: 16.1% strongly agreed, 39.4% mildly agreed, 25.0% mildly disagreed, and 19.4% strongly disagreed. Refer to Table 3.39 for data. What is important though is that
55.5% showed some form of agreement with this item.

Table 3.39  
ITEM #11  
n=180

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Agree</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

The results of the present study do support the first hypothesis which states that the attitudes of male police officers toward female police officers will be generally negative. For some of the items that dealt with this issue there was extreme cynicism toward female officers, however, for other items there was more of an even split in responses. However, even this 50/50 split is relevant considering that for some issues half of the male police officers showed a high degree of negativity toward female police officers.

More specifically, this high level of negativity among male police officers was evident in such instances as their perception that offenders do not respect female police officers, as indicated by the data. Well over half of the male police officers in the present study agreed with this statement. One possible explanation for the finding that male officers believed that offenders do not respect female police officers, may be due to the belief among male officers that female police officers lack an imposing and dominating physical presence. As suggested by Remmington (1983), many male police officers feel that female police officers could easily be conned by perpetrators because of this less dominating character.

Another area where male responses were extreme was in the item dealing with the dangers associated with female police officers who patrol alone. In this case there was strong agreement among male police officers that female officers who do patrol on their own are in much greater danger than males who patrol alone. This finding is
also consistent with Bell's (1982) finding that most male police officers in his study were opposed to assigning women to patrol duties because they felt female officers would be unable to deal with potentially violent patrol situations.

With regard to a similar issue, male police officers also held the view that female police officers will be more likely to panic in tense situations than will male officers. Again this was also the case in previous studies such as Remmington's (1983) study in which he found most male officers lacked confidence in the ability of females to handle dangerous situations.

The present study also found that just over half the male police officers felt that female officers were less at ease in handling weapons, such as guns. This finding was also evident in Vincent's (1990) study who found that most male police officers felt females were useless in violent instances. In a similar vein, almost half of the male police officers in the present study felt that female police officers more than male officers call for backups and assistance. Interestingly enough, Vincent (1990) who, like the present study, also looked at the Windsor Police Services, back in 1976, found the same traditional views in which most males believed that they had to be at the assistance of female officers in violent cases. However, it is important to note that the force composition was different at this time.

With regards to the physical strength issue, more than half of the male respondents believed that women did not possess the strength or physical skills needed to do police work. Again, this finding is not abnormal, based on the fact that it is aligned with many previous studies.

For instance, Balkin, (1988) found that many male officers felt that because of the
lack of physical strength in females, which is needed in police work, too many females on the force could deteriorate the quality of police service. Bell (1982) also found that it is this lack of physical strength in females which concerned many male officers when it came time to dealing with violent situations. Similarly, the present study also found that a good 40% of the male officers felt that by using uniformed female police officers this could reduce public confidence in the police service.

The one area where the largest majority of male officers all agreed was that female police officers are more likely to get special assignments because of their sex. As seen in the previous chapter, nearly three quarters of the male officers agreed with this statement. Vincent (1990) found in his earlier study of the Windsor police Service that male officers objected to female officers receiving special assignments because of their gender. Moreover, the male officers in Vincent's (1990) study felt that female officers should share in all aspects of police work, and not receive special privileges.

Finally, for the last item dealing with male officers' attitudes toward female officers, the responses were ironic. Well over half of the male officers disagreed with the statement that female officers should be limited to working in positions involving juvenile delinquents, female offenders, and rape cases. What is interesting about this item is that, while in the majority of items the male officers seem to be expressing traditional views about female officers, in the present item, male officers in general are opposed to assigning women to traditional jobs only. The final item was also marked by strong opposition by male officers. With this particular statement, which read "New female recruits don't know as much as new male recruits about what police work is really all about," well over half of the male police officers disagreed.
Hence, it appears that overall, male police officers still hold fairly traditional views in the present study of the Windsor Police Services, except for a couple of areas. However, before going into a deeper interpretive analysis of why these officers answered the way they did, the remaining items dealing with male police officers' attitudes toward women in general will be discussed.

