A STUDY OF FACTORS IMPACTING ONTARIO POLICE PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

GIANFRANCO FRANK TROVATO 2008

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BY

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A thesis submitted in conformity with the requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy,
Department of Theory and Policy Studies in Education
in the University of Toronto

Canada

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ABSTRACT

This thesis presents the results and discusses the implications of research undertaken in

the province of Ontario, Canada, to determine factors impacting police participation in

higher education. The study involved 1150 respondents working in 20 different police

services in Ontario. Drawing on previous studies relating to adult education theory, key

personal and professional characteristic factors of the adult leaner involved in educational

environments were examined. The study also examined six common clusters of factors

identified as financial, convenience, social support, institutional culture, goal congruence

and job relevance, that provided information on why police attain, do not attain, or are

unable to attain higher education goals. Results from the personal and professional

factors show 88% of respondents had already earned a college/university degree, or were

in the process of completing one. Other findings suggest 82% of respondents plan to stay

in policing until retirement, 94% were not seeking new careers and 86% reported no

secondary employment activities.

Results from the examination of the six common clusters of factors to measure the existence of potential barriers and motivations that influence police decisions to participate in higher education were: (1) Financial: lack of government assistance, lack of incentive pay, the high costs of education and the availability of personal finances were considered major barriers (2) Convenience: shift work and personal time constraints were major barriers. The offering of a flexible distance education program was considered a motivator (3) Social support: support from co-workers, family and meeting new people were considered major motivators (4) Institutional culture: perceived non support by management was a barrier to civilian, constables and supervisors. Senior officers felt supported. Having opinions valued by students and faculty and attending university was considered a major motivator (5) Goal congruence: motivators for attending universities were to improve the mind, learn new knowledge, improve/fulfill academic abilities and promote the profession (6) Job relevance: motivators include: learning about law enforcement from an educational perspective, develop career and leadership skills and agreement that both formal education and police training is needed in policing.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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DEDICATED TO:

VITTORIA TROVATO
(Mother)

You are dearly missed and will forever be remembered!
(10/11/07)

AND

ROSE LOSTRACCO
(Sister)

As an educator your encouragement to life-long learning was a strong influence
and inspiration for me in completing this educational journey.
You will always be in my thoughts, heart and mind!
(06/02/08)

<center>CHAPTER 1</center>

<center>A STUDY OF FACTORS IMPACTING ONTARIO POLICE
PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION</center>

INTRODUCTION

The importance of higher education and its relationship to law enforcement

has been debated for decades. This study commenced by reviewing the historical,

contextual, political and theoretical foundations for police formal education. A

synthesis of Canadian and American literature focuses the discussion and provides

some answers to questions often asked by academics, the police, government

officials and the public:

- *Do police have the necessary skills and education to meet the modern day police challenges of the 21st century?*

- *Compared to other justice professionals such as lawyers, nurses, and paramedics, what is the appropriate level of education needed to professionalize the policing occupation?*

The other main purpose of this study was to conduct a much needed analysis

to examine those factors which police members identify as significantly influencing

their decisions to pursue higher educational goals. Specifically, this study analyzed

data that can answer:

- *What personal and characteristic factors influence decisions to pursue higher education?*

- *What motivating factors (described as "enablers") support officers in pursuing higher education?*

- *What motivating factors described as "disablers" exist in police environments that can prevent officers from attaining higher education?*

<center>1</center>

Citizens across Canada traditionally support and hold police in high esteem. This public trust toward police comes with a high degree of criminal and civil accountability associated with the position, as well as with high expectations of police to safeguard the public's freedoms, personal safety and quality of life. However, more often than not, the topic of police professionalism and education is illuminated in the public domain by reports involving police misconduct, scandals and corruption probes. In the last decade alone, we have witnessed probes into the misconduct of Toronto Police Service drug squad officers (2004-6), the RCMP Sponsorship Scandal (2005), the RCMP Arar inquiry (2005), the 2006 Ferguson report into internal reviews of police accountability in Toronto, and the 2006 Lesage inquiry looking at police oversight in Ontario. Another important report relating to race relations in Ontario was written in 1994 by Mr. Stephen Lewis. In that report, Lewis, speaking on the topic of police education and professionalism, stated:

> ...that within the province of Ontario, police training is grossly unfair to the police and to new recruits in particular. We have a society of immense diversity, with a proliferation of multiracial and multicultural sensibilities, and we don't prepare our police for dealing with it. There are areas where the exercise of judgment and the development of skill for conflict resolution become every bit as important as the grasp of sophisticated technology. If we really believe in investing in our justice system, then the people who are in the frontlines deserve the best training [education] possible. It is ultimately a test of management. The management of a police force...requires qualitative shifts

in training and without those shifts, things go wrong (Commission on

Systemic Racism in the Ontario Criminal Justice System, 1994, p.12).

These types of negative reports of police often raise doubts in the public, who

are starting to ask questions as to whether police organizations can adapt to the

complexities of a diverse, multifocal and modern policing environment. It is within

this context that most police critics and citizens are left to wonder how it is that

police officers with such constitutional authority have one of the lowest education

requirements to practise compared to other professions in the province of Ontario

and across Canada.

A result of these police inquiries the general public is becoming more aware

of lower police education standards, as these inquiries invariably conclude with

recommendations calling for more police training and more formal education. In this

regard, the public have the right to question whether our police have the appropriate

mix of police training and formal education to meet these policing challenges. In

view of these public opinions, when police conduct their sworn duties without the

benefit of formal education, their task becomes even more difficult.

This theme on the influences bearing down on police organizations to

modernize was captured by Nixon (2005) when she stated:

"That policing is changing there is no doubt. While...the core values of good

policing have remained firm, the world the public police operate within is

changing in a rapid, complex and challenging way. If the public police are to

remain relevant and effective in this tumultuous environment, they must make

greater and greater intellectual investment [education] into their policies and practises". (p. v.)

Another salient point linking police professionalism and formal education is highlighted by comparing police education to other professions such as nursing and health, teaching and education, social work and psychology, and the legal profession. These professions require formal education (i.e., baccalaureate degree) as the basic entry point to their professions, ongoing formal education and often recertification to maintain their credentials and qualifications to practise. Police education in Canada, on the other hand, noticeably lags far behind these other professions and as a result its reputation may suffer. This latter point is further highlighted when comparing police to nursing and other social service sector professions who have salaries far below those of police officers. To underscore the need for police higher education, at present a person with a minimum age of 18 years and a minimum of a high school diploma or its equivalent is eligible to apply to any police service in Ontario (See O'Reilly, 1977, Miller and Fry, 1982, Forcese, 1992, Ratchford, 2001, Ellis, 2006, Palmer, 2006).

Other important distinctions that can be made between the nursing and education sectors and the policing sector are the positive relationships that have existed historically between these sectors and Canadian colleges and universities. Training for the nursing and education sectors have been conducted in colleges and universities most of this past century. The same cannot be said of the policing sector, as both provincial and national police services historically have been responsible for developing internal training programs for their own members at police operated

training facilities. To leave training solely in the hands of police has been an acceptable practise. For years politicians and policy makers believe police training, considered a specialized occupational field, is best left in the hands of police administrators, since they are in the best position to decide what training or education is most effective, or if indeed it is even needed (Dennison, 1995, Skolnik, 1999; 2000; 2007, Ellis, 2006, Palmer, 2006, O'Reilly, 1977).

In Ontario, there is little consensus among police leaders and educators as to what the appropriate level of education should be for police officers (Ratchford, 2001, p.3). In general, a common belief, yet to be empirically tested or supported, is that better educated officers make for a better all-around cop. On the other hand, practitioners, on occasion, have been known to say *"that educated officers lack real street sense."* However, appealing to logic, who would hire, with everything else being equal, someone with less education or promote someone with less training? Most police administrators and the public today agree the police need enhanced critical thinking and communication skills to better understand a diverse, multicultural society and to abide by and respect the Canadian Constitution. Complementing existing police training with a sound social science education provides police with the skills to better network with various community groups and be front and center to other judicial, government related services.

1.0. FINAL THOUGHTS

Policing continues to be a trusted and respected integral part of Canadian society, steeped in a rich history of tradition rooted in pride, prestige and honour. Police have adjusted fairly well to the emerging social changes and the exploding

technological advances of the 21st century which make policing a truly borderless world concept especially after the tragic events of 911 and the need to cooperate with agencies worldwide.

For reasons discussed thus far and others to follow as a result of this study, the preference for this author is to advocate for police higher education as a sensible means to provide personal and professional benefits to individual officers, police organizations, and the communities they serve. Formal education is a powerful pathway to learning for an already efficient police community with advanced cognitive, theoretical and empirical understanding of Canadian society. Formal education is also the most effective way to bring recognition and prestige to an already honoured profession and gain professional status (Friedmann, R., 2006, Krimmel, J., T., 2006, Palmer, 2006, Smith and Aamodt (1997), Eskridge, C.W., 1989, Stanley, 1979, Fabaniac, 1978, O'Reilly, 1977, Smith, A.B., Locke, B., Walker, W.F. 1968).

1.1. THE PRESENT STUDY

In Canada, few empirical studies have been done that specifically look at the needs of police in regards to formal education. New research is needed to examine what impediments police face organizationally, culturally, socially and personally that may prevent them from pursuing formal educational goals. This current study is indebted to previous work done in 1982 by the Federal Bureau of Investigations in collaboration with the School of Education at the University of Virginia. Their work has been of great assistance in conceptualizing how a similar study can be conducted in Canada (Chronister, J.L, Ganseder, B.M., LeDoux, J.C. and Tully, E.J. 1982,

Houle, 1961, Sheffield, 1964, Boshier 1971, Burgess 1971, Cross 1979, Pollok 1979).

The present study includes a sample size of approximately 1150 uniform and non uniform members identified as working across municipal, provincial and federal police organizations in Ontario. The participants surveyed for this study were asked to complete a two-part descriptive survey. Part one of the survey had 25 items that provided demographic data with respect to age, gender, experience, rank, marital status, number of dependents, shift work, and items relating to level of education and support by police organizations toward higher education. Part two of the survey had 38 items that yielded data on attitudes, influences and motivations of police pursuing formal education. Questions included the role of the police in higher education, police opinion with respect to education standards, the type of training/education curricula needed, the level and nature of support provided to members, and finally the accessibility of education programs police say they need to meet the challenges of modern policing.

To better organize the data for testing and understanding, the 38 items in Part II of the survey were designed to elicit responses relating to reality and influence (i.e., enablers and disablers) of certain statements. Similar statements or questions were then sorted to form six common clusters called: financial factors, convenience factors, social support factors, institutional culture factors, goal congruence factors and job relevance factors. It is hypothesized that the attitudes of justice professionals pursuing higher education goals will be shaped by either the "reality" or "perceived influence" of the six common clusters explained previously.

The level of educational behaviour of officers can also be identified by the interaction of participant characteristic factors and environmental factors that when combined with the influence and attitude factors will classify the police educational behaviour in the province of Ontario as:

1. Those individuals who have already attained a university degree/diploma

2. Those individuals who desire a university degree/diploma and are actively pursuing it

3. Those individuals who desire a university degree/diploma but are not currently pursuing it

4. Those individuals with no desire to achieve a university degree/diploma

To summarize the research objectives of this study, two major purposes emerge. The first is to provide descriptive data on the personal, professional and educational characteristics of Ontario police personnel. The second is to provide the reader with results of the study of factors which influence police decisions to pursue higher education (See Conceptual Model-Figure 1).

1.2. Figure 1: The conceptual model for the study showing how the relationships of various factors influence police decisions to pursue formal education
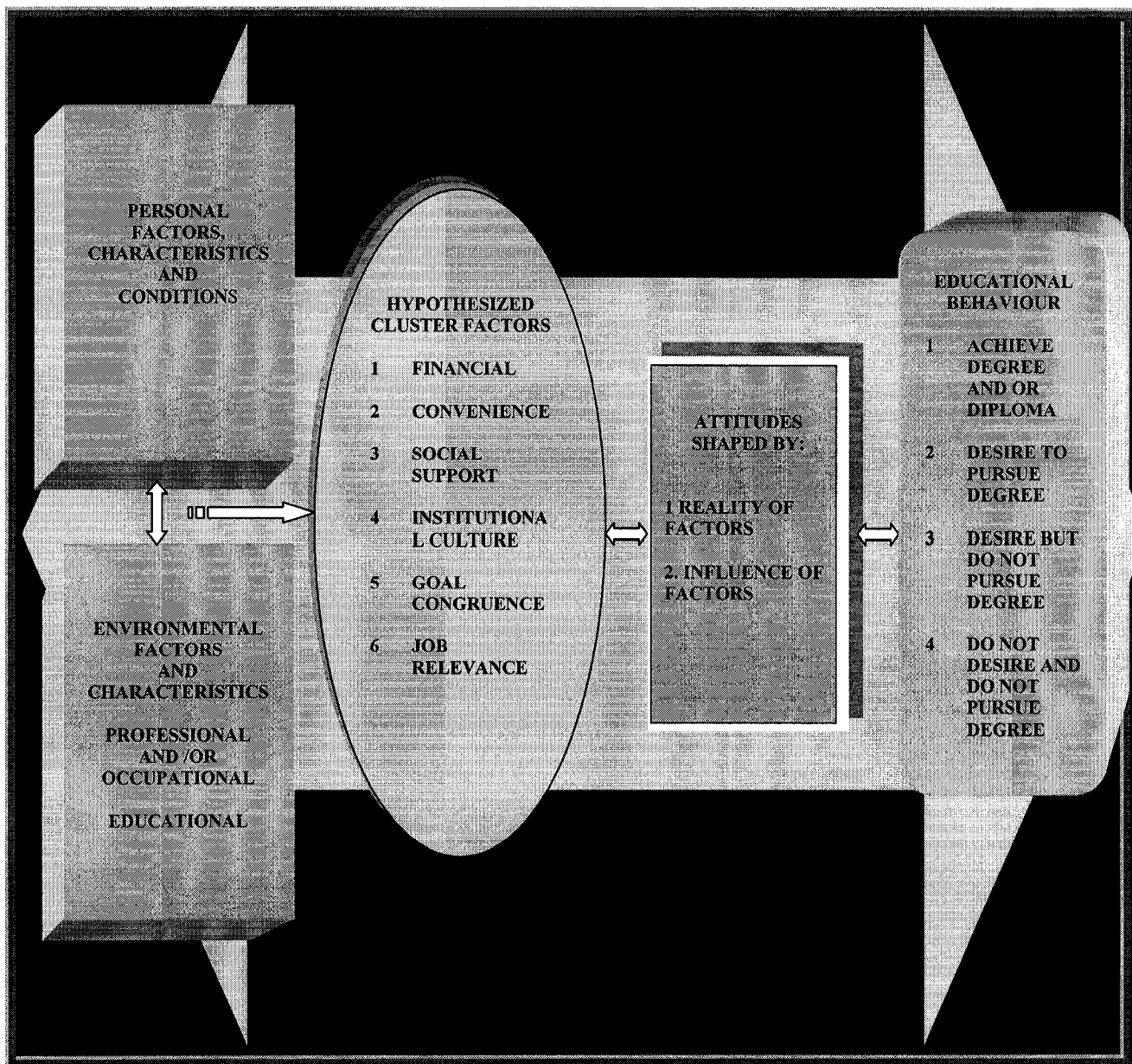
(The model presented was based on a similar study conducted by Chronister, J.L., Ganseder, B M., LeDoux, J.C, and Tully, E.J. 1982).

1.3. CHAPTER SUMMARIES

Chapter one of this writing has introduced the subject and purpose of the study, as well as provided an outline of the issues associated with identifying the type of barriers, influences, and motivations which impact on police decisions to pursue higher education.

The study began with exploring central themes, for example, do police need formal education to be better performing officers? Do education standards need to be raised for police officers in Canada? If so, based on what empirical evidence? When compared to other professions, is policing an occupation or profession requiring formal education at entry points into the profession and continuous training/recertification to practise? And do police have the right mix of specialized training and formal education to meet the modern day challenges of the 21st century policing?

Chapter two examines the academic research conducted by various scholars that assisted to form the theoretical foundations for this present study. In short, the value of formal education was examined in a constellation of studies mostly conducted by American researchers dating back more than 50 years as few Canadian studies were available on this topic. These studies fall into three main groups summarized below.

The first group of studies examined the relationship between higher educated officers and if education influenced police attitudes toward the public. For example, Smith et al. (1970) and Miller and Fry (1976-8) found officers with college education to be less authoritarian than non educated officers, meaning, that they were

less legalistic, resulting in fewer arrests. Weiner (1976) and Blankenship and Cramer (1976), explored the treatment of emotionally disturbed persons at the hands of police and found college educated officers tended to be more understanding of emotionally disturbed persons and chose medical alternatives for disposing cases rather than criminal sanctions to deal with the situation.

Similar to Smith et al. (1970) and Miller and Fry (1976) Canadian research concluded that those with higher education were less authoritarian in orientation, less rigid, and less conservative, which thereby resulted in greater use of discretionary enforcement decisions (Dalley, 1975; Guller, 1972).

A limitation to these studies is the central issue of reliability. For example, it is unclear if higher education is the critical factor to reducing authoritarian orientations in officer attitudes, or whether there is simply a greater need for screening out new candidates who are pre-disposed to authoritarian attitudes.

The second group of studies attempted to link formal education with police ethical behaviour and the quality of decisions police make when confronting the public. For example, Tyre and Braunstein (1992), who studied police discipline patterns, suggest more educated police have lesser rates of complaints and terminations. Densten (1999), studying behaviour patterns of supervisors in Australia, concluded less educated supervisors tended to be more inflexible, supported the status quo and tended to rely more on procedures. Others like Mastrofski et al. (2002) found police behaviour was influenced mostly by the behaviour of suspects, the gender, age, income and neighborhood they were stopped in and not linked to levels of police formal education.

The third group of studies looked at education levels of police officers and job performance. In one such study, Breci (1990) found that individuals with a four year degree had a broader perspective and performed their jobs in a more mature and professional manner, while Krimmel (1996) found that officers with higher education levels rated themselves higher than non-degree officers in all categories tested for. These categories included knowledge of departmental rules, use of safety practises, ability to accept change, preparedness for court, quality of work, completing given assignments, level of problem solving ability, quality of written work, quality of oral presentations, self-image and level of confidence with supervisors. There are numerous similar studies linking police education and performance. However, an interesting observation during the review of these studies, is to ask why, despite these positive findings, so few policies linking formal education to promotion exist today in either American or Canadian police services?

Chapter three begins to concentrate on the analytical component of this study and methodology used to test several hypotheses. The first hypothesis examines whether the educational behaviours of justice professionals is associated with respondent characteristic factors such as: age, sex, level or education, experience, rank, ethnicity, marital status and number of dependents. The other hypotheses examine statements posed to respondents to measure the reality or influence (e.g., motivations, influences- enablers or disablers) on justice professionals when examined through several factors: financial, convenience, social support, institutional culture, goal congruence and job relevance.

Participants for this study were chosen through a sample of convenience of 1150 justice professionals working in 20 different municipal, provincial and national police services within the province of Ontario.

Chapter four presents the findings from various statistical procedures applied to bivariate data analysis. The findings are then discussed with the view of providing some recommendations.

Chapter five includes a review of the research and conclusions. And finally, chapter 5 includes a discussion of the need for future research in areas developed throughout this study.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. INTRODUCTION

On April 05, 2005, the Toronto Police Services Board announced the city's new police Chief, William Sterling Blair. Chief Blair presides in a city with a population of 3.5 million people, 51% of whom come from culturally diverse backgrounds; he oversees a police service with more than 7,500 employees, and a budget of approximately 650 million dollars (Toronto Star, April 7, 2005). In the newspaper article an interesting reference to formal education and police was made by reporter Bernard Weil, when he said: "[Chief Blair] is the son of a Scarborough officer and the first Chief in the City's history to hold a criminology degree [from U of T] (Toronto Star, April 7, 2005).

Another important insight by Thomas Feltes (2002) into the topic of police training and formal education in his article "Community-Oriented Policing in Germany" was made when he stated:

> ...be aware a fool with a tool is still a fool! [police vocational] training which provides just tools without delivering the philosophy [i.e., formal education-social sciences] to properly...understand...one's own role as a police officer as an integral part of the community is not only useless, but dangerous for our society". (p.58)

Although stated critically, Feltes recognized the police play a pivotal role in society and views formal education particularly in the social sciences as assisting police better understand the socio-political conditions they operate in as both peace keepers and control agents.

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2.1. HISTORY OF POLICE EDUCATION

In 19th century Europe when public policing was first introduced, education for a policeman was unthinkable. Policing in the 19th century was an informal communal affair shared by the various property owners who took turns playing the role of "night watchman" to prevent thieves from stealing their property. When called upon, the "watchman" was also expected to perform order maintenance duties such as preventing disorderly conduct within the community (Bohigian, 1979, Dale, 1994, Walker, 1983, Langworthy & Travis, 1994, Griffiths et all, 1999, Stansfield 2000).

The development of Canadian police training is best understood if one reads Critchley's account of Sir Robert Peel's address to the British Parliament in 1829. As the Home Secretary for the governing party, Peel introduced legislation to authorize the creation of a new "professionally trained public police." In his address to Parliament, Peel stated:

> The time is come, when from the increase in its population the enlargement of its resources, and the multiplying development of its energies, we may fairly pronounce that the country has outgrown her police institutions and the cheapest and safest course will be found to be the introduction of a new mode of protection. (Stansfield, 2000, p.154)

Addressing himself now to those who live in agricultural districts, he compellingly expressed:

> Why, I ask, should we entrust a grocer, or any other tradesman, however respectable, with the direction and management of a police for 5,000 or 6,000 inhabitants? Why should a person unpaid and unrewarded, be taken

from his usual avocations and called upon to perform the laborious duties

of a night constable? (Stansfield, 2000, p.154)

With this address to Parliament and the passing of legislation to authorize the

creation of a new public police force, a watershed moment in policing history in the

Western World was achieved. Policing had now become an institution accountable to the

people and its elected government, forming a police governance model that continues to

serve as an example today.

Another important aspect of Peel's address was the emphasis he placed on the

need for the police to be representative by hiring new recruits from the communities they

lived in. A closer look at the new recruits and the communities they came from reveals

the new police force was mostly made up of the "working class". This raises an important

question relating to the topic of police professionalism and formal education. For

example, it is not clear during the formation of the new public police in 1829 why the

"gentlemen classes, military officers, and political appointees were absent in their rank

and file. From this omission of the privileged class in policing, could it be that this new

branch of public order was considered by the elite to be no more than a subordinate,

uneducated group of people? (Stansfield, 2000, p. 154)

Likewise, in the United States the creation of public policing was modeled after

Peel's traditional model with similar philosophies in hiring new recruits from the

communities they lived in; however, American policing took a slightly different

perspective. In America, police chiefs and constables were appointed based on political

affiliations, which had an impact on the type of services performed. In this arrangement,

some authorities question whether the police still expend more effort on social control

issues important to their political masters rather than the concerns of the general populace of the city [1] (Fogelson, 1977, Johnson, 1981, Walker 1977).

The evolution of policing in the past century has seen many shifts in form, style and structure to better respond to the social and political needs of the people. Many factors, including government influences, the socio-economic context at various periods in history, community desire for change and the police themselves attempting to meet those challenges, are what moved police organizations to make changes structurally and operationally. A brief summary of these organizational changes that impacted on organization structures, process and behaviours were best described in James Q. Wilson's 1968 book, *Varieties of Police Behaviour*. Wilson described three distinctive styles of policing considered pivotal in the evolutionary process as: (1) Watchman style-early origins in the 19th century where police mainly performed order maintenance duties; (2) Legalistic style-20th century, where orientations were focused on strict emphasis to law enforcement practises; (3) Service style-21st century, where police place emphasis on helping and working with the public to solve problems rather than solving problems through strictly enforcement strategies (See also Wilson, 1968, Langworthy & Travis 1994, pp.146-47, Radelet, 1998, Griffiths, et al., 1999). Community policing with strong emphasis on "service orientation" is where most modern policing services are today[2]

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[1] In comparing Canadian to American policing, a future research topic not explored in this study is to determine whether Canadian police departments are less or more influenced by their American counterparts when it comes to responding to political influences. It appears the American model is more visible and has direct lines of communication/responsibilities to the Mayor's office, whereas in Canada, police chiefs are administratively responsible to the Police Services Boards made up of mostly political appointments to act as a buffer to direct political influences.

[2] Wilson's (1968) study, *Varieties in Police Behavior,* is a classic work often cited in American policing literature on organizational structures and management. However, the conclusions that the political influences and political culture are the major contributors to police organizational reform requires further empirical testing in Canada's policing environments. This author agrees with Radelet et al (1998)., that the community perception of police performance and trust are the primary factors to police reform. A future goal is to test both propositions to add to the body of knowledge in Canadian police science.

Historical records indicate the first police constables were appointed in Upper Canada (i.e., now the Province of Ontario) in 1835. When the various municipalities did appoint police constables, there was no formal training and education provided or required to be hired. In fact, constables performed a multitude of other tasks other than that of night watchman. Some of these other roles included: tax collector, sanitary inspector, animal-pound caretaker, dog catcher, bailiff, jailer, building, fresh fruit, vegetables, and meat inspector and also the town firefighter (Marquis, 1993, Dale, 1994, Walker, 1983, Langworthy &Travis, 1994, Griffiths et all, 1999, Stansfield, 2000, Ratchford, 2001, Ellis, 2005).

In Canada, all three levels of governments, federal, provincial and municipal share responsibility for policing. The *British North American Act* of (1867) confers authority to Parliament to "make laws for the peace, order and good government of Canada." In 1946, the *Police Act of Ontario* detailed responsibilities, standards, and governance of municipal and provincial services (Marquis, 1993). Today there are three types of police services: municipal police services-mainly to conduct order maintenance; the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP)-police major highways and contract police services to smaller municipalities who do not have their own municipal police services, and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP)- enforce all federal statutes, for example, immigration, narcotics, customs laws and provide security at all federal buildings, port and international airports (Ratchford, 2001, pp. 22-23).

2.2. POLICE EDUCATION AND DEFINITION OF PROFESSIONALISM

To determine if the police are a profession, one must first define the role police perform in society, explain by what authority they are certified to practise their craft, and as a public institution, how well they are accepted by society. This is what Peel meant when he described the philosophy of policing as "the police are the public and the public are the police". Remaining accountable to the public has been the cornerstone of public policing philosophy throughout history and it still holds true today.

With respect to police professionalism, while Sir Robert Peel went in search for the "common man" in 1829 to join the ranks of the first public police department in London, England, in the U.S. August Vollmer, considered the father of police education reform, went in search for the characteristic of "perfect man" (Deakin, 1988, p. 20).

In 1916, Vollmer, who was then chief of police in Berkeley, California, viewed higher education as an essential component of an officer's background. Vollmer not only believed a college education would assist officers to better comprehend the human aspects of interacting and responding to people's needs, but he also considered an educated officer more honest and reliable (Deakin, 1988). Vollmer, clearly ahead of his time, promoted the principle most valued and practised today, "customer service orientation", when he wrote:

"The service ideal aspires to the personal attainment of knowledge-the guiding principle being joy and pleasure in learning. This motivates the policeman to delve profoundly into the theory and practice of dealing with human beings, as individuals and groups. His search into natural, biological and social sciences is an eternal quest for that clue which, if

found, will aid the policeman in dealing more intelligently with his fellow man" (Deakin, 1988, p.21).

Also in the U.S., the 1931 *Wickersham Commission* (i.e., National Commission of Law Observance and Enforcement) was the first commission to give national recognition to the need for increased educational standards for police. A further commission convened in 1967, the *Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice*, followed the same pattern in promoting police higher education standards by recommending "all police personnel with general enforcement powers [are required] to have a baccalaureate degree (p.1).

In this latter report, the commission expressed the belief that college education would provide substantive knowledge and interpersonal skills that would enhance an officer's ability to provide quality and efficient service to the public. It further recommended that some years of college be required for appointment; that higher requirements be set for promotion; that education programs be a matter of formal policy; and that higher education be viewed as an occupational necessity (Hawley, 1998, Fogelson, 1977, Sterling, 1974, Carter, Sapp, et al., 1989).

Operating manuals published in 1994 by the Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, wrote, that higher education was not an absolute answer but supported higher education by affirming the principles that officers who had received formal education have better opportunities to gain a deeper understanding of society, can communicate more effectively with citizens, and are able to better explore new ideas and concepts (See Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Annual report, 1994).

The idea of professionalizing the police by attaining a baccalaureate degree to practice policing has been the main goal of American policy since Vollmer suggested it in 1905. Still today however, both the proponents and critics of police higher education continue to debate whether there are merits and benefits that extend to police officers, police departments and the community. A review of the literature on police higher education follows.

Sherman (1978) critically looked at education policies during the reform movement of the 1960s to mid 1970s, and concluded they were a government strategy for changing the role and professional status of police in society. Sherman suggests that government used education reform to improve police competency and effectiveness as officers performed multiple functions and reflected community attitudes, values and political attitudes. In summarizing his findings, Sherman recommends the objective of education should be to educate police for change, that "broad" education curriculum in justice related subjects should be useful for many other related careers not just policing, that colleges should not grant credit for attendance at police training facilities, and that American colleges should phase out the terminal two-year degree programs in police education (Sherman, 1978-9).

One can argue that Sherman is only partially correct when he claims government is the major driving force behind police educational reform in America. If one reflects back to the historical roots of policing, the pattern that emerges is that the "community" was the catalyst for change. If one views policing as an instrument and extension of the public as did Peel, then the public is the major vehicle for change through elected

governments. The public will drive change and exert influence according to their perceptions and evaluations of police performance.

The public as the main agent of change in policing was identified by Radelet in 1986. Radelet puts onus on police organizations to be able to understand community needs and respond accordingly. For Radelet, this involves a clear understanding of the mission on the part of the police and role police organizations have in society. For example, in traditional policing models that emphasize law enforcement as their mission, professionalism was normally defined as having qualities of courage, respect for superiors, reliability, strict adherence to rules and obedience similar to military organizations. On the other hand, community based policing models emphasized peacekeeping and community relations roles. In these community based policing models, professionalism was defined as having qualities such as intelligence, interpersonal skills, and flexibility in solving community based problems. These attributes according to Radelet are best learned in educational environments that are seen to best serve the community (p.51).

Another debate that dominates and causes a confusion of terms is whether policing, because of the legal powers conferred to them constitutionally (i.e. power to arrest, to investigate, to search and seize property for evidence), is a craft or a profession as compared for example to medicine and law. In Canada, professions such as medicine and law require a specialized body of knowledge taught in educational institutions leading to baccalaureate degrees followed by years of practical field training that then certifies candidates through some form of regulatory qualifying examinations. Police training on the other hand, is taught in a central specialized training facility authorized by

the provincial government requiring two months of vocational training leading to certification to practise if all tests have been met by the applicant. The practical field experience of new recruits is handled internally by police agencies through mentoring programs (e.g., a senior constable working with a junior recruit) that lasts up to six weeks. In view of the basic police training needed to establish certification, police critics argue that if policing is to be truly recognized as a profession, then what is really needed is educational achievement and credentials in addition to practical police training to be considered more than a vocation (See Skolnick, 1966, Carte, 1973, Regoli, Crank and Culbertson, 1989, Ratchford, 2001, Chan et al, 2003, Nixon, 2005, Ellis, 2006).

Forcese (1992) looked at the nature of police organizational structures and concluded the demands for conformity and obedience, the rank structure, the lack of lateral entries into the ranks and the discipline framework of policing for solving conflicts all contradict the professional label (See Carte, 1973, Regoli, Crank and Culbertson, 1989, Skolnick, 1966, Ratchford, 2001, Ellis, 2006).

Dale (1994) discusses the traditional definitions of professionalism (i.e. a body of knowledge-formal education, a code of values and professional certification) and provides a clear distinction between a technician and a professional:

> If, at one end of the scale, the information to which the practitioner has access merely allows the application of a strictly defined range of set responses to a predictable range of problems [police bureaucracies] it would seem fair to suggest that the practitioner is only able to act as a "technician". However, if the quality of the information available to the practitioner is such that it allows him to formulate creative solutions in the

heuristic problem-solving and decision-making situations, then he is able to

act in the manner of a professional. (1994, p.210).

What Dale is suggesting is that as long as police practitioners follow and apply

strict rules to situations without the benefit of reflection, the autonomy and flexibility in

choosing alternative ways to deal with problems, they will always operate as a vocation.

In this sense, Dale implies that what is in the best interest of policing, administrators and

the public is to hire educated officers and police bureaucracies to allow their members to

prepare for the autonomy to deal with problems in creative ways.

Other researchers argue a full professional model needs to be adapted to

professionalize policing (Bradley, 2006a, Edwards, 1999). Edwards sees the role of a

reflective practitioner at the center of police service delivery and also sees the need for

effective police managers (p.101). In addressing the tertiary qualifications for police,

what is being suggested is that police managers require formal education, thereby

creating an officer class in the administration field, while those practitioners who do not

wish to advance in the ranks remain in the occupational model of policing. Chan (1999),

on the other hand, believes street level police need some professional skills as decision

makers when confronting situations, solving problems and dealing with people, but she

also quotes Wilson in saying: "the patrolman is neither bureaucratic nor a professional,

but a member of a craft" (p.102).

Despite support for police professionalism (e.g., formal education), Dantzker

(1997) questions if it is really needed to perform the policing function. Dantzker quoting

Bittner, states: "the true professional work of police in and of itself is no weapon against

the sloth and corruption" (p.141). Implicit in this message is police do not need

humanistic orientations gained through formal education to be effective in arresting and prosecuting criminals.

In view of the foregoing discussion, another consideration in deciding police professionalism is the level of accountability along with the civil and criminal responsibilities that come with the office. The use of discretionary powers and the socio-political context in which police dispense their duties when dealing with other professional agencies and agents can only be made more effective with formal education.

2.3. THE VALUE OF FORMAL EDUCATION

Given the preceding discussion on college/university-educated officers, a relevant question to ask is whether higher educated police are valuable? The answer to this question remains somewhat controversial and intuitive, mainly because of the limited research found to assess the question. However, research studies mostly conducted of American police departments may shed some light on the debate as to whether higher educated officers are of more value to their organizations. Most studies which are either in favour or opposed to police higher education can be grouped into three categories: The benefits of education on attitudes toward the public, the benefits of education in regard to performance and the benefits of education with respect to police behaviour.

Opponents of formal education for police remain unconvinced that a college educated officer makes for a better performing officer. A synopsis of these views starts with the belief that college education is not a bona fide occupational qualification for policing. These views actually were contested in several U.S. court cases. In *Davis v. City of Dallas (1985),* the courts argued in favour of police policies excluding applicants with poor driving record based on expert research indicating that past habits predict future habits; and also in the same case, that an education requirement that includes a 45 hours of college credit with a grade C or better average was necessary to perform police duties.

In *Spurlock v. United Airlines (1972),* the airline successfully defended a four year degree requirement based on expert opinion that a college education is needed to "cope" with classroom training requirements. In this decision the 10th Circuit court established the principle of public safety which has been cited in many cases for years.

Accordingly, it was decided by judges of the 10th Circuit court that when a job requires a small amount of skill and training and the consequences of hiring an unqualified applicant are insignificant, then the onus can be more on the employer to show what employment criteria are job-related. On the other hand, when the job clearly requires a high degree of skill and the economic and human risks are great, the employer bears a correspondingly lighter burden as other regulatory bodies are involved in deciding what employment criteria are job related.

What the courts seem to consider is the level of risk to the public and what criteria are needed to perform those duties. In the case of insignificant jobs that have little impact to public safety the courts have decided that the employers can decide what criteria is needed to do the job. However, as the risks to economic and public safety increases, the employer is deemed to have a lesser role in defining job related criteria as these decisions will also involve other outside agencies such as the government and other established regulatory bodies.

Additionally, in the case *U.S. v. City of Buffalo (1978),* a district court initially upheld a decision stating that a high school diploma requirement for police officers based on previous federal reports in 1967 and 1968 was a bare minimum requirement for police to perform their duties. However, on appeal to the 5th Circuit appellate court, the decision was struck down in favour of the Spurlock ruling requiring police to have a minimum of a college degree for employment. In short, the American courts have decided that higher educational requirements bear a manifest relationship to the position of police officer when public safety and economic risks have been implicated.

Outside of court decisions, critics of police education have made claims that higher education standards restrict access and excludes otherwise qualified minority candidates. Generally speaking, whether minority candidates would be disqualified without a university degree, or if qualified, would not want to seek employment in many small sized police departments offering uncompetitive salaries is indeed an important consideration and should be explored in future empirical research.

More general objections to police higher educated can be summarized as: detractors that involve limited upward mobility, boredom involved with routine patrol work, shift work, frustration with autocratic leadership, and complaints by those officers attending college that college curricula bear no relevance to their official duties (Salten, 1979; Rodriquez, 1995; Varricchio, 1998; Palombo, 1995; Breci, 1994-97; Varricchio, 1998; Dale, 1994).

A common issue shared by police administrators in both the United States and Canada is the belief that there are good officers without degrees and bad officers with them. Other criticisms most often heard are that university trained officers lack common sense/street sense. These claims and the general ambivalence toward police higher education by police administrators were examined by Carter, Sapp and Stephens (1989). In looking at the personal attributes of educated officers versus non-educated officers, researchers found these complaints of common sense/lack of common sense to be only perceptions (Sapp, Carter, Stephens, 1989, Carter and Sapp, 1990a, 1990b, Carter and Sapp, 1992).

The proponents of police higher education are best described by Bowker (1980), who provides a good introduction to the discussion by analyzing existing literature on the educational reform period of the 1970s. Bowker claims that college/university education had a number of benefits for police officers studied. These benefits included: better behavioural and performance characteristics; fewer on-the-job injuries and assaults; fewer disciplinary actions from accidents and excessive force use allegations; less use of sick time; greater acceptance of minorities; decrease in dogmatism, authoritarianism, rigidity; fewer citizen complaints and high morale (see also Finckenauer, 1975; O'Reilly, 1978; Carter, Sapp and Stephens 1988; Carter and Sapp 1992; Roberg, 1978; Sherwood, 1998; Roberts, 1994; Krimmel, 2006; Kakar, 2008). A brief summary of these studies are presented in three related groups.

Group 1: These studies concentrated on the benefits of education and the impact it had on police attitudes toward the public. For example, Smith, et al. (1970), studied police attitudes and found officers with college education to be less authoritarian than non educated officers, meaning, that they were less legalistic, resulting in fewer arrests. Miller and Fry (1976), found that educated officers had more liberal views than authoritarian officers, making them more aware of social issues, and that they displayed greater acceptance of minorities. Weiner (1976) and Blankenship and Cramer (1976), looking at the treatment of emotionally disturbed persons at the hands of police, found that college educated officers tended to be more understanding of emotionally disturbed persons and chose medical alternatives for disposing cases rather than criminal sanctions to deal with the situation.

Canadian studies by Dalley (1975) and Guller (1972), studying police officers with formal education, concluded that those with higher education were less authoritarian in orientation, less rigid and less conservative, which resulted in greater use of discretionary enforcement decisions.

Reviewing the literature thus far, it is unclear if higher education is the critical factor in reducing authoritarian orientations in officer attitudes, or simply, whether there is a greater need for screening new candidates who are pre-disposed to authoritarian attitudes. In other words, are applicants with these authoritarian orientations already like that before they become police officers or is higher education considered a causal factor in shaping police attitudes? The lack of scientific rigour relating to these studies leaves this question unanswered.

Group 2: This group of studies linking education with police behaviour claim that higher levels of education impacts on the quality of decision police make on the job; especially those decisions that have ethical and moral dimensions that take place away from the sphere of supervisory influence and the need to adhere to department policies.

Tyre and Braunstein (1992), studying discipline patterns of police officers in Florida, found that college educated officers were four time less likely, when compared to non college educated officers, to be disciplined or terminated (see also Carter, Sapp, et al, 1988-1989a-1989b,-1992; Patterson, 1991; Dantzker, 1992; Tyre and Braunstein, 1992; Vodicka, 1994).

Mastrofski et al. (2002) in an observational study of 3,100 suspects stopped by officers in Indianapolis, Indiana found police behaviour was predominantly influenced by

the behaviour of suspects, their gender, age, income and the neighborhood they were

stopped in rather than the officer's education level.

These results were similar to studies by Carlan and Ferris (2000) who examined

whether incoming college educated officers would exhibit more rounded thinking and

humanistic orientations in their enforcement behaviours. In that study, new recruits in

three southern colleges were asked to read vignettes and determine the criminal

disposition of a murder case defendant and an auto theft defendant with respect to

sentencing. Social characteristics of the suspects were controlled for and not included in

the decision making process. The results did not provide any substantial difference in the

behaviour pattern (i.e., authoritarian and punitive) between college-educated officers and

non college-educated officers (Carlan and Ferris, 2000).

Group 3: This last group of studies looked at the correlation of education levels of police

officers with job performance. In one such study, Breci (1990) surveyed 7,500 law

enforcement officers in Minnesota and found that individuals with a four year degree had

a broader perspective and performed their jobs in a more mature and professional

manner. In Breci's study, it is difficult to determine how the internal attitudes and

behaviours were assessed and measured (i.e., broader perspective or maturity level).

Krimmel (1996) in a study of 250 officers from three different jurisdictions in

Pennsylvania asked officers to respond to a self-reported survey that rated their job

performance. In all three counties surveyed, Krimmel found that officers with higher

education levels rated themselves higher in all categories tested for than did non-degree

officers. Ratings found to be statistically significant were: knowledge of departmental

rules, use of safety practises, ability to accept change, preparedness for court, quality of

work, assignments, level of problem solving ability, quality of written work, quality of

oral presentations, self-image and level of confidence with supervisors (pp. 92-93).

Kakar (1998) in his study of 110 officers in a small U. S police department

examined whether officers with different educational levels from high-school up to

university degrees showed any positive correlation to factors associated with self-

perceptions of performance, duties and the delivery of services. Kakar found officers with

higher education levels reported performing significantly better than those officers with

no college degree. Likewise, in a similar study by Sherwood (1998), 110 officers in two

medium sized departments in the mid U.S. were measured on 40 performance indicators.

Results found college-educated officers outperformed non college-educated officers on

virtually all indicators tested for.

In the studies by Krimmel (1986), Kakar (1998) and Breci (1990), the instrument

used to measure performance relied on the self-report method making it unclear whether

educated police officers were shown to actually perform better, or whether these officers

by virtue of being educated only perceived themselves to perform better than non college

educated officers?

It is interesting to note that despite the overabundance of positive findings over the

past six decades showing a positive relationship between college education and a quality

officer, very few promotional policies or police career opportunities have been formally

linked to higher education. In a broad based (1989) study of American police

departments, researchers Carter, Sapp and Stephens found that 74.3% of the police

departments in the U.S. had no formal policies requiring college education as a condition

for promotion. Similar findings by Ellis (2005) and Ratchford (2001) found no formal

policies linking formal education with promotion in Canada.

2.4. THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

In Canada, the historical progression toward police formal education began with the creation of the community college system in the early 1960's. According to most Canadian scholars, the college system during the 1960s was created in a political climate of hope and idealism to ensure a seamless gap in diversity between university and colleges offering learners a range of choices. At the core of this idealism was the notion that education could be made available to virtually everyone. This newfound freedom pre-supposed that education could match the needs and abilities of individual students, enable institutions under the watchful eye of government, generally select their own missions and offer programs with a moderate degree of freedom and autonomy (Stadtman, 1980, as quoted in Dennison, 1995, p.5) (Dennison and Gallagher, 1986, Dougherty, 1994, Dennison and Levin, 1989, Dennison, 1995, Jones 1997).

Even more to the point, Jones (1997) describes college education as an end in itself, preparing the student, such as a police officer, to enter the workplace with related training and education, usually in a two year terminal diploma or certificate program. In contrast to colleges, Jones describes the historical nature of universities as being originally established to provide a broad generalist education and specialization for professions like medicine, law and theology. By design, universities were set up to be autonomous bodies free from any outside government influence. In this form, universities were given authority to confer degrees, set academic standards, admission policies and tuition (Kerr, 1982, Eskridge, 1989, Jones, 1995, 1997, Skolnik, 2005, Levin, 2001).

Tensions between colleges and universities are historical and center on issues of respectability, credibility, comparisons between vocational training and liberal education, intellectually "able students" versus "average students" and the overall utility of university degrees versus college diplomas and certificates in the marketplace. The main arguments made by university advocates are that colleges, by pursuing the economic agenda of the labour markets, focus too much in delivering vocational training. By colleges emphasizing vocational training, the general arts education agenda of universities, whose aim is to promote the pursuit of knowledge and truth, is diminished in those institutions (Ellis, 2005, Levin, 2001, Brint and Karabel, 1989, Dougherty, 1994). Today, universities continue to play a major role in Canadian society as the legitimate degree granting authority to the professions (i.e., law, medicine, engineering, nursing, theology, etc.). Public expectation of universities is to screen for superior candidates, provide a specialized body of knowledge and bestow recognition of achievement through the granting of degrees (Fisher and Rubenson, 1998; Jones, 1995).

Despite these differences, there is evidence of some collaboration between colleges and universities across Canada. For example, while Ontario colleges mainly offer two and three year terminal vocational diploma programs designed to prepare students for the rapid growth and needs of the labour market, colleges in Alberta and British Columbia partner with universities to allow the free flow of students between colleges and universities. In the case of British Columbia, this strategy has more to do with accessibility to universities caused by the geographic challenges in the province. Another example of college-university collaboration is found in the province of Quebec. Students in that province are required to attend the College d'Enseignement General et

Professionnel (CEGEP) and choose between two educational streams: one offering liberal studies needed prior to attending university, or, vocational training stream to prepare students for the labour market (Dennison and Gallagher, 1986, Jones 1997).

In Ontario, the theme of partnership and cooperation to improve competitiveness and accessibility for new and continuing professional students within the higher education system was first recommended in a report by the Ontario Council of Regents in 1990, called *Vision 2000: Quality and Opportunity*. This report recommended government provide the learning environment and remove the barriers to allow students to freely move between colleges and universities. The *Port Hope Accord* in 1999 supported by the Council of Ontario Universities was successful in moving this concept forward by creating a framework for degree completion and accreditation procedures through articulation agreements signed between colleges and universities. This was a good start but Maclennan (2002) reports only modest success since the accord was signed in 2001. As of 2004, only 221 agreements were recorded between colleges and universities in Canada (Jones, 1997, Skolnik, 1995, MacLennan, 2002).

In a more recent report, *Ontario: A Leader in Learning*, former Premiere of Ontario, Mr. Bob Rae (2005) conducted a comprehensive review of the post secondary education system in Ontario. His findings suggest that despite changes in the type of industry skills needed, personal student needs, and demographic shifts, "learning" remains a crucial cultural and substantive value to society (p.6). The report further mentions that everyone has a [legal and moral] right to develop to their full potential. Critical thinking, self-reflection and curiosity for knowledge sake are what drive people to grow and participate in all aspects of society. The report concludes by saying that

achieve this end, there is a need to realize that education, research and innovation are

indispensable to ensure the economic growth of our society and that government must

provide the means for individuals attain the knowledge and skills required to make this

happen (See Ontario: A Leader in Learning-Report and Recommendations of Bob Rae,

Advisor to the Premier and Minister of Training, Colleges and Universities, pp. 6-15).

2.5. POLICE EDUCATION PATHWAYS

Many scholars agree that there are a multitude of forces acting upon educational institutions and police agencies to better prepare police officers for the challenges associated with the socio-legal context, the global nature of crime and technological advances in policing environments. In this regard, the major challenge for higher education institutions is to reach out and collaborate with the policing sector to develop relevant curriculum that both meets the standards of academic rigour and also enhances an already efficient police training program.

One such Ontario example was cited in Rae (2005) as a potential model for other educational institutions and police agencies to follow. This initiative involved a partnership agreement between the Toronto Police Service, the University of Guelph, the University of Guelph-Humber and Humber Institute of Technology and Advanced Learning (ITAL) to provide training and formal education opportunities for all sworn and non sworn supervisory members and senior managers of the Toronto Police Service. These institutions reached out to support the career development of police officers by offering educational programs and pathways starting from the police training academy; once members have at least three years experience, they can apply for prior learning assessment credits that are applied toward completing a college diploma that ladders toward a baccalaureate degree and that further ladders into graduate studies in a seamless "one stop" set of programs. This substantial undertaking was made possible by the commitment of the three educational institutions towards providing learning opportunities, supporting each other's institutional standards and credentials, sharing a strong desire to streamline the education process, and working together to ensure

maximum credits are earned for learning from work experience and other forms of formal and informal education earned prior to police members entering the program (Rae Report, 2005, p. 43; Lawrence, Schmidt, Smith, Walsh, Trovato, 2007).

As far as this author knows, the province of Quebec is the first Canadian province to mandate a baccalaureate degree for investigators and managers in policing. The Québec Police Act [R.S.Q., Ch. P-13.1, a. 116.] enacted by Orders in Council (i.e., de'cretes), specifies the government may by regulation, in the cases determined in the regulation, determine the minimum qualifications required to exercise investigative or managerial functions within a police force. Accordingly, a police member who wishes to apply for these positions must first successfully complete a bachelor's program in public security offered at l'E'cole nationale du police du Quebec before assuming investigative responsibilities, or managerial functions. Samples of the courses offered in the program at 11 universities include topics in penal law, criminological theory, ethics, and applied science regarding criminal investigations. In essence, the province of Quebec offers the option to police practitioners to select two streams of studies. One stream that leads to management and other leads to criminal investigations (Brassard, 2007, Lawrence, 2007). A more detailed discussion on these two programs mentioned are discussed in chapter five of this report.

On the international front, some interesting police educational pathways are offered in Sweden and the FBI Academy in Quantico, Virginia. In Sweden, before a police officer is allowed to practise the trade, he or she must complete a two year college program with emphasis on languages (i.e., English) and civic education. Students must also have a minimum one year related work experience (e.g., military service, medical

field, government work) and successfully pass a university admission test prior to being hired. In addition, once a new recruit is hired, unlike Ontario, where police training occurs in two months, in Sweden a recruit receives three years of specific police training both in the classroom and in the field. Further, members who seek senior positions in the police organization require a law degree (Lord, 1998, Ellis, 2005, Ratchford, 2001).

The Federal Bureau of Investigation Academy in Quantico, Virginia, also offers executive level training and education programs in conjunction with the University of Virginia at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. In this model, course curriculum is developed with the justice professional in mind. University curriculum is blended with specialized police training needed by enforcement professionals. The faculty who teach in these programs are both educators and police specialists with educational credentials (Ellis, 2005).

The Minister of Community Safety and Correctional Services is responsible for policing standards in the Province of Ontario. In section 3 (2) of the Police Services Act (RSO), the Minister is responsible for developing and promoting programs to enhance professional police practices, standards and training (p.8). The level of education required to be a police officer in the province of Ontario remains a grade 12 diploma or equivalent. The central provincial police training academy was first proposed by the Ontario Chiefs of Police (OACP) in 1959 as a way to ensure police training standards were consistent across the province and within police services as a way to save on the high costs associated with police training. By 1962, the provincial government responded by creating the new facility near an abandoned army base in Aylmer, Ontario. The operations of the police college became the responsibility of the Ministry of Solicitor

General in 1972, later renamed the Ministry of Community Safety and Correctional Services. It should be noted the Ontario Police College is a "post-hire" institution which does not offer any services or courses to the general public. New recruits take approximately two months of mainly skills-based training before being certified to practise as a police officer in the province of Ontario. Very little time is available during the two months of practical training to impart social science knowledge dealing with the theoretical, sociological and or philosophical aspects of policing to recruits (Ratchford, 2001, Lawrence, 2007).

Police training and educational systems in Canada were reviewed by Normandeau and Leighton (1990), Lawrence and Schmidt, (2007), Ratchford, (2001) and Ellis, (2005). Three distinct forms of police education models were identified:

Police Training at Educational facilities-(no college or university accreditation): This training is offered at college-university campuses but is outside the education system. Examples are the Saskatchewan Police College located at the University of Regina and the Atlantic Police Academy at Holland College in Prince Edward Island. In Ontario, Durham College, Niagara College, the University of Toronto, and the School of Rotman, provide conference style education courses at their facilities.

Police Training at Provincial Justice Facilities-(no college or university accreditation): This training consists of a central provincial facility that provides certification to all sector services such as police, probation/corrections, court, and correctional services. For example, the British Columbia Justice Institute is the certifying body for those professions in that province. This set-up is also outside the education system.

Police Training-Integrated Education Mainstream-(accreditation is available):
These collaborated programs between police training facilities and educational
institutions offer justice professionals with the opportunity to earn college/university
credits. The curriculum is integrated and offers accreditation toward certificates, post
graduate certificates, college diplomas, and credits toward university degrees. An
example is the agreement between Toronto Police Service, Humber ITAL, the University
of Guelph and the University of Guelph-Humber. In this model, police supervisors
require mandatory training before they are promoted to the rank of sergeant, or to the
rank of supervisor in the case of civilian members. Instruction is jointly delivered by
police facilitators and professors from Humber ITAL. Successful completion of the
program earns students college credits that can be applied toward a Police Foundation
Leadership Diploma. This joint training and education program continues for mid-level
managers and senior management that ladder into university programs and degrees.

In 1998 attempts to raise the police educational bar in Ontario were put forward by
Mike Harris' Provincial government. The plan called for a two year pre-employment
program for all new police hires. Ontario colleges were asked to prepare to deliver the
first year of the two year program by offering prescribed social science courses such as
ethics, law, sociology, psychology and counselling, to provide a humanistic orientation.
The second year of the mandatory program was to be delivered by the Ontario Police
College, which is better equipped and experienced to deliver specialized training for core
skills needed, such as: driver training, firearms training, use of force, application of
enforcement laws and provincial statutes. However, widespread public pressure from
mainly minority groups and social advocates instead forced the Tory government to

change the policy from a mandatory pre-employment program to a voluntary one. The main criticisms of the policy in making the program mandatory was the fear it would exclude qualified minority candidates and the less privileged applicants who could not afford to pay the approximate 12 thousand dollars in tuition fees (Ellis, 2005; Ratchford 2001; Roberts 1994; Griffiths, et al, 1999).

At the time of this writing, the status quo is still in effect; the Ontario Police College delivers and certifies police in two months of training supplemented by further internal training offered by individual police services. Despite the controversy surrounding the early tart-up of the Police Foundations Program in the early 90s, Ontario colleges continue to thrive in the growing enrolment numbers by mostly young adults preparing for a career in policing or other related justice fields.

2.6. POLICE TRAINING AND FORMAL EDUCATION

The debate by most critics of police higher education is to question whether the type of intellectual understanding gained through formal education is in fact useful, or, whether it could even be a detriment to the front line officer. Officers as part of their duties are expected to conduct regular routine work by answering citizens' calls for service and conduct other mundane enforcement activities such as traffic and parking enforcement. In other words, occupational training is considered important for front line officers expected to follow commands by superiors and adhere to policies and procedures to effectively execute their duties. To make this point, a senior police official interviewed by newspaper reporter Betsy Powell was quoted as saying:

> ...continuing education is essential for management-minded officers committed to challenging customary police practices... [But he adds] that some fundamentals of policing will always remain...we're the sole organization that investigates crimes and puts people in jail. (Interview by Betsy Powell, Toronto Star, April 11, 2005)

From these comments, an inference cab be drawn that formal education is best suited for senior ranking officers (e.g., management) who can think about challenging police practises; but not deemed essential for the rank and file who should focus on investigating and making arrests. These comments also raise an interesting set of questions for administrators wishing to promote human capital development. For example, what do you do with all the front line non-management members who normally make up the bulk (i.e., over 80%) of employees who may wish to pursue higher education in Ontario?

What kind of support can rank and file officers receive in pursuing higher education? And how do rank and file officers who aspire to ascend the leadership ladder prepare for these senior positions? These questions and findings are presented as part of this study in later chapters.

For those uninitiated, training and education may appear at first to be similar. Although training and education at times overlap, they are not synonymous. When the police speak of training, they envision an officer learning the process of procedures: learning through example or explicit instruction on how something operates, works best, or should be undertaken (See Roberts; 1994, Ratchford, 2001; Marquis, 2003; Ellis 2005). Education, on the other hand, is conceived as somewhat more unspoken, intellectual, rational form of learning. It involves understanding the how, why, and with what alternatives a process operates. It includes abstract thoughts and rhetorical representations about relationships and outcomes from actions (Roberts, 1994). On a routine level, training tends to direct attention toward mechanistic or various skills acquisition, whereas education aims to develop mental capacities. For example, skills such as defensive driving, first aid, firearms training, traffic investigations and use of force require competencies not directly related to deeper intellectual understanding. On the other hand, skills that reflect competencies gained from education such as communication skills, social theory, ethics, socio-psychological knowledge and counselling skills are learned through self-reflection, learning and thinking.

Policing in the 21st century no doubt must include a balance of police training and education that emphasizes communication skills, negotiating skills, critical thinking and research skills to better handle a growing number of social, legal and economic type

problems that arise in communities. For too long, police training and learning has taken place at the vocational level using general police practitioners to teach new recruits the practical knowledge they need. Needed, is the recognition that learning must take place at all levels of the organization utilizing the critical thinking-research knowledge based skills required for the challenges of modern policing. Formal education provides the logical venue to gain greater knowledge of ethnic and cultural ways and to apply psychological, sociological and even counselling education theory needed by front line officers.

The question remains, where should this essential body of necessary knowledge be learned? Should it be taught in an educational institution by educators, in police training facilities by police, or in combination of police agencies and educational institutions?

The curriculum taught at the Ontario Police College includes two weeks of field training conducted by the individual police agencies, two months of classroom training provided at the Ontario Police College, three months training in a scout car with a senior patrol officer and a further two weeks training with their assigned police agencies. Most of the training at police training facilities are task specific such as defensive driving, firearms, traffic investigations, criminal law, rules and procedures, physical fitness training, and a small amount (i.e. anywhere from hours to several days) of educational studies toward cultural diversity and sensitivity training, teaching officers how to handle domestic abuse cases and how to be sensitive toward sexual assault victims (Ellis, 2005, Ratchford 2001, Griffiths, et al, 1999).

The type of police training offered at the Ontario Police College raises concerns. For example, several questions that arise are: how many hours in the police academy are deemed necessary before placing an officer, theoretically as young as 19 years of age, armed with an issued deadly weapon in the field to police citizens? Which areas of studies should be emphasized and what proportion of hours should be given to each area of study? Should physical training, which consumes a large measure of police training, be given equal, more, or less time than more academic areas of liberal arts study? Finally, what is the overarching goal of police training? [3]

2.7. FINAL THOUGHTS

Despite the literature offering explanations on the merits of police formal education, the available research literature is very limited and offers little confidence in answering questions, such as: What education levels are needed for Canadian policing? What are the impediments to police participation in formal education? And what factors impact or influence police decisions to pursue higher education? As previously mentioned, this study attempted to avoid similar limitations by gathering a quantifiable natural data set. Questionnaires were used to collect descriptive data from 20 different Municipal, Provincial and Federal police agencies. Some 1150 justice participants in this study represent the population of approximately 23,000 justice professionals working in the province of Ontario, Canada. It is hoped that many of the questions raised in these previous chapters will be answered.

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[3] The literature review for this discussion on police formal education was done using the following electronic databases: Scholars Portal Search, Web of Knowledge, Business Source Premiere, Historical abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Eric, MLA International Bibliography, IBSS (Social Science), Medline, Psychlit, PsycInfo, Ebscohost, Worldcat, InfoTrac-Legal and ProQuest Direct. In addition, indexes to legal periodicals and books were searched dating from 1900s to 2007.

CHAPTER 3
DESCRIPTION OF DATA

3.0. METHODOLOGY DESCRIBED

The literature on adult education has provided data identifying factors relating to the personal characteristics and demographic profiles of the adult learner involved in educational environments. Some characteristic factors identified for this study, for example, age, sex, marital status, financial status, number of dependents and prior educational achievement, are related to the adult justice professionals (i.e., learner) participating in education (See Houle, 1961; Sheffield, 1964; Boshier 1971; Burgess 1971; Cross 1979; Pollok, 1979).

A second set of variables identified as professional factors related to the desire of the adult justice learners, are described as available work opportunities, desire to increase effectiveness of police work, available pathways to college-university programs, institutional and employer financial support. These characteristic and professional factors are listed in Part I of the questionnaire and form a total of 24 items.

A third set of factors, derived from adult motivational studies, identified potential influences and motivations (i.e., enablers and disablers) of why justice learners choose to pursue higher education goals. Survey questions relating to the reality and influence of statements posed to the adult learners include a total of 36 items described in Table 1.

These 36 items grouped together for relevance form six common clusters identified as:

3.1 Financial factors: Defined in terms of whether respondents within the various ranks found university and college studies too expensive. Four items in the survey related to the financial burden of higher education and the remaining three items dealt with the link between educational attainment and job advancement. The data collected from these items helped determine if financial realities impact police decisions to pursue higher education

3.2 Convenience factors: Defined in terms of work schedules, location of college-universities, times courses were offered, the kinds of courses that were offered, and the opportunity of taking distance education, combined to form a total of six items and assisted to measure the level of police participation in educational settings.

3.3 Social support: Defined in terms of whether respondents across various ranks received support from family, co-workers, and supervisors. These questions also included measures of desire to meet new people outside law enforcement. Overall, the four items in this cluster attempted to explore the social aspects of continuing education, meeting new people and having non police students' value police opinions.

3.4 Institutional culture: Defined in terms of whether organizations (i.e. police and educational institutions) support members regardless of their rank in their pursuit of higher education goals. In this cluster, four items dealt with relationships between police, supervisors and management, while the other two items attempted to measure an individual's concern in taking courses and the relationships between outside students and faculty.

3.5 Goal congruence: Defined in terms of whether higher education goals were consistent with the personal and professional goals of respondents within the various ranks. In this cluster five items attempted to measure the personal desires and whether formal education goals were similar to their personal and professional aspirations.

3.6 Job relevance: Defined in terms of whether formal education is related to present work functions and rank. In this cluster, six items explored the aspects of the respondents' career; for example, whether education assisted their work, leadership skills, and whether educational curriculum taught them more about law enforcement.

3.7. RESEARCH GOALS

The intent of this study is to provide police officers across Ontario with the opportunity of identifying factors they say significantly influence their decisions to pursue higher education. The implication of this study is to determine whether:

1) H1 (Research Hypothesis): The attitudes and educational behaviour of justice professionals <u>are dependent</u> on characteristic and professional factors: age, sex, level of education, experience, rank, ethnicity, marital status and number of dependents.

1.1) H1 (Null Hypothesis): The attitudes and educational behaviour of justice professionals are <u>not dependent</u> on characteristic and professional factors: age, sex, level of education, experience, rank, ethnicity, marital status and number of dependents.

2) H2 (Research Hypothesis): The attitudes and educational behaviour of justice professionals are <u>influenced</u> by: Financial, Convenience, Social support, Institutional culture, Goal congruence and Job relevance factors described in Table 1.

2.1) H2 (Null Hypothesis): The attitudes and educational behaviour of justice professionals <u>are not influenced</u> by: Financial, Convenience, Social support, Institutional culture, Goal congruence and Job relevance factors.

Method of Analysis: Frequency analysis, Pearson correlations and Chi Square procedures were used to analyze the degree of association between nominal and ordinal characteristic or professional variables. These variables (i.e., age, sex, education, experience, marital status, number of dependents and rank) when used to interact with the independent variables such as financial, convenience, social support, institutional culture, goal congruence and job relevance factors, yield data to observe the differences in the mean scores.

3.8. RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The data in this study were collected through the use of a questionnaire. The primary research instrument is a modified survey adopted from the one first developed in 1982 by members of the Federal Bureau of Investigations in collaboration with the School of Education at the University of Virginia. The original survey tested for validity and reliability was adapted from factors that were identified as potentially impeding nurses from achieving baccalaureate degrees (Pollok, 1979).

The consultation process involving the design and construction of the survey took place in September through December 2006. Forty law enforcement professionals each with over 20 years of experience were asked to participate in a pilot study to provide content and face validity to the current research project. All members of the pilot group were provided with specific instructions, both verbal and in written form, as to the research objectives for the study. Materials provided to the pilot group included the introductory chapters of the study outlining the topic, issues relating to the research project, the literature review, and the methodology section. The researcher, with over 30 years of applied police experience and four years in the education field, first assessed the 63 items in the questionnaire relating to factors which impact police decisions to pursue higher education.

To establish both face and sampling validity, the researcher consulted with and administered the survey to members of the pilot group to review, assess, and provide suggestions for change. The researcher was satisfied the content material of the instrument represented the population of police being studied. The items in this survey were reviewed by the author, the Ethics Review Board at the University of Toronto,

project personnel, and project supervisor, Professor Dan Lang, resulting in several changes and revisions to the questionnaire (See Questionnaire, Appendix E).

In this study, participants were asked to complete a two-part descriptive survey. **Part one** of the survey has 25 items that provide demographic data with respect to age, gender, experience, rank, marital status, number of dependents, shift work, and other items relating to level of education, and support by police organizations toward higher education.

Part two of the survey has 34 items that provided data to test for attitudes, influences and motivations of why police pursue formal education. These item questions listed in Table 1 provided data to be able to analyze and discuss the various issues relating to police formal education, the role of the police in higher education, police opinion with respect to education standards, the type of training or education curricula needed, the level and nature of support provided to members, and finally, the access to education programs police say they need to meet the challenges of modern policing.

The results from Part I of the survey were measured using two techniques: scales based on item analysis and arbitrary scales using numerical values. For example, arbitrary scales with numerical values were first assigned: (e.g., <u>nominal scales</u>: 1 = yes and 2= no, or 1 = male and 2 = female) or (e.g. <u>ordinal scales</u>: strongly agree =1, agree =2, disagree=3 to strongly agree=4) or (e.g., <u>arbitrary ordinal</u> scales: less than 3 years experience = 1, 5- 10 years experience = 2, etc.). These scores were then summed to determine total scores and mean averages of the variables that could be empirically tested for the strength or relationship to each other.

The rating scheme for Part II of the survey (i.e., the Reality and Influence Assessments) was done using a Likert scale, or as it is commonly known, a 4-point scale. A number of statements were presented to participants who were asked to respond to each of the statements in two different ways. First, respondents were asked to indicate to what degree the statements about the 34 items were true (e.g. Reality) using the rating scale: 1 = Strongly agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Disagree and 4 = Strongly disagree. Secondly, respondents were then asked to indicate the degree to which these same factors influenced their decisions (e.g. Influence Assessment) using the response scale: 1 = Major influence, 2 = Moderate influence, 3 = Slight influence and 4 = Not a Factor.

3.9. Table 1: Six Common Cluster Items

FINANCIAL FACTORS
1. Employer financial assistance is not available to me
2. Government financial assistance is not available to me
3. Personal financial resource is available for me to pursue college/university studies
4. The financial cost of pursuing college/university studies is too high
5. Do people in your department receive incentive pay for completing college and or university courses?
6. College/university studies is necessary for promotion
7. A college/university degree increases or enhances my job security

CONVENIENCE FACTORS
1 The college/university studies I desire are offered at a convenient time
2 The college/university studies I desire are offered at a convenient location
3 The college/university studies requires too much of my time
4 College/university part time programs I desire are available
5 A flexible college/university program I desire that includes distance education is available
6 Shift work interferes with college-university class schedules

SOCIAL SUPPORT FACTORS
1 I receive encouragement or support from my police co-workers to continue my education
2 I receive encouragement or support from my family to continue my education
3 Taking college/university courses will give me the opportunity to meet new people
4 It is important for me to meet people who do not work in the field of law enforcement

INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE FACTORS
1. I receive encouragement or support from my senior management to continue my education
2 I receive encouragement or support from my supervisors to continue my education
3 College/university students have positive attitudes toward law enforcement
4 College/university faculties are open to ideas from law enforcement students
5 I am apprehensive about my abilities of going to achieve a college/university degree
6 The people I meet in college/university programs are stimulating

GOAL CONGRUENCE FACTORS
1 I have a desire to improve my mind, knowledge and academic ability
2 I wish to obtain a college/university degree for personal achievement
3 College/university studies provides the opportunity for academic fulfillment
4 The goal of college/university programs is to impart knowledge similar to my own personal/professional goals
5 Having credentials will assist promote the professionalism of law enforcement

JOB RELEVANCE FACTORS
1 College/university programs are relevant to the problems I face in my current job assignment
2 College/university studies will help me learn more about law enforcement
3 College/university programs are relevant to my future professional development and career plans
4 College/university studies are available to assist me develop my leadership skills
5 Having a college/university education is an important addition to the police training currently provided
6 A college-university education is different from police training

3.1.0. NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

Municipal police services employ approximately 66% of all police members in

Canada and serve approximately 25 million people (or 79% of the population). In 2006,

there were 508 police services in Canada: 191 were serviced by way of municipal

contracts with the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP); 107 were serviced by

municipal contracts serviced with the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP); 210 other

municipalities in Canada had their own municipal police services to perform policing

duties (Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Police Administration

Survey, 2006).

3.1.1. Table 2: Canadian Police Population

2006	RCMP	OPP	Municipal	Male	Female	Total
Police Services	191	107	210	82.1%	17.9%	508
Police Officers				51,247	11,211	62, 458

(Statistics Canada-2006, Catalogue no. 85-225, p.27)

3.1.2. Table 3: Ontario Police Study Sample

2007	Sample =N	Male	Female	Aggregate	Return=X
Population		19,806	3,773	23,579	$\pi=4.9\%$
Sample size	$N=1150$	857 (or 74.5% male)	293 (or 25.5% female)	3500	$\pi=32.8\%$

(Statistics Canada-2006, Catalogue no. 85-225, p.24)

In Ontario, according to the 2007 *Ontario Chiefs of Police Directory*, there are 58

police services and 23,579 members serving across the province. Participants selected for

this study were civilian, uniform and non uniform members working in 20 or 34.4% of

the 58 municipal, provincial and federal police services in Ontario. The sample (*n=1150*)

in Table 3 represents 4.9% of the total population *(N =23,579)* being analyzed. The

sample *(n=1150)* in Table 3 is fairly representative of the distribution sample of 3500

questionnaires distributed to 20 of the 58 (or 34.4%) of Ontario police services, when

compared to the return rate (*n= 1150* or *π =32.8%)*.

The non-probability sample techniques used in this study comparatively represent the sampled population with the aggregate population who share similar characteristics allowing for a scientific analysis. This rationale was based on the following facts: all police members in Ontario must be minimum 18 years of age to join the police service; all police members have the same specified mandate authorized under the *Police Services Act (PSA): Revised Statutes of Ontario (RSO)1990,* that governs police services in Ontario; all members are subject to the same level of police training conducted at the Ontario Police College (OPC) which certifies and then confers a police diploma to successful candidates; all police members are subject to the same code of conduct articulated in the RSO; and finally, the duties and responsibilities of all police members are prescribed in the same manner and degree authorized in the (PSA).

The methodology for this study was developed using the publication known as the Ontario Association of the Chiefs of Police (See Police Services in Ontario, 2007 Directory, Ministry of Community Safety and Correctional Services). Twenty selected services covering most of the geographic areas policed in Ontario were identified for the study. The police chiefs overseeing the selected police services were contacted by the researcher via the telephone to explain the nature of the study and to obtain preliminary permission to survey their members. Administrators' approval letters were then mailed to the selected services to obtain written permission to conduct the study (See Appendix A)

Most Chiefs contacted welcomed the study and expressed optimism the study would provide useful information to assist the learning needs of their members as well as assist with organizational policies toward education. Similarly, some concerns shared by

the Chiefs related to the time involved to complete the survey (i.e., estimated at 25 minutes to 1/2 hour). To alleviate these concerns, the researcher in consultation with the administrators selected times for members' to complete the surveys during the least intrusive periods in their work schedules (i.e., scheduled training days). An additional concern shared by the administrators involved the issue of confidentiality for their members and the unease of potentially identifying and comparing police services in relation to internal policies, resources and financial commitment. This latter concern mainly originated from smaller police services that did not have the same financial resources as other larger ones to fund educational programs. The issue of identifying and comparing police services was addressed by assuring police administrators the survey design did not provide for personal identifiers or identification of police services. All administrators were sent letters of permission (Appendix A) to sign in June and July of 2007.