The responses for the items dealing with male police officers' attitudes toward women in general, which constitute hypothesis #2, were much more liberal than in the previous items. Hence, the second hypothesis can be rejected since the data in the present study do not support it. Thus, male police officers' attitudes toward women in general were not similar to male officers' attitudes toward female police officers in the present study, as hypothesis #2 predicted.

To begin with, for the item that asked male officers whether or not women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers, a large majority of male police officers disagreed. An overwhelming number of male officers also disagreed with the statement that mentioned women should not go to the same places as men, nor have the same freedom of action as men. In this case nearly all the male officers in the present study disagreed. In addition, for the statement "the intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men", again, nearly all male officers disagreed. Furthermore, the data showed strong disagreement with item seven which dealt with the father having more authority than the mother in raising the children. In this case more than three quarters of male officers disagreed with this statement. There was only one item in which male officers were evenly divided and this was with the statement "There are many jobs in which
men should be given preferences over women in being hired or promoted." Again this was more the exception rather than the rule.

Perhaps some of the officers had in mind jobs which were male dominated, and where the presence of women would threaten their sense of masculinity. More will be said about this later. For the item which dealt with equal say in major decisions, again more than three-quarters of the male officers agreed with the statement, "A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage." Finally, there were a couple of items in which nearly all the male officers displayed liberal minded attitudes. For instance, in the statement "under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry", there was a overwhelming number of male officers who agreed. In addition, nearly all the male officers agreed with the statement "Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades." In sum, it appears that the male officers in this particular study seem to view women in general as equals in various ways, reflecting a high degree of egalitarianism toward women in general. This is in marked contrast to these officers' attitudes toward women in policing. Possible explanations to account for this difference will be discussed next.

The finding of the present study that attitudes of male officers toward female officers were not similar to their attitudes toward women in general is inconsistent with the literature. For instance, the finding of the present study regarding the second hypothesis is not consistent with Lord's (1986) finding. It can be recalled that Lord found male police officers' attitudes toward female officers were similar to male officers’ attitudes toward women in general.
Further analysis seems to indicate that the support for the first hypothesis, but lack of support for the second hypothesis seems to lend support for the theoretical arguments proposed by both the occupational socialization theory (O.S.T) and Sullivan's interpersonal theory (I.T.). As can be recalled, the O.S. theory asserts that true socialization begins when one enters an occupation, then internalizes the occupational subculture (Vincent, 1990). In addition, according to Vincent, there are role models in the work setting that socialize workers by how they present themselves in the work setting, thus using a system of informal social control. Furthermore, as may be recalled by Worden (1993), O.S. can be more important in influencing male police officer attitudes than prior socialization. Lefkowitz (1975), Radelet (1980), Bent & Rossum (1976) also claimed that the dominant police traits found in the occupation, such as authoritarianism, suspiciousness, physical courage, cynicism, conservatism, loyalty, etc., are all fostered by the demands of the police occupational structure, and may even set in as early as the first training stage (Ellis, 1991).