Once the letters of permission were signed and received by the researcher, approximately 3500 surveys were mailed out to 20 police services in Ontario. Of the twenty police services selected, 10 police services which had fewer than 300 members were each mailed out 60 packages of the surveys, 4 police services which had fewer than 1000 members but greater than 300 were each mailed out 200 packages of the surveys, and the remaining 6 police services with more than 1000 members were each mailed out 350 packages of the surveys.

The distribution of the survey was done through the training coordinators identified by police administrators at each police facility. It should be noted the position of training coordinator is described as a person with responsibility to facilitate training

information to all members of a police station. The training coordinator is an independent agent removed from any direct line of authority or influence over the participants involved in attending regularly scheduled training days.

Historically, researchers dealing with this unique police population have found that providing adequate time to complete these studies while members are working is more manageable, efficient and effective. Police officers during scheduled days off are usually tied up in court proceedings, on standby to attend court proceedings, or, if not occupied with police related duties, will attend to family needs resulting in low participation/return rates.

Participants in this study were given a package by the training coordinators containing a copy of the permission letter by their respective Chief's of police authorizing them to participate (See Appendix A); Consent forms to be signed by the training coordinators (See Appendix C) and information letter regarding the distribution and collection of the surveys (See Appendix D); Participant information letters explaining the scope, purpose and the volunteer nature of the study (See Appendix B) and a copy of the survey with a self-addressed return envelope (See Appendix E)

All returned surveys were returned to the attention of a Research Assistant Ms. Jane Russ, at the Humber Institute of Technology and Advanced Learning. Once the surveys were received, they were reviewed for any discrepancies by the researcher and then inputted by the research assistant into Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis.

For this study, by completing the questionnaire participants were deemed to have given implied consent. As stated in previous paragraphs, accompanying letters of

consent and information letters were sent to all participants to emphasize their participation was strictly voluntary and that they were free to withdraw at any time during the study. Participants were also instructed they were free to complete the survey during regular training days or to take the surveys away from a police facility to complete, or to hand in or mail back a blank survey in the self-addressed envelops provided with the questionnaires.

3.1.3. UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS DESCRIPTION

The first step in the frequency analysis was to simplify the data collected. For example, the variable "rank" had 23 categories listed in the original questionnaire and was recoded to four categories: civilian, constables, supervisors, and senior officers (See item 7 in survey in Appendix E). This was done to account for variations in "rank" descriptions. For example, the OPP and RCMP use the rank "corporal" indicating supervisory functions compared to Municipal police services that use the rank of "sergeant" or "detective" indicating the same supervisory functions; or, in the case of civilian members, many identified themselves as line staff, court officers, military police, parking enforcement officers, civilian supervisors and administrators. To simplify the data collection, all these latter categories were grouped as civilians, and civilian managers were grouped with "senior officers". These civilian managerial functions reflect similar organizational responsibilities to those of uniform senior officers in the police ranks. Other necessary recoding involved variables found in items 13, 22, and 23 of the questionnaire relating to levels of education completed. The items were collapsed from 11 to 5 categories (i.e., I have a high school diploma, college diploma obtained, university degree obtained, I have post graduate degree, or I am in the process of completing a college-university degree). This recoding technique also applied to items 22 and 23. The recoding of these variables was necessary to keep the responses consistent with the research goals identifying the educational behaviour of police as: (a) Officers who already have degrees (b) Officers who desire and are pursuing degrees (c) Officers who desire but are not pursuing degrees and (d) Those officers who do not desire and are not pursuing formal studies (See Appendix E to compare items recoded)

3.1.4. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF CHARACTERISTIC AND PROFESSIONAL FACTORS

Table 4: Gender

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	857	74.5	74.5	74.5
	female	293	25.5	25.5	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	
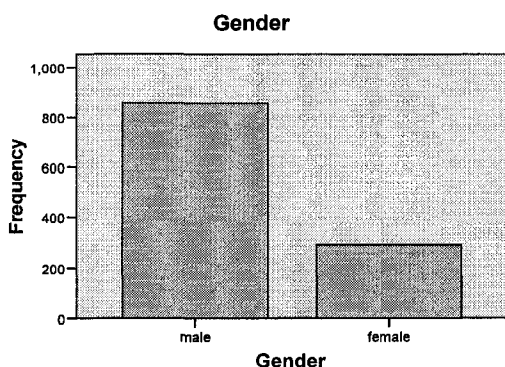
Table 4 reflects the distribution sample across "gender". The data show 857 (or 74.5%) of respondents are identified as male, while 293 (or 25.5%) as female. The sample distribution is slightly above the Ontario averages (16.9%, or N= 4,011) of reported females serving in police services across the province. Conversely, the male sample (74.5%) is slightly below the Ontario average of (83.1%, or, n = 19,748) of males serving in police services across the province.

This sample reflects the national average of female officers serving in Canada at (17.9%, or n = 11,211), compared to (82.1%, n = 51,247) of males.

Also of interest is the 2006 Canadian national average of female members with "rank" within police services. Males make up 94% of senior officers compared to only 6% of Female senior officers (Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Police Administration Survey, p. 27).

Table 5: Age of Respondents

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	19-25	128	11.1	11.1	11.1
	26-36	517	45.0	45.0	56.1
	37-49	407	35.4	35.4	91.5
	50-60	94	8.2	8.2	99.7
	60+	4	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	
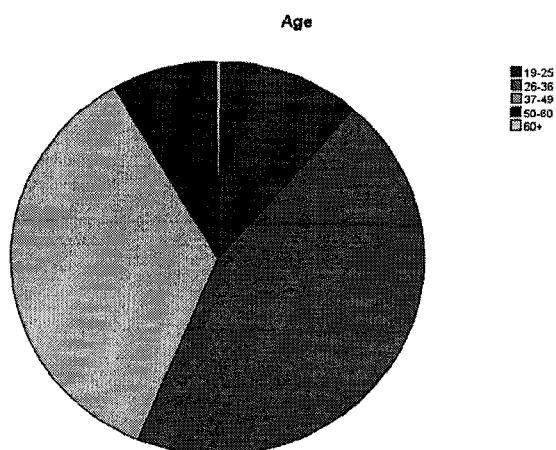
Table 5 provides an overview of the sample distribution across "age" of respondents. The data shows 128 (or 11%) of respondents are between the ages of 19 and 25 years of age, 517 (or 45%) are between the age of 26 and 36 years, 407 (or 35%) are between 37 and 49 years, 94 (or 8%) are between 50 and 60 years of age, and 4 (or 4%) are above the age of 60 years. The sample is representative of the work force and will support other data showing the experience and rank of the sample group who participated in this study. This "age" variable is further examined in Chapter four (data analysis section) in conjunction with the variables "education" and "promotion" to explore motivational reasons why police pursue higher education.

Table 6: Ethnicity

Ethnicity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	White/Caucasian	917	79.7	79.7	79.7
	Black/Afro-Canadian	68	5.9	5.9	85.7
	Asian	56	4.9	4.9	90.5
	South Asian	52	4.5	4.5	95.0
	First Nations/Aboriginal	13	1.1	1.1	96.2
	Latin American	13	1.1	1.1	97.3
	Other	31	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Ethnicity
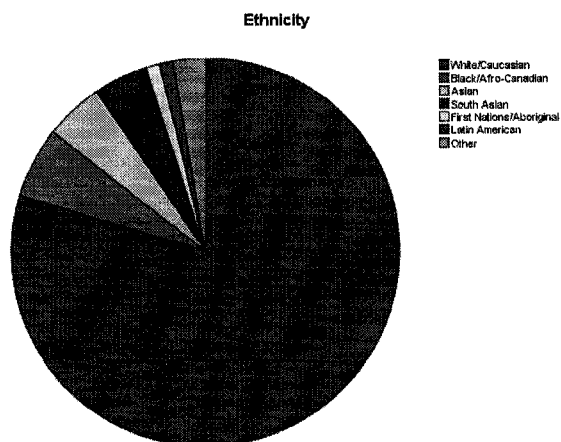
Table 6 shows the percentage of the ethnic makeup of the sample group in this study. The data show 917 (or 80%) of the sample group as White, 68 (or 6%) as Black/Afro-Canadian, 56 (or 5%) as Asian, 52 (or 5%) as South Asian, 13 (or 1%) as First Nations/Aboriginal, 31 (or 1 %) as Latin American, and 31 (or 3%) as other. The sample appears fairly distributed across the groups representing the approximate 9%-12% diverse makeup of police services in Ontario and Canada. Splitting the sample group into two groups, 917 (or 80%) are White and the rest of the sample group 233 (or 20%) are identified as diverse groups. Compared to national and provincial averages, the Toronto Police Service reports 17% of their work force is made up of diverse minority groups while the national service RCMP reports 5.5% of their work force as being diverse (TPS/Inside Articles, February 13, 2007; Police Sector Council Report, p.48, from article in the Vancouver Sun, Saturday, October, 21, 2006).

Table 7: Marital Status

Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	316	27.5	27.5	27.5
	Common Law/ Married	761	66.2	66.2	93.7
	Separated	26	2.3	2.3	95.9
	Divorced	43	3.7	3.7	99.7
	Significant other deceased	4	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	
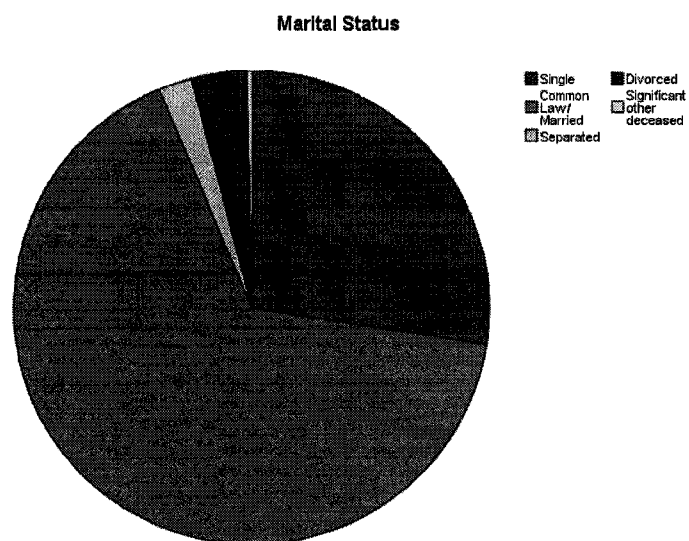
Marital Status

Table 7 shows that the categories of single, separated, divorced, or deceased account for 389 (or 43.8%) of the respondents while 761 (or 66.2%) are married or with partners. This variable "marital status" is further examined in Chapter four (data analysis section) in conjunction with "education" and other social factors explaining if social support cluster items, for example, if respondent receives support from family, work colleagues, supervisors and organizations, impact on decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 8: Work Experience

Level of Work Experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 3 years	379	33.0	33.0	33.0
	3-6	191	16.6	16.6	49.6
	7-10	150	13.0	13.0	62.6
	11-20	216	18.8	18.8	81.4
	21-30	180	15.7	15.7	97.0
	Greater than 30 years	34	3.0	3.0	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	
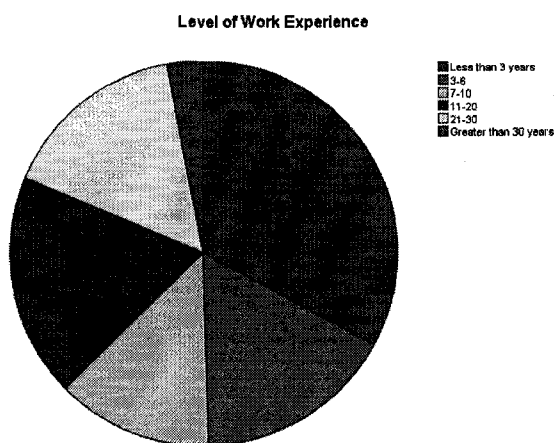
Table 8 shows the average experience across the sample group is 379 (or 33%) of respondents who have less than 3 years experience, 191 (or 16.6 %) who have between 3 and 6 years experience, 150 (or 13%) who have between 7 and 10 years work experience, 216 (or 18.8 %) who have between 11-20 years experience, 180 or

Level of Work Experience

(15.7%) who have between 21-30 years experience and 34 (or 3%) who have more than 30 years experience. The data also show the sample group can be divided into two groups: those 430 (or 37.5%) with greater than 10 years work experience and those 720 (or 62.5%) with less than 10 years of work experience. This variable "experience" is further examined in Chapter four (data analysis section) in conjunction with "education" and the other cluster of factors explaining if experience influences police decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 9: Number of Dependents

Number of Dependents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Dependents	492	42.8	42.8	42.8
	1-2	435	37.8	37.8	80.6
	3-4	203	17.7	17.7	98.3
	More than 5	19	1.7	1.7	99.9
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Number of Dependents

No Dependents
1-2
3-4
More than 5
5.00
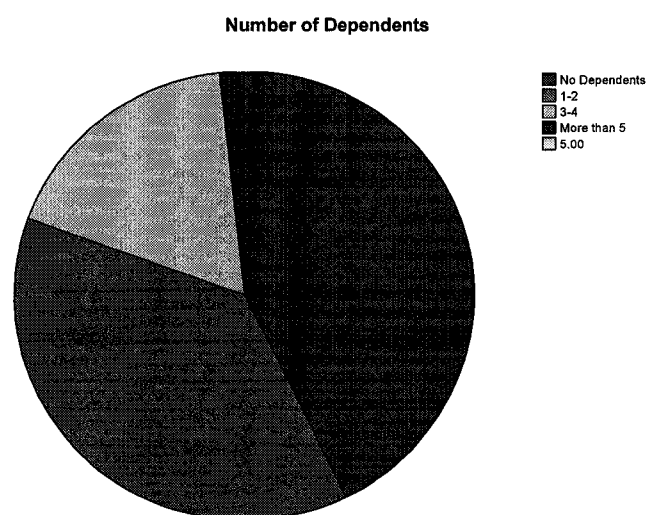
Table 9 shows that 492 (or 43%) of the sample group have no dependents, 435 (or 38%) have between 1 and 2 dependents, 203 (or 18%) have between 3 and 4 dependents, and 19 (or 2%) have more than 5 dependents. Splitting the sample group, there are 492 (or 43%) of the sample who have no dependents and 657 (or 57%) who have one or more dependents. This variable "number of dependents" is further examined in Chapter four (data analysis section) in conjunction with "education" and the other cluster of factors (e.g., marital status, experience, shift work) to explore if impediments to higher education exist.

Table 10: Rank of respondents

Rank Category

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Civilians	233	20.3	20.3	20.3
	Constables	515	44.8	44.8	65.0
	Senior Officers	197	17.1	17.1	82.2
	Supervisors	205	17.8	17.8	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

rank category

■ Civilians
■ Constables
□ Senior Officers
■ Supervisors
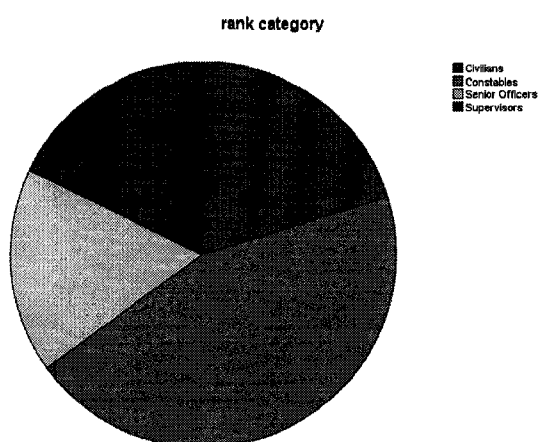
Table 10 shows the rank distribution closely reflects the level of work experience of the sample group. 233 (or 20%) of the sample group are identified as civilians, 515 (or 45%) are identified as constables, 205 (or 18%) are identified as supervisors, and 197 (or 17%) are identified as senior officers. This label senior officer in police services denotes a rank of at least Inspector and higher. This is also true of civilian managers who are considered senior officers in most police services. The data further show that when combined, supervisors and senior officers make up 402 (or 40%) of the sample group compared to the civilian and constable group at 748 (or 65%). This variable "rank" is further examined in Chapter four (data analysis section) in conjunction with "education" and other motivational factors explaining if decisions to pursue higher education are associated with or influenced by rank or status within policing organizations.

Table 11: Secondary Employment

Secondary Employment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes/Full Time	29	2.5	2.5	2.5
	Yes/Part Time	135	11.7	11.7	14.3
	No	986	85.7	85.7	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Table 12: Plan to remain in policing until retirement

Plan to remain in job until retirement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	1084	94.3	94.3	94.3
	No	66	5.7	5.7	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Table 13: Would higher education prompt new employment

Would higher education prompt new employment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	222	19.3	19.3	19.3
	No	899	78.2	78.2	97.5
	Other	29	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Table 14: Undecided about future plans

Undecided about future plans

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	204	17.7	17.7	17.7
	No	946	82.3	82.3	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Tables 11, 12, 13, and 14 reflect a highly motivated, committed, and self-assured group of respondents. For example, the data in Table 11 show that (86%) of the workforce does not have secondary employment, Table 12 show (94%) indicate they will

stay in policing until retirement, Table 13 shows 78% indicate that despite formal education they would not seek out new employment and Table 14 shows 82% are decided about their future, which if comparing to the previous table that shows 94% will remain in policing until retirement is truly reflective of a group of committed professionals.

These variables showing commitment and future plans to stay in policing will be further examined in Chapter four (i.e., data analysis section) in conjunction with "goal congruence" factors that explore motivational factors that can explain why police make decisions to pursue higher education goals.

Table 15: Work schedule of respondents

What is current work schedule

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Regular shift work	557	48.4	48.4	48.4
	Days only	363	31.6	31.6	80.0
	Afternoons only	9	.8	.8	80.8
	Midnights only	2	.2	.2	81.0
	Days and Afternoons	176	15.3	15.3	96.3
	Other	43	3.7	3.7	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

What is current work schedule

What is current work schedule
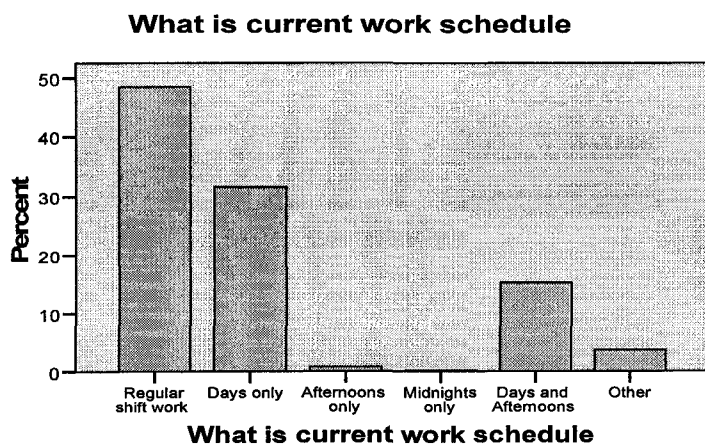
Table 15 shows the majority of the sample group 787 (or 68%) works shift work other than days when compared to those who work a regular day shift at 363 (or 32%). This variable "shift work" is further examined in Chapter four (i.e., data analysis) in conjunction with other factors explaining if decisions to pursue higher education are associated or influenced by the work schedule of members.

Table: 16: Current level of education of respondents

Education Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	College Obtained	357	31.0	31.0	31.0
	College/University In progress	296	25.7	25.7	56.8
	Degree Obtained	283	24.6	24.6	81.4
	High School	191	16.6	16.6	98.0
	Post-Graduate	23	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	
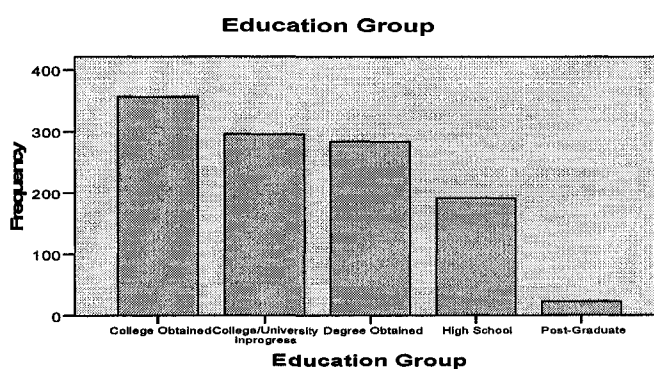
Table 16 shows a high proportion of educated officers in the sample, which is representative of Ontario justice professionals. In the sample, 191 (or 16.6%) have obtained a high school diploma, 357 or (31%) have obtained a college diploma, 283 (or 24.6%) have obtained a university degree, 23 (or 2%) have obtained graduate degrees, and 296 (or 25.7%) are in the process of completing either a college diploma or university degree. Generally speaking, 83.4% of the sample group have achieved or in the process of achieving college diplomas or university degrees, reflecting a highly educated work force.

Table 17: Opinion on minimum education level for new members

Minimum Education Level for New Members

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	College Diploma	327	28.4	28.4	28.4
	High School Diploma	434	37.7	37.7	66.2
	Some College_University	330	28.7	28.7	94.9
	University Degree	59	5.1	5.1	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Minimum Education Level for New Members

Minimum Education Level for New Members
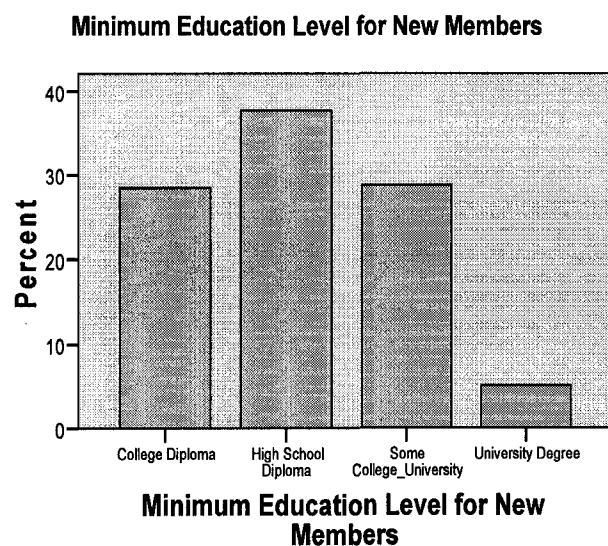
Table 17 shows that 434 (or 38%) of respondents believe a high school diploma is sufficient for entry into policing, 330 (or 29%) believe some college or university is needed prior to entry into policing, 327 (or 28%) believe a college diploma should be a minimum entry into policing and 59 (or 5%) believe a baccalaureate degree should be required as a minimum entry into the profession of policing. The output in Table 18 shows that if categories are grouped into two main groups, 434 (or 38%) of respondents believe a high school diploma is sufficient to enter into the policing profession while 716 (or 62%) believe something more than a high school diploma should be required to enter the policing profession. These data should assist administrators with policy decisions now being considered to raise the educational bar for private sector policing in Ontario as well as future consideration toward public policing.

Table 18: Opinion on current levels of education standards in policing

Is current level of education standard for policing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Too low	605	52.6	52.6	52.6
	Just right	541	47.0	47.0	99.7
	Too high	4	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Is current level of education standard for policing

■ Too low
■ Just right
▒ Too high
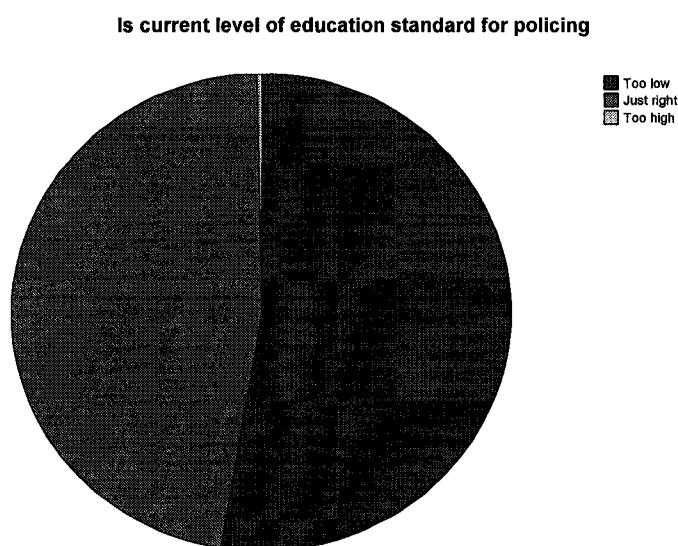
Table 18 shows respondents already working in police services believe current

levels of education standards in policing are adequate. The data show 605 (or 53%) think

the current education standards are too low compared to 541 (or 47%) who feel the

current education standards are just right. Previous results in Table 17 however, show

62% of respondents feel new education standards for new recruits are needed.

Table 19: Opinion on education levels needed for supervisors and managers

Education Supervisor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	College Diploma	275	23.9	23.9	23.9
	Degree or Higher	264	23.0	23.0	46.9
	High School Diploma	272	23.7	23.7	70.5
	Some College / University	339	29.5	29.5	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Education Supervisor

Education Supervisor
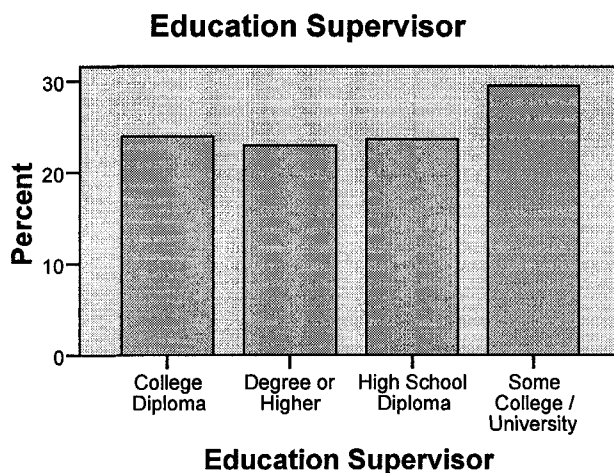
Table 19 illustrates that only 272 (or 24%) of respondents believe a high school diploma is sufficient for the rank of supervisor and above. A further 275 (or 24 %) believe a minimum of college diploma is needed, 264 (or 23%) believe a baccalaureate degree is needed, and 339 (30%) of respondents believe that some college or university is required. When combined, these results indicate a larger number 878 (or 76%) of respondents believe people in supervisory and management positions should have a university degree, a college diploma, or a combination of both. These results support some current police initiatives now underway that provide full funding for educational programs geared toward newly promoted supervisors and higher ranks (see Toronto Police Service initiative discussed in chapter five). In Ontario, if not a formal policy yet, at least informally, formal education is starting to be linked to promotion (Lawrence, 2007).

**Table 20: Opinion on whether educational credentials
in policing are changing**

Do you feel education credentials needed by police are changing?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	904	78.6	78.6	78.6
	No	246	21.4	21.4	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	

Do you feel education credentials needed by police are changing
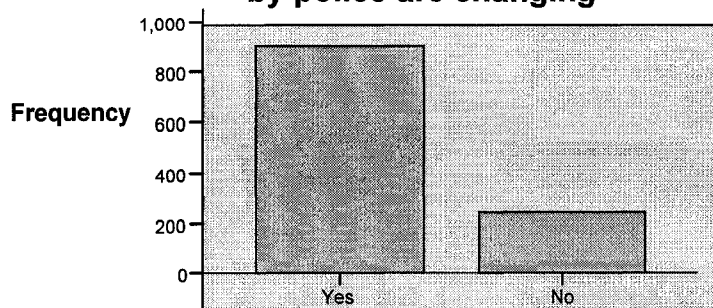
Table 20 shows 904 (or 79%) believe educational credentials are changing for

policing compared to 246 (or 21%) who believe educational levels will remain the same.

These findings are similar to the previous results (e.g., Tables 12-13-14) indicating a

belief that formal educational requirements are changing for future entry into policing

and for those people aspiring to achieve leadership roles in policing organizations.

These findings are useful to develop future policies and discussions toward

raising the minimum educational standards for policing in Canada.

Table 21: Never taken and Never plan to take College-university courses

Never taken and never plan to complete education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1012	88.0	88.1	88.1
	Yes	137	11.9	11.9	100.0
	Total	1149	99.9	100.0	
Total		1150	100.0		

Never taken and Never plan to take college-university course
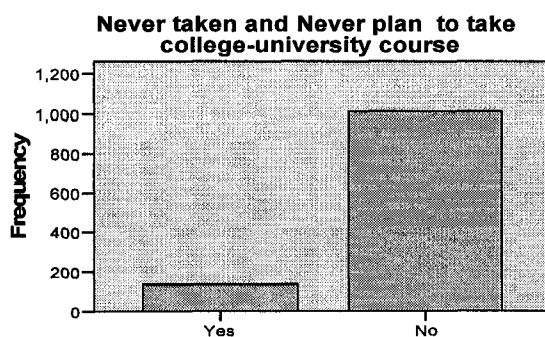
The frequency results in Table 21 show a strong desire by respondents to continue achieving higher education goals. For example, only 137 (or 12%) of respondents answered "*they have never taken and do not plan to take any university/college courses*". A large number, 1012 (or 88%), of respondents show motivation by indicating they desire to take college- university courses.

Table 22: Would like to take college or university courses

Would like to take college and or university courses

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	On a part-time basis while working full-time	780	67.8	67.8	67.8
	While on an educational leave of absence from work	197	17.1	17.1	85.0
	When I am no longer working	173	15.0	15.0	100.0
	Total	1150	100.0	100.0	
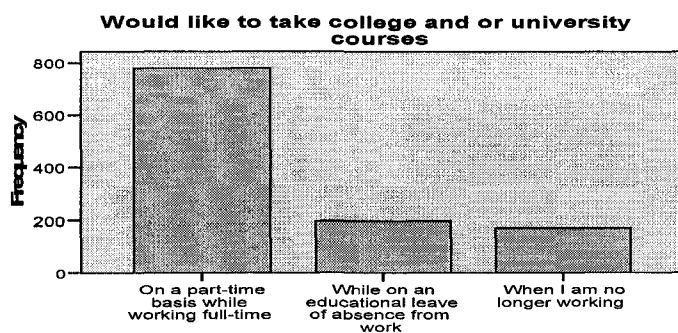
Table 22 shows that 780 (or 68%) of respondents would consider taking college or university courses on a part-time basis while working full-time, 197 (or 17%) while on educational leave of absence and 173 (or 15%) while no longer employed or retired.

These results suggest that respondents are facing some personal or organizational barriers that prevent them from pursuing higher education goals.

3.1.5. INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Part I of this study looked at the personal, professional and occupational characteristics of the police adult learner involved in educational environments in Ontario. The findings are illustrated in Tables 4-22.

Findings in Tables 5-11 assisted with the development of a personnel profile of the respondents. For example, the average age of the respondents was 26 to 36 years of age accounting for 45% of the sample group, followed by 35% of respondents who were between 37 and 49 years of age; and the remaining sample groups split evenly as 10% of respondents between 19 and 25 years of age and 10% of respondents older than 50 years of age. The majority of respondents were males 74% compared to females 26%.

The work experience of these respondents was basically divided into two groups: those respondents 63% who have 0-10 years of work experience and 37% of those who have more that 11 years experience.

The rank structure of the sample group is reported as 20% f respondents are civilian, 45% are constables, 18% are supervisors and 17% are senior officers.

The ethnic makeup of the respondents which is similar to the population diversity reported at (i.e. 9-12%) was 80% white, followed by 6% Black/Afro Canadians, 6% Asian, 5% South Asian, and 1% First Nations and Latin American.

The majority of respondents were married or living with partners 66%. The remaining 28% were single, separated 2%, divorced 4%, or with a spouse deceased 1%.

Of these respondents, 43% had no dependents, 38% had 1-2 dependents, 18% had 3-4 dependents, and 2% had more than 5 dependents.

For a more detailed description of these profiles refer to Tables 11 to 24. Overall, these findings reflect a highly motivated, committed, and loyal group of individuals involved in the policing profession. For example, the data in Table 11 show that 86% of the workforce does not have secondary employment, Table 12 shows 94% indicate they will stay in policing until retirement and Table 13 shows 78% indicate despite formal education they would not seek out new employment.

When one compares the previous results including Table 14 that shows 82% are decided about their future and Table 12 that shows 94% will stay in policing until they retire, a picture emerges of a group of committed law enforcement professionals serving in the province of Ontario.

One of the research goals stated for this study (See Figure 1-Model for Study) was to apply the research findings to determine police educational behaviour in Ontario by comparing four specific groups. These groups, findings and discussion were identified and are presented as:

Group 1: Those individuals who have already attained a university degree/diploma.

Findings determined that 283 (or 25%) of the sample group already attained a university degree. If this sample group is reflective of the Ontario police population, then 5,895 of the 23,579 members in Ontario have university degrees. Likewise, a further 357 (or 31%) of respondents indicated they had obtained a college diploma. Applying these findings to the Ontario police population, 7309 of the 23,579 have obtained a college diploma. These findings also suggest there is a small group 23 (or 2%) of the sample that is pursuing a graduate degree. When these numbers (23) are applied to the Ontario population, graduate members represent 472 out of the 23,579 pursuing graduate degrees.

Overall, these findings of the entire sample groups are significant as they represent 13,676 (or 58%) of police members in Ontario who are currently educated beyond a high school diploma.

Group 2: Those individuals who desire a university degree-diploma and are actively pursuing it.

The findings indicate that 296 (or 26%) of the sample group are in progress to pursue either a college diploma or university degree. These findings when compared to the Ontario population represent 6,131 police members out of the 23,579 that are pursuing higher education goals. Some respondents' comments are useful in identifying potential barriers that may exist that impede this group in pursuing higher education goals. For example,

> *"Not feasible to go to school when working our shifts/hours, with all of the other responsibilities i.e. family, (kids), court"*
>
> *"Unable to pursue higher education due to childcare obligations – small children need to be cared for by parents"*
>
> *"Full reimbursement for university/college courses – allow flexibility for attending these courses. There is little or no motivation for front line officers to take additional college/university courses, combined with the additional financial burden and taking time or holiday time off to attend courses"*

Group 3: Those individuals who desire a university degree/diploma but are not currently pursuing it

The findings for this sample group were difficult to determine due to the survey design. No specific question to elicit this particular response was developed. However, a question that may provide some answers is item 19 that ask respondents to select when they would like to take college-university courses. Two of the three responses elicited (i.e., while I am on educational leave; and when I am no longer working) may yield some

clues. Table 23 shows that 191 (or 17%) of respondents would like to take courses while on educational leave and a further 173 (or 15%) of respondents would like to take college or university courses when they are no longer working.

Overall, these findings suggest that 360 (or 32%) of the sample group are not active in pursuing higher education goals although they have an expressed interest. This Group 3 sample when compared to the population estimates represents 7,545 of the 23,579 of the approximate population sample serving in Ontario. Lack of supporting data made it difficult to identify the actual number of respondents in Group 3 who had no immediate plans to pursue education as these numbers appeared to be merged with respondents from Group 2- who were planning and in progress to pursue formal education.

Another attempt at identifying the number of respondents in Group 3 was accomplished using mathematical functions to try to differentiate between those respondents believed to be merged in Group 2- who plan to acquire a degree and are enrolled, from those in Group 3, who want to pursue higher education but have no plans to acquire. For example, by adding the number of respondents in our sample groups that are known and then applying the sample percentages to the sample population estimates, some comparisons were possible. For example, by adding Group 1, 13,676 respondents who already have a college/university degree, with Group 2 , 6,131 respondents who are in progress to complete their degrees, with Group 4, 2,829 respondents who are not taking or plan to take any college/university courses, one can account for 22, 636 members in Ontario. If one subtracts the combined total of Groups 1, 2 and 4 (i.e. 22, 636) from the Ontario approximate population size 23,579, the sum total adds up to 943

(or 4%) of potential respondents in Group 3 who wish to pursue higher education but are not doing so for undetermined reasons.

Group 4: Those Individuals with no desire and no plans to achieve a university Degree/diploma

The findings in Table 21 suggest that 137 (or 12%) of the sample group have never taken and do not plan to take any college or university courses. These numbers when applied to the sampled group suggest 2,829 officers out of the 23,579 who have no desire to pursue higher education goals.