Relating this theory to the present findings in the first hypothesis, it appears that the tremendous amount of negativity toward female police officers by their male counterparts could very well have been fostered by the occupational demands. This is further strengthened by the lack of support for the second hypothesis as well, in which male officers' attitudes were not nearly as negative toward women, generally speaking, but more negative toward women in policing. More specifically, perhaps a plausible explanation for the present findings could center around the notion that O.S. is specific to the occupation itself, meaning that the values, or beliefs learned within the occupation, do not extend outside that occupation. Instead they are learned through a
police socialization process, whereby recruits learn the values, attitudes, behaviours etc. of policing (Langworthy & Travis, 1994). For instance, it appears that one of the values or beliefs to be learned within the policing occupation is to be cynical toward female officers, as well as being conservative. Interestingly enough, this degree of negativity toward female officers could be viewed as organizational deviance from an outsider’s perspective. The criteria for police organizational deviance are: (1) the action must be contrary to norms maintained by others outside the organization (i.e. public generally have more favourable opinions toward policewomen); (2) action must be supported by the internal operating norms of the organization; (3) new members must be socialized to accept these norms; (4) action must have peer support; and (5) deviance must be supported by the dominant coalition of the organization (Shearing, 1981). Moreover, when this negativity among male officers results in actual harassment against female officers, as is sometimes the case, this would be a good example of police deviance, since as reported in (Barker, 1991) harassment is one of the elements of police deviance. Hence, perhaps the much more positive responses of the male officers toward women in general could be due to the fact that this issue is more irrelevant or elusive to the police occupation itself. Stated differently, holding negative or traditional views toward women in general may not be one of the so-called personality traits which male police officers are socialized to. These personality traits make up a “working personality” according to Bennett (1984:47), which are “a unique set of attitudinal and behavioural expectations or working norms that differentiate police officers from the public.” In addition, the working personality comes with a variation of traits or types which are developed within the occupation itself (Skolnick,
1966; Niederhoffer, 1967; Broderick, 1987; Balch, 1972). It would seem that the male police officers’ attitudes toward women in general are formed even before they enter policing. Consequently, because male officers in policing are working directly with women, whereas outside the occupation they are not, this may explain their negativity toward women policing and lack of negativity toward women as a whole. Finally, if O.S. did extend outside the policing occupation, then it would be expected that male officers would hold much more traditional views toward women in general than the present study reports.

Another theoretical argument which seems to be supported by the data in the present study is that of Sullivan’s I.T. To briefly reiterate, Sullivan postulated that males seek the occupation of policing in order to enhance male qualities and to avoid the anxiety associated with unmanliness. When females joined the policing occupation, performing non-traditional type duties, such as patrolling, these threatened male qualities, such as physical strength, aggression, and bravery. It is these physical aspects of policing which define the policeman’s self-image (Brown & Campbell, 1994). This perceived threat to the self-image can cause male police officers to feel less masculine, especially, if they accurately perceive a female officers’ performance to be up to par with a male officer. Hence, to avoid this anxiety, male police officers will tend to distort female officers’ performance, according to Sullivan. Therefore, male officers will then perceive female officers to be unmanly, not aggressive, and hence unsuited for police work. These views are then reinforced by other male police officers as well, similar to the O.S. process. Therefore, since policewomen are a potential source of anxiety for male officers, women police are either avoided or
distorted in order to protect the sense of security of a male police officer, which is based on manliness, according to Sullivan (1952).

Relating the above theory to the findings in the present study, the first hypothesis seems to lend support for Sullivan's theory. The male police officers in the present study felt overall that female police officers were not suited to handle the rigors of police work. Perhaps the male officers in the present study felt a threat toward their sense of security and self-esteem with females working in what has traditionally been a male dominated occupation. Moreover, with the male police officers collectively reinforcing their beliefs about women police officers, these rather conservative and cynical views toward female officers perhaps became one of the occupational norms of the police occupation. It is with these occupational norms that the unique subculture of the police occupation molds officers’ personality structure in predictable and idiosyncratic ways (Thackrah, 1985). Getting back to O.S., new recruits to policing then are socialized to accept this as the norm. Furthermore, it is possible that the lack of support for the second hypothesis could be explained by the notion that like O.S., Sullivan's I.T. is specific to a particular setting. The more positive views toward women in general, by these male police officers, could be due to the idea that women in policing are entering a traditionally male-dominated occupation. Thus, this has more of a direct effect on their attitudes since they are working directly with females in an occupation traditionally reserved for males. Hence, these negative attitudes on the part of male officers are specific to women in policing, not women overall, since not all women are working in male-dominated occupations. Perhaps these male officers believe in equality in opportunities for
women in general. However, when this involves directly, threatening their self-esteem, working side by side with women, negative attitudes emerge, in order to protect themselves. Stated otherwise, perhaps it is more of a threat to male officers when the situation is real and experienced, rather than merely verbally discussing or thinking about various situations, as was the case with the survey items dealing with women in general.