The following comments by respondents can assist in understanding why this group does not seek educational attainment. For example,

> *"I would rather work with a partner that has had no education (but is street smart) than an educated ..."*

> *"There is too much emphasis placed on education on this service"*

> *"You can have all the education in the world but it doesn't mean you will be a good cop."*

> *"Experience doesn't come from college or university, it comes from the street. The day a degree takes over this job is the day all hell will break loose. This force (not service) was founded on good policing and a little luck. Why go to university, that's why there's no back bone on this job. Just puppets"*

> *"Education is a good thing but when it comes down to it I haven't had too many philosophical conversations with crack heads. I have found the old system still works the best contrary to new beliefs"*

To summarize then, the findings to our research question to determine the educational behaviour of justice professionals in Ontario are presented in Table 23 as follows:

3.1.6. Table 23: Educational Behaviour of Ontario Justice Professionals

Research Question	n=Sample	(X= %)	N-On	(X= % On)
1. Have a University degree	283	25%	23579	5895 (or 25%)
1a Have a College diploma	357	31%	23579	7309 (or 31%)
1c Graduate degrees	23	2%	23579	472 (or 2%)
2. Plan to acquire and are currently enrolled	296*	26%	23579	6131 (or 26%)
3. No plans to acquire-no known reason determined	46*	4%	23579	943 (or 4%)
4. No desire and No plans to take courses	137	12%	23579	2829 (or 12%)

Notes: (N-Ont) =Ontario police population;
(*) No 2-Plan to acquire includes degree and diploma students
(*) No 3- Estimated by adding the sum of all known variables and subtracting unknown

In the next chapter, inferential analyses to test the relationship between the reality and influence assessments identified in this study is conducted. These cluster factors were identified as: Financial, Goal congruence, Convenience, Social support, Job relevance and Institutional culture factors. These cluster of factors mentioned above when tested with other personal and professional characteristic factors (i.e., age, experience, marital status, rank...etc.) will help determine if any barriers (i.e., disablers) and motivator/influence (i.e., enablers) impact on police decisions to pursue higher education.

CHAPTER 4
BIVARIATE ANALYSIS

4.0. INTRODUCTION

Chapter four is divided into two sections: section one will detail the process of testing the association between characteristic and professional factors and the educational attainment of justice professionals. In the second section, tests were conducted to measure the reality and influence of six common clusters of factors described in this study as (i.e., financial, convenience, social support, institutional culture, goal congruence and job relevance) factors. The result from each test performed is discussed after each procedure. For a more detailed discussion of the results, an "interpretation of results" section was added at the end of the chapter allowing for a more in-depth analysis of the overall findings.

Part I of the questionnaire (see Appendix E), which had items 1-24 yielded important data to determine if professional and characteristic factors impacted (i.e. motivated or acted as barriers) police decisions to pursue higher education goals.

Part II of the questionnaire, which had items 26-62 was designed to answer questions relating to the reality and influences (i.e. enablers, disablers) of certain factors that impacted on police decisions to pursue higher education.

Item 63 of the questionnaire was reserved as an open discussion question which provided valuable insights into police thinking about higher education goals and policies. Item 25 of the questionnaire asking respondents to voluntarily disclose their place of employment was eliminated from any analysis.

85

The method of analysis used for testing relationships between two variables was the Chi-Square test of independence. For the purpose of analysis, one of two hypotheses the researcher develops must be considered true or not true. The data outputs from these tests were considered to be either the results of chance alone (i.e. the null hypothesis) or because a real relationship (i.e. the alternative hypothesis) existed between the two variables.

Data analysis performed in this study assumed that the null hypothesis was true unless chance was a very unlikely explanation for the observe relationship. To determine the degree of significance (i.e. the probability that the variables appear related by chance) between two variables, the significance level was set at (.05) which is common in the social sciences. What that means is there were only 5 in 100 chances that a finding considered statistically significant was caused by chance (Sweet, Grace-Martin, 2003, pp.88-89).

The presentation of findings was accomplished by providing answers to questions relating to the association between independent and dependent variables. These results were hypothesized by showing the output results for the Chi-square procedures in table format. As an example, the independent variables (e.g., age, marital status, number of dependents, etc.) were presented in table columns and were hypothesized to cause changes in the dependent variables (e.g. desire to pursue education, financial support, etc.) presented in the table rows, along with the corresponding percentages to assist with comparisons. A discussion of these results followed each procedure and was elaborated in more detail under the heading "interpretation of results" at the end of the chapter. Following in the next pages is an illustration of tests conducted in Tables 24-100.

4.1. CHARACTERISTIC & PROFESSIONAL FACTORS

The characteristic and professional factors were illustrated in Tables 24-34.

The hypotheses for these factors were stated as:

Alternate Hypothesis: The educational pursuit of higher education is dependent on the respondent characteristics within the various ranks of: age, sex, education level, experience, rank, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependents, shift work, secondary employment, organization support and future plans to remain in policing

Null Hypothesis: The educational pursuit of higher education is not dependent on the respondent characteristics within the various ranks of: age, sex, education level, experience, rank, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependents, shift work, secondary employment, organization support and future plans to remain in policing

Table 24: Ethnicity and education opportunities

		Ethnicity							
		White Caucasian	Black/Afro Canadian	Asian	South Asian	First Nations Aboriginal	Latin American	Other	Total
Does dept provide support for higher education	Yes	582	43	37	31	7	3	15	718
		63.5%	63.2%	66.1%	59.6%	53.8%	23.1%	48.4%	62.4%
	No	335	25	19	21	6	10	16	432
		36.5%	36.8%	33.9%	40.4%	46.2%	76.9%	51.6%	37.6%
Total		917	68	56	52	13	13	31	1150
		100%	100%	100.%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.531[a]	6	.051
Likelihood Ratio	12.214	6	.057
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.495	1	.011
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 2 cells (14.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.88.

The output at the bottom of Table 24 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at (X squared = 12.53) is marginally statistically significant at p = .051. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred that the "ethnicity" of respondents is related to perceived educational opportunities offered by organizations. However, it should be noted that the chi-square test does not determine direction of a relationship between two variables. In further examining the column and row counts, a negative relationship (i.e. perception) was identified with the following ethnic groups. Two groups, Latin American, 77% no support and Others, 52% no support, shared a negative perception of non support by their organizations. The remaining ethnic groups, White, 64% support, Black/Afro-Canadian, 63% support, Asian, 66% support, S/Asian, 60% support and First Nations, 56% no support instead perceived positive support by their organizations to pursue higher education goals. These results show a marginal relationship but nonetheless an important one for organizations.

Table 25: Gender and education

Does department offer opportunity for education Table 25

		Gender		Total
		male	female	
Does department offer opportunity for education	Yes	544	174	718
		63.5%	59.4%	62.4%
	No	313	119	432
		36.5%	40.6%	37.6%
Total		857	293	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Squ	1.559[b]	1	.212		
Continuity Corre	1.389	1	.239		
Likelihood Ratio	1.548	1	.213		
Fisher's Exact Te				.235	.119
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.557	1	.212		
N of Valid Cases	1150				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expe 07.

Bar Chart
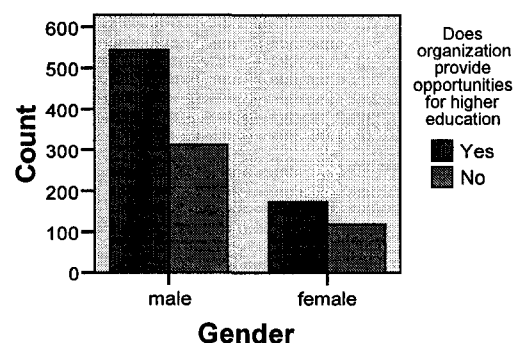
The output from (Table 25) shows the Chi-square

critical value at (X squared = .037) is not statistically significant at p = .212.

In failing to reject the null, it can be inferred that male and female respondents

did not consider gender was a barrier in whether organizations provided

educational opportunities. The column and row counts showed that male and

female respondents were fairly distributed (i.e. Males 64% felt supported vs.

34% no support; and Females 60% felt supported vs. 40% no support). In

review of these results, approximately two thirds of the male and female

groups felt supported compared to one third of both groups who did not.

Table 26: Opportunity for education and rank categories

Does organization provide opportunities for higher education * rank category: Table 26

		Rank category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Does organization provide opportunities for higher education	Yes	129	306	142	141	718
		55.4%	59.4%	72.1%	68.8%	62.4%
	No	104	209	55	64	432
		44.6%	40.6%	27.9%	31.2%	37.6%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.300[a]	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	18.611	3	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 74.00.

The output at the bottom of (Table 26) shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at (X squared = 18.300) is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 3. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents considered the position one occupies in the organization (i.e. rank) was a major factor in whether organizations provided educational opportunities. Further examination of the column and row counts revealed a pattern showing that lower ranks (i.e. civilians-55% yes vs. 45% no support and constables-59% yes vs. 41% no support) felt less supported than supervisors 69% yes and 31% no support and senior officers 72% yes and 28% no support. Overall these results show that civilians and constables believe education opportunities are not as available to them, while all others-i.e. supervisors and senior officers view education opportunities as being rather accessible. This has implication on how police organizations communicate policies with members across all ranks.

Table 27: Seek new employment with educational attainment

Would higher education prompt new employment? Rank category: Table 27

		Rank category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Would higher education prompt new Employment	Yes	76	94	26	26	222
		32.6%	18.3%	13.2%	12.7%	19.3%
	No	154	409	165	171	899
		66.1%	79.4%	83.8%	83.4%	78.2%
	Other	3	12	6	8	29
		1.3%	2.3%	3.0%	3.9%	2.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39.354[a]	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	37.064	6	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.97.

The output at the bottom of Table 27 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 39.354 is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 6. In rejecting the null hypothesis, we can statistically infer that the rank of respondents and educational attainment is linked to seeking new employment. In fact, combined row and column totals show 78% of respondents would not seek new employment compared to 19% who would seek new employment. A further 3% of respondents indicated "other". However, civilians are more likely to leave (33%) compared to the non-civilian positions.

Table 28: Marital status and education

Plan to complete university degree * Marital status category: Table 28

		Marital Status					
		Single	Common law or Married	Separated	Divorced	Significant other or deceased	Total
Plan to complete to university degree	I already have one	102	204	4	7	1	318
		32.3%	26.8%	15.4%	16.3%	25.0%	27.7%
	Yes, I plan to complete a university degree	79	160	7	7	0	253
		25.0%	21.0%	26.9%	16.3%	.0%	22.0%
	No, I do not plan to complete a university degree	117	338	13	27	3	498
		37.0%	44.4%	50.0%	62.8%	75.0%	43.3%
	In progress to complete	18	59	2	2	0	81
		5.7%	7.8%	7.7%	4.7%	.0%	7.0%
Total		316	761	26	43	4	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.573[a]	12	.076
Likelihood Ratio	20.821	12	.053
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.417	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 6 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .28.

The output at the bottom of Table 28 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 19.573 <u>is not statistically significant</u> at p = .07. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 12. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be inferred marital status <u>does not impact or act as a barrier</u> on decisions to pursue higher education. These results were also compared with other tests (i.e. see Table 29) to see if the number of dependents could pose a barrier to respondents in pursuing higher education goals.

Table 29: Number of dependents and education

Plan to complete a University degree * Number of Dependents category: Table 29

		Number of Dependents				
		No Dependents	1-2	3-4	More than 5	Total
Plan to complete a University degree	I already have one	158	107	49	3	318
		32.1%	24.6%	24.1%	16.7%	27.7%
	Yes, I plan to complete a university degree in the future	112	89	50	2	253
		22.8%	20.5%	24.6%	11.1%	22.0%
	No, I do not plan to complete a university degree	195	199	90	13	498
		39.6%	45.7%	44.3%	72.2%	43.3%
	In progress to complete	27	40	14	0	81
		5.5%	9.2%	6.9%	.0%	7.0%
Total		492	435	203	18	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21.353[a]	12	.045
Likelihood Ratio	22.720	12	.030
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.720	1	.005
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 7 cells (35.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

The output at the bottom of Table 29 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 21.353 is statistically significant at p = .045. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 12. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred there is a relationship between the number of dependents respondents have and educational attainment. These results indicate the number of dependents do pose a major barrier to respondents in their decisions to pursue higher education goals. In further examining the row and column counts, the percentage of respondents who indicate will not pursue a university degree range from 40% of those who have no dependents, to 72% of those who have more than 5 dependents.

Table 30: Plan to remain in current job until retirement

Plan to remain in job until retirement * Rank category: Table 30

		Rank category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Totals
Plan to remain in job until retirement	Yes	203	494	193	194	1084
		87.1%	95.9%	98.0%	94.6%	94.3%
	No	30	21	4	11	66
		12.9%	4.1%	2.0%	5.4%	5.7%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Squa	29.624[a]	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	26.063	3	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. T minimum expected count is 11.31.

The output at the bottom of Table 30 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 29.624 <u>is statistically significant</u> at p = .000. The degrees of freedom for the chi-square are 3. In successfully rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred <u>that rank does not impact on decisions</u> to remain in their jobs until retirement. Overall, across all categories of rank, 94% of respondents plan to remain in their jobs compared to only 6% who are planning not to. These results are similar to findings in Table 27 where respondents indicated they were not seeking new employment as a result of educational attainment. However, again civilians' report that they are less likely to remain in the position through retirement (13%) compared to the non-civilian positions.

Table 31: Schedule of when to take college-university studies and rank

When I would like to take college and or university courses * Rank category: Table 31

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Would like to take college and or university courses	On a part-time basis while working full-time	135	363	150	132	780
		57.9%	70.5%	76.1%	64.4%	67.8%
	While on an educational leave of absence from work	47	86	30	34	197
		20.2%	16.7%	15.2%	16.6%	17.1%
	When I am no longer working	51	66	17	39	173
		21.9%	12.8%	8.6%	19.0%	15.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.529[a]	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	24.582	6	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.64.

The output at the bottom of Table 31 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 24.529 is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 6. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred that respondents found pursuing formal education studies while working fulltime was a major factor-facilitator in their decisions to pursue higher education goals. A further examination of the column and row counts indicated respondents across all ranks, civilians-135 or 58%, constables 363 or 71%, supervisors 132 or 64%, and senior officers 150 or 76%, strongly preferred pursuing higher education goals while working full-time on a part-time basis. The suggested policy implication for organizations is to explore new ways to assist members. For example, flexible work hours and shift work, partial time off or partial days off.

Table 32: Is education standards for police changing?

Do you feel education credentials needed for police is changing * Rank category: Table 32

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Do you feel education credentials needed by police is changing	Yes	181	390	169	164	904
		77.7%	75.7%	85.8%	80.0%	78.6%
	No	52	125	28	41	246
		22.3%	24.3%	14.2%	20.0%	21.4%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.933[a]	3	.030
Likelihood Ratio	9.463	3	.024
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 42.14.

The output at the bottom of Table 32 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 8.933 is statistically significant at p = .03. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 3. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within their groups (i.e. ranks) believe credentials needed for policing are changing was a major factor. These results support previous findings in Table 17 showing that 62% respondents across all rank categories indicated the current educational standards for policing are too low and require something more than a high school diploma to enter the profession.

Table 33: Minimum education level for new members

What should minimum education level for entry be in policing * Rank category: Table 33

		Rank Category				Total
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	
What should minimum education level for entry be in policing?	High School Diploma	95	171	79	89	434
		40.8%	33.2%	40.1%	43.4%	37.7%
	Certificate from a College/University	50	115	26	43	234
		21.5%	22.3%	13.2%	21.0%	20.3%
	Some College	17	25	12	4	58
		7.3%	4.9%	6.1%	2.0%	5.0%
	College diploma	58	159	63	47	327
		24.9%	30.9%	32.0%	22.9%	28.4%
	Some University	2	9	5	8	24
		.9%	1.7%	2.5%	3.9%	2.1%
	University degree	9	31	10	9	59
		3.9%	6.0%	5.1%	4.4%	5.1%
	Other	2	5	2	5	14
		.9%	1.0%	1.0%	2.4%	1.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33.626[a]	18	.014
Likelihood Ratio	34.680	18	.010
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 6 cells (21.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.40.

The output at the bottom of Table 33 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 33.626 is statistically significant at p = .014. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is (18). In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within their groups (i.e. ranks) believe raising education levels for entry into policing was a significant factor. Further examining the column and row counts shows respondents by a margin of 716 or 60% favor higher education levels for new members compared to 434 or 38%% who claim that a high school diploma was a sufficient standard to enter policing.

Table 34: Minimum education level for supervisors and managers

Education level for supervisor and managers* Rank Category: Table 34

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Education level of supervisors and managers	College Diploma	55	134	50	36	275
		23.6%	26.0%	25.4%	17.6%	23.9%
	Degree or Higher	54	115	56	39	264
		23.2%	22.3%	28.4%	19.0%	23.0%
	High School Diploma	52	128	38	54	272
		22.3%	24.9%	19.3%	26.3%	23.7%
	Some College or University	72	138	53	76	339
		30.9%	26.8%	26.9%	37.1%	29.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17.216[a]	9	.045
Likelihood Ratio	17.273	9	.045
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 45.22.

The output at the bottom of Table 34 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 17.216 is statistically significant at p = .045. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within their groups (i.e. ranks) believe the level of education and rank groups was a major factor. Further examination of the column and row counts showed respondents believe higher education credentials are desired for those occupying supervisory and management positions in justice organizations. For example, across all rank categories, 275 or 24% of respondents believed a high school diploma was sufficient for supervisors and managers compared to 875 or 76% who believed supervisors and managers should have some higher level of education such as a college diploma or university degree.

4.2. REALITY AND INFLUENCE ASSESSMENTS

An important goal of this study was to use data suitable for empirical analyses. The data collected from Part II of the questionnaire (i.e. factor items 26-62) were used to identify trends and tested associations between the different <u>reality and influence factors</u> providing important information to explain the educational behaviour, motivations, barriers and influence factors perceived by the adult justice learner.

As described in the beginning of this chapter, the data collected was to attempt to empirically measure motivational theories that can explain for example why police make decisions to attend universities or are impeded from enrolling in universities.

In chapter three of this report, we learned that motivational studies conducted by Houle, (1961), Boshier, (1971), Pollok, (1979) identified motivational factors grouped into clusters that could explain adult educational attainment and behaviour. These six common clusters were identified as financial, convenience, social support, institutional culture, goal congruence and job relevance (See original study by Chronister, J.L, Ganseder, B.M., LeDoux, J.C. and Tully, E.J. 1982).

As an example, one cluster called "social factors" was examined to determine adult motivation for attending universities and whether it could be a result of a desire to meet new people and or having one's views valued. In another example "financial factors" was examined, to determine whether tuition costs or incentive pay offered by organizations affects participation rates. And in yet another example, "convenience factors" was examined, to determine whether courses offered at a convenient time and location affected participation in education. These various tests, findings and discussions are illustrated in Tables 35-100 of this chapter.

4.3. FINANCIAL CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The hypotheses for tests conducted on the <u>Financial Cluster</u> of variables were illustrated in Tables 35-47 and stated as:

Alternate Hypothesis: there is a significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "financial support factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Null Hypothesis: there is no significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "financial support factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Table 35: Reality of employer assistance

Employer assistance is available * Rank Category: Table 35

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Supervisor	Senior Officers	Total
Employer assistance is available	Strongly agree	21	73	67	37	198
		9.0%	14.2%	32.7%	18.8%	17.2%
	Agree	87	229	79	103	498
		37.3%	44.5%	38.5%	52.3%	43.3%
	Disagree	89	164	41	43	337
		38.2%	31.8%	20.0%	21.8%	29.3%
	Strongly disagree	36	49	18	14	117
		15.5%	9.5%	8.8%	7.1%	10.2%
Total		233	515	205	197	1150
		100.0%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2 sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.451(a)	12	.018
Likelihood Ratio	24.006	12	.020
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a 2 cells (10.0%) have expected count less than 5.
The minimum expected count is 2.34.

The output at the bottom of Table 35 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value

at X squared = 24.451 is statistically significant at p = .018. The degree of freedom for

the chi-square is 12. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred that

rank is a major factor in the group assessment of whether employer assistance is

available. Further examination of the column and row counts showed civilian respondents

108 yes vs. 125 not available and constables 302 yes vs.213 not available, were less

likely to believe employer assistance was available to them; while supervisors 146 yes vs.

59 not available, and senior officers 148 yes vs. 57 not available, believed employer

assistance was available.

Table 36: Influence of employer assistance

Employer assistance available-Influence * Rank category: Table 36

		Rank Category				Total
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	
Employer assistance available-influence	Major influence	52	126	55	62	295
		22.3%	24.5%	27.9%	30.2%	25.7%
	Moderate influence	44	110	39	34	227
		18.9%	21.4%	19.8%	16.6%	19.7%
	Slight influence	89	172	59	62	382
		38.2%	33.4%	29.9%	30.2%	33.2%
	Not a factor	48	107	44	47	246
		20.6%	20.8%	22.3%	22.9%	21.4%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.567[a]	9	.478
Likelihood Ratio	8.511	9	.484
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 38.89.

The output at the bottom of Table 36 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 8.567 is not statistically significant at p = .478. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents did not consider employer assistance to be a major influence in preventing them from pursuing higher education across the various ranks. These results although surprising on the surface, could be reflecting the reality that most Ontario police services offer full or partial reimbursement to employees seeking higher education and therefore is not considered a major barrier or influence by respondents.

Table 37: Reality of government assistance

Reality of no government financial aid * Rank category; Table 37

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of no government financial aid	Strongly agree	81	194	65	109	449
		34.8%	37.7%	33.0%	53.2%	39.0%
	Agree	79	207	70	71	427
		33.9%	40.2%	35.5%	34.6%	37.1%
	Disagree	57	91	49	17	214
		24.5%	17.7%	24.9%	8.3%	18.6%
	Strongly disagree	16	23	13	8	60
		6.9%	4.5%	6.6%	3.9%	5.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39.687[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	40.988	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.28.

The output at the bottom of Table 37 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 39.687 <u>is statistically significant</u> at p = .000. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across the various ranks assessed the reality of "no government financial aid" <u>was a major barrier</u> in their decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 38: Influence of no government financial aid

Influence of no Government financial aid * Rank Category : Table 38

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of no government financial aid	Major	57	111	37	39	244
		24.5%	21.6%	18.8%	19.0%	21.2%
	Moderate	84	158	55	50	347
		36.1%	30.7%	27.9%	24.4%	30.2%
	Slight	39	94	37	33	203
		16.7%	18.3%	18.8%	16.1%	17.7%
	Not a factor	53	152	68	83	356
		22.7%	29.5%	34.5%	40.5%	31.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.396[a]	9	.016
Likelihood Ratio	20.357	9	.016
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 34.77.

The output at the bottom of Table 38 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 20.396 is statistically significant at p = .016. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred that respondents within all ranks considered the lack of government financial aid was a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education.

In examining the column and row counts, 77% civilians and 70% constables indicated they were more impacted by the lack of government aid compared to 49% of supervisors and 65% of senior officers. These results suggest respondents within the various ranks are looking toward government to provide financial aid to assist them achieve education goals.

Table 39: Reality of personal finances

Reality of personal finances available for education * Rank Category: Table 39

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of finances available for education	Strongly Agree	35	77	42	57	211
		15.0%	15.0%	21.3%	27.8%	18.3%
	Agree	97	241	104	95	537
		41.6%	46.8%	52.8%	46.3%	46.7%
	Disagree	68	150	36	35	289
		29.2%	29.1%	18.3%	17.1%	25.1%
	Strongly Disagree	33	47	15	18	113
		14.2%	9.1%	7.6%	8.8%	9.8%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.141[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	37.405	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.36.

The output at the bottom of Table 39 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 38.141 is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered the reality of personal financial resources available for education was a major barrier in their decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 40: Influence of personal finances

Influence of personal finances to pursue education * Rank Category: Table 40

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of Finances to Pursue Education	Major	86	166	63	67	382
		36.9%	32.2%	32.0%	32.7%	33.2%
	Moderate	76	197	87	72	432
		32.6%	38.3%	44.2%	35.1%	37.6%
	Slight	40	86	26	32	184
		17.2%	16.7%	13.2%	15.6%	16.0%
	Not a factor	31	66	21	34	152
		13.3%	12.8%	10.7%	16.6%	13.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.547a	9	.388
Likelihood Ratio	9.464	9	.396
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26.04.

The output at the bottom of Table 40 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 9.547 is not statistically significant at p = .388. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks did not consider their personal financial resources was a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. These results may be reflecting the reality that in Ontario justice professionals do receive full or partial reimbursements to pursue educational attainment from their organizations. However, the fact that many respondents in Ontario need to front load the costs of education until they have successfully completed courses prior to being reimbursed, could explain why in Tables 37, 38, and 39 they are looking toward government for financial aid and also consider the reality of personally paying for education up front to be a major barrier to their educational attainment.

Table 41: Reality of high cost and education

Reality of high costs to pursue education * Rank Category: Table 41

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of high costs high to pursue education	Strongly Agree	128	211	80	63	482
		54.9%	41.0%	40.6%	30.7%	41.9%
	Agree	77	217	85	96	475
		33.0%	42.1%	43.1%	46.8%	41.3%
	Disagree	23	74	30	43	170
		9.9%	14.4%	15.2%	21.0%	14.8%
	Strongly Disagree	5	13	2	3	23
		2.1%	2.5%	1.0%	1.5%	2.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	32.530[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	32.613	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 3 cells (18.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.94.

The output at the bottom of Table 41 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 32.503 is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all ranks considered the high costs of education was a major factor (i.e., barrier) in decisions to pursue formal education. These findings are similar to those found in (Tables 37-39) that show the cost of education is a key factor in police decisions to pursue higher education goals. A potential policy implication for police organizations to consider is how their members are being assisted financially. Currently, course reimbursements occur only when members have shown proof of successfully completing their courses. This policy has the affect of front loading all the financial costs to members.

Table 42: Influence of high costs and education

Influence of high costs to pursue education * Rank Category: Table 42

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of high costs to pursue education	Major	103	176	71	56	406
		44.2%	34.2%	36.0%	27.3%	35.3%
	Moderate	70	194	83	79	426
		30.0%	37.7%	42.1%	38.5%	37.0%
	Slight	29	83	20	37	169
		12.4%	16.1%	10.2%	18.0%	14.7%
	Not a factor	31	62	23	33	149
		13.3%	12.0%	11.7%	16.1%	13.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Sq	21.800[a]	9	.010
Likelihood Ratio	22.040	9	.009
N of Valid Case	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less th minimum expected count is 25.52.

Bar Chart
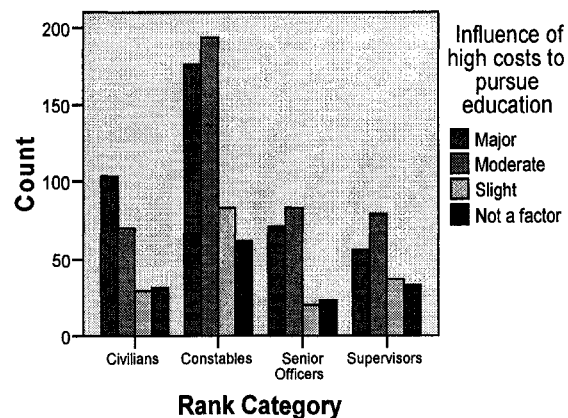
The output at the bottom of Table 42 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 21.800 is statistically significant at p = .01. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all ranks considered the high cost of college-university education was a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. Further examination of the column and row counts, showed that civilians 86% were more influenced by the high costs of pursuing higher education when compared to constables 79%, supervisors 78% and senior officers at 78%.

Table 43: Reality of receiving incentive pay

Receive incentive pay to attend college/university * Rank Category: Table 43

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Receive incentive pay to attend college or university	Yes	31	89	30	35	185
		13.3%	17.3%	15.2%	17.1%	16.1%
	No	112	234	55	123	524
		48.1%	45.4%	27.9%	60.0%	45.6%
	Don't know	79	145	90	12	326
		33.9%	28.2%	45.7%	5.9%	28.3%
	Other	11	47	22	35	115
		4.7%	9.1%	11.2%	17.1%	10.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	102.389a	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	117.877	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.70.

The output at the bottom of Table 43 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 102.389 is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred that rank is strongly related (i.e., inverse relationship) to who receives incentive pay. A further examination of the column and row counts shows a negative direction. For example, over 80% of respondents answered "no" or "did not know" if their organizations offered incentive pay for pursuing higher education. A more noticeable pattern is found by viewing the bar chart in Figure 2 presented below.

In looking at these findings, the group average for not knowing whether their organization has educational incentive policies was 28%. More interesting to note is 46% of Senior officers surprisingly responded "don't know" when asked if their organization provided educational incentive pay. Since senior officers occupy management positions in their organizations, an obvious question raised by these findings is how can regular

employees make informed decisions on whether to participate in formal education if they don't know if any assistance is available to them?

A policy implication from these findings suggests organizations should conduct a review of their policies relating to educational incentive pay and to clearly communicate those policies to members throughout their organizations.

Figure 2:

Bar Chart
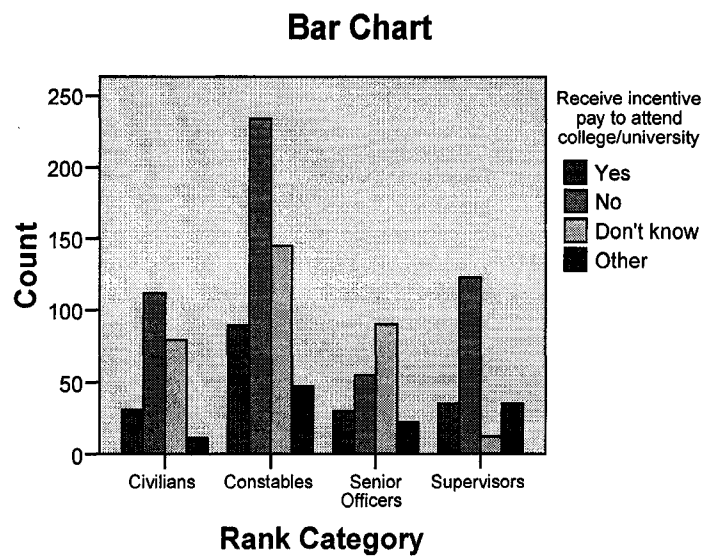
Table 44: Reality of promotion and education

Reality of higher education needed for promotion * Rank category: Table 44

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of higher education needed for promotion	Strongly agree	44	86	46	33	209
		18.9%	16.7%	23.4%	16.1%	18.2%
	Agree	104	222	92	88	506
		44.6%	43.1%	46.7%	42.9%	44.0%
	Disagree	66	164	49	68	347
		28.3%	31.8%	24.9%	33.2%	30.2%
	Strongly disagree	19	43	10	16	88
		8.2%	8.3%	5.1%	7.8%	7.7%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.870[a]	9	.361
Likelihood Ratio	9.976	9	.352
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.07.

The output at the bottom of Table 44 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 9.870 is not statistically significant at p = .361. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across the various ranks did not consider higher education significantly related to promotion (i.e. barrier). However further examination of the column and row counts shows all ranks by a count of 715 or 62% agree education is an important consideration for promotion compared to 435 or 38% of those who do not believe promotion is an important consideration. These findings may be reflecting the reality for most respondents that formal education is currently not linked to any formal promotion policies in any known Ontario police services.

Table 45: Influence of promotion and education

Influence of higher education on promotion * Rank Category: Table 45

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of higher education on promotion	Major	45	92	64	44	245
		19.3%	17.9%	32.5%	21.5%	21.3%
	Moderate	100	229	76	81	486
		42.9%	44.5%	38.6%	39.5%	42.3%
	Slight	44	105	31	31	211
		18.9%	20.4%	15.7%	15.1%	18.3%
	Not a factor	44	89	26	49	208
		18.9%	17.3%	13.2%	23.9%	18.1%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.280[a]	9	.002
Likelihood Ratio	24.852	9	.003
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 35.63.

The output at the bottom of Table 45 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 26.280 is statistically significant at p = .02. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within all rank groups were significantly influenced in pursuing formal education for promotional consideration. Similar to findings in Table 45, an examination of the column and row counts shows all ranks by a count of 731 or 66% were influenced in their decisions to pursue higher education for promotional considerations compared to 435 or 34% of those who were not influenced by linking education to promotional considerations.

Table 46: Reality of job security and education

Reality of college/univeristy education enhances job security * Rank Category: Table 46

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of education enhances job security	Strongly Agree	43	50	38	8	139
		18.5%	9.7%	19.3%	3.9%	12.1%
	Agree	50	114	54	23	241
		21.5%	22.1%	27.4%	11.2%	21.0%
	Disagree	93	240	75	98	506
		39.9%	46.6%	38.1%	47.8%	44.0%
	Strongly Disagree	47	111	30	76	264
		20.2%	21.6%	15.2%	37.1%	23.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	71.678[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	73.097	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.81.

The output at the bottom of Table 46 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 71.678 is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred by an inverse relationship that respondents within the various ranks do not consider educational attainment ensures job security. Further examining the column and row counts totals, all groups within the various ranks indicated 770 or 67% disagree education is linked to job security compared to 380 or 33% who believe formal education is linked to job security. These results reflect the previous findings in the characteristic and professional tests which showed that 88% of respondents within all ranks intend to stay with the same employer despite pursuing formal education goals. Within this context formal education does not represent a major barrier or influence in decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 47: Influence of job security and education

Influence of college/university education enhances job security * Rank Category: Table 47

		Rank Category				Total
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	
Influence of education enhances job security	Major	35	58	33	8	134
		15.0%	11.3%	16.8%	3.9%	11.7%
	Moderate	69	134	53	32	288
		29.6%	26.0%	26.9%	15.6%	25.0%
	Slight	52	112	39	36	239
		22.3%	21.7%	19.8%	17.6%	20.8%
	Not a factor	77	211	72	129	489
		33.0%	41.0%	36.5%	62.9%	42.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	55.543[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	57.489	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22.95.

The output at the bottom of Table 47 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 55.543 is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred there is an inverse relationship in which respondents within the various ranks did not consider pursuing formal would enhance job security. See Table 46 for similar results and explanations.

4.4. CONVENIENCE CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The hypotheses for tests conducted on the Convenience factors were illustrated in Tables 48-59 and were stated as:

Alternate Hypothesis: there is a significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within all ranks relating to the influence of "convenience factors" on their decisions to pursue higher education.

Null Hypothesis: there is no significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within all ranks relating to the influence of "convenience factors" on their decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 48: Reality of convenient time of studies and education

Reality of college-university studies offered at a convenient time * Rank Category: Table 48

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of college and or university courses offered at a convenient time	Strongly Agree	31	36	16	14	97
		13.3%	7.0%	8.1%	6.8%	8.4%
	Agree	86	179	90	100	455
		36.9%	34.8%	45.7%	48.8%	39.6%
	Disagree	89	220	75	72	456
		38.2%	42.7%	38.1%	35.1%	39.7%
	Strongly Disagree	27	80	16	19	142
		11.6%	15.5%	8.1%	9.3%	12.3%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.461[a]	9	.001
Likelihood Ratio	28.581	9	.001
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.62.

The output at the bottom of Table 48 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 29.461 is statistically significant at p = .001. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis it can be statistically inferred by an inverse relationship that respondents across all ranks consider the time course studies are offered at universities impact their decisions to pursue higher education. In further examining the column and row counts, approximately 48% of all respondents considered the time universities offered courses was a major factor-barrier, compared to 52% of all respondents who did not consider the times universities offered courses to be a major barrier. Another interesting pattern in the findings is evident among the ranks. For example, the major barrier relating to the when courses are offered impacts civilians 51% and constables 57% more, compared to senior officers 46% and supervisors 44%.

Table 49: Influence of convenient time of studies and education

Influence of college-university studies offered at a convenient time * Rank Category: Table 49

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of college and or university studies offered at a convenient time	Major	55	146	43	53	297
		23.6%	28.3%	21.8%	25.9%	25.8%
	Moderate	86	196	87	87	456
		36.9%	38.1%	44.2%	42.4%	39.7%
	Slight	45	104	46	42	237
		19.3%	20.2%	23.4%	20.5%	20.6%
	Not a factor	47	69	21	23	160
		20.2%	13.4%	10.7%	11.2%	13.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.297[a]	9	.083
Likelihood Ratio	14.685	9	.100
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.41.