Another explanation to account for the finding of the second hypothesis could be a result of male police officers' degree of nervousness over working with female officers. More specifically, one reason why the attitudes of male officers toward women in general were much more positive, could be that male officers do not have to worry about working with them in potentially dangerous situations. In other words, the male officers have to rely on the support from women in policing to back them up in dangerous situations and as demonstrated by the research, the majority of male officers lack confidence in the abilities of female officers to handle these types of situations (Remmington, 1983; Vincent, 1990; Block & Anderson, 1974 [cited in Lunneborg, 1989]). Hence, it appears that the absence of negativity toward women in general but the high degree of negativity toward women in policing could be a result of this nervousness of working with females in these types of situations. In addition, the fact that women are entering what is a traditionally male occupation, could be perceived as an invasion of males' territory so to speak. Thus this tends to foster anger as well as negativity by males, as they have to adjust their behaviours somewhat to accommodate the females. For instance, male officers will have to watch how they act and what they say. Specifically, expressions involving abusive language have to be toned down. To
male officers, females working with them creates perhaps an added source of stress to an occupation already marked by a high degree of stress created from role conflict, or the conflicting job demands between public expectations and the police role for instance (Bull, Bustin, Evans & Gahagan, 1983; Ellison, 1983; Sweeny, 1973; Cromwell, 1973; Johnson, Misner & Brown, 1981; Klockars, 1983), as well as from many other sources (see Kroes, 1985). It is stress which in turn leads to the many disruptive symptoms such as alcoholism seen in this type of work (Golembiewski & Byong-Seob, 1990).

With regard to the Social Learning Theory (S.L.T.) discussed earlier, there does not seem to be too much support by the present study. This is especially true with regards to the second hypothesis, where much more liberal views were found toward women in general. According to Banduras’ S.L.T. we learn at a very young age which gender-role behaviours are appropriate, and are positively reinforced for abiding by these rules. It is our role models which we imitate with regards to what is appropriate gender role behaviours. In addition, since stereotypic gender roles are positively reinforced and learned, it would not be expected, according to S.L.T., to have such liberal attitudes toward women in general, as found in this study.

The third hypothesis states that the attitudes of male police officers toward female police officers, and towards women in general, will significantly differ by a male officer’s degree of education, amount of experience training and patrolling with a female officer, male officer’s age, rank, and number of years on the police force. The data overall did not support this hypothesis. Only a few of these variables seemed to be related to male officers’ attitudes.
In looking at male officers' attitudes toward female officers, the age of the
officer seemed to vary these attitudes. More specifically, the older the male officer
was in the present study, the more positive and less traditional their attitude. This
finding is inconsistent with many other studies which found that older male officers
were more conservative and resistant to having females on the police force, such as in
Weisheits' (1987), Vincent (1990) and Sherman's (1975) studies. As can be recalled,
it would be expected that the older male police officers would be more negative
toward female officers, simply because the older an officer is, the more likely they
will oppose a radical change like this. Regarding the male officer's attitude toward
women in general, and toward women having an equal voice in major decisions, the
age of the male officer was unrelated to these attitudes. An explanation for this
finding will follow a little later.

With regard to the rank of the male police officer, and their attitude toward
female police officers, the present study once again found an interesting relationship.
Other studies, such as Rick Lindens' (1980) study of the Vancouver police department,
found that the lower ranks, such as male general duty officers, held more negative
attitudes toward female officers than their superiors. Surprisingly, the findings in this
study were similar to Lindens', in that the more superior ranks held more positive
attitudes toward female officers than that of the lower ranks. Again, it would be
expected that since male officers in the more superior ranks are older, they should
have more traditional views toward female police officers. As far as male officers'
attitudes toward women in general and toward women having equal say in important
decisions, there were no attitudinal differences with age.
As can be recalled, the present study did not find a relationship between level of educational attainment and male officer attitudes toward female police officers and toward women in general. This finding is inconsistent with the literature, where general studies have found that the more education one has, the more liberal their attitude toward female officers. Studies by Vega & Silverman (1982), Golden (1981) & Sherman (1975), all found that male police officers with more education held more positive attitudes toward female police officers. Again, it is believed that education would have some effect in liberalizing a male officer's attitude toward female officers. Perhaps what is learned through education that could help liberalize attitudes, has no bearing on the police occupation. In other words, going back to O.S. theory, new police recruits who have gone through higher level education perhaps find that they cannot use what they have learned upon entry into the police occupation. Therefore, it is possible that education may have liberalized some of the male officers in the present study, however, the strength of the secondary socialization process of the police occupation is much more influential in shaping male police officers' attitudes. Hence, the finding that education does not seem to liberalize male officers' attitudes toward female officers appears to lend at least some support for the O.S. theoretical argument.

In looking at the length of service that a male officer has served on the police force and their attitude toward females on the police force, and towards women in general, there was a relationship with the former but not the latter. It appears that the longer the length of service that male officers served in this study, the more positive their attitude toward females on the police force. This particular finding, unlike the previous finding, seems to weaken support for the O.S. theory. More specifically, O.S.
asserts that the longer one is involved in a particular work setting, the more their perspectives on work converge toward those of more seasoned employers (Worden, 1993). In other words, based on O.S. theory, male police officers with longer years of service should have more negative attitudes toward female officers, since they have had longer exposure to this secondary socialization process. To reiterate, traits, such as cynicism, and conservatism toward female officers, are learned in the police occupation. More will be said on this later.

Contrary to the bulk of literature, this particular study did not find any relationship between the last two independent variables, frequency of training and patrolling, and attitude. In other words, the amount of experience a male officer had with a female police officer had no relation to their attitudes toward female officers nor toward females in general. This is inconsistent with studies such as Linden (1980), Vega & Silverman (1982), and Block & Anderson (1974); cited in Lunneborg (1989), where it was found that male officers who had more working experience with female officers also held more negative attitudes toward female officers. Perhaps what has transpired in the present study is that male police officers already held negative attitudes toward female police officers through occupational socialization, in which experience working with a female officer did not change these already formed attitudes. Thus, this would tend to lend support for the O.S. theory, since male officers, as already discussed, held fairly strong negative attitudes toward female officers, but which were unrelated to their frequency of experience working with them. Hence, these attitudes seem more a function of the socialization process by the occupation itself.

Overall, there seems to be some support for both the O.S. theory and Sullivan's
I.T. The fact that more positive attitudes toward female police officers were found with male officers who were older, had more years on the police service, and higher ranks, seems to suggest that the O.S. theoretical argument does not hold much water. Once again, O.S. asserts that the longer one is on the police force, the more their personality traits become more like that of the police occupation. Hence, based on this, it should be expected that the older male officers with longer years on the police service, and with higher rank should have more negative or traditional views toward female officers. In other words, these male officers should have adopted the typical personality traits of the police occupation or norms of the occupation, one of which is conservatism and cynicism toward female officers.

Looked at in another way, it is possible that the older male police officers with more years on the force and higher ranks showed more positive attitudes toward female police officers, because these officers have not worked with female officers as much as younger officers. More specifically, since women are under-represented in the higher ranks of the police department (Martin, 1991), they are more likely to be working with the lower ranking police officers, such as constables. Therefore, few women are working with male police officers who are higher in rank and, therefore, older, and with a greater number of years on the force. Going back to Sullivan’s I.T., it is likely the younger male officers held more negative attitudes toward female officers because they feel a direct threat to their sense of masculinity, thus, to protect their sense of security, these younger male officers distort female officers' performances. Older, higher ranking male officers, with more years on the police force have no direct threat to their sense of security since they are less likely to work directly with female officers. Thus, these older officers do not have to worry about
working with women in potentially violent situations which perhaps younger officers feel nervous about. In other words, the older officers are not likely to be in a situation where they have to protect the female. Even when these older officers were constables on patrol, the number of female officers on patrol would have been much less. As may be recalled, women have only recently begun to work in these non-traditional type duties, as recently as the early 1970s.