The output at the bottom of Table 49 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 15.297 is not statistically significant at p = .083. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all ranks did not consider the time when university offered courses to be a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. However in examining the column and row counts, 990 or 87% of all respondents agreed times when courses were offered at universities was an important influence compared to 160 or 13% who did not.

Table 50: Reality of location of studies and education

Reality of college-university studies offered at a convenient location * Rank Category: Table 50

| | | Rank Category | | | | |
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of college and or university studies offered at a convenient location	Strongly agree	36	53	28	28	145
		15.5%	10.3%	14.2%	13.7%	12.6%
	Agree	121	258	115	103	597
		51.9%	50.1%	58.4%	50.2%	51.9%
	Disagree	59	147	43	61	310
		25.3%	28.5%	21.8%	29.8%	27.0%
	Strongly disagree	17	57	11	13	98
		7.3%	11.1%	5.6%	6.3%	8.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.988[a]	9	.049
Likelihood Ratio	17.141	9	.047
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.79.

The output at the bottom of Table 50 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 16.988 is statistically significant at p = .04. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all rank categories considered the location of where the universities courses were offered a major consideration or barrier in their decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 51: Influence of location of studies and education

luence of college-university studies offered at convenient location * Rank Category: Table

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of College and or university studies offered at a convenient location	Major	50	127	42	62	281
		21.5%	24.7%	21.3%	30.2%	24.4%
	Moderate	98	208	95	74	475
		42.1%	40.4%	48.2%	36.1%	41.3%
	Slight	43	103	37	36	219
		18.5%	20.0%	18.8%	17.6%	19.0%
	Not a factor	42	77	23	33	175
		18.0%	15.0%	11.7%	16.1%	15.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.728[a]	9	.229
Likelihood Ratio	11.618	9	.236
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.98.

The output at the bottom of Table 51 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 11.798 is not statistically significant at p = .229. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within all rank groups did not consider the location of where university courses are offered a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. The findings in Tables 50 and 51 are interesting in that seem to contradict each other. For example, Table 50 showed the location of where university studies were offered was a major barrier in their decisions to pursue higher education but not necessarily a major factor influence. The results in Table 51 could be indicating that the barrier did not hamper their motivation to pursue higher education.

Table 52: Reality of education requires too much time

Realtiy of college-university studies taking too much personal time * Rank Category: Table 52

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Realtiy of College and or university studies taking too much personal time	Strongly Agree	51	118	31	40	240
		21.9%	22.9%	15.7%	19.5%	20.9%
	Agree	102	261	99	110	572
		43.8%	50.7%	50.3%	53.7%	49.7%
	Disagree	69	122	58	54	303
		29.6%	23.7%	29.4%	26.3%	26.3%
	Strongly Disagree	11	14	9	1	35
		4.7%	2.7%	4.6%	.5%	3.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17.493[a]	9	.042
Likelihood Ratio	19.645	9	.020
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.00.

The output at the bottom of Table 52 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 17.493 is statistically significant at p = .042. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all ranks considered the amount of personal time needed to pursue higher education was a major barrier in their decision to get involved. These findings could be reflecting the nature of police work as one in which members are required to spend most days off attending court proceedings and preparing court cases. Whatever time is left, justice professionals prefer to spend it with family. Comments made by respondents at the end of this chapter illustrate these opinions.

Table 53: Influence of education requires too much time

luence of college-university studies occupying too much personal time * Rank Category: Table

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of college and or university studies occupying too much personal time	Major	57	173	47	65	342
		24.5%	33.6%	23.9%	31.7%	29.7%
	Moderate	89	195	81	83	448
		38.2%	37.9%	41.1%	40.5%	39.0%
	Slight	43	97	46	36	222
		18.5%	18.8%	23.4%	17.6%	19.3%
	Not a factor	44	50	23	21	138
		18.9%	9.7%	11.7%	10.2%	12.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.000[a]	9	.009
Likelihood Ratio	20.907	9	.013
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.64.

Similar to the findings and explanations found in Table 52, the output at the bottom of Table 53 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 22.000 is statistically significant at p = .009. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all rank categories were influenced in their decisions to pursue higher education when considering the amount of personal time required and the constraints placed on them by the nature of police work.

Table 54: Reality of shift work and education

Reality of shift work interfering with education studies * Rank Category: Table 54

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of shift work interfering with education studies	Strongly Agree	96	290	85	87	558
		41.2%	56.3%	43.1%	42.4%	48.5%
	Agree	76	174	86	83	419
		32.6%	33.8%	43.7%	40.5%	36.4%
	Disagree	40	40	21	29	130
		17.2%	7.8%	10.7%	14.1%	11.3%
	Strongly Disagree	21	11	5	6	43
		9.0%	2.1%	2.5%	2.9%	3.7%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	53.730[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	48.970	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.37.

The output at the bottom of Table 54 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 53.703 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents in all rank groups considered shift work was a major barrier to them pursuing higher education goals. These results are not surprising considering the demographic of the sample group. In Table 15 the results showed that 60% of respondents worked shifts (i.e. days, afternoon and midnights). These findings raise some policy implications for justice organizations in accommodating members and to educational institutions to provide flexible methods of delivering courses that can help reduce or remove some barriers relating to work schedules.

Table 55: Influence of shift work and education

Influence of shift work interfering with education studies * Rank Category: Table 55

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of shift work interfering with education studies	Major	82	238	74	71	465
		35.2%	46.2%	37.6%	34.6%	40.4%
	Moderate	56	170	66	73	365
		24.0%	33.0%	33.5%	35.6%	31.7%
	Slight	29	66	33	34	162
		12.4%	12.8%	16.8%	16.6%	14.1%
	Not a factor	66	41	24	27	158
		28.3%	8.0%	12.2%	13.2%	13.7%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	65.657[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	59.642	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.07.

The output at the bottom of Table 55 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 65.657 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. Similar to findings in previous tests found in Table 54, in rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all rank categories considered shift work to be a major consideration and influence on their decisions to pursue higher education goals.

Table 56: Reality of programs desired is available

Reality of college-university programs I desire are available * Rank Category: Table 56

		Rank Category				Total
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	
Reality of preferred college and or university courses desired are available	Strongly Agree	35	71	37	44	187
		15.0%	13.8%	18.8%	21.5%	16.3%
	Agree	130	321	128	130	709
		55.8%	62.3%	65.0%	63.4%	61.7%
	Disagree	55	105	28	29	217
		23.6%	20.4%	14.2%	14.1%	18.9%
	Strongly Disagree	13	18	4	2	37
		5.6%	3.5%	2.0%	1.0%	3.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.447[a]	9	.004
Likelihood Ratio	25.077	9	.003
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.34.

The output at the bottom of Table 56 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 24.447 is statistically significant at p = .04. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all rank categories found university programs they desired were available and therefore was a major consideration in their decisions to pursue higher education. In response to item 16 question of the survey, respondents within the various rank emphasized, course curriculums in criminal justice, 46%, liberal arts and science courses 33%, business courses 14%, and other type courses 7%. Findings from Table 56 show respondents appear satisfied with the variety of programs offered by educational institutions.

Table 57: Influence of college-university programs desired is available

Influence of college-university courses desired are available * Rank Category: Table 57

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of preferred college and or university courses desired are available	Major	46	100	49	40	235
		19.7%	19.4%	24.9%	19.5%	20.4%
	Moderate	102	239	95	104	540
		43.8%	46.4%	48.2%	50.7%	47.0%
	Slight	37	101	34	32	204
		15.9%	19.6%	17.3%	15.6%	17.7%
	Not a factor	48	75	19	29	171
		20.6%	14.6%	9.6%	14.1%	14.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.414[a]	9	.108
Likelihood Ratio	14.260	9	.113
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.29.

The output at the bottom of Table 57 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 14.414 is not statistically significant at p = .108. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across all rank groups did not consider university programs offered at educational institutions were a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. See findings and explanations found in Table 56 findings.

Table 58: Reality of college-university courses include distance education

Reality of college-university courses offered include online studies * Rank Category: Table 58

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of college and or university courses offered include online studies	Strongly Agree	32	50	29	42	153
		13.7%	9.7%	14.7%	20.5%	13.3%
	Agree	111	291	105	118	625
		47.6%	56.5%	53.3%	57.6%	54.3%
	Disagree	75	152	55	41	323
		32.2%	29.5%	27.9%	20.0%	28.1%
	Strongly Disagree	15	22	8	4	49
		6.4%	4.3%	4.1%	2.0%	4.3%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.806[a]	9	.001
Likelihood Ratio	28.023	9	.001
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.39.

The output at the bottom of Table 58 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 27.806 is statistically significant at p = .001. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered the availability of distance education offered by universities was a major factor in their decisions to pursue higher education. Consistent with other findings found in Tables 48 and Table 57 barriers to justice professionals appear to be time constraints, shift work and the amount of personal time commitments required to pursue higher education goals. In seeking distance education respondents see this as a pathway for them to participate in higher education.

Table 59: Influence of college-university courses include distance education

ifluence of college-university courses offered online are available * Rank Category: Table 5!

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of college and or university courses offered online are available	Major	44	95	41	47	227
		18.9%	18.4%	20.8%	22.9%	19.7%
	Moderate	81	218	90	82	471
		34.8%	42.3%	45.7%	40.0%	41.0%
	Slight	49	131	37	46	263
		21.0%	25.4%	18.8%	22.4%	22.9%
	Not a factor	59	71	29	30	189
		25.3%	13.8%	14.7%	14.6%	16.4%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.669[a]	9	.007
Likelihood Ratio	21.309	9	.011
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 32.38.

The output at the bottom of Table 59 shows the Pearson chi-square critical

value at X squared = 22.669 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of

freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically

inferred respondents within the various ranks considered the availability of distance

education offered by universities was a major influence in their decisions to pursue

higher education. See Table 58 for similar findings and explanations.

4.5. SOCIAL SUPPORT CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The hypotheses for tests conducted on the social support factors were illustrated in (Tables 60-67) and stated as:

Our research hypothesis for the Social support factors will state:

Alternate Hypothesis: there is a significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "social support factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Null Hypothesis: there is no significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "social support factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Table 60: Reality of co-worker support and education

Reality of support from co-workers for higher education * Rank Category: Table 60

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of support from co-workers for higher education	Strongly Agree	31	34	30	20	115
		13.3%	6.6%	15.2%	9.8%	10.0%
	Agree	96	209	103	78	486
		41.2%	40.6%	52.3%	38.0%	42.3%
	Disagree	73	209	52	87	421
		31.3%	40.6%	26.4%	42.4%	36.6%
	Strongly Disagree	33	63	12	20	128
		14.2%	12.2%	6.1%	9.8%	11.1%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.678[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	39.476	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.70.

The output at the bottom of Table 60 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 38.678 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred by respondents within all ranks that support from co-workers was a major barrier to decisions to pursue higher education. However, further examination of the column and row counts showed two groups: civilians 55% and senior officers 68% responded they felt supported by co-workers in pursuing higher education goals, compared to constables 53% and supervisors 52% who responded they did not feel supported by co-workers to pursue formal education goals.

Table 61: Influence of co-worker support and education

Influence of co-worker support for pursuing higher education * Rank Category: Table 61

| | | Rank Category | | | | |
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of co-worker support for pursuing higher education	Major	33	44	22	16	115
		14.2%	8.5%	11.2%	7.8%	10.0%
	Moderate	70	133	71	56	330
		30.0%	25.8%	36.0%	27.3%	28.7%
	Slight	51	149	55	58	313
		21.9%	28.9%	27.9%	28.3%	27.2%
	Not a factor	79	189	49	75	392
		33.9%	36.7%	24.9%	36.6%	34.1%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21.277[a]	9	.011
Likelihood Ratio	21.353	9	.011
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.70.

The output at the bottom of Table 61 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 21.277 is statistically significant at p = .01. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within all rank categories considered receiving support from co-workers to be a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. In examining the column and row percentages, all rank groupings by a margin of 66% felt support by co-workers was a major consideration compared to 34% who did not consider support from co-workers to be significant in their decisions to pursue formal education.

Table 62: Reality of family support and education

Reality of support from family to pursue college-university studies * Rank Category: Table 62

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of support from family to pursue college and or university studies	Strongly Agree	87	121	74	52	334
		37.3%	23.5%	37.6%	25.4%	29.0%
	Agree	98	273	90	96	557
		42.1%	53.0%	45.7%	46.8%	48.4%
	Disagree	38	101	25	48	212
		16.3%	19.6%	12.7%	23.4%	18.4%
	Strongly Disagree	10	20	8	9	47
		4.3%	3.9%	4.1%	4.4%	4.1%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	28.819[a]	9	.001
Likelihood Ratio	28.629	9	.001
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.05.

The output at the bottom of Table 62 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 28.819 is statistically significant at p = .001. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered receiving support from family was a major factor in their decisions to participate in higher education.

In examining the column and row percentages, all ranks by a margin of 77% felt support by family members was a major consideration in their decisions to pursue higher education compared to 23% who did not.

Table 63: Influence of family support and education

Influnce of family to pursue college-university studies * Rank Category: Table 63

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influnce of family to pursue college and or university studies	Major	58	105	55	41	259
		24.9%	20.4%	27.9%	20.0%	22.5%
	Moderate	76	160	77	73	386
		32.6%	31.1%	39.1%	35.6%	33.6%
	Slight	48	131	37	45	261
		20.6%	25.4%	18.8%	22.0%	22.7%
	Not a factor	51	119	28	46	244
		21.9%	23.1%	14.2%	22.4%	21.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.963[a]	9	.049
Likelihood Ratio	17.360	9	.043
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 41.80.

The output at the bottom of Table 63 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 16.963 is statistically significant at p = .04. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks are influenced by the support received from family members in their decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 64: Reality of opportunity in meeting new people and education

Reality of college-university opportunity to meet new people * Rank Category: Table 64

| | | Rank Category | | | | |
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of meeting new people at college and or university	Strongly Agree	81	128	66	58	333
		34.8%	24.9%	33.5%	28.3%	29.0%
	Agree	114	318	115	116	663
		48.9%	61.7%	58.4%	56.6%	57.7%
	Disagree	25	58	11	29	123
		10.7%	11.3%	5.6%	14.1%	10.7%
	Strongly Disagree	13	11	5	2	31
		5.6%	2.1%	2.5%	1.0%	2.7%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.082[a]	9	.001
Likelihood Ratio	29.019	9	.001
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.31.

The output at the bottom of Table 64 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 29.082 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within all ranks considered meeting new people at educational institutional a major factor or motivator in their decisions to pursue formal education.

Table 65: Influence of opportunity in meeting new people and education

Influence of meeting new people at college-university* Rank Category: Table 65

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of of meeting new people at college and or university	Major	40	50	30	9	129
		17.2%	9.7%	15.2%	4.4%	11.2%
	Moderate	75	133	56	51	315
		32.2%	25.8%	28.4%	24.9%	27.4%
	Slight	64	138	59	56	317
		27.5%	26.8%	29.9%	27.3%	27.6%
	Not a factor	54	194	52	89	389
		23.2%	37.7%	26.4%	43.4%	33.8%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42.082[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	44.007	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22.10.

The output at the bottom of Table 65 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 42.082 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents considered meeting new people at educational institutions was a major influence in their decisions to participate in higher education.

Table 66: Reality of meeting non-law enforcement people and education

eality of meeting non law enforcement people at college-university * Rank Category: Table 6

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of meeting non-law enforceme nt people at college and or university	Strongly Agree	55	121	62	59	297
		23.6%	23.5%	31.5%	28.8%	25.8%
	Agree	122	251	97	96	566
		52.4%	48.7%	49.2%	46.8%	49.2%
	Disagree	41	114	32	42	229
		17.6%	22.1%	16.2%	20.5%	19.9%
	Strongly Disagree	15	29	6	8	58
		6.4%	5.6%	3.0%	3.9%	5.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.993[a]	9	.214
Likelihood Ratio	12.140	9	.206
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.94.

The output at the bottom of Table 66 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 11.993 is not statistically significant at p = .214. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks did not consider meeting non law enforcement people at educational institutions was a major consideration or barrier in their decisions to participate in higher education. In other words, respondents do consider meeting new people at educational institutions to be a major consideration for attending universities as shown in Tables 64 and 65, but do not distinguish whether the new people they meet are involved in law enforcement.

Table 67: Influence of meeting non-law enforcement people and education

luence of meeting non-law enforcement people at college-university * Rank Category: Table

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of meeting non law enforcement people at college and or university	Major	37	57	32	22	148
		15.9%	11.1%	16.2%	10.7%	12.9%
	Moderate	82	166	76	62	386
		35.2%	32.2%	38.6%	30.2%	33.6%
	Slight	53	123	44	51	271
		22.7%	23.9%	22.3%	24.9%	23.6%
	Not a factor	61	169	45	70	345
		26.2%	32.8%	22.8%	34.1%	30.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.413[a]	9	.080
Likelihood Ratio	15.493	9	.078
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25.35.

The output at the bottom of Table 67 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 15.413 is not statistically significant at p = .08. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks did not consider meeting non law enforcement people at educational institutions was a major was a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education goals. See Table 66 for similar findings and explanations.

4.6. INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The hypotheses for tests conducted on the <u>Institutional culture</u> factors were illustrated in Tables 68-79 and stated as:

Alternate Hypothesis: there is a significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "Institutional culture factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Null Hypothesis: there is no significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "Institutional culture factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Table 68: Reality of support from management and education

Reality of support from management to pursue education * Rank Category: Table 68

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of support from management to pursue education	Strongly Agree	25	39	32	30	126
		10.7%	7.6%	16.2%	14.6%	11.0%
	Agree	91	201	89	85	466
		39.1%	39.0%	45.2%	41.5%	40.5%
	Disagree	75	201	60	62	398
		32.2%	39.0%	30.5%	30.2%	34.6%
	Strongly Disagree	42	74	16	28	160
		18.0%	14.4%	8.1%	13.7%	13.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.534[a]	9	.001
Likelihood Ratio	27.845	9	.001
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 21.58.

The output at the bottom of Table 68 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 27.534) is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents from within the various ranks consider management support for educational attainment was a major factor in decisions to pursue higher education. However, a further examination of the column and row percentages indicate 62% of senior officers value management support toward educational attainment, compared to 56% of supervisors, civilians 50% and constables 46%. These findings show that lower ranks (i.e. civilian, constables) perceived less management support than did senior officers and supervisors. These results suggest management need to better communicate the message of support to lower ranks throughout the organization.

Table 69: Influence of support from management and education

Influence of support from management and education* Rank Category: Table 69

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of support from management and education	Major	40	35	24	20	119
		17.2%	6.8%	12.2%	9.8%	10.3%
	Moderate	64	137	85	59	345
		27.5%	26.6%	43.1%	28.8%	30.0%
	Slight	55	159	41	64	319
		23.6%	30.9%	20.8%	31.2%	27.7%
	Not a factor	74	184	47	62	367
		31.8%	35.7%	23.9%	30.2%	31.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	45.490[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	43.910	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.39.

The output at the bottom of Table 69 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 45.490 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within all ranks considered management support was a major influence in their decisions to participate in higher education. Considering the results in Table 68 where it showed lower ranks such as civilians and constables feel less supported by management than do supervisors and senior officers, management needs to review educational policies and communicate strategies to their members throughout the organization.

Table 70: Reality of support from supervisors and education

Reality of support from supervisors and education * Rank Category: Table 70

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of support from supervisors and education	Strongly Agree	26	31	26	25	108
		11.2%	6.0%	13.2%	12.2%	9.4%
	Agree	98	227	117	97	539
		42.1%	44.1%	59.4%	47.3%	46.9%
	Disagree	71	199	44	63	377
		30.5%	38.6%	22.3%	30.7%	32.8%
	Strongly Disagree	38	58	10	20	126
		16.3%	11.3%	5.1%	9.8%	11.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	45.587[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	46.833	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.50.

The output at the bottom of Table 70 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 45.587 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered support from supervisors was a major factor in their decisions to participate in educational attainment. In examining the column and row counts show civilians 52% and constables 50% perceived support from supervisors compared to supervisors 60% and senior officers 74%. These findings reveal a pattern that lower ranks feel less supported than higher ranks in police organizations.

Table 71: Influence of support from supervisors and education

Influence of support from supervisors and education * Rank Category: Table 71

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of support from supervisors and education	Major	38	41	20	12	111
		16.3%	8.0%	10.2%	5.9%	9.7%
	Moderate	70	158	86	60	374
		30.0%	30.7%	43.7%	29.3%	32.5%
	Slight	55	139	50	72	316
		23.6%	27.0%	25.4%	35.1%	27.5%
	Not a factor	70	177	41	61	349
		30.0%	34.4%	20.8%	29.8%	30.3%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39.159[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	37.563	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.01.

The output at the bottom of Table 71 are similar to findings in the previous three Tables 69-70 that showed lower ranking members feel less supported by supervisors and management. In Table 71, the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 39.159 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents considered support from supervisors was a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 72: Reality of positive attitudes of university students toward police

Reality of positive attitudes of university students toward police * Rank Category: Table 72

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of positive attitudes of university students toward police	Strongly Agree	22	19	16	14	71
		9.4%	3.7%	8.1%	6.8%	6.2%
	Agree	116	289	127	127	659
		49.8%	56.1%	64.5%	62.0%	57.3%
	Disagree	81	186	45	56	368
		34.8%	36.1%	22.8%	27.3%	32.0%
	Strongly Disagree	14	21	9	8	52
		6.0%	4.1%	4.6%	3.9%	4.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.885[a]	9	.001
Likelihood Ratio	27.533	9	.001
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.91.

The output at the bottom of Table 72 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 26.885 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, respondents within the various ranks considered that the attitudes of university students toward them was a major factor to consider in their decisions to participate in formal studies.

Table 73: Influence of positive attitudes of university students toward police

nfluence of positive attitudes of university students toward police * Rank Category: Table 7:

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influce of positive attitudes of university students toward police	Major	20	12	10	7	49
		8.6%	2.3%	5.1%	3.4%	4.3%
	Moderate	68	119	58	45	290
		29.2%	23.1%	29.4%	22.0%	25.2%
	Slight	69	176	62	72	379
		29.6%	34.2%	31.5%	35.1%	33.0%
	Not a factor	76	208	67	81	432
		32.6%	40.4%	34.0%	39.5%	37.6%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.927[a]	9	.003
Likelihood Ratio	23.491	9	.005
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.39.

The output at the bottom of Table 73 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 24.927 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered the positive attitude of university students toward them to be a major influence and consideration in their decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 74: Reality of faculty open to ideas from police

Reality of faculty open to ideas from law enforcement * Rank Category: Table 74

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Faculty are open to ideas from law enforcement	Strongly agree	31	56	23	30	140
		13.3%	10.9%	11.7%	14.6%	12.2%
	Agree	131	317	119	125	692
		56.2%	61.6%	60.4%	61.0%	60.2%
	Disagree	61	126	47	39	273
		26.2%	24.5%	23.9%	19.0%	23.7%
	Strongly disagree	10	16	8	11	45
		4.3%	3.1%	4.1%	5.4%	3.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.488[a]	9	.586
Likelihood Ratio	7.526	9	.582
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.71.

The output at the bottom of Table 74 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 7.448 is not statistically significant at p = .58. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents did not consider faculty being open to ideas from them to be a major factor in their decisions to pursue higher education goals. In further examining the column and row percentages however, shows that respondents across the various ranks do value faculty being open to their ideas. For example, all groups 72% responded they valued faculty being open to their ideas compared to 28% who did not.

Table 75: Influence of faculty open to ideas from police

Influence of faculty open to ideas from police * Rank Category: Table 75

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Faculty open to ideas from police	Major influence	78	245	84	91	498
		33.5%	47.6%	42.6%	44.4%	43.3%
	Moderate influence	72	153	53	64	342
		30.9%	29.7%	26.9%	31.2%	29.7%
	Slight influence	68	99	47	40	254
		29.2%	19.2%	23.9%	19.5%	22.1%
	Not a factor	15	18	13	10	56
		6.4%	3.5%	6.6%	4.9%	4.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.735[a]	9	.014
Likelihood Ratio	20.729	9	.014
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.59.

The output at the bottom of Table 75 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 20.735 is statistically significant at p = .01. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered faculty being open to ideas from them was a major influence in their decisions to participate in formal studies. These results are similar to the ones found in Tables 72 , 73 and 74 that showed respondents place value on the opinions university students and faculty hold toward them.

Table 76: Reality of apprehensiveness on abilities to achieve education

Reality of apprehensiveness on abilities to achieve education* Rank Category: Table 76

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of apprehension to achieve education	Strongly Agree	18	20	10	10	58
		7.7%	3.9%	5.1%	4.9%	5.0%
	Agree	77	129	52	46	304
		33.0%	25.0%	26.4%	22.4%	26.4%
	Disagree	85	217	82	89	473
		36.5%	42.1%	41.6%	43.4%	41.1%
	Strongly Disagree	53	149	53	60	315
		22.7%	28.9%	26.9%	29.3%	27.4%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.360[a]	9	.110
Likelihood Ratio	13.941	9	.124
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.94.

The output at the bottom of Table 76 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 14.360 <u>is not statistically significant</u> at p = .11. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks did not consider their apprehensiveness in their abilities to achieve formal studies was not a major factor in their decisions to participate in higher education. These results were not surprising as these respondents represent a highly trained and confident professional group of adult learners.

Table 77: Influence of apprehensiveness on abilities to achieve education

Influence of apprehensiveness on abilities to achieve education * Rank Category: Table 77

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of apprehension to achieve education	Major	19	25	13	5	62
		8.2%	4.9%	6.6%	2.4%	5.4%
	Moderate	62	92	47	43	244
		26.6%	17.9%	23.9%	21.0%	21.2%
	Slight	57	135	45	45	282
		24.5%	26.2%	22.8%	22.0%	24.5%
	Not a factor	95	263	92	112	562
		40.8%	51.1%	46.7%	54.6%	48.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.597[a]	9	.015
Likelihood Ratio	21.011	9	.013
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.62.

The output at the bottom of Table 77 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 20.597 <u>is statistically significant</u> at p = .01. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred by an <u>inverse relationship</u> that respondents across the various ranks did not consider apprehensiveness in their own abilities to achieve educational success was a major or barrier in their decisions to participate in higher education.

Table 78: Reality of meeting new people in university is stimulating

Reality of meeting people at college-university is stimulating * Rank Category: Table 78

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of meeting people at college and or university is stimulating	Strongly Agree	26	39	13	17	95
		11.2%	7.6%	6.6%	8.3%	8.3%
	Agree	149	311	140	132	732
		63.9%	60.4%	71.1%	64.4%	63.7%
	Disagree	42	145	38	50	275
		18.0%	28.2%	19.3%	24.4%	23.9%
	Strongly Disagree	16	20	6	6	48
		6.9%	3.9%	3.0%	2.9%	4.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.457[a]	9	.015
Likelihood Ratio	19.953	9	.018
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.22.

The output at the bottom of Table 78 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 20.457 is statistically significant at p = .01. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across the various ranks considered meeting new people at university settings was stimulating and a motivator to participating in higher education.

These results also support findings in Tables 72 and Table 77 indicating respondents value the opinions and positive attitudes displayed toward them by non-police students and faculty.

Table 79: Influence of meeting people in education is stimulating

fluence of meeting new people at college-university is stimulating * Rank Category: Table 7

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of meeting new people at college and or university is stimulating	Major	23	31	15	10	79
		9.9%	6.0%	7.6%	4.9%	6.9%
	Moderate	88	136	77	65	366
		37.8%	26.4%	39.1%	31.7%	31.8%
	Slight	63	169	53	68	353
		27.0%	32.8%	26.9%	33.2%	30.7%
	Not a factor	59	179	52	62	352
		25.3%	34.8%	26.4%	30.2%	30.6%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.815[a]	9	.003
Likelihood Ratio	24.649	9	.003
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.53.

The output at the bottom of Table 79 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 24.815 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across the various ranks considered meeting new people at university settings was both stimulating and a major influence in their decisions to participate in higher education.

4.7. GOAL CONGRUENCE CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The hypotheses for tests conducted on the <u>Goal congruence</u> factors were illustrated in Tables 80-88 and stated as:

Alternate Hypothesis: there is a significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "goal congruence factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Null Hypothesis: there is no significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "goal congruence factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Table 80: Reality of desire to improve mind, knowledge and abilities

Reality of education to improve the mind and abilities * Rank Category: Table 80

		Rank Category				Total
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	
Reality of college and or university to improve the mind and abilities	Strongly Agree	110	208	97	90	505
		47.2%	40.4%	49.2%	43.9%	43.9%
	Agree	96	260	94	103	553
		41.2%	50.5%	47.7%	50.2%	48.1%
	Disagree	19	42	6	11	78
		8.2%	8.2%	3.0%	5.4%	6.8%
	Strongly Disagree	8	5	0	1	14
		3.4%	1.0%	.0%	.5%	1.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.114[a]	9	.002
Likelihood Ratio	26.725	9	.002
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 3 cells (18.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.40.

The output at the bottom of Table 80 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 26.114 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents across the various ranks considered attending university to improve the mind, knowledge and academic abilities was a major consideration (i.e. motivator) in their decision to participate in higher education. In further examining the column and row percentages, all ranks by over 90% indicated that was a major reason for pursuing higher education.

Table 81: Influence of desire to improve mind, knowledge and abilities

Influence of education to improve the mind and abilities * Rank Category: Table 81

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of college and or university to improve the mind and abilities	Major	93	168	79	62	402
		39.9%	32.6%	40.1%	30.2%	35.0%
	Moderate	76	192	81	89	438
		32.6%	37.3%	41.1%	43.4%	38.1%
	Slight	38	88	21	31	178
		16.3%	17.1%	10.7%	15.1%	15.5%
	Not a factor	26	67	16	23	132
		11.2%	13.0%	8.1%	11.2%	11.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.111[a]	9	.065
Likelihood Ratio	16.582	9	.056
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22.61.

The output at the bottom of Table 81 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 16.111 <u>is not statistically significant</u> at p = .06, but nevertheless considered close to the statistical significance level of .05 or less. In further examining the column and row percentages, civilians 73%, constables 80%, supervisors 74% and senior officers 80% considered attending college and or university to improve the mind, knowledge and academic abilities as an important consideration or influence in their decision to engage in formal education.

Table 82: Reality of completing education for personal achievement

Reality of personally achieving a college-university degree * Rank Category: Table 82

		Rank Category				Total
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of personally achieving a college and or university degree	Strongly Agree	84	170	76	83	413
		36.1%	33.0%	38.6%	40.5%	35.9%
	Agree	91	221	78	73	463
		39.1%	42.9%	39.6%	35.6%	40.3%
	Disagree	51	103	36	42	232
		21.9%	20.0%	18.3%	20.5%	20.2%
	Strongly Disagree	7	21	7	7	42
		3.0%	4.1%	3.6%	3.4%	3.7%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.171[a]	9	.723
Likelihood Ratio	6.186	9	.721
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.19.

The output at the bottom of Table 82 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 6.171 is not statistically significant at p = .72. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred by respondents within the various ranks that completing university for personal achievement was not a major consideration (i.e. influence) but an important one in their decisions to pursue higher education. For example an examination of the column and row percentages revealed that 76% of civilians, 76% of constables, 76% of supervisors and 79% of senior officers felt it was important completing university for personal achievement.

Table 83: Influence of completing education for personal achievement

Infuence of personally achieving a college-university degree * Rank Category: Table 83

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Infuence of personally achieving a college and or university degree	Major	74	153	75	70	372
		31.8%	29.7%	38.1%	34.1%	32.3%
	Moderate	85	181	63	69	398
		36.5%	35.1%	32.0%	33.7%	34.6%
	Slight	35	89	24	22	170
		15.0%	17.3%	12.2%	10.7%	14.8%
	Not a factor	39	92	35	44	210
		16.7%	17.9%	17.8%	21.5%	18.3%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.938[a]	9	.280
Likelihood Ratio	10.999	9	.276
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.12.

The output at the bottom of Table 83 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 10.936 is not statistically significant at p = .280. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred by respondents within the various ranks that completing education for personal achievement was not a major influence in their decisions to engage in formal education. The findings in Tables 83 and Tables 84 are somewhat puzzling in that Tables 75-76 showed respondents significantly considered attending university to improve their minds, knowledge and skills, but completing university for personal achievement was considered important, but not a major influence for attending university? An unqualified explanation for this observed contradiction could be the policing subculture considers themselves as bona fide profession without the university credentials. The comments section at the end of this chapter may shed light on this point.

Table 84: Reality of education provides for academic fulfillment

Reality of education provides academic fulfillment * Rank Category: Table 84

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of academic fulfillment with college and or university degree	Strongly Agree	73	139	71	75	358
		31.3%	27.0%	36.0%	36.6%	31.1%
	Agree	125	305	107	111	648
		53.6%	59.2%	54.3%	54.1%	56.3%
	Disagree	29	60	13	17	119
		12.4%	11.7%	6.6%	8.3%	10.3%
	Strongly Disagree	6	11	6	2	25
		2.6%	2.1%	3.0%	1.0%	2.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.269[a]	9	.084
Likelihood Ratio	15.854	9	.070
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 2 cells (12.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.28.

The output at the bottom of Table 84 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at (X squared = 15.263) is not statistically significant at p = .08. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered attending university for academic fulfillment an important consideration but not a major consideration in their decisions to engage in higher education. For example, column and row percentages showed that 85% of civilians, 87% of constables, 91% of supervisors and 90% of senior officers' value attending university for academic fulfillment.

Table 85: Influence of education provides for academic fulfillment

Influence of academic fullfilment with college-university degree * Rank Category: Table 85

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of academic fullfilment with college and or university degree	Major	61	121	61	57	300
		26.2%	23.5%	31.0%	27.8%	26.1%
	Moderate	87	188	73	78	426
		37.3%	36.5%	37.1%	38.0%	37.0%
	Slight	47	117	35	29	228
		20.2%	22.7%	17.8%	14.1%	19.8%
	Not a factor	38	89	28	41	196
		16.3%	17.3%	14.2%	20.0%	17.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.470[a]	9	.245
Likelihood Ratio	11.700	9	.231
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 33.58.

The output at the bottom of Table 85 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at (X squared = 11.470) is not statistically significant at p = .24. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered attending university for academic fulfillment an important consideration, but not a major influence, in their decisions to engage in higher education. For example, column and row percentages showed that all rank categories by a margin of 83% considered completing education studies for personal achievement an important influence compared to only 13% of the group who did not.

Table 86: Reality of education to impart knowledge relevant to personal and or profession learning

Reality of college-university goal to impart knowledge for police professional learning
* Rank Category: Table 86

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of college and or university goal to impart knowledge vs. police goal to learn	Strongly Agree	61	88	48	45	242
		26.2%	17.1%	24.4%	22.0%	21.0%
	Agree	125	326	116	124	691
		53.6%	63.3%	58.9%	60.5%	60.1%
	Disagree	37	87	28	33	185
		15.9%	16.9%	14.2%	16.1%	16.1%
	Strongly Disagree	10	14	5	3	32
		4.3%	2.7%	2.5%	1.5%	2.8%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.295[a]	9	.112
Likelihood Ratio	14.355	9	.110
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.48.

The output at the bottom of Table 86 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 14.295 is not statistically significant at p = .12.

The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks did not consider pursuing formal education to impart knowledge relevant to their personal/professional learning was a major consideration for pursuing higher education but nevertheless an important one as shown by the column and row percentages. For example, further analysis of the findings revealed that civilians 80%, constables 80%, supervisors 83% and senior officers 83% considered formal education to be relevant to their professional learning. Another explanation for these findings could be that police organizations routinely offer professional in-service training and therefore these respondents do not consider educational institutions as places where to improve professional skills.

Table 87: Influence of education to impart knowledge relevant to personal/profession learning

Influence of college-university goal to impart knowledge for police professional learning *
Category: Table 87

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of university to impart knowledge for police professional learning	Major					203
		24.5%	13.6%	21.3%	16.6%	17.7%
	Moderate	93	207	86	85	471
		39.9%	40.2%	43.7%	41.5%	41.0%
	Slight	45	142	39	51	277
		19.3%	27.6%	19.8%	24.9%	24.1%
	Not a factor	38	96	30	35	199
		16.3%	18.6%	15.2%	17.1%	17.3%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.587[a]	9	.015
Likelihood Ratio	20.396	9	.016
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 34.09.