On the other hand, although most of the research found a relationship between working experience with female officers and type of attitude, the present study did not. Hence, this takes away somewhat from the above-argument with I.T. However, one more possibility exists, which has to do with the accuracy of the responses themselves. It is quite possible that the older officers with higher ranks and more years on the force have more of a vested interest in creating a police department with a politically correct image. Therefore, it is possible that because these older officers have more responsibility with the police department they would have responded more positively toward female officers, to appear politically correct in an era where political correctness is highly valued. Another possible explanation for the more positive attitudes found among older officers, could be due to the fact that the older officers have more information at their disposal or more knowledge about female officers. Thus, the older officers are perhaps more aware of the benefits associated with the presence of women on the police force.

In summation, with regard to the theoretical arguments, both Sullivan's I.T., as well as the O.S. theory, are supported by some of the data. However, by themselves they do not explain the present results totally. Taken together, both these theories have some validity with regard to some of the findings. To reiterate, the first and
second hypothesis did seem to be supported by the theoretical argument proposed by
the O.S. theory, while both O.S. and Sullivan's theory seemed to support the third
hypothesis. However, the sincerity of the responses could be called into question.
Despite this, however, the theoretical arguments presented to explain the findings do
offer some significant discussion and implications, the latter of which will be discussed
next.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Implication of this Study

The findings of the present study suggest several practical implications for the policing occupation. First of all since this study strongly suggests that the negative attitudes of male police officers toward female officers seems to be a more of a function of secondary socialization within the policing environment, programs need to be instituted within the police department. More specifically, since many of these negative attitudes seem to be fostered within the police occupation, any intervention to improve these attitudes should be implemented within the occupation. One possible program could involve an internal education program aimed at getting male officers to gain more insight into why they feel threatened by female officers. In addition, individual counsellors could also set up programs to assist male officers to enhance their sense of masculinity or self-esteem. Such programs could help male officers to understand that having females working in non-traditional type duties does not diminish male officers’ self-worth. These types of programs could hopefully improve male officers’ attitudes.

Another possibility also exists. Since the present study found that the older, higher ranking male officers, with a greater number of years on the police force held more positive attitudes toward female officers, they could be used as facilitators of a program. In other words, these older officers could set a good example for the younger male officers and provide positive information about female officers. They could for instance emphasize the advantage of having female police officers in non-
traditional type duties such as with calming potentially violent domestic situations down.

The fact that the male police officers in this study held fairly positive attitudes toward women in general has extremely important implications. Perhaps this means that male officer attitudes toward women overall are gradually changing and becoming more liberal. However, it would not be too prudent to jump to this conclusion since this particular study cannot be generalized to all male officers. On the other hand, this particular finding that male officers were more positive toward women in general adds a positive note to the overall study.

Another important implication of this particular study is that it shows the negative attitudes of male police officers towards their female counterparts have not changed much. Despite legislation passed advocating human rights as well as employment equity, there still remains a high degree of negativity and cynicism among many male police officers at least in this particular study. With a greater a number of females entering the police force, it will take much more than merely legislative amendments to alleviate these type of attitudes by male officers. Moreover, these type of legislative changes may make it easier for women to enter the police force, however it does not make any impact on the negative attitudes of male co-workers. In order to change these attitudes, more research is needed in order to narrow down the source of negativity. Programs could then be designed to reduce the negativity.

Limitation of this Study

Like with many other studies this particular study is not without some downfalls. There are several limitations regarding the present study. One limitation of
this study has to do with the time constraint involved. Because of the amount of time allotted to run this study as well as organizational constraints a survey was chosen. However, surveys can only capture what is occurring at one particular moment in time at a particular location, and do not capture the context of the problem. Thus, it is uncertain how the male police officers in this study actually behave toward their female counterparts. In order to measure how male officers actually behave with female officers, time permitting, a participant observation method could have been employed.

The fact that this particular study merely surveyed male police officers is limiting since it is unknown what female police officers felt. Thus, it would have been interesting for comparison purposes to analyse the female officers’ perspectives toward the male police officers. In addition, a comparison of various districts could have been done. The fact that this particular study merely surveyed one police department makes it difficult to generalize to the entire Canadian male police population. Therefore, the present analysis is specific to the Windsor Police Services, but perhaps a wide range of responses could have been obtained in various districts. Now that the limitations of this particular study have been looked at a discussion of some suggestions will be offered in the next section.

**Future Research**

Based on the previous discussion about the various limitations of this study some suggestions can be offered for future research in the particular area. First of all, a follow up study perhaps comparing male police officers’ attitudes with female police officers’ attitudes could be undertaken, time permitting.
As already mentioned perhaps a participant observation method combined with a survey could be employed in order to capture the complexity of the situation. This type of method could analyse whether or not there was a discrepancy between attitudes and actual behaviour. Therefore, it would be possible to compare type of attitude with actual on the job interaction between male and female officers. Indeed, it could be possible that how male officers responded on paper has no relationship to their actual treatment of female police officers. This type of research could have some very important implications to discuss.

Finally, another possible method which could be tried is the experimental design. Although this could be much more time consuming, this method could be used to evaluate some type of education program. For instance, based on the literature future researchers could design a program aimed at enhancing male police officers positive attitudes toward their female counterparts. Next these researchers could test the validity of such a program by measuring male officers’ attitudes before the implementation of the program as well as after going through the programs. Thus an evaluation type of research could be used, which would provide extremely vital information as to the implications of such a program. Economically speaking, this type of research could even analyze the cost efficiency of such a program, if it were to be implemented.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

INFORMATION ABOUT STUDY

Dear Officer,

I, Marco Del Colombo, am a graduate student in the department of Sociology and anthropology at the University of Windsor and have received approval from the Windsor Police to conduct a study on police attitudes for the purpose of completing my master's degree. I am interested in examining male police officers' attitudes toward female police officers over various issues. I am writing to ask you to volunteer approximately 10 minutes of your time to participate in this study. Your participation is completely voluntary and, in accordance with the ethical research guidelines of the University of Windsor, you are guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality. At no time will you be required to identify yourself. Your participation will involve the completion of a short questionnaire which you will place in a sealed envelope and forward to the Personnel Department via the interoffice mail system. If you have any questions or concerns please contact Dr. Janice Drakich, chair of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology Ethics Review Committee, at 253-4232, extension 3493. If you choose to participate in the study, please read the attached instructions and complete the questionnaire.

Thank you in advance for your assistance with this research project. Your generosity and time is much appreciated. In return, I will publish the results of this study in your newsletter, The Informant upon completion of the study.

Sincerely,

Marco Del Colombo
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
INSTRUCTIONS

It is understood that your participation in this particular study automatically constitutes your consent to be a part of the study. Please check off the appropriate boxes, and please do not write your name anywhere on the questionnaire, to ensure that your RESPONSES ARE ANONYMOUS.

RESPONDENT PROFILE

1) YEAR OF BIRTH: ___________  2) RANK: ___________

3) EDUCATION: Highest Level Attained: (check off appropriate box)
   i) University [ ]  ii) College [ ]
   iii) High School [ ]  iv) Grade School [ ]
       Grade ___  Grade ___

4) NUMBER OF YEARS ON POLICE SERVICE: _____

HAVE YOU EVER: (check off appropriate box)

   Yes  No

5) Trained with female officers [ ] [ ]
   If yes:
      i) Frequently (once a week) [ ]
      ii) Infrequently (once a month) [ ]
      iii) Very Infrequently (once a year) [ ]
      iv) Never [ ]