The output at the bottom of Table 87 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 20.587 is statistically significant at p = .01.

The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered attending universities seen to impart knowledge relevant to personal/professional learning was a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. The current findings in Table 87 appear to support the reality factor in Table 86 which assessed the strong but not the statistically significant motivation findings by respondents who considered higher education involvement. Considering this fact and some unexpected results found in Tables 80-86 of the goal congruence cluster, it is suggested that future studies are needed that look closely at the link between goal congruence factors and the personal/professional goals of justice professionals.

Table 88: Influence of education to promote police professionalism

Influence of education in promoting police professionalism* Rank Category: Table 88

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of education in promoting police professionalism	Major	60	88	53	31	232
		25.8%	17.1%	26.9%	15.1%	20.2%
	Moderate	83	192	73	82	430
		35.6%	37.3%	37.1%	40.0%	37.4%
	Slight	41	139	42	47	269
		17.6%	27.0%	21.3%	22.9%	23.4%
	Not a Factor	49	96	29	45	219
		21.0%	18.6%	14.7%	22.0%	19.0%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.563[a]	9	.005
Likelihood Ratio	23.524	9	.005
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 37.52.

The output at the bottom of Table 88 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 23.563 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks believed that formal education promotes police professionalism and as such was a major influence in their decisions to participate in higher education. These findings support those found in Table 20 suggesting respondents strongly believe that police educational credentials/standards for police are changing in the future.

4.8. JOB RELEVANCE CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The hypotheses for tests conducted on the <u>Job relevance</u> factors were illustrated in Tables 89-100 and stated as:

Alternate Hypothesis: there is a significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "job relevance factors" on their decision to pursue higher education.

Null Hypothesis: there is no significant difference in the reality and perception of officers within the various ranks relating to the influence of "job relevance factors" on their decision to pursue higher education

Table 89: Reality of education relevant to current work assignment

Reality of education to assist with work related problems * Rank Category: Table 89

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of education to assist with work related problems	Strongly Agree	29	58	28	19	134
		12.4%	11.3%	14.2%	9.3%	11.7%
	Agree	86	216	103	97	502
		36.9%	41.9%	52.3%	47.3%	43.7%
	Disagree	91	191	52	74	408
		39.1%	37.1%	26.4%	36.1%	35.5%
	Strongly Disagree	27	50	14	15	106
		11.6%	9.7%	7.1%	7.3%	9.2%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.197[a]	9	.033
Likelihood Ratio	18.570	9	.029
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.16.

The output at the bottom of Table 89 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 18.197 is statistically significant at p = .03. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered participating in formal education to assist them in their current work was a major factor in their decisions to participate in higher education.

Table 90: Influence of education relevant to current work assignment

Influence of education to assist with work related problems * Rank Category: Table 90

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of education to assist with work related problems	Major	33	63	27	18	141
		14.2%	12.2%	13.7%	8.8%	12.3%
	Moderate	80	164	81	86	411
		34.3%	31.8%	41.1%	42.0%	35.7%
	Slight	60	143	43	47	293
		25.8%	27.8%	21.8%	22.9%	25.5%
	Not a factor	60	145	46	54	305
		25.8%	28.2%	23.4%	26.3%	26.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Squa	13.110[a]	9	.158
Likelihood Ratio	13.246	9	.152
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. T
minimum expected count is 24.15.

The output at the bottom of Table 90 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 13.110 is not statistically significant at p = .158. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks did not consider participating in formal education to assist them in their current work assignments was a major influence in their decisions to participate in higher education. These findings should be viewed in the context that most respondents receive regular in-service specialized training to keep them current with new laws and social issues; therefore, they do not look to educational institutions to keep them current in their jobs.

Table 91: Reality of education to learn more about law enforcement

Reality of university education will help learn more about police work * Rank Category: Table 9

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of education will help learn more about police work	Strongly Agree	37	43	28	16	124
		15.9%	8.3%	14.2%	7.8%	10.8%
	Agree	117	262	112	103	594
		50.2%	50.9%	56.9%	50.2%	51.7%
	Disagree	57	170	45	65	337
		24.5%	33.0%	22.8%	31.7%	29.3%
	Strongly Disagree	22	40	12	21	95
		9.4%	7.8%	6.1%	10.2%	8.3%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.673[a]	9	.005
Likelihood Ratio	23.412	9	.005
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.27.

The output at the bottom of Table 91 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 23.673 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered participating in higher education to learn more about law enforcement was a major factor or motivator. An interesting observation made relates to respondents who seem to differentiate between learning about law enforcement in general as in Table 91 (i.e. results were significant) when compared to findings in Table 90 (i.e. results not significant) that measure motivation of respondents attending university to learn about specific work assignments. These findings could be suggesting that respondents look to their own organizations for specific job related training.

Table 92: Influence of education to learn more about law enforcement

nce of university education will help learn more about police work * Rank Category: Tab

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of university education on learning more about police work	Major	37	55	26	19	137
		15.9%	10.7%	13.2%	9.3%	11.9%
	Moderate	82	183	79	69	413
		35.2%	35.5%	40.1%	33.7%	35.9%
	Slight	53	141	51	58	303
		22.7%	27.4%	25.9%	28.3%	26.3%
	Not a factor	61	136	41	59	297
		26.2%	26.4%	20.8%	28.8%	25.8%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.872[a]	9	.285
Likelihood Ratio	10.823	9	.288
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.47.

The output at the bottom of Table 92 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 10.872 is not

statistically significant at p = .285. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In

rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within various

ranks did not consider pursuing formal education to learn more about law

enforcement was a major influence in their decisions to participate. These results

similar to those found in Tables 90 and 91 appear to suggest respondents do not view

educational institutions as places to teach them about their applied police profession.

Viewed from a policing perspective, it is common knowledge police receive regular

in service training to keep them current and abreast of any new laws impacting their

policing environments. As such, as indicated in Table 81, respondents look to

educational institutions as places that can assist them improve their mind, learn new

knowledge and improve their academic abilities.

Table 93: Reality of education relevant to future professional development and career plans

Reality of university education to assist personal and professional development *
Rank Category: Table 93

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of university to assist personal and professional development	Strongly Agree	47	86	44	32	209
		20.2%	16.7%	22.3%	15.6%	18.2%
	Agree	92	259	99	96	546
		39.5%	50.3%	50.3%	46.8%	47.5%
	Disagree	72	131	47	56	306
		30.9%	25.4%	23.9%	27.3%	26.6%
	Strongly Disagree	22	39	7	21	89
		9.4%	7.6%	3.6%	10.2%	7.7%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17.570[a]	9	.041
Likelihood Ratio	18.514	9	.030
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.25.

The output at the bottom of Table 93 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 17.570 is statistically significant at p = .04. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered educational attainment was relevant to their personal and professional development and as such was a major factor in their decisions to participate in formal educational studies. A notable difference in the findings from Tables 90, 91 and 92 suggested respondents differentiate between police training needed to do their work effectively and formal education that provides them with learning values of self-improvement (i.e. mind, new knowledge and educational skills).

Table 94: Influence of education relevant to future professional development and career plans

Influence of university education to assist personal and professional development *
Rank Category: Table 94

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of university education to assist personal and professional development	Major	43	90	45	34	212
		18.5%	17.5%	22.8%	16.6%	18.4%
	Moderate	80	220	81	80	461
		34.3%	42.7%	41.1%	39.0%	40.1%
	Slight	48	105	29	43	225
		20.6%	20.4%	14.7%	21.0%	19.6%
	Not a factor	62	100	42	48	252
		26.6%	19.4%	21.3%	23.4%	21.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Squar	12.565[a]	9	.183
Likelihood Ratio	12.632	9	.180
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 36.32.

The output at the bottom of Table 94 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 12.565 is not statistically significant at p = .183. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks did not consider pursuing educational attainment relevant to their personal and professional development was a major influence, but an important consideration in their decisions to participate. For example, column and row percentages showed that civilians 73%, constables 80%, supervisors 73% and senior officers 79% found that attending university for personal and professional development was an important influence to their decisions to pursue education, compared to 22% of respondents who were not influenced to attend universities for personal or professional development.

Table 95: Reality of education to develop leadership skills

Reality of university education to assist develop leadership skills * Rank Category: Table 95

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of education to assist to develop leadership skills	Strongly Agree	60	79	41	52	232
		25.8%	15.3%	20.8%	25.4%	20.2%
	Agree	128	325	125	122	700
		54.9%	63.1%	63.5%	59.5%	60.9%
	Disagree	37	93	27	28	185
		15.9%	18.1%	13.7%	13.7%	16.1%
	Strongly Disagree	8	18	4	3	33
		3.4%	3.5%	2.0%	1.5%	2.9%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.939[a]	9	.018
Likelihood Ratio	20.356	9	.016
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.65.

The output at the bottom of Table 95 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 19.939 is statistically significant at p = .01. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered attending university to develop their leadership skills was a major consideration and motivator for their decisions to pursue higher education.

Table 96: Influence of education to develop leadership skills

nfluence of university education to assist develop leadership skills * Rank Category: Table 9ɛ

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of university studies to assist develop leadership skills	Strongly Agree	63	115	66	57	301
		27.0%	22.3%	33.5%	27.8%	26.2%
	Agree	108	252	99	96	555
		46.4%	48.9%	50.3%	46.8%	48.3%
	Disagree	43	122	23	45	233
		18.5%	23.7%	11.7%	22.0%	20.3%
	Strongly Disagree	19	26	9	7	61
		8.2%	5.0%	4.6%	3.4%	5.3%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.730[a]	9	.005
Likelihood Ratio	24.404	9	.004
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.45.

The output at the bottom of Table 96 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 23.730 is statistically significant at p = .00. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered attending university education to assist in their development of leadership skills was a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education goals.

Similar to the findings in Table 95 and Table 81, respondents seem to suggest they prefer formal education settings as an ideal place learn about leadership skills, to receive a specific type of learning relating to self-improvement values (i.e. improve the mind, learn new knowledge and academic skills) rather than learning these skills in vocational specialized training facilities.

Table 97: Reality of education as an important addition to police training

ılity of university education is an important addition to police training * Rank Category: Table

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of education is an important addition to police training	Strongly Agree	62	92	57	47	258
		26.6%	17.9%	28.9%	22.9%	22.4%
	Agree	110	260	103	101	574
		47.2%	50.5%	52.3%	49.3%	49.9%
	Disagree	47	130	31	48	256
		20.2%	25.2%	15.7%	23.4%	22.3%
	Strongly Disagree	14	33	6	9	62
		6.0%	6.4%	3.0%	4.4%	5.4%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.898[a]	9	.013
Likelihood Ratio	21.550	9	.010
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.62.

The output at the bottom of Table 97 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 20.898 is statistically significant at p = .01. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered formal education as an important addition to police training was a significant consideration (i.e. motivator) in their decisions to pursue higher education. These results further support findings discussed in Table 95 and Table 96 showing respondents look to educational institutions to offer learning that is clearly different from police training they regularly receive.

Table 98: Influence of education is an important addition to police training

Influence of university education is an important addition to police training *
Rank Category: Table 98

		Rank Category				Total
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	
Influence of university education is an important addition to police training	Major	64	77	46	27	214
		27.5%	15.0%	23.4%	13.2%	18.6%
	Moderate	80	181	80	85	426
		34.3%	35.1%	40.6%	41.5%	37.0%
	Slight	42	149	42	50	283
		18.0%	28.9%	21.3%	24.4%	24.6%
	Not a factor	47	108	29	43	227
		20.2%	21.0%	14.7%	21.0%	19.7%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33.861[a]	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	33.503	9	.000
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 36.66.

The output at the bottom of Table 98 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 33.861 is statistically significant at p = .000. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks considered formal education as an important addition to police training was a significant influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. The conclusion derived from these findings in Tables 95, 96, and 97 showed that respondents agree there is a need for both formal educations offered at universities and police training that is normally received in police training facilities.

Table 99: Reality of formal education different to police training

Reality of university education is different to police training * Rank Category: Table 99

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Reality of education is different to police training	Strongly Agree	92	230	84	102	508
		39.5%	44.7%	42.6%	49.8%	44.2%
	Agree	107	242	95	94	538
		45.9%	47.0%	48.2%	45.9%	46.8%
	Disagree	29	37	13	8	87
		12.4%	7.2%	6.6%	3.9%	7.6%
	Strongly Disagree	5	6	5	1	17
		2.1%	1.2%	2.5%	.5%	1.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Squa	18.122[a]	9	.034
Likelihood Ratio	17.860	9	.037
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 3 cells (18.8%) have expected count less than : minimum expected count is 2.91.

The output at the bottom of Table 99 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 18.122 is statistically significant at p = .03. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks agree that formal education is significantly different to police training. These results further support findings in Table 97 and Table 98 that show respondents distinguish formal education learning to police training that targets specialized police skills and functions.

Table 100: Influence of formal education different to police training

nfluence of university education is different to police training * Rank Category: Table 10(

		Rank Category				
		Civilians	Constables	Senior Officers	Supervisors	Total
Influence of university studies is different to police training	Major	56	101	34	41	232
		24.0%	19.6%	17.3%	20.0%	20.2%
	Moderate	93	183	87	89	452
		39.9%	35.5%	44.2%	43.4%	39.3%
	Slight	42	118	45	37	242
		18.0%	22.9%	22.8%	18.0%	21.0%
	Not a factor	42	113	31	38	224
		18.0%	21.9%	15.7%	18.5%	19.5%
Total		233	515	197	205	1150
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.990[a]	9	.163
Likelihood Ratio	13.030	9	.161
N of Valid Cases	1150		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 38.37.

The output at the bottom of Table 100 shows the Pearson chi-square critical value at X squared = 12.990 is not statistically significant at p = .163. The degree of freedom for the chi-square is 9. In not rejecting the null hypothesis, it can be statistically inferred respondents within the various ranks did not consider formal education as being different from police training was a major influence or barrier in their decisions to pursue higher education.

4.9. INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Descriptive and inferential statistical procedures were conducted for all responses from the questionnaire. Chapter four of this report included findings from frequency analysis, distribution analysis and chi-square procedures to determine the personal aspirations, barriers, motivators and influences as reported by justice professionals as reasons they participate, can't participate, or are prevented from participating in educational pursuits.

Table 101 and Table 102 presented below represent the summary of the characteristic and professional factors that were analyzed.

4.9.1. Table 101: Summary of Personal Characteristic Factors Tested

CHARACTERISTIC FACTORS	*N = 1150*	*ADJUSTED (%)*	TEST
GENDER Male Female	857 293	75% 25%	Frequency Chi-Square
AGE: 19-25 26-36 37-49 50 and greater	128 517 407 98	11% 45% 35% 9%	Frequency Chi-Square
ETHNICITY White Black Asian South Asian Latin/American First Nation Other	917 68 56 52 13 13 31	80% 6% 5% 4% 1% 1% 3%	Frequency Chi-Square
MARITAL STATUS Single Married/Common Separated Divorced Other-Deceased	*N= 1150* 316 761 26 43 4	*Adjusted (%)* 27% 66% 2% 4% 1%	*Test* Frequency Chi-Square

(#) DEPENDENTS			
No dependents	492	43%	Frequency
1-2	435	38%	Chi-Square
3-4	203	18%	
More than 5	19	2%	

4.9.2. Table 102: Summary of Professional Factors Tested

PROFESSIONAL FACTORS	*N= 1150*	*ADJUSTED (%)*	TEST
RANK			
Civilians	233	20%	Frequency
Constables	515	45%	Chi -Square
Supervisors	205	18%	
Senior Officers	197	17%	
EXPERIENCE			
Less than 3 yrs	379	33%	Frequency
3-6 yrs	191	17%	Chi-Square
7-10 yrs	150	13%	
11-20 yrs	216	19%	
21-30+ yrs	214	19%	
SECOND JOB			
Yes-full time	29	3%	Frequency
Yes-part time	135	12%	Chi-Square
No other job	986	86%	
CAREER PLANS Remain until:			
• Retirement	1084	94%	Frequency
• Have other plans	66	6%	Chi-Square
DECIDED ON FUTURE PLANS			
Yes	946	82%	Frequency
No	204	18%	Chi-Square
AREA OF STUDIES			
Criminal Justice Studies	528	46%	Frequency
Liberal Arts and Science	379	33%	Chi-Square
Business Commerce	158	14%	
Other	85	7%	

4.9.3. RESULTS OF CHARACTER AND PROFESSIONAL FACTORS

The first sets of tests performed were illustrated in Tables 24-34. These factors (i.e. sex, age, gender, years of experience, rank, marital status, and number of dependents, future plans to remain with current employer, shift work and retirement plans) were completed to measure if these factors impacted on police decisions to pursue higher education. A discussion of findings follows each of the factors tested.

1) Ethnicity: Almost all ethnic groups in the sample felt supported by their organizations to pursue higher education goals. Some exceptions were Latin American respondents 7 respondents or 1% of the sample group indicated they did not perceive educational opportunities by their organizations and the other category named "Others", which represented 13 respondents or 3% of the sample who indicated they did not perceive support from their organizations to pursue higher education (See Table 24). Due to the small number of respondents 20 out of the sample size of 1150, no definitive conclusions can be made with respect to whether organizations provided educational opportunities to ethnic groups identified as Latin American or "Other" respondents. The rest of the groups identified (I.e. White, Blacks and Afro Canadian, Asian, South Asian and First Nations) all had perceived support from their organizations to pursue higher education goals. In view of these results, future research closely examining the variables "ethnicity" and "educational attainment" of justice professionals should be considered.

2) Rank: This variable identifies the various ranks (i.e. civilians, constables, supervisors and senior officers) within the sample group tested. When measured with the variable "whether organizations provided educational support", results showed

that <u>civilian and constables felt less supported</u> then supervisors and senior officers by

their organizations. For example, civilians 55% felt supported, constables 59% felt

supported, compared to supervisors 69%, and senior officers 72% who felt supported

(See Table 26). These findings relating to organizational support are better

understood by comments made by respondents in the comment section provided in

the questionnaire. Some highlights from the respondent views were:

> *"I know there are programs in place for senior officers who want to further their education. Currently there isn't anything for regular working civilians"*

> *"Higher education and training are only permitted by those selected by senior management. It's who you know"*

> *"If my service did more to assist me with my education goals, it would be a dream come true"*

3) Seek new employment: This variable asks respondents to comment whether

achieving educational attainment would cause them to see new employment. Results

indicated 78% of respondents across the various ranks did not wish to seek new

employment as a result of educational attainment (See Table 27). These results are

encouraging for Canadian justice administrators who may be concerned that

providing educational opportunities for members may encourage them to seek new

employment. This was a major concern cited in many American studies reviewed in

the literature review in chapter two.

4) Plan to remain until retirement: This variable asked respondents about their

future plans and if they would remain with the current employer despite achieving

educational attainment. These results are also very encouraging for justice

administrators that showed 94% of respondents across the various ranks plan to

remain with their organizations until retirement (See Table 30). Again these results

should be encouraging for Canadian police administrators worried about investing in

members' educational development only to lose them to other employment.

5) Ideal schedule of studies: This variable asked respondents to consider the best

time to pursue educational studies. Results indicated respondents within the various

ranks, for example civilians 58%, constables 71%, supervisors 65% and senior

officers 76%, all preferred to take educational studies on a part-time basis while

working full time (see Table 31). Some comments by respondents on the issue of

work schedule and educational participation are highlighted below:

> *"The service could better accommodate people who wish to pursue a*
> *higher education ex. Shifts etc. – incentives"*
>
> *"College/University education – very flexible and different approach is*
> *required due to different shifts and ever-changing society and law*
> *enforcement requirements."*
>
> *"Continuing Education keeps employees current. Lack of personal*
> *development skills stalls and impedes progress and instils the*
> *resistance to change- more accommodations are needed"*

6) Educational standards are changing: This variable asks the respondents within

the various ranks to predict if educational standards to enter the police profession are

changing. Results show that 86% of respondents believed that higher educational

standards will be needed to enter the policing sector. However, in examining other

related variables to test what educational standards are needed, 38% of respondents

did not support changing the current level of education standards i.e. high school

diploma (See Table 32). These findings were further highlighted by respondents'

comments as:

"Policing is a hands-on learned profession for the majority. While higher education is generally beneficial, the policing profession is better served with candidates sporting the proper qualities; temperament, courage, morality, etc"

"In policing, education is only a part of the skills sets required. I fear policing will over credential itself as did the nursing profession"

"Making degrees necessary would only succeed in eliminating a valuable resource. Most times in policing "street smarts" are a much better attribute than "book smarts"

7) Minimum education level for supervisors and managers: This variable tested respondent opinions on what level of education should supervisors and managers have. Results indicated 76% of respondents within the various ranks believe supervisors and managers should have something higher than a high school diploma. Of those 76% of respondents, 25% indicated the appropriate credentials should be a college diploma, another 25% stated it should be a baccalaureate degree, and the remaining 26% stated it should be some combination of college or university studies (See Table 34). Respondents identify with the need for higher educational standards for supervisors and managers as they relate these positions to industry. The following comments on the need for supervisory credentials make this point:

"Should be mandated that you need a university degree to become a senior officer"

"Leaders need to be identified and "invested" with education and training"

"Industry, outside of policing, is showing a higher level of education for its "leaders". Policing needs to consider this as the norm and make it a requirement"

"Should be given extra points for promotional processes when we have higher education"

"Promotion to senior management should require a university degree. Internal training as mandated by the PSA [Police Services Act] for accreditation purposes should be geared toward providing university credit (e.g. adequacy standards training such as G.I [general investigators courses], domestic, major case, etc.)"

"I hope the service will recognize the time and effort put forth by officers endeavouring to further their education and recognize this effort in promotion opportunities. This is not or does not appear to be currently happening"

8) Gender and educational opportunities: This variable measured whether educational opportunities were perceived to be equitable between the gender groups in the sample. Results indicated an equitable distribution in which males 63% and female 60% indicated they felt supported by their organizations towards educational attainment (See Table 25).

9) Marital status and educational plans: Results indicated that 32% of single respondents across the various ranks already had a diploma-degree, were planning to complete one, or were in progress to completing one. These results compared to 27% of married and common law respondents, 15% of separated respondents, and 16% of divorced respondents. An interesting pattern that emerged indicated that single respondents were the largest group involved in educational attainment, followed by married or common law partners, separated respondents, and divorced respondents (See Table 28).

10) Number of dependents and educational attainment: Results indicated 32% of respondents within the various ranks with no dependents already had a diploma/degree, compared to 25% who had 1-2 dependents, 24% who had 3-4 dependents, and 18% who had more than 5 dependents. Another interesting pattern is observed when respondents indicated they had no plans to attend university. Of those

respondents, 40% with no dependents indicated they had no plans to attend

university, compared to 46% with 1-2 dependents, 44 % with 3-4 dependents and

72% with more than 5 dependents. These results show a pattern that the more

dependents respondents have, the more difficult it is for them to pursue educational

attainment (See Table 29). Some examples of barriers reported by respondents with

families are:

> *"Unable to pursue higher education due to childcare obligations – small children need to be cared for by parents"*

> *"When you work shift work and the other spouse works opposite shifts to accommodate the household it is impossible to spend time with studies"*

> *"Daycare is not an option therefore neither is higher education"*

11) Minimum education standards for policing: This variable asked respondents

within the various ranks to offer their opinion on the level of education needed to

enter the policing profession. The results found in Table 33 showed that 38% of

respondents indicated a high school diploma was sufficient to enter policing; while

the remaining 62% indicated the minimum educational requirement should be: a

college diploma 28 %, some college and university 29 %, and 5% indicated a

baccalaureate degree. These results further support findings in Tables 32 and 34, that

showed 86% of respondents across the various ranks believe educational standards

for policing were changing, and a further 76% of respondents who believed

supervisors and management should have education credentials beyond a high school

diploma.

Some comments made by respondents below highlights the various police viewpoints

on the subject of police educational standards:

> *"It has been my experience over 28+ years of policing that sometimes too much knowledge is dangerous especially in the hands of individuals that do not have the common sense to apply the theory or principles properly"*

> *"I feel that "Entry Level" policing cannot be adequately performed by high school grads.*

> *"Promotion and advancement should be linked to formal education"*

> *"This job is difficult. No amount of college or university degree will help. Success depends on how hard the individual is willing to work"*

> *"For the average patrol cop I think a college diploma or undergrad degree and Ontario Police College is sufficient (or equivalent work experience".*

> *"I feel the need for higher education as a police officer is overrated. A good family life is more important"*

> *"Formal education provides information and insight to an officer only to a certain extent; may prepare him or her for whatever they may face.*

> *"Policing is not standardized, every department does things differently. The problem is not education but it would help open up communication"*

The next section will summarize the findings relating to the assessment of the

"reality and influence" factors grouped into six common clusters identified as:

Financial, Convenience, Social support, Institutional culture, Goal congruence and

Job relevance. These clusters of factors when tested against other variables measure

the level of barrier, motivators and influence that impact on police decisions to pursue

higher education goals.

4.9.4. RESULTS FROM THE REALITY AND INFLUENCE FACTORS

The second part of the statistical procedures conducted will focus on descriptive analysis to provide answers to questions posed in this study with respect to perceptions of the existence of (i.e. Reality and Influence) factors that act as either barriers, influences or motivators in police decisions to participate in higher education.

The statistical tests were performed and illustrated in the following manner: Financial tests in Tables 35-47, Convenience tests in Tables 48-59, Social support tests in Tables 60-67, Institutional culture tests in Tables 69-79, Goal congruence tests in Tables 80-88 and Job relevance tests in Tables 89-100.

To better understand how the tests and results were examined, the following explanation serves as an aid. These variable tests (i.e. reality and influence) were done by asking questions to respondents who were to assess the <u>truth of the statement</u> (i.e. reality, barrier or motivator) and then <u>assess the influence</u> of the same variable on their choice to pursue educational attainment. For example, respondents could strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree to a question relating to personal finances indicating a concern-i.e. barrier, but the same respondents <u>may not feel</u> that personal finances was either a major influence, moderate influence, slight influence, or not a factor, in their decision to pursue higher education. These differences could be explained, for example, in a situation where the respondent received full or partial funding to pay for tuition (i.e. major influence-motivator) to continue studies, even though personal finances was a real concern (i.e. barrier) to respondents.

4.9.5. RESULTS FROM FINANCIAL FACTORS

The financial cluster questions are summarized below. The results attempted to measure the association between the factors and educational attainment of the respondents. The item questions are identified as:

1. Government financial assistance, rank and educational attainment

2. Personal finances, rank and educational attainment

3. The high costs of college/university, rank and educational attainment

4. Incentive pay, rank and educational attainment

5. Job security, rank and educational attainment

6. Employer financial assistance, rank and educational attainment

7. Promotion, rank and educational attainment

Pearson correlations and Chi-Square procedures were used to test for statements posed in the preceding paragraph. In summary, educational opportunities considered statistically significant in relation to educational attainment were identified as:

1) **Government financial assistance, rank and educational attainment:** Findings in Tables 37-38 showed respondents within the various ranks significantly agreed with the statement that lack of government assistance to pursue higher education impacted (i.e. was a barrier) in their decisions to pursue higher education. Within the various ranks, civilians 69% and senior officers 69% were least impacted when compared to constables 78% and supervisors 88%. These results indicate that general access to education by this group could be improved if some type of government financial assistance is provided.

2) **Personal finances, rank and educational attainment:** The findings in Tables 39-40 showed that respondents within the various ranks all experienced difficulties (i.e. barriers) to educational attainment due to personal finances. Within the ranks, civilians 56% were least impacted by personal finances, followed by constables 61%, supervisors and senior officers both at 74%. These results indicate that both government and justice organizations need new strategies to enhance member access to educational opportunities by providing some financial incentives.

3) **The high costs of college-university, rank and educational attainment:** Findings in Tables 41 and 42 showed that respondents within the various ranks found the high cost of education a major barrier and influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. For example, all ranks, civilians 88%, constables 83%, supervisors 77% and senior officers 84% indicated the high costs of education were a signicant hardship to their educational attainment.

4) **Incentive pay, rank and educational attainment:** The findings in Table 43 although measured to be statistically significant may have confused the respondents. For example, when asked if they received incentive pay to attend university, a high number of respondents indicated they didn't know or marked "other" as an answer. Surprising results were from senior officers in particular who indicated by a margin of 57% they did not know if their organizations provided incentive pay. This begs the question that if senior managers are unaware if incentive pay is offered by their organizations, how can lower rank members make informed decisions whether to pursue higher education goals? It

could be that respondents are confusing incentive pay with some other type of

benefits received such as partial payment of courses and books. Further review of

this item question is recommended in future studies.

5) **Job security, rank and educational attainment:** Findings in Tables 46-47

showed that respondents across the various ranks <u>did not consider</u> or relate

educational attainment to their job security. In fact, civilians 62%, constables

69%, supervisors and senior officers 53% all disagreed with the statement that

educational attainment enhances job security.

6) **Employer financial assistance and educational attainment:** Findings in Tables

33-36 showed significant variation across rank. For example, only 46% of

civilians indicated they employer assistance was available, compared to

constables 67%, supervisors 71% and senior officers 71%. These results indicate

civilians and constables experience moderate barriers in receiving employer

assistance when compared to higher ranked members in organizations. A

suggestion for justice organizations is to target specific lower ranks to ensure the

message of support is being received. On the topic of employer assistance, the

following respondent viewpoints are presented:

> *"Full reimbursement for university/college courses – allow flexibility*
> *and some time off for attending these courses.*

> *"There is little or no motivation for front line officers to take additional*
> *college/university courses, combined with the additional financial*
> *burden and taking time or holiday time off to attend courses"*

7) **Promotion, rank and educational attainment:** Findings in Tables 44-45

showed that respondents within the various ranks did not consider educational

attainment to be a major barrier or influence in their decisions to pursue higher

education. These results could be reflecting the reality that currently no formal promotional system in Ontario for police services exist. However, measuring the column and row percentages showed that civilians 65%, constables 66%, supervisors' 59% and senior officers 70% believed that education is an important consideration for promotional attainment.

Overall, to summarize these findings in the financial cluster, lack of government assistance, lack of incentive pay, the high costs of education, the personal finances of respondents and to a lesser extent, promotional attainment were major factors respondents across the various ranks considered in their decisions to pursue higher education. Some selected comments that show the link between the education and the financial factors are presented for review:

> *"I believe that my department has an opportunity to mould their own direction towards continuing education that I believe will be mandated at the federal level for all police personnel"*

> *"[Service] currently only provides partial funding for constables. Full funding should be in place"*

> *"Look to other provinces and jurisdictions for example on how educational attainment offers job enrichment and personal development to ensure uniform standards is maintained for consistency"*

> *"What are the collective bargaining ramifications i.e. salaries – will municipalities pay for a more educated work force in policing?"*

4.9.6. RESULTS FROM CONVENIENCE FACTORS

The convenience cluster items and findings are summarized below. The results attempted to measure the association between the convenience factors and educational attainment.

1. Are college/university studies I desire offered at a convenient time?

2. Are college/university studies I desire offered at a convenient location?

3. Do college/university studies require too much of my time?

4. Does shift work interfere with college-university class schedules?

5. Are college/university programs I desire available?

6. Do college/university programs I desire include distance education?

Pearson correlations and Chi-Square procedures were used to test for statements posed in the preceding paragraph. In summary, educational opportunities considered statistically significant in relation to educational attainment were identified as:

1) **Is college-university studies I desire offered at a convenient time?** Findings in Tables 48-49 showed respondents across all ranks consider the time when courses are offered at universities pose some barriers to their educational attainment. Variations within the ranks showed that civilians 51% and constables 57% are more impacted by the time when courses are offered when compared to higher ranks such as senior officers 46% and supervisors 44%. These results indicate that lower ranks need to be targeted by administrators and some strategies are needed to improve access to higher education.

2) **Is college-university studies I desire offered at a convenient location**: Findings in Tables 50-51 showed respondents within the various ranks are significantly impacted (i.e. barriers) by the location universities studies are offered. Policy implication for educational institutions should include offering courses online to offset the geographic challenges respondents are facing.

3) **Does college-university studies require too much of my time:** Findings in Tables 52-53 showed respondents across all ranks are significantly impacted (barrier) by the amount of personal time required to complete formal education studies. These findings are better understood when considering justice professionals have work obligations that extend beyond regular working hours such as attending court, being on stand (i.e. idle time) spent waiting to be called to testify, or simply spending the remaining off-duty hours with family. Some comments made by respondents speak to this important issue of personal time constraints and education:

> *"Time constraints are the single biggest issue on continuing education. Between work and family commitments there is very little time for education"*

> *"The problem any service will/may face is the time constraint on the individuals to meet the demands of policing as well as any course he/she will/may take. As much as the individual would like to continue his/her education, other factors unfortunately take precedent i.e. family, service requirements and community needs"*

> *"Taking time for education robs me of time away from family. Consideration ought to be given to increasing on duty opportunities for improving ones education"*

> *"The greatest obstacle for me to advance my education is the demands of the job. Currently and for the past number of years, I have been on call and I work hundreds of hours of overtime each year"*

4) **Does shift work interfere with college-university class schedules:** Findings in

Tables 54-55 showed respondents across the ranks found shift work was a major

barrier to their educational attainment. These results are not surprising

considering that 60% of respondents indicated they worked regular shift work. As

previously mentioned, shift work coupled with other time personal constraints

such as attending court duties and other events while off-duty poses a significant

challenge to this unique justice group of students. Some strategies now underway

by some educational institutions include mixing in class learning with distance

education in order to meet the demands of the justice professionals. Some of these

programs will be highlighted in chapter five of this report. Some comments made

by respondents' provide insights into the barriers caused by shift work:

> *"If the service I work for found some way of providing time for part time education I could perhaps set higher goals such as a university degree"*

> *"Employer's should be more accommodating in regards to time off (duty credit). For officers who wish to pursue higher education and it should not be dependent on rank/position held"*

> *"As a senior manager, time is the single major obstacle. Running a station, meeting and engaging the community, some how finding time for family as well as educational pursuits can be very challenging. Perhaps an opportunity to receive some of the training "on Duty" could be explored"*

> *"Make university more accessible to workers. Universities need to provide courses at better times for working people especially master's programs"*

5) **Are college-university programs I desire available:** Findings in Tables 56-57

showed respondents across all ranks found university programs they desired were

available and therefore was a major consideration in their decisions to pursue

higher education. In further examining findings from Table 56, showed respondents within the various ranks preferred course curriculums in criminal justice, 46%, liberal arts and science courses 33%, business courses 14%, and other type courses 7%. These findings indicate respondents appear satisfied with the variety of programs offered by educational institutions.

6) **Do college-university programs I desire include distance education:** Findings in Tables 58-59 showed respondents within the various ranks considered the availability of distance education was a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. These results support other findings in Tables 50-51 that showed respondents were geographically challenged and therefore considered the location of universities to be a significant factor in their decisions to pursue higher education goals.

Overall, considering the findings relating the convenience cluster factors the following conclusions are made. It is acknowledged that justice professionals by the nature of their work have unique learning needs that must be met if they are to succeed in pursuing educational attainment. These findings suggest that barriers such as shift work, the time and location these courses are offered and the availability of distance education need to be strategically considered by educational institutions and police organizations to provide adequate opportunities for members seeking pathways to pursue formal education. Some comments that highlight respondent concerns are stated below:

> *"Departments need to encourage higher education including...offer financial assistance, time off for studies or proper accommodation".*

"I don't feel that higher education is really promoted. They say it is but the reality is different"

"Balancing a career in law enforcement and a family can be very challenging to say the least. I am currently working towards a college/university certificate in police studies via long distance education"

4.9.7. RESULTS FROM SOCIAL SUPPORT FACTORS

The social support factor questions are summarized below. These results attempted to measure the association between the levels of support respondents receive and their educational attainment goals. These questions are presented below as:

1) I receive encouragement or support from my police co-workers to continue my education

2) I receive encouragement or support from my family to continue my education

3) Taking college/university courses will give me the opportunity to meet new people

4) It is important for me to meet people who do not work in the field of law enforcement

Pearson correlations and Chi-Square procedures were used to test for statements found in the previous paragraph. In summary, educational opportunities considered statistically significant in relation to educational attainment were identified as:

1) **Encouragement or support from my police co-workers to continue my education:**

Findings in Tables 60-61 showed respondents considered co-worker support to be a significant factor and influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. However, some variations were found across the ranks. For example, civilians 55% and senior officers 68% indicated they felt supported by co-workers, which is in contrast to constables 53% and supervisors 52% who perceived they were not supported by co-workers. These findings suggest justice organizations need to better communicate educational opportunities and target

affected members in promoting higher education goals throughout the organization.