6) Patrolled with female officers Yes  No
   If yes:
      i) Frequently (once a week) [ ]
      ii) Infrequently (once a month) [ ]
      iii) Very Infrequently (once a year) [ ]
      iv) Never [ ]
POLICE ATTITUDE SURVEY

The statements listed below describe attitudes toward the role of women in general in society, and in policing. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you (1) strongly agree, (2) mildly agree, (3) mildly disagree, (4) strongly disagree. Please do not discuss your responses with others, this may influence others responses who are surveyed at a later time. When you have completed the survey, please seal it in the envelope attached and place the envelopes in the interoffice mail slots, to be distributed to Ms. Betty Louis in the personnel department, right away.

Please record your response by circling the appropriate answer.

**Example:** Smoking causes lung cancer.

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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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<td>Mildly Disagree</td>
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7. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.

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<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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8. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.

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<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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9. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.

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<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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10. Women should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.

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<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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11. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.

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<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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12. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.

1  Strongly Agree  2  Mildly Agree  3  Mildly Disagree  4  Strongly Disagree

13. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of children.

1  Strongly Agree  2  Mildly Agree  3  Mildly Disagree  4  Strongly Disagree

14. There are many jobs in which men should be given preferences over women in being hired or promoted.

1  Strongly Agree  2  Mildly Agree  3  Mildly Disagree  4  Strongly Disagree

15. The use of female uniformed officers in highly visible police activity will reduce public confidence in the police.

1  Strongly Agree  2  Mildly Agree  3  Mildly Disagree  4  Strongly Disagree

16. Offenders will show less respect for female patrol officers than for male patrol officers.

1  Strongly Agree  2  Mildly Agree  3  Mildly Disagree  4  Strongly Disagree

17. The extensive use of female officers will increase the likelihood of interpersonal conflict within a police department.

1  Strongly Agree  2  Mildly Agree  3  Mildly Disagree  4  Strongly Disagree

18. Female officers who patrol alone are in greater physical danger than male officers who patrol alone.

1  Strongly Agree  2  Mildly Agree  3  Mildly Disagree  4  Strongly Disagree

19. Female officers are more likely to get special assignments because of their sex.

1  Strongly Agree  2  Mildly Agree  3  Mildly Disagree  4  Strongly Disagree
20. Female officers will be more likely to panic in tense situations than will male officers.

1 2 3 4
Strongly Agree  Mildly Agree  Mildly Disagree  Strongly Disagree

21. Female officers will be less at ease than males with guns and other weapons used by the police.

1 2 3 4
Strongly Agree  Mildly Agree  Mildly Disagree  Strongly Disagree

22. For a woman to be an effective police officer it will usually be necessary for her to give up some of her femininity.

1 2 3 4
Strongly Agree  Mildly Agree  Mildly Disagree  Strongly Disagree

23. New female recruits don't know as much as new male recruits about what police work is really all about.

1 2 3 4
Strongly Agree  Mildly Agree  Mildly Disagree  Strongly Disagree

24. Female officers more often call for backups and assistance than do male officers.

1 2 3 4
Strongly Agree  Mildly Agree  Mildly Disagree  Strongly Disagree

25. Women do not possess the strength or physical skills needed to do police patrol work.

1 2 3 4
Strongly Agree  Mildly Agree  Mildly Disagree  Strongly Disagree

26. Women in law enforcement and criminal justice should be limited to working in positions involving juvenile delinquents, female offenders and rape cases.

1 2 3 4
Strongly Agree  Mildly Agree  Mildly Disagree  Strongly Disagree

THANK YOU!
VITA AUCTORIS

Marco Del Colombo, born in London, England, January, 1969, was raised in Windsor, Ontario and graduated from Riverside Highschool in 1988. He went on to the University of Windsor in the fall of 1988 where he majored in both Psychology and Criminology combined, and obtained a B. A. in December 1992. In January of 1993 he was admitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research at the University of Windsor. As a graduate student he was a graduate assistant in several criminology courses for a year, and hopes to graduate by the spring of 1995 with his M. A. in sociology.