2) **Encouragement or support from family to continue my education:** Findings in Tables 62-63 showed respondents within the various ranks significantly considered encouragement and family support to be either a major influence or barrier depending on the support received.

3) **Education an opportunity to meet people:** Findings in Tables 64-65 showed respondents across the various ranks significantly considered meeting new people at colleges and universities to be a major influence in their decisions to engage in education.

4) **Education an opportunity to meet non law enforcement people:** The findings in Tables 66-67 showed respondents across all ranks did not consider attending colleges and universities to meet non law enforcement people to be a significant factor in their decisions to pursue higher education. These results indicate justice professionals do not discriminate between law enforcement and non law enforcement students they like to meet at colleges and universities.

Overall, the social support factors indicate that respondents across the ranks viewed support received from co-workers, family and the prospect of meeting new people at colleges and universities was a major influence in their decisions to engage in higher education.

4.9.8. RESULTS FROM INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE FACTORS

The Institutional culture cluster items and findings are summarized below. The results attempted to measure the association between institutional impediments, facilitators and educational attainment. The questions asked respondents were:

1) I receive encouragement or support from my senior management to continue my education

2) I receive encouragement or support from my supervisors to continue my education

3) College-university students have positive attitudes toward law enforcement students

4) College-university professors are open to ideas from law enforcement students

5) The people I meet at colleges-universities are stimulating

6) I am apprehensive about my abilities in achieving a college-university degree

Pearson correlations and Chi-Square procedures were used to test for statements posed in the preceding paragraph. In summary, educational opportunities considered statistically significant in relation to educational attainment were identified as:

1) **Encouragement or support from senior management to support education:** The findings in Tables 68-69 showed respondents within the various ranks considered the support they receive from management a major consideration and influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. However the findings showed some variations across the ranks. For example, further examination of the column and row percentages indicate 62% of senior officers valued management support toward educational attainment, compared to 56% of supervisors, 50% of civilians and 46% of

constables. These findings illustrate that lower ranks-i.e. civilian and constables perceived less management support than did senior officers and supervisors. These results have some policy implications for justice organizations that may need to target lower ranks in their organizations to promote educational attainment goals.

2) **Encouragement or support from supervisors to support education:** Similar to the findings in the previous question, findings in Tables 70-71 showed respondents within the various ranks considered the support they receive from supervisors to be a major consideration and influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. The following comments made by respondents below can better illuminate how respondents feel regarding supervisory and management support:

> *"I returned to U of T as a Police Officer to further my education. It was met with disapproval by my peers/superiors"*

> *"My education has helped me personally but has been a hindrance to me in my professional world"*

> *"My sergeant wants me to continue with part time education. My staff sergeant wouldn't support it"*

These comments underscore the point that organizations need to better communicate organizational goals of promoting higher education throughout the organization.

3) **Students outside policing have positive attitudes toward law enforcement:** Findings in Tables 72-73 showed respondents within the various ranks considered the attitude of university students toward them was a major factor and influence in their decisions to participate in higher education. These findings support other findings in Tables 64-67 that showed respondents considered meeting new people

at colleges and universities to be a significant motivator for them to engage in higher education studies. In short, justice professionals value the opinion others have of them regardless if the opinion comes from other students and by professors.

4) **University professors are open to ideas from law enforcement students:** Findings in Tables 74-75 showed respondents across the various ranks considered the ability of professors to be open to ideas from justice students was an important consideration and a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. These results support previous findings that indicated respondents value the opinions of students, other justice professionals and the professors teaching at colleges and universities. These results are also consistent with adult motivational theories articulated by Houle (1961) and Pollok, (1973), suggesting adult learners are a highly motivated to participate in higher learning although for different reasons (i.e. work related reasons, social motives, universal learners and executive learners).

5) **The people I meet in college-university are stimulating:** Findings in Tables 78-79 further support the other findings throughout this section indicating respondents across the various ranks considered meeting new people at university settings was stimulating and was a major influence in their decisions to participate in higher education.

7) **Apprehension of personal abilities to achieve higher education:** The findings in Tables 76-77 showed that respondents across the various ranks did not doubt their own abilities to achieve educational attainment. These results were not surprising considering this group of professionals is representing a highly trained and confident group.

In summary, with respect to the Institutional culture factors described, justice professionals are viewed as individuals who value opinions of new students, other law enforcement professionals and their professors. In addition, this group considers the support by co-workers, supervisors and management as being a major consideration and influence in their decisions to pursue higher education goals.

4.9.9. RESULTS FROM GOAL CONGRUENCE FACTORS

The goal congruence item questions and findings are summarized below. The results attempted to measure the association (i.e. the reality and influence) between factors relating to personal and professional goals and educational attainment. The questions are as follows:

1) I have a desire to improve my mind, knowledge and academic ability

2) I wish to obtain a college-university degree for personal achievement

3) College-university studies provide the opportunity for academic fulfillment

4) The goal of college-university programs is to impart knowledge similar to my own personal and professional development

5) Having credentials will assist promote the professionalism of law enforcement

Pearson correlations and Chi-Square procedures were used to test for statements posed in the goal congruence items listed in the previous paragraph. In summary, educational opportunities considered statistically significant in relation to educational attainment were identified as:

1) **I have a desire to improve my mind, knowledge and academic ability:** The findings in Tables 80-81 showed respondents across the various ranks considered attending university to improve their mind, learn new knowledge and improve academic skills to be a significant consideration and influence in deciding to attend university. These findings are important to keep in mind when discussing other findings in later pages that appear at odds when describing potential motives by justice professionals for participating in higher education.

2) **I wish to obtain a college-university degree for personal achievement:**

The findings in Tables 83-84 showed that respondents within the various ranks did not consider completing university degrees for personal achievement a major consideration in their decision to attend university. These results appear to contradict findings in Tables 75-76 that showed respondents across the various ranks significantly considered attending university to improve their minds, knowledge and skills. A possible explanation for this contradiction is in understanding the historical context of public policing who for the past 160 years have considered themselves a bona fide profession without university credentials. The apparent contradiction may be a case in which respondents are indicating a preference to attend universities not to validate their professional status, but rather to provide them with new opportunities for self- improvement such as learning new knowledge, improving the mind and improving academic skills.

3) **College-university studies provide the opportunity for academic fulfillment:**

The findings in Tables 84-85 showed respondents within the various ranks respondents within the various ranks considered attending university for academic fulfillment was an important consideration, but not a major influence in their decisions to engage in higher education. For example, column and row percentages showed that all rank categories by a margin of 83% considered completing education studies for academic fulfillment was an important influence compared to only 13% of the group who did not. Considering these unexpected and sometime contradictory results, future research is needed to better understand

the motivations of the justice professionals as it relates to participating in formal education.

4) **The goal of university programs is to impart knowledge similar to my own personal-professional goals**:

The findings in Tables 86-87 showed that respondents within the various ranks did not consider pursuing formal education to impart knowledge relevant to their personal and professional learning was not a major consideration and influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. Further analysis of the column and row percentages however showed that it was an important goal. For example, findings revealed that civilians 80%, constables 80%, supervisors 83% and senior officers 83% all considered formal education to be relevant to their professional learning. Somewhat of unexpected results, a possible explanation could be that police organizations routinely offer professional in-service training and therefore these respondents do not consider educational institutions as places where to improve professional skills. Thus far, justice professionals are indicating their motives for attending university are similar to the ideals espoused by early scholars Newman and Flexner who advocated the aims of universities should to be to learn and acquire new knowledge in pursuit of truth. However, as previously previously mentioned, based on the somewhat confusing results throughout the goal congruence factors testing, there is a need for a future study to determine relevance of the goal congruence item questions.

5) **Having credentials will assist promote the professionalism of policing?**

These findings in Table 88 showed respondents within the various ranks significantly believed that formal education promotes police professionalism. These findings also support those found in Table 20 suggesting respondents strongly believe that police educational credentials and standards for police are changing in the future.

In summarizing these findings relating to the goal congruence cluster, respondents were in agreement that attending universities for improving their mind, learning new knowledge and improving their academic abilities was a major consideration and influence in pursuing higher education. Not as significant to respondents, was attending university for achieving a university degree, achieving academic fulfillment, or attending university for professional development. What these findings reflect is an image of the adult justice professional as a self-assured individual who pursues higher education goals more for intrinsic goals such as improving the mind, learn new knowledge and improve academic abilities, rather than the personal recognition of having a university credential. Further discussion of these results and the need for future research is discussed in chapter five under the heading limitations.

4.10. RESULTS FROM JOB RELEVANCE FACTORS

The job relevance factors and findings are summarized below. The results attempted to measure the reality and influence between job relevance factors and educational attainment. These item questions were:

1) University programs are relevant to my current job assignment

2) University studies will help me learn more about law enforcement

3) University programs are relevant professional development and career plans

4) University studies are available to assist me develop leadership skills

5) Having university education is an important addition to police training

6) University education is different to police training

Pearson correlations and Chi-Square procedures were used to test for statements posed in the job relevance items listed in the previous paragraph. In summary, educational opportunities considered statistically significant in relation to educational attainment were identified as:

1) **University programs are relevant to my current work assignment:**

The findings in Tables 89-90 showed that respondents across the various ranks considered attending university to assist them in their current work was a major consideration, but not an important influence in their decisions to pursue higher education goals. The following comment by respondents assists us to understand this viewpoint:

> *"I believe a higher education provides invaluable enrichment/experience for an individual, who will ultimately make one a more rounded, compassionate officer"*

"I do believe that a college/university education helps the mature student learn people skills which is an important factor a police officer can have as an attribute".

2) **University studies will help me learn more about law enforcement:** The findings in Tables 91-92 showed that respondents across the various ranks considered attending university to learn more about law enforcement was a major consideration, but not an important influence in their decisions to pursue higher education goals. These results could be reflecting a view that justice professionals are interested in learning more about policing from an <u>educational perspective</u> as opposed to learning occupational skills they routinely receive during in-service training. As such, as indicated in Table 81, respondents look to educational institutions as places that can assist them improve their mind, learn new knowledge and improve their academic abilities. Some of the following comments made by respondents help illustrate these views:

> *"Though education is important to learn new things, having proper people skills and life experience in dealing with a police environment outweighs education"*

> *"The ability to deal with people is crucial to being successful as a police officer. Although there are courses which can help you develop your skill in this area, generally speaking this is something that is part of your personality and learned better while on the job during training"*

3) **University programs are relevant to professional development and career plans:**

The findings in Tables 93-94 showed that respondents within the various ranks significantly considered educational attainment was relevant to their personal and professional development, but not a major influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. A noticeable pattern in the findings from Tables 90, 91, 92, 93

and 94 is suggesting respondents differentiate between police training needed to do their work effectively and formal education that provides them with learning values relating to self-improvement (i.e. improving the mind, learn new knowledge and learn new educational skills).Some of the comments by respondents below will illustrate this point:

> *"Police services should be seeking practical, responsible, ambitious young people with sound judgement not just educated ones. In the 21st century any young person with those attributes recognizes the importance of completing post-secondary education. "*

> *"As far as the job is concerned – obtaining higher education is a personal thing. It is to a police service benefit to sanction high education as long as it is applicable to the job!"*

> *"When I became a police officer in 1985 there was very much a trend that police officers have a university education. However, of the six recruits that were hired, only three lasted more than two years. Education does help personally but policing is much more than that"*

4) **University studies are available to assist me develop leadership skills:**

The findings in Tables 95-96 showed that respondents across the various ranks considered attending university to develop their leadership skills was a major consideration and influence in their decisions to attend university. These findings of pursuing formal education for the purpose of learning new leadership skills can be explained in the context of today's corporate police culture that promotes the concept of demonstrated leadership skills as a major competency and value in promotional competitions.

5) **University education is an important addition to police training:**

The findings in Tables 97-98 showed respondents within the various ranks

significantly agreed that educational institutions offer learning that is clearly

different to the vocational training they receive and an important addition.

Consistent with other earlier findings in Tables 90, 91, 92, 93 and 94, respondents

are able to distinguish between police training and formal education. Some of the

following comments by respondents show how they differentiate between formal

education and police training:

> *"Education is great to expose yourself to other persons outside law*
> *enforcement to expand your thought and idea process. But don't forget about*
> *practical experience learned on the job which is more important".*

> *"Education is a long-term benefit to the community and city at large.*
> *Practical knowledge cannot be taken away. We can only grow as a*
> *society if we use both"*

> *"Police Officers should be encouraged to pursue education because*
> *our job influences the society in many ways"*

> *"Formal education can be and is an asset to any profession; however,*
> *other variables are equally as valuable in shaping your ability to be an*
> *effective police officer. Some of these characteristics and skills are*
> *learned through life experiences and socialization on the job not*
> *education"*

6) **University education is different from police training:** The findings in Tables

99-100 showed that respondents within the various ranks agree that formal

education is significantly different to police training. These results further

support findings in Table 97-98 that showed respondents believed that formal

education learning is an important addition to police training. that targets

specialized police skills and functions.

Respondents' comments that will assist to illustrate a policing perspective on the differences between formal education and training are presented as follows:

> *"Courses I have taken through training while a police officer have been more relevant to my line of work than any post secondary education program I have heard of or been involved with. College/University education assists more once an officer enters the realm of management. It is still important at this level to still have the life and people skills in your back pocket"*

> *"I believe a higher education provides invaluable enrichment/experience for an individual, which will ultimately make one a more rounded, compassionate officer. However, I have met many fine officers and supervisors who are not suited to formal degree/diploma studies"*

> *"The basic entry level educational requirement for policing in Ontario is a high school diploma (grade 12). This seems to work for most applicants – in that most grade 12 applicants make it through recruit training and on-the-job training with little difficulty"*

> *"On a personal note – I came on the job with 2 university degrees (almost a 3rd). If anything, the university experience made me a more "rounded" individual... "*

Findings relating to the job relevance cluster (see Tables 90-94) seem to indicate respondents do not look to formal education for specialized training to teach them how to do their jobs better but instead emphasized intrinsic learning values such as the importance of formal education to develop their minds, acquire new knowledge and improve their academic abilities.

An overall summary of the findings relating to the job relevance factors showed that: justice professionals considered formal education was a major consideration and influence to assist them in their current work and to learn more about law enforcement from an educational perspective rather than learning occupational skills they learn from their organizations. Finally, respondents show a

clear understating of the differences between formal education and police training.

Generally speaking, respondents significantly agree that both police training and

formal education are an important addition to the policing profession.

In chapter five to follow, the conclusions of this study are discussed.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.0. THE STUDY AND PROCESS

This empirical study has contributed to the growing body of Canadian and American literature on police participation in higher education through the exploration of two major themes. The first was to provide descriptive data on the personal, professional, and educational characteristics of justice professionals working in municipal, provincial and federal policing services in the province of Ontario. The second major theme was to provide the reader with the results of this study which looked at what factors described as "enablers" (i.e., motivators and influences), and other factors described as "disablers" (i.e., barriers) exist in Canadian policing environments that prevent police from participating in higher educational attainment.

This study attempted to provide answers to the following questions: Do main variables defined as experience, rank, age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, number of dependents, secondary employment, plans for retirement or to seek new employment have an impact on police decisions to participate in higher education? And further, what impediments, motivators and influences relating to what were identified in this study as the six common clusters of factors (i.e., financial, convenience, social support, institutional culture, goal congruence, and job relevance) impacted on police decisions to pursue higher education goals?

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Another purpose of this study was to provide information by reviewing literature to reach a greater understanding into the complexities facing justice professionals, police organizations and the broader community by addressing issues such as: whether police have the necessary skills and education to meet the modern day police challenges of the 21st century, and secondly, to compare the policing sector to other professionals such as lawyers and nurses to ask what minimum level of education is needed to professionalize the policing sector.

The absence of literature in the area of police formal education in Canada underscores the necessity for Canadian research when one considers that most of what we know today on the topic is mainly due to the contributions of American scholars. Since the 1960s, numerous Presidential commissions and a number of researchers have examined the advantages and disadvantages of college/university educated officers in the United States. Not until 1982, when the FBI collaborated with the University of Virginia, was any comprehensive study done that looked at the underlying factors which influence police decisions to pursue higher education.

In view of the aforementioned, this study is indebted to previous work done in 1982 by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in collaboration with the School of Education at the University of Virginia. Their work greatly assisted to conceptualize how a similar study in Canada on factors impacting police decisions to pursue higher education could be undertaken (See Chronister, J.L, Ganseder, B.M., LeDoux, J.C. and Tully, E.J., 1982).

This study began by involving 1150 justice professionals working in 20 different municipal, provincial and federal policing organizations within the province of Ontario. These officers were administered a questionnaire made up of two sections: Part one of the questionnaire had 24 items that provided important information describing the personal and professional educational characteristics of Ontario justice professionals. Part two of the questionnaire had 34 items designed to answer questions relating to the reality and influence assessments (i.e. enablers, disablers) of six common clusters of factors identified as financial, convenience, social support, institutional culture, goal congruence and job relevance, that could be examined to measure the existence of barriers, motivations and influences that impact on police decisions to pursue higher education.

In the following pages, a summary of the findings is discussed.

5.1. PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Findings: The picture that has emerged of Canadian policing is demonstrably different then the picture portrayed in American studies dealing with police formal education standards and mandatory policies requiring officers to be certified through educational credentials. For example, studies by Sherman 1978b and Wilson 1975 claimed better educated officers actually performed worse than non educated officers because they lacked focus and many had some superior attitudes considered harmful to the police culture of obedience and loyalty. Other studies as in Salten, 1979, Rodriquez, 1995; Varricchio, 1998, Palombo, 1995, Breci, 1994-97, Varricchio, 1998, Dale, 1994, claimed that college educated officers would find the average work too boring, experience limited upward mobility, experience problems with shift work and experience frustration with autocratic leadership which would result in high turnover rates.

In contrast to the findings from some American studies, findings from this study show that 88% of respondents already had a degree or diploma or were planning to complete a degree or diploma. This compared to only 12% of respondents who were not taking any formal studies and had no plans to take them. Of those 88% of justice professionals engaged in higher education studies, 82% are certain of their future plans to stay in policing, 94% were satisfied and are not seeking new careers, and a further 86% have indicated they have no secondary employment activities other than policing.

An interesting observation of these Ontario justice professionals was the marital status of the sample group relating to higher education. Results showed the most active groups in educational pursuits were: 61% married/partnered couples, 30% single, 4% separated 4% widowed and 2% divorced. With respect to number of dependents, the most active groups in education were: those with no dependents 42%, those with 1-2 dependents 36%, those with 3-4 dependents 17%, and those with more than 5 dependents 4%.

To summarize the personal and professional characteristic factors, one can conclude that marital status did not impede justice professionals from pursuing educational attainment. However, some patterns of difficulty or barriers were detected when measuring the number of dependents and education. Results showed that the more respondents cared for dependents, the less involvement they had in educational pursuits. These findings portray the Ontario adult justice learners as highly motivated individuals who are loyal to their profession and organizations. To achieve these educational goals, these professionals have indicated they are prepared to sacrifice their personal time to achieve their personal and professional goals.

From a policy perspective, these findings should be viewed as encouraging to policing administrators and government officials who may question if organizational resources (i.e., financial and time investments) expended in promoting the professional image of their organizations and encouraging their members to achieve educational attainment are worth the financial investment.

5.2. REALITY AND INFLUENCE ASSESSMENTS

Financial findings: Respondents indicated that major barriers that influenced their decisions to participate in higher education included the lack of government assistance, the lack of incentive pay, the high costs of education and the personal finances available to them. Not considered a major barrier but nevertheless an influence in their decisions to pursue higher education was the prospect of needing formal education for future promotions. Job security was neither considered a barrier or an influence in their decisions to participate in formal education.

Convenience findings: Respondents indicated major barriers and also major influences were shift work and personal time constraints. A major motivator was the availability of flexible schedules and university programs that included distance education. Not considered barriers or influences in their decisions to pursue educational goals were the location of universities, if universities offered part-time studies, and the time courses were offered. Conclusions reached are that if respondents are able to attend universities, then location, time of courses and the nature of programs are not at issue. However, respondents who are hampered by time constraints and shift work can only participate in higher education by distance education.

Social support findings: Respondents considered support from family and co-workers and meeting new people were major motivating influences in their decisions to pursue higher education goals. Meeting new people who do not work in law enforcement fields was not a factor or an influence. Conclusions reached are these

justice professionals are motivated to meet new people at educational settings but also value networking with other justice professionals involved in education.

Institutional culture findings: The perceived non-support by management was a major barrier to civilians, constables and supervisors. Senior officers, on the other hand, found management support a major motivator and influence in their decisions to pursue higher education. Other findings from an educational institution perspective concluded that positive attitudes by students and faculty toward police and police finding students and faculty academically stimulating were considered major motivators in pursuing higher education. Not considered a barrier or even an issue was the respondent's own self-assessment of abilities to succeed in higher education. This is not surprising considering the nature of police work and the personality traits of justice professionals that bring out confident attitudes in this group.

Goal congruence findings: Respondents indicated they are motivated in attending universities to improve their mind, learn new knowledge, improve and fulfill academic abilities. Another major motivator is to promote the policing profession. Considered important but not a major influence for attending universities was to achieve a university credential. In attempting to answer this apparent contradiction one needs to consider the subculture of justice professionals who as a group consider themselves professional; therefore, not having a degree does not diminish their sense of self-worth or professional status. Other areas not considered motivators or influences involve attending universities to learn to impart knowledge similar to their own personal and professional work. In this regard, justice professionals look to educational institutions to positively add to their learning and not replace

occupational learning they receive through regular in-service training and conferences.

Job relevance findings: Respondents indicated attending university to develop leadership skills and pursuing education as an important addition to police training were major motivators in their decisions to participate in higher education. Other factors considered important, but not influencing their decisions, included: attending universities to learn skills relevant to their current work; learning more about law enforcement; and to learn about professional development and career planning.

In reviewing these results, respondents reflect an understating of differences between what formal education can offer (i.e., new knowledge, academic abilities, critical thinking skills, leadership science) and police training (i.e., occupational training in learning new laws, procedures, and techniques) they need for their work. It can be concluded justice professionals do see the benefits of formal education as an important addition to policing training and the profession in general.

In conclusion, it can be said Ontario justice professionals are a very homogenous group, highly dedicated to their profession, who seek educational attainment for both intrinsic and tangible results. Results from specific variables showed respondents had a strong desire to improve their mind, learn new knowledge and develop academic abilities. This is an intrinsic value. The tangible motive was to attend universities to develop leadership skills. This latter motive reflects a practical and long standing corporate view that leadership qualities are valued in police organizations.

Let's not forget the first public police force by Sir Robert Peel was created in the image of the military model. The core mission and nature of police work has not changed over the past 100 years and neither have the basic police organizational structures and values emphasizing discipline, good order and loyalty to the organization. Leadership skills and leadership potential will continue to be dominant qualities needed for promotional advancement in policing organizations. Hence, the respondents' willingness to embrace leadership science offered at educational institutions.

5.3. MINIMUM EDUCATION STANDARDS AND POLICING

The results of this study from the perspective of the Ontario justice professionals have some worthwhile implications for policy makers. The reason being, is that (88%) of justice professionals have either earned a college/university degree or are in the process of completing one. Only (12%) of respondents have no current or future plans to engage in educational attainment. These results are indicative of a highly educated policing sector representing 23,000 working members in the province of Ontario.

Respondents have also indicated that the educational bar from the current minimum grade 12 high school levels for entry into policing should be raised. Results showed that 38% of respondents favoured keeping the same standard at a high school diploma while 62% have indicated that some level of education above the high school diploma (e.g., combination of college and university) should be mandated.

Some respondents who represent the minority opinion strongly feel that attributes of a good police officer (i.e., family values, strong morals, ethical behaviour, and life experience) outweigh the benefits of formal education. Some questions by respondents were also raised as to the value of education to performance. Here are samples of comments:

Sample comments for not raising standards:

Many persons with only a high school education have made and will make great police officers. A higher education doesn't guarantee that the individual will be a better officer.

Having a college or university degree with no real life experiences is just that. A piece of paper that states you have gone to college or university.

Many students with any certificates, diplomas, and/or degrees are shocked when the real world comes to life. This is not to say that education is worthless. Higher education is always good but life experiences are also an education. It is just you don't get the paper with it.

If you raise the education level too high, you will be missing out on a lot of people who are intelligent but may not have had the monetary resources for university. Many people today are self taught through media and internet or simply books from libraries.

I believe real life experience is extremely important in policing. Many people with degrees have either no real life experience and or can't handle many complex situations with people due to lack of experience.

I do not think higher levels of education are required to perform law enforcement duties. I believe life experience and common sense and customer service are essential to law enforcement growth and abilities.

No correlation between higher education and a person's ability as a police officer exists- better general education and common sense one main factor

I feel policing is a job that uses a lot of common sense and patience. A degree is not needed. On the job training and experience is better than university for most officers.

Sample comments supporting raising educational standards:

Just that we need to mandate higher educational standards to at least college level to have the respect of the community as professionals!

We can't call ourselves professionals with high school education.

Higher education is an asset for sure in today's age.

Higher education must be mandatory.

I believe college/university education may be of some assistance

I believe a higher education makes you more competitive in the application for law enforcement

Educated individuals tend to be more open minded and easier to work with than those who are not.

A better fit with role at police work: education would be a positive change.

I believe the minimal educational requirements for law enforcement are quite low and below standard. Education is an important tool and not promoted enough within law enforcement.

Make a post secondary (College/University) a mandatory minimum. Bringing persons with such authorities and powers and ability to think analytically is essential. A high school education is not sufficient "grey matter" conditioning/exercise to make dynamic decisions and effectively problem solve.

As these comments illustrate some justice professionals in the minority opinion share the prevailing wisdom that educational institutions may not be the best place to identify the makings of a "good cop" or that formal education has been proven to increase overall police performance. In this regard, these decisions are seen as best left up to police recruiting, training centres and police administrators to decide. These claims, with some limited reason, have yet to be tested or supported by empirical research.

It may be that this apparent reluctance toward police higher education is founded on attitudinal foundations. For example, Carter and Sapp (1989), who conducted exhaustive reviews of U.S., based research looking at educated vs. non educated college officers, made a prudent observation, which if not scientifically, at least intuitively, asked; who can really argue that education is bad for you?

No compelling case against the benefits of educated officers was observed in the literature review for this study. Most studies relating to police education suffered from a number of similar problems. Most evident problems

are that researchers relied on self-report descriptive data collection methods that did not discriminate or remove the presence of bias in their samples. Another major issue affecting policing still remains the problem of how to describe what constitutes a "good cop", a "bad cop", a "street smart cop" , a "good leader", or for that matter, effective police performance that policing can agree on.

Several conclusions supported by this study however are that 86% of respondents believe minimum educational standards for policing are changing, 62% of respondents believe educational standards as they currently stand are too low, and a further 76% of respondents strongly agree that supervisors and senior managers need at least a college diploma, baccalaureate degree, or graduate degree to be effective in their leadership roles.

Accordingly then, a willingness is needed on the part of police administrators and government officials to operationalize these findings and in the process put in place scientific measuring techniques that can be reviewed and studied toward building a body of knowledge for Canadian policing.

5.4. LIMITATIONS

The questionnaire in this study provided a fairly effective means to quantitatively study factors that have intuitive aspects relating to motives, attitudes, influences and barriers of respondents. In this study, however, some inconclusive relationships noted by the researcher were the result of deficiencies in the construction of the questionnaire. Future survey construction should contain items to capture more in depth information on:

Ethnicity variable: Not sufficient survey questions were designed to explore whether police members of different ethnic groups in police organizations felt supported by their organizations to pursue higher education. This includes the level of perceived non support from supervisors and management. In this study, respondents identified as First Nations, Latin American and a group identified as "other" did not feel supported or felt minimally supported by their organization. This is an important consideration since policing today faces constant challenges and demands from a multicultural, multi-racial society. Considering this study is advocating formal education so that police can better contribute to the overall good of society, future studies and police administrators should focus on this issue of ethnicity in policing.

Rank variable: This original item question had 29 categories that were then recoded into four groups (i.e., civilian, constables, supervisors and senior officers) to better manage the data for statistical procedures. Many civilian groups who work both inside and outside policing contributed to this study (i.e. civilian police members and administrators, special constables in courts, provincial legislation security officers, university police, Housing Authority, and military police).

The questionnaire was designed with the police officer in mind and as a result may not have captured the civilian reality within police services and other justice organizations. This is an important future consideration since over the past ten years costs saving measures by government have seen a greater merging of civilian and police role to promote organizational efficiencies. It is not uncommon today in large city police services to observe uniform members, supervisors and senior officers reporting to civilian executives', only decades ago, this was unthinkable. An example is the new RCMP commissioner appointed by Prime Minister Stephen Harper this past summer to oversee the largest policing service in the country. This professional bureaucrat is highly educated, highly experienced in government affairs, but has never been a police officer, nor has he passed the basic RCMP recruit training course required to join the RCMP. As one can see, this is an issue that requires further research to examine the nature of the civilian role in policing environments.

Items 13 and 14 (i.e., College-University): In this study the terms college and university were blended together (i.e., college-university) to denote educational attainment beyond a high school diploma. This was necessary to avoid asking questions relating to both colleges and university separately for each question. Although the researcher noted respondents did not appear confused by this designation, future research studies should separate college educational attainment from university educational attainment since these two institutions historically were designed to serve different aims and purposes.

Educational Behaviour Hypothesis: One of the research goals stated for this study

was to determine police educational behaviour in Ontario by comparing <u>four specific</u>

<u>groups</u>. These groups were identified as:

Table 23: Educational Behaviour of Ontario Justice Professionals

Research Question	N=Sample	(X= %)	N-On	(X= % On)
1. Have a University degree	283	25%	23579	5895 (or 25%)
1a Have a College diploma	357	31%	23579	7309 (or 31%)
1c Graduate degrees	23	2%	23579	472 (or 2%)
2. Plan to acquire and are currently enrolled	296*	26%	23579	6131 (or 26%)
3. No plans to acquire-no known reason determined	46*	4%	23579	943 (or 4%)
4. No desire and No plans to take courses	137	12%	23579	2829 (or 12%)

Notes: (N-Ont) =Ontario police population;
(*) No 2-Plan to acquire includes degree and diploma students
(*) No 3- Estimated by adding the sum of all known variables and subtracting unknown

The researcher to obtain the mean scores for group 3 had to resort to

mathematical computations due to a design fault realized in items 14 and 15 of the

questionnaire. A category in items 14 and 15 should have been added to ask

respondents: *"Desire to pursue college/university but currently have no plans to do*

so"

Lastly, the researcher noted further research is needed to explore the goal

congruence cluster of factors to better assess the value respondents place on the

"degree" earned at universities. For example in the questionnaire, respondents were

asked to assess the following statements relating to attending universities: I have a

desire to improve my mind, knowledge and academic ability; college/university

studies provides the opportunity for academic fulfillment; the goal of

college/university programs is to impart knowledge similar to my own personal/professional goals; having credentials will assist promote the professionalism of law enforcement; and *I wish to obtain a college/university degree for personal achievement*. In all these statements posed, respondents indicated a strong agreement to all, accept for the last statement highlighted. This for the researcher was somewhat puzzling to understand considering how respondents were motivated to attend college-university for all those reasons they indicated were major goals (i.e., motivators), but yet did not consider attending university to personally achieve a degree as important (i.e., not a major influence)?

Reflecting on the comments made by respondents at the back of the questionnaire coupled with the practical experience of the researcher, it is suggested one reason respondents found attending university to personally achieve a university degree less important to other personal goals is their sense of professional pride in their profession. From this policing perspective, respondents do not look to universities to confer degrees to validate their professional status, but rather to provide respondents with achieving self-improvement goals (i.e., gain new knowledge, improve the mind, improve academic abilities, learn new leadership science and improve the overall reputation of the profession). Future research should include other item questions to test this hypothesis.

5.5. IMPLICATIONS OF RESEARCH

5.5.1. Policing: The implications of this research study established that justice

professionals do not look to educational institutions to provide or to teach them

technical or occupational skills they receive through effective in-service training and

or by attending professional development conferences. In contrast, police look to

universities and colleges to provide them with opportunities to improve their mind,

learn new knowledge, learn new leadership skills, enhance academic abilities,

promote the policing profession, and to learn more about policing from an

educational perspective. These results make obvious the point that the policing sector

is ready to embrace changes toward educational attainment if they receive some

financial assistance from government and police organizations in the form of support

(i.e. through accommodation of work schedules, educational leave periods,

scholarship funds and or incentive pay) to ease the financial burden and offset the

high costs of education they considered major barriers to their education goals and

aspirations.

In Canada there is evidence to suggest that higher education in policing, while

not yet a formal requirement is slowly being accepted. A survey of Ontario police

chiefs by Turriff in (1997) concluded that formal education is becoming a factor in

the selection process for police executives. This supports the findings in this study

that found participants wanted formal education policies for those in supervisory or

managerial positions in police organizations. Further, those chiefs interviewed by

Turriff who did not have an undergraduate degree wished they had, and those with

baccalaureate degrees wanted to pursue graduate studies.

Similar to findings in this study, 88% of justice professionals working in Ontario have already earned a college-university degree or are in the process of achieving one.

Other studies by Ratchford (2001) Kakar, (1998), Turriff, (1997), Krimmel, (1996), report that officers who were asked about the merits of education responded that they did not consider higher education as an occupational necessity but did believe some benefits (e.g., writing reports, communication, interpersonal skills, social skills) are derived from formal education. This study shows that 62% of justice professionals in Ontario believe the educational standards for entry into the policing professions should be something more than a high school diploma. Mastrofsky and Ritti (1996), who studied the effects of police formal education, found positive correlations between education, training and supportive police environments. In this study over 80% of respondents believe that formal education is different and an important addition to police training received.

Most of the results from studies reviewed that promote police higher education are similar to the ones measured in this current study analyzing factors that impact police decisions to participate in educational attainment. Part of the argument deduced from these previous studies are that the effect of formal education and training will be impacted by the amount of opportunities and support members receive from their organizations and administrators. These findings were supported in this study by respondents who indicated that support by their organizations and managers/supervisors had a major impact and influence in their decisions to pursue higher education.

The other issue linking the relevance of education with promotional advancement has yet to be undertaken in any known Canadian studies but respondents in this study indicated formal education should be a requirement of positions that involve supervisors, senior officers and managers.

Burger (2004) suggests the policing community has yet to reach an agreement on the merits of education as either producing a better all-round officer or even if education makes for better leadership. However, Burger also implies that degree programs with both educational and training components can be developed to assist the policing profession. Such training and education reform occurred in the nursing sector and can pave the way for police reform.

Skolnik (1994), reflecting on the educational reform experience in the nursing sector warns that changing the status quo [vocational training] and formally raising the standard to a profession [university degree] is an enormous task. Nursing like policing historically had received internal training at local hospitals before the requirement of a baccalaureate degree from a university. In terms of process and implementation Skolnik points out: "What is at issue in nursing is not just the creation of a joint program here and there, but a reform of professional education of major proportions - something which occurs only rarely in any profession" (p.4). It is interesting to note that this reform movement in nursing which began to be discussed in the early 1960s was achieved in 2005 (Skolnik, 2004, as cited in Ellis, 2005, pp. 40-44). In the United States, Vollmer started the police education movement in 1905 which eventually became law after the several presidential commissions in the mid 1960s and the various court challenges in favour of education in the 1970s.

In Canada, what is encouraging to this author is that movement for change toward police higher education is happening from within the policing sector itself. The policing community are starting to drive policy toward police formal education. It is this willingness to change that this author finds optimistic and predicts the goal of police formal education can be achieved in the next 5-10 years with careful planning, collaborations and support between key stake holders (i.e., community, police members and unions, administrators, government and educational institutions). As well, we are reminded by Skolnik (1994) to approach any change carefully and incrementally to ensure a successful process.

5.5.2. Government Policy: The goal of formal education in Canadian policing remains an elusive one. The framework for a coordinated strategy for higher education policy in the Province of Ontario remains a concept without any legal basis or a needed fundamental broad consensus for education policy to become a reality.

In terms of policy implications, the findings in this study complement recent government working papers calling for Canadian government at all levels, federal provincial-territorial and municipal, to establish educational policies that involves all personnel working in the justice system.

The Coordination Education & Skill Development Branch (CESD) of the Ontario Ministry of Consumer and Business services recommends that by the year 2012 all individuals who choose careers within the justice system must first achieve academic qualifications through at least two entry points: either College or University. At each level, areas of study will be identified to compliment core competencies of each discipline (i.e. law enforcement, corrections, probations and parole, etc.). Other changes currently being reviewed call for regulating the private sector disciplines such as: private security, counselling, investigation services and para-legal services. These recommendations if adopted into law will require province wide qualifying exams in order to practise in the province of Ontario (http://opspolicy.gov.on.ca). However, worth repeating for the benefit of government and justice agencies in implementing change is to heed the advise by Skolnik (1994), who stated: "What [was] at issue in nursing [was] not just the creation of a joint program here and there, but a reform of professional education of major proportions - something which occurs only rarely in any profession"(p.4).

5.5.3 Education Sector and Police Sector Initiatives: From an educational

perspective, collaborative efforts between the education sector and policing sectors

have been in existence and written about for the last several decades, for example see

Ellis, (2005), Lang, (2002), Jones, (1997), Dennison, (1985). Different colleges and

universities have offered programs resulting in certificates, graduate certificates,

diplomas and applied college degrees. However, two recent university initiatives

giving police substantial credit for experience that can be applied toward earning

baccalaureate degrees offer new approaches and educational pathways worthy of a

brief review. These initiatives are currently being offered in the Province of Quebec

and the Province of Ontario.

A) Province of Quebec (Bachelor's Degree in Public Security)

The Québec Police Act [R.S.Q., Ch. P-13.1, a. 116.] states the Quebec

government may, by regulation, determine the minimum qualifications required to

exercise investigative or managerial functions within a police force. What this means

is that to be an investigator in Quebec (e.g. equivalent designation to a supervisor in

Ontario police services, or a manager, which is an equivalent designation to senior

officers or civilian managers), requires individuals who want to aspire to those

positions must have a baccalaureate degree. According to the author's current

knowledge, this is the first time in Canada a government has mandated police officers

to have a university degree to practise.

In terms of curriculum, police to become investigators and or managers must

have successfully completed the basic training program in police investigation offered

by the École nationale de police du Québec. The program is specific to policing and is

offered in six different universities located throughout the province. The basic mixed

training and education program in investigations consists of the following courses:

- Penal law applied to police investigations (3 cr.);

- The investigation process (3 cr., 28 hours theory, 17 hours OJT);

- Criminological analysis applied to police investigations (3 cr.);

- Elements of practical ethics (3 cr.); and

- An integration activity in police investigations (3 weeks, 6 cr., at the School)

(Brassard, P, 2007).

B) Province of Ontario (Diploma, Degree and Graduate Degrees)

In 2006, the University of Guelph, the University of Guelph-Humber and

Humber Institute of Technology and Advanced Learning (ITAL), in partnership with

Ontario Police Services and other justice agencies, created a program *Pathways To*

Success, that offered leadership programs at the diploma, undergraduate and graduate

level. This program, which was piloted in (2004-2005), currently has approximately

350 professional justice students enrolled, representing some 15 police services and

justice agencies in Ontario.

This proposed laddering program provides officers and administrators with a

clear roadmap for developing leadership potential among members involved in the

justice field. Accomplishing these goals required the three educational institutions to

support each other's institutions and credentials, sharing a strong desire to streamline

the education process, and to ensure maximum credit was earned for police work

experience and other forms of formal and informal education (Walsh, J, Stansfield,

R., Smith, I., Trovato, F., 2007). The end result of these programs is that in

potentially six years of continuous , uninterrupted, streamlined course of studies, a justice professional who started his/her career with a high school diploma, upon successful completion could earn a college diploma, baccalaureate degree and a graduate degree.

The attraction of this program is the method of flexible course delivery methods used (i.e., in class weekend studies in combination with distance education), and the accelerated nature of the program (i.e., in the normal 14 week semester term to finish one university course, by combining in class weekend studies and online education, students can finish two university courses). In terms of content and quality, both educational administrators and justice-industry professionals partnered to ensure the curriculum developed represented both the academic rigor and relevancy of content delivered by professional faculty and industry experts. The following is an example of the laddering steps involved:

Stage 1: Ontario Police College Training (OPC)

The is the first stage in the police career of Ontario members and starts at the Ontario Police College, which is a provincially mandated centralized police training institution, that certifies police officers after the successful completion of two months of training. This training is later enhanced with courses and programs to increase technical skills discussed in stage two below.

Stage 2: Police Foundations Leadership Diploma

The education ladder begins with Humber ITAL's Police Foundations Leadership Diploma, a 30 credit college program which builds on the previous training in OPC. The goal of this program is to enhance technical and leadership skills for members of

police services early in their careers. Police Foundation Leadership Program has 30 courses. The maximum credits earned for prior learning assessment is 23/30 courses. Typically the Police Foundations Program (PFP) takes two years to complete 30 courses over six semesters. In the Police Foundations Leadership Program (PFLP), based on a prior learning assessment for qualified professional students earning the maximum of 23 courses, the remaining seven courses can be accomplished in one semester using the "accelerated pathway program" available that combines intensive weekends and distance education. To be eligible for this program, an individual must be a sworn civilian or a uniform member of a police/justice agency with a minimum of three years experience who has completed the Ontario Police College training/RCMP training/Military College and have worked to gain some community experience (i.e. demonstrated community volunteer initiatives). Completion of this program offered by Humber ITAL will allow direct entry into the Bachelor of Applied Arts (i.e. 3 year) Justice Degree Program at the University of Guelph-Humber. Advanced standing on the basis of prior learning and education is available.

Stage 3: Bachelor of Applied Arts Degree (BAA)

The BAA program is designed for the unique learning needs of the Canadian law enforcement practitioner. Advanced standing on the basis of prior learning and education is available. The Justice Studies BAA program is open to all law enforcement practitioners who are sworn peace officers with a minimum of three years related experience. If a student can show proof of graduation from a Police Foundations or Law and Security Administration Diploma from a recognized College, applicants can receive (5) university credits. As well, applicants can receive

an additional (4) university credits for their prior learning acquired on and off the job. Applicants who receive the maximum advanced standing of (9) university credits can complete a BAA degree in two years of part-time study. The completion of this program offered at the University of Guelph-Humber will allow entry into a Masters in Leadership Program offered by the University of Guelph.

Stage 4: MA (Leadership)

The MA (Leadership) is designed for middle and senior managers. The University of Guelph offers an online MA (Leadership) program to enhance police leadership potential without interrupting their careers. This program offers a broad multidisciplinary approach to a diversified group of leaders from both public and private sector organizations. The diverse backgrounds of participants enhance the "applied collaborative learning" approach. In this program the MA (Leadership) participants delve into leadership in a variety of contexts based on their past leadership experiences. The program is a two year program comprised of two independent segments. The first year is a course work program. On completing year one the candidate is awarded a Graduate Diploma in Leadership. The candidate may exit at this point or may automatically proceed to the second year which includes courses and a research project. On completing year two the candidate is awarded an MA (Leadership). Candidates may proceed to a Ph D program at a later date. It is anticipated the University of Guelph will be developing a Ph D in Leadership in the very near future to complete the laddering process to serve the policing community.

The educational programs discussed thus far are unique in that they have accurately predicted the needs of the adult justice learner in the province of Ontario. These programs offer individuals involved in justice agencies the chance for a quality education delivered in the most effective and efficient way to respond to the professional and personal needs identified in this study. For example, time constraints, lack of organizational and management support, lack of government financial support, the burden of personal finances, the need for educational institutions to provide flexible course delivery were all cited as major barriers that influence police participation in higher education.

Finally, what justice professionals seek to achieve from universities is the opportunity to improve their minds, learn new knowledge, improve their academic abilities, promote police professionalism and enhance leadership skills. In Quebec, supervisors and managers are mandated to have a university degree which is what respondents in this study recommended; and in Ontario, the educational partners are on the right path to serving this unique policing community achieve their goals.

5.6. FUTURE RESEARCH

A research note is extended to all Canadian scholars on the scarcity of literature that I found exists on the themes identified in this study. The need for new research is urgent in light of the renewed interest by police administrators and local governments looking at ways to raise the educational requirements in both the policing and the security industry. A new body of knowledge to properly assess policies relating to minimum education standards in the policing sector will no doubt assist in the overarching goal of providing justice professionals with both training and formal education opportunities in the province of Ontario and Canada. In doing so, the professional image of an already respected and valued profession will also be enhanced.

The call for future research centres on issues already discussed in this report. There is a need to describe how a competent justice professional is to be defined if future evaluations of educational programs involving justice professionals are to be undertaken. For example, American and Canadian policing have yet to articulate performance measurements that are empirically verifiable to examine the value of a college/university educated officer vs. a non educated one. Other topics include:

1. *Does formal education improve police performance (i.e., with writing skills, critical thinking skills, research skills, communication skills)?*

2. *Are there differences in police attitudinal attributes (i.e., humanistic vs. authoritarian behaviour and orientation toward citizens) between educated officers and non educated officers?*

3. *Does formal education create a more tolerant, worldly view that improves minority relations?*

4. *Does formal education improve ethical police behaviour-i.e. number of citizen complaints, internal discipline matters, officer evaluations, officer retention rates?*

5. *Are there differences between university educated and non educated officers with respect to promotions, leadership and management abilities?*

These questions remain largely unanswered owing to the limited research in this area.

FIGURES, APPENDICES, BIBLOGRAPHY

APPENDIX A

LETTER REQUESTING ADMINISTRATOR CONSENT

APPENDIX A

LETTER REQUESTING ADMINISTRATORS CONSENT

Chief of Police: Date: In the year 2007
Address:
Postal Code:
Telephone:

Dear Chief:

I am a doctoral student in the Theory and Policy Studies in Education Department at OISE/UT and am currently planning a research project called *"Factors Impacting Police Higher Education in the Province of Ontario"* that will involve members of your police service. In order to begin the project, I require your written consent.

The purpose of this study is to identify factors that inhibit or promote police higher education and also examine police officer's attitudes toward the pursuit of higher education. The participant officers will be asked questions in the survey to measure items such as: age, gender, educational level, and years of police experience. Other questions will identify those factors which discriminate between police officers who want to pursue a college or university education and those who do not. This data should suggest to police administrators and educators the reasons why police pursue, or fail to pursue the goals of higher education.

In addition, this study has potential broader community implications and value for police administrators because ordinary citizens in our diverse communities entrust police officers to safeguard the safety, liberties and quality of life everyday. As such, they expect a great deal of police officers. In this respect, it is hoped this study can also provide answers to some recent issues raised by citizens, politicians, and police critics alike, such as:

- Do police have the necessary skills and education to meet the modern day police challenges of the 21st century?
- Compared to other justice professionals such as lawyers, nurses, and paramedics, what is the acceptable level of education needed to professionalize the police occupation?
- What impediments, factors and influences (i.e. enablers) or prevent (i.e. disablers) exist in police environments to prevent officers from acquiring higher education?

The first step in the process is to receive your permission to collect data using questionnaires distributed to selected officers in your service. This can be accomplished by identifying training coordinators at various police facilities and allow them to coordinate, recruit and administer a package containing an information letter, the questionnaire, the administrator's permission letter and the accompanying envelope to seal the questionnaires. Appropriate training days will be scheduled through the training coordinators so that participants will be afforded the opportunity of completing the questionnaires on duty without negatively impacting regular police service to the public.

The scope of the study involves identifying six to 20 police services across the Greater Toronto Area with a sample size of approximately 2000 to 4000 questionnaires to be distributed. The time period for the return of the questionnaires is estimated at six weeks to allow for all participants at a police facility working in a platoon system to participate.

It is the intention that each participant has the choice of declining to participate in filling out the questionnaire if they so choose. Participants at any time during the taking of the questionnaire may decide not to participate in which case they will be asked to return the blank questionnaire in the envelope provided.

Neither your name nor the name of your police service will be used in any published report, nor will any comparisons between police services be undertaken in this study. In addition, no value judgments will be placed on any participant's questionnaire replies. At the conclusion of the study, all data, including any observation notes, will be destroyed.

The study will be conducted under the supervision of Professor Dan Lang who can be reached at during business hours at telephone number: (416-923-6641), or his email address at: dan.lang @utoronto.ca.

Thank you in advance for your consideration. Please feel free to contact me at 416-675-6622, ext.6317; or, E-mail me at: frank.trovato@humber.ca, with any questions or concerns you may have. **Please return all correspondence to the attention of:**

Ms. Jane Russ,
Continuing Education Manger,
Humber Institute of Technology and Advanced Learning
3199 Lakeshore Blvd West, Toronto, Ontario
Bus: 416-675-6622, ext 3252
Fax: 416-251-8842
Email: jane.russ@humber.ca

Sincerely,

Frank Trovato, BA, M.Sc.

Administrator's (i.e. Chief or Designates) Signature

Date Permission Granted: _____

Administrator's comments:

APPENDIX B

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION LETTER

APPENDIX B

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION LETTER

Date:

Dear Madam/Sir,

 I am a doctoral student in the Department of Theory and Policy Studies at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto working under the supervision of Professor Dan Lang. As part of my degree requirements, I am requesting your cooperation as a voluntary participant in conducting a research study called *"Factors Impacting Ontario Police Participation in Higher Education"*.

 The purpose of this study is to identify factors that inhibit or promote the pursuit of police higher education. The study will also examine police officer's attitudes toward the pursuit of higher education. In addition, this study has value for ordinary citizens across our diverse communities who entrust police officers to safeguard their safety, liberties and quality of life everyday. As such, they expect a great deal of their police officers.

 Although participation in this study does not offer any form of monetary compensation, your assistance is considered invaluable in contributing to the production of new and potentially illuminating knowledge about the industry in which you work. It is hoped this study will also provide some answers to questions raised by citizens, politicians, administrators and police critics alike, who often ask:

- Do police have the necessary skills and education to meet the modern day police challenges of the 21st century?
- Compared to other justice professionals such as lawyers, nurses, and paramedics, what is the acceptable level of education needed to professionalize the police occupation?
- What impediments, factors and influences (i.e. enablers) or prevent (i.e. disablers) exist in police environments to prevent officers from acquiring higher education?

 In support of this effort, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire developed to examine and measure two dimensions:

- Part I: contains variables concerning the personal attributes of officers and general work related factors
- Part II: will measure education related environmental factors including police attitudes and commitment to pursuing higher education.

The data will be collected by having participants fill out a questionnaire which takes approximately one-half hour to complete. For this study, six to ten police services across the Greater Toronto Area of various sizes will be sampled and approximately 2000 to 4000 questionnaires will be distributed. The time period for the return of the questionnaires is six weeks from when the questionnaires are first distributed.

The first step is to provide the training coordinators who will administer the questionnaire at your work location with a package containing: the questionnaire, the information letter, the administrator's permission letter and the accompanying envelope to seal the questionnaires.

Permission has been granted to conduct this study and it should be emphasized that no one in a position of authority over you will know that you have participated or the nature of your responses. Neither your name nor that of your employer will be used in any published report, nor will any comparisons between police services be undertaken in this study. In addition, no value judgments will be placed on any participant's questionnaire. At the conclusion of the study, all data, including any observation notes, will be destroyed.

It is the intention that each participant has the choice of declining to participate in filling out the questionnaire if they so choose. All questionnaires will have an accompanying self addressed envelope that can be filled out during the participants training period provided for at their workplace or they can choose to complete the survey at a place and time outside the employer's premises. Participants at any time may also decide not to participate in this study in which case you are asked to return the blank questionnaire in the sealed envelope provided.

The study will be conducted under the supervision of Professor Dan Lang who can be reached at during business hours at telephone number: 416-923-6641, or he can be reached by email at: dan.lang @utoronto.ca.

Finally, you are free to ask any questions about the research and your involvement with it and may request a summary of the findings of the study.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Frank Trovato
Candidate, Theory and policy Studies in Education
OISE/University of Toronto
Telephone: 416-675-6622, ext.3138
E-mail: frank.trovato@humber.ca

Dr. D. W. Lang,
Professor, Theory and policy Studies in Education
OISE/University of Toronto
Telephone: 416-923-6641, ext. 7116
E-mail: dan.lang@utoronto.ca

APPENDIX C

TRAINING COORDINATORS CONSENT FORM

APPENDIX C

TRAINING COORDINATORS CONSENT FORM

I, _____, have carefully read the attached Information letter, the Administrator's permission letter and the Directions to the coordinator's letter for the study called *"Factors Impacting Police Higher Education in the Province of Ontario"* which has explained this project to me and has answered all of my questions about it. I understand that if I have additional questions, I can contact Mr. Frank Trovato (416-675-6622, ext 6317) and the project supervisor, Professor Dan W. Lang (416-923-6641, ext 7116) at any time during the research project. I also understand that I may decline or withdraw from participating at any time during this project without negative consequences.

My signature below verifies that I have agreed to administrate the questionnaire for the study called *Factors Impacting Police Higher Education in the Province of Ontario"* as it has been described in the information letter. My signature below also verifies that I am fully competent to sign this coordinator's consent form and that I have received a copy of the information letter, the administrator's permission letter and the training coordinators consent form for my files.

AGREEMENT TO PARTICIPATE

_____   _____
Training Coordinator's Signature   **Date**

Frank Trovato   **Dr. D. W. Lang,**
Candidate, Theory and policy Studies in Education   Professor, Theory and policy Studies in
Education
OISE/University of Toronto   OISE/University of Toronto
Telephone: 416-675-6622, ext.3138   Telephone: 416-923-6641, ext. 7116
E-mail: frank.trovato@humber.ca   E-mail: dan.lang@utoronto.ca

APPENIDX D

**DIRECTIONS FOR
TRAINING COORDINATORS**

APPENDIX D

DIRECTIONS FOR TRAINING COORDINATORS

Date: In the year 2007

To: Training coordinator/official in charge of administering the questionnaire:

This questionnaire is part of a study called *"Factors Impacting Police Higher Education in the Province of Ontario* which aims to determine factors which encourage or discourage law enforcement professionals from enrolling and completing higher education studies.

In order for the information to be useful it is important that the procedures articulated below explaining the selection, recruitment and the administration of the questionnaire are followed carefully.

Procedure:

1: Give the questionnaire to the participants at your police facility on the regularly scheduled training days once they are mailed or given to you.

2: Make sure all respondents have read the information letter and the directions on the questionnaire before participating in the process

3: Emphasize that all individual results are confidential, that participants may refuse to participate at any time during the questionnaire; that neither a person's identity, nor the department where they work will be identified in this study. This is all covered in the Information letter.

4: Instruct participants to read carefully and accurately fill out the questionnaire

5: Have each participant seal their questionnaire once completed in the envelope provided or personally take possession of the questionnaire if handed in to you. If participants wish to take the survey away to complete at another time and place, allow them to do so, but remind them of the six week return deadline expected for this study. Also ensure to provide the participants with all the necessary documents and a self-addressed envelope they can use to mail the questionnaire back to the location indicated on the envelope.

6: Collect all completed and uncompleted questionnaires from the participants.

7: Remember you have six weeks to administer and return the questionnaires from when the questionnaires are first distributed to your location. The six weeks time frame will allow all members at your location working in a platoon rotation system the opportunity to participate in this study during regularly scheduled training days. The number of questionnaires delivered to your location will reflect the number of members who work at that location.

8: Place the training coordinator's signed consent letter and this letter (i.e. directions for training coordinator's) and all completed and uncompleted surveys in envelops provided and the pre-addressed manila envelop(s) which should hold approximately 20 questionnaires and return to:

Ms. Jane Russ,
Manager, Continuing Education
Humber Institute of Technology and Advanced Learning
3199 Lake Shore Blvd, West, Toronto, Ontario, M8V 1K8
jane.russ@humber.ca; 416 675 6622 ext. 3252
Care of: Frank Trovato

9: If you or the participants have any questions which would cause someone to improperly complete the questionnaire, please don't hesitate to call me at the mobile number: 1- 416-525-6364 or contact me through the office number at: 416-675-6622, ext. 3138, or e-mail me at: frank trovato@humber.ca.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Frank Trovato   **Project Supervisor: Dr. D. W. Lang,**
Candidate, Theory and policy Studies in Education   Professor, Theory and policy Studies in Education
OISE/University of Toronto   OISE/University of Toronto
Telephone: 416-675-6622, ext.3138   Telephone: 416-923-6641, ext. 7116
E-mail: frank.trovato@humber.ca   E-mail: dan.lang@utoronto.ca

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE
POLICE OFFICERS AND JUSTICE MEMBERS

QUESTIONNAIRE
OF
POLICE OFFICERS & MEMBERS

PART I

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

POLICE OFFICER/MEMBERS QUESTIONNAIRE
(YOU WILL NOT BE IDENTIFIED AS AN INDIVIDUAL IN ANY WAY)

PART I: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

DIRECTIONS: *FOR THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS, PLEASE PROVIDE THE NECESSARY INFORMATION, EITHER BY PLACING A CHECK MARK IN THE BOX TO THE LEFT OF THE APPROPRIATE ANSWER OR BY WRITING YOUR ANSWER IN THE BLANK PROVIDED.*

1. GENDER

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

2. AGE

- ☐ 19-25 years
- ☐ 26-36 years
- ☐ 37-49 years
- ☐ 50-60 years
- ☐ More than 60 years

3. ETHNIC GROUP

- ☐ White/Caucasian
- ☐ Black/Afro-Canadian
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ South Asian
- ☐ First Nations/Aboriginal
- ☐ Latin American
    - ☐ Other

_____
(Please specify)

4. MARITAL STATUS

- ☐ Single
- ☐ Common Law/Married
- ☐ Separated
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Significant other deceased

5. CURRENT LEVEL OF POLICING EXPERIENCE IN YEARS

- ☐ Less than 3 years
- ☐ 3 – 6
- ☐ 7 – 10
- ☐ 11 – 20
- ☐ 21 – 30
- ☐ Greater than 31 years

6. HOW MANY FAMILY DEPENDENTS DO YOU HAVE?

- ☐ No dependents
- ☐ 1 – 2
- ☐ 3 - 4
- ☐ More than 5

7. PLEASE IDENTIFY YOUR RANK/POSITION

- ☐ Civilian/staff/administration
- ☐ Civilian member (i.e. court security, parking enforcement)
- ☐ Civilian Security-Government
- ☐ Military police
- ☐ College/University police
- ☐ 4TH Class uniform police
- ☐ 3rd Class uniform police
- ☐ 2nd Class uniform police
- ☐ 1st Class uniform police
- ☐ Corporal (RCMP)
- ☐ Sergeant
- ☐ Detective
- ☐ Staff Sergeant
- ☐ Detective Sergeant
- ☐ Inspector
- ☐ Civilian Manager
- ☐ Staff Inspector
- ☐ Superintendent
- ☐ Director (Civilian)
- ☐ Chief Superintendent
- ☐ Staff Superintendent
- ☐ Civilian Command Officer
- ☐ Deputy Chief of Police
- ☐ Deputy Commissioner of Police
- ☐ Chief of Police
- ☐ Commissioner of Police
- ☐ Other_____
(Please specify)

8. DO YOU ROUTINELY HOLD SECONDARY EMPLOYMENT

- ❑ Yes/fulltime
- ❑ Yes/part-time
- ❑ No

9. I PLAN TO REMAIN IN THE FIELD OF LAW ENFORCEMENT UNTIL I RETIRE

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No
- ❑ Years to retirement_____

10. WOULD HIGHER EDUCATION PROMPT YOU TO SEEK A CAREER CHANGE?

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No
- ❑ Other _____
  (Explain)

11. I AM UNDECIDED ABOUT MY FUTURE

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

12. MY CURRENT WORK SCHEDULE IS:

- ❑ Regular shift work (e.g. Days, Afternoons, Midnights)
- ❑ Days only
- ❑ Afternoons only
- ❑ Midnights only
- ❑ Days and Afternoons
- ❑ Other_____
  (Please specify)

13. THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION I COMPLETED PRIOR TO POLICING IS:

- ❑ Less than high school
- ❑ High school Diploma
- ❑ Certificate from College
- ❑ Some College courses (In progress)
- ❑ College diploma
- ❑ Some University (In progress)
- ❑ University degree

- ❑ Some Graduate work (In progress)
- ❑ Master's Degree
- ❑ PhD/Doctoral Degree (In progress)
- ❑ PhD/Doctoral Degree
- ❑ Other_____
  (explain)

14. DO YOU PLAN TO COMPLETE A UNIVERSITY DEGREE

- ❑ I already have one
- ❑ Yes, I plan to complete a university degree in the future
- ❑ No, I do not plan to complete a university degree
- ❑ In progress to complete

15. DO YOU PLAN TO COMPLETE A COLLEGE DIPLOMA

- ❑ I already have one
- ❑ Yes, I plan to complete a college diploma in the future
- ❑ No, I do not plan to complete a college diploma
- ❑ In progress to complete

16. THE COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY PROGRAMS I INTEND TO TAKE SHOULD EMPHASIZE WHAT AREA OF STUDIES:

- ❑ Criminal justice/police science/law enforcement/police administration
- ❑ Liberal arts and sciences such as social science, political science, public administration, humanities, natural science, education
- ❑ Business commerce, business finance, business planning, management and human resource
- ❑ Other_____
  (Please explain)

17. I HAVE NEVER TAKEN AND DO NOT PLAN TO TAKE ANY COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY COURSES

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

18. DO PEOPLE IN YOUR DEPARTMENT RECEIVE INCENTIVE PAY FOR COMPLETING COLLEGE AND OR UNIVERSITY COURSES

- ❏ Yes
- ❏ No
- ❏ Don't know
- ❏ Other: _____

(i.e. full funding, partial funding, interest free loans)

19. I WOULD LIKE TO TAKE COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY COURSES

- ❏ On a part-time basis while working full-time
- ❏ While on an educational leave of absence from work
- ❏ When I am no longer working

20. DO YOU FEEL YOUR DEPARTMENT PROVIDES YOU WITH THE OPPORTUNITY TO TAKE COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY COURSES

- ❏ Yes
- ❏ No

21. PRESENTLY TO BE AN OFFICER IN THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO THE EDUCATION REQUIREMENT IS A HIGHSCHOOL DIPOLMA OR EQUIVALENCY. DO YOU BELIEVE THIS EDUCATION REQUIREMENT IS:

- ❏ Too low
- ❏ Just right
- ❏ Too high

22. FROM THE LIST BELOW INDICATE THE MINIMUM EDUCATION LEVEL NEW MEMBERS SHOULD HAVE:

- ❏ High School Diploma
- ❏ Certificate from a College/University
- ❏ Some College courses
- ❏ College diploma
- ❏ Some University
- ❏ University degree
  - ❏ Other_____
    (Please specify)

23. FROM THE LIST BELOW INDICATE THE MINIMUM EDUCATION LEVEL SOMEONE IN A SUPERVISORY ROLE SHOULD HAVE

- ❏ High school Diploma
- ❏ Certificate from a College/University
- ❏ Some College courses
- ❏ College diploma
- ❏ Some University
- ❏ University degree
- ❏ Some graduate work
- ❏ Master's
- ❏ Some Ph D
- ❏ Ph D/Doctoral Type Degree
  - ❏ Other_____
    (Please specify)

24. DO YOU BELIEVE THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION CREDENTIALS IS CHANGING IN POLICING

- ❏ Yes
- ❏ No

25. IF YOU WISH TO DISCOLSE, PLEASE NAME THE SERVICE THAT EMPLOYS YOU (VOLUNTARY)

_____

_____

PART II

ENABLERS AND DISABLERS
TO
HIGHER EDUCATION

PART II: ENABLERS & DISABLERS TO HIGHER EDUCATION *(PLEASE NOTE THAT POLICE COLLEGE TRAINING (I.E. OPC) IS NOT APPLICABLE FOR THESE QUESTIONS)*

I: DIRECTIONS:

A number of statements are presented below. Please respond to each of these statements in two different ways. First, indicate the degree to which you think the statement is true (e.g. Reality Assessment). Second, indicate the degree to which this factor influences or influenced your decision to enroll in a College/University degree program (e.g. Influence Assessment).

Some respondents have already completed a college/university degree. If you have already completed a diploma/degree or above, please make your ratings of "Reality Assessment" and "Influence Assessment" as you think you would have when you decided to complete the college diploma/university degree.

II: EXAMPLE

STATEMENT: The College/University in my area is too large.

If you strongly agree that the college/university in your area is too large, you would circle "strongly agree" in the reality column as shown. If, however, this does not (or did not) influence your decision to enroll at the college/university in your area, you would circle "No", in the influence column, as shown below.

REALITY	*INFLUENCE*
❏ *Strongly Agree*	❏ **Major**
❏ **Agree**	❏ **Moderate**
❏ **Disagree**	❏ **Slight**
❏ **Strongly Disagree**	❏ *Not a Factor*

STATEMENT: FOR A COLLEGE DIPLOMA/UNIVERSITY DEGREE:

26. PERSONAL FINANCIAL RESOURCES ARE AVAILABLE FOR ME TO PURSUE COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

27. THE FINANCIAL COST OF PURSUING COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES IS TOO HIGH

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

28. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES IS NECESSARY FOR PROMOTION

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

29. EMPLOYER FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE IS NOTAVAILABLE TO ME

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

30. GOVERNMENT FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE IS NOT AVAILABLE TO ME

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

31. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES IS A REQUIREMENT FOR MY CURRENT ASSIGNMENT IN POLICING

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

32. A COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY DEGREE INCREASES OR ENHANCES MY JOB SECURITY

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

33. THE COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES I DESIRE ARE OFFERED AT A CONVENIENT TIME

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

34. THE COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES I DESIRE ARE OFFERED AT A CONVENIENT LOCATION

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

35. THE COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES REQUIRES TOO MUCH OF MY TIME

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

36. SHIFT WORK INTERFERES WITH COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY CLASS SCHEDULES

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

37. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY PART TIME PROGRAMS I DESIRE ARE AVAILABLE

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

38. A FLEXIBLE COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY PROGRAM I DESIRE THAT INCLUDES DISTANCE EDUCATION IS AVAILABLE

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

39. I RECEIVE ENCOURAGEMENT OR SUPPORT FROM MY POLICE CO-WORKERS TO CONTINUE MY EDUCATION

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

40. I RECEIVE ENCOURAGEMENT OR SUPPORT FROM MY FAMILY TO CONTINUE MY EDUCATION

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Facto

41. I RECEIVE ENCOURAGEMENT OR SUPPORT FROM MY SUPERVISORS TO CONTINUE MY EDUCATION

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

42. I RECEIVE ENCOURAGEMENT OR SUPPORT FROM MY ORGANIZATION'S SENIOR MANAGEMENT TO CONTINUE MY EDUCATION

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

43. TAKING COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY COURSES WILL GIVE ME THE OPPORTUNITY TO MEET NEW PEOPLE

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

44. IT IS IMPORTANT FOR ME TO MEET PEOPLE WHO DO NOT WORK IN THE FIELD OF LAW ENFORCEMENT

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

45. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY FACULTY HAVE A POSITIVE OR ENCOURAGING ATTITUDE TOWARD STUDENTS WHO ARE LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

46. OTHER COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDENTS HAVE A POSITIVE OR ENCOURAGING ATTITUDE TOWARD STUDENTS WHO ARE LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

47. I AM APPREHENSIVE ABOUT MY ABILITIES OF GOING TO ACHIEVE A COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY DEGREE.

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

48. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY ALLOWS (WILL ALLOW) AN ESCAPE FROM THE ROUTINE PATTERN OF DAILY ACTIVITIES

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

49. THE PEOPLE I MEET IN COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY PROGRAMS ARE STIMULATING

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

50. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY FACULTY ARE NOT OPEN TO IDEAS FROM STUDENTS WHO WORK IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

51. I HAVE A DESIRE TO IMPROVE MY MIND, KNOWLEDGE AND ACADEMIC ABILITY

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

52. I WISH TO OBTAIN A COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY DEGREE FOR PERSONAL ACHIEVEMENT

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

53. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES PROVIDES THE OPPORTUNITY FOR ACADEMIC FULFILLMENT

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

54. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY PROGRAMS ARE RELEVANT TO THE PROBLEMS I FACE (OR WILL FACE) IN MY CURRENT JOB ASSIGNMENT

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

55. THE GOAL OF COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY PROGRAMS TO IMPART KNOWLEDGE IS SIMILAR TO MY OWN PERSONAL AND OR PROFESSIONAL GOAL OF LEARNING

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

56. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES WILL HELP ME LEARN MORE ABOUT LAW ENFORCEMENT

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

57. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY PROGRAMS ARE RELEVANT TO MY FUTURE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND CAREER PLANS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

58. COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY STUDIES ARE AVAILABLE TO ASSIST ME DEVELOP MY LEADERSHIP SKILLS

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

59. HAVING COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY CREDENTIALS WILL ASSIST IN PROMOTING THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF LAW ENFORCEMENT

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

60. HAVING A COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IS AN IMPORTANT ADDITION TO THE INTERNAL POLICE TRAINING CURRENTLY PROVIDED

REALITY

- ❏ Strongly Agree
- ❏ Agree
- ❏ Disagree
- ❏ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❏ Major
- ❏ Moderate
- ❏ Slight
- ❏ Not a Factor

61. A COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IS DIFFERENT TO POLICE TRAINING

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

62. GOVERNMENT REGULATIONS MANDATING HIGHER EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS THAN THOSE CURRENTLY IN PLACE FOR FUTURE POLICE AND OTHER JUSTICE PROFESSIONALS SUCH AS: CORRECTION OFFICERS, PRIVATE SECURITY AND SPECIAL CONSTABLES IS ONLY SEVERAL YEARS AWAY

REALITY

- ❑ Strongly Agree
- ❑ Agree
- ❑ Disagree
- ❑ Strongly Disagree

INFLUENCE

- ❑ Major
- ❑ Moderate
- ❑ Slight
- ❑ Not a Factor

63. `DISCUSSION PAGE

DO YOU HAVE ANY COMMENTS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR YOUR SERVICE, GOVERNMENT, OR THIS SURVEY WITH RESPECT TO THE NEED, OBSTACLES, OR ENABLERS TOWARD HIGHER EDUCATION FOR LAW ENFORCEMENT?

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APPENIDIX F

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(http://www2.publicationsduquebec.gouv.qc.ca/dynamicSearch/telecharge.php?type=
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determined in the regulation, determine the minimum qualifications required to
exercise investigative or managerial functions within a police force, (...)."

Québec Police Act
[R.S.Q., Ch. P-13.1, a. 116.]
Regulation respecting the minimum qualifications required to exercise investigative
functions within a police force
English: Order in Council: O.C. 599-2006, 2006 G.O. 2, 2117
French: Décret D. 599-2006, 2006 G.O. 2, 2967
(http://www2.publicationsduquebec.gouv.qc.ca/dynamicSearch/telecharge.php?type=
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1. A police officer who exercises an investigative function must have successfully
completed the basic training program in police investigation offered by the École
nationale de police du Québec.

"A police officer who holds a full-time position and whose main duty is to conduct
criminal investigations exercises an investigative function."

Québec Police Act
[R.S.Q., Ch. P-13.1, a. 116.]
The Bachelor's programme in Public Security
https://oraprdnt.uqtr.uquebec.ca/pls/public/pgmw001d?owa_cd_pgm=7399

The basic training program in investigations consists of the following courses:
- Penal law applied to police investigations (3 cr.);
- The investigation process (3 cr., 28 hours theory, 17 hours OJT);
- Criminological analysis applied to police investigations (3 cr.);
- Elements of practical ethics (3 cr.); and
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