

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

"THE PERCEIVED SOCIAL POWER  
OF THE R.C.M.P.  
REGULAR DUTY,  
MALE & FEMALE UNIFORMS"

BY

CAROL D. EWING

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REGULAR DUTY, MALE AND FEMALE UNIFORMS

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CAROL DIANE EWING

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the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
of the degree of

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to identify and measure the social power perceptions of three R.C.M.P. uniforms, Male/Pant, Female/Pant, and Female/Skirt. A semantic differential scale was used to gather the perceptions of effectiveness and efficiency, coercive, referent, expert, legitimate, and reward powers. A total of 305 Psychology 120, University of Manitoba students were used as subjects. Results, at a level of significance of  $p < .02$ , indicate: (a) the Male/Pant uniform possesses the greatest positive social power, (b) total social power is composed of significantly different amounts of each social power base, (c) the legitimate power base is perceived to be the most positive of all social power bases, (d) expert and legitimate power bases are perceived similarly, (e) the reward and coercive power bases are perceived to be the weakest of all social power bases, (f) rural subjects perceive the uniforms more positively than do urban subjects, (g) female subjects perceive the female uniform styles more positively than do male subjects, (h) effectiveness and efficiency are perceived to be not significantly different from one another, (i) both effectiveness and efficiency variables are perceived to be less positive than the legitimate power base, for all uniforms, and (j) both effectiveness and efficiency variables are perceived to be more positive than the reward power base.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The following abbreviations were used throughout this report.

1	Visual 1-Male/Pant
2	Visual 2-Female/Pant
3	Visual 3-Female/Skirt
A	Coercive Power
B	Referent Power
C	Expert Power
D	Legitimate Power
E	Reward Power
M	Male Ss Group
F	Female Ss Group
U	Urban Ss Group
R	Rural Ss Group
TSP	Total Social Power
$\bar{x}$	Sample Mean
u	Population Mean
$s^2$	Sample Variance
$\sigma^2$	Population Variance
s	Sample Standard Deviation
$\sigma$	Population Standard Deviation
n	Sample Size
$s_p$	Pooled Standard Deviation
$H_0$	Null Hypothesis
$H_a$	Alternate Hypothesis
T	Target/Beholder
P	Powerholder
Ss	Subject

INTRODUCTION

1.

1.1 Context of the Problem

"Drivers feel more aggressive towards a policeman issuing them a ticket if the officer is wearing a gun and mirrored sunglasses "(41, pp.B5)\*. In fact, Horn, 1968, has described clothing as the silent language of meaning. Dress transmits identifiable stereotypes to a beholder/target (T) and to the wearer/powerholder (P). These perceived stereotypes affect the social interaction which takes place between the wearer and the beholder (12, 22, 27). Of all types of dress, the uniform transmits the strongest stereotype to the beholder or target, which affects their perceptions of wearer role, personality, effectiveness, and will ultimately determine the nature of the social interactions which occur (4).

Social power is one of the perceived characteristics that is transmitted by a uniform. It has been researched and found that different types of dress possess different types and intensities of social power. A variety of easily identifiable uniforms have been the basis of perceived power studies. Uniforms studied include those worn in the medical, religious, military and service industries. However, in most uniform studies, the variable of social power

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\* The numbers in parentheses in the text indicate references in the Bibliography.

as defined by French and Raven (1959) has not been the primary focus. Rather, these studies have provided information regarding the identification of variables and assumptions that are relevant to the continued study of perceived social power.

To date, only limited research has been undertaken dealing specifically with law enforcement agencies and their respective uniforms. Even fewer studies focus on the perceived social power bases of the uniform. Tenzel and Cizanckas, 1973 and Cizanckas and Feist, 1975, as well as Watson and Sterling, 1969, have provided some research toward the social power of a police uniform, in conjunction with several other key variables. Police attitudes and opinions have been surveyed, relating them with factors of sex, education levels, experience and social background. The people in the community have been surveyed regarding their opinion of police effectiveness. However, little can be said about the social power bases of the police uniform, as it is perceived by the citizen. It is to provide such information that this study has been undertaken.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived social power of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police uniform. The R.C.M.P. uniform was selected because it is easily identifiable across Canada. Three uniforms were examined including the male-pant, female-pant, and female-skirt

regular summer duty uniforms.

The specific purpose of this study was to identify and compare the relative perceived social power bases and total social power transmitted by each uniform to a citizen beholder. The study attempted to determine the relative strength of each power base awarded each uniform by subjects grouped according to variables of sex and background location. Both the strongest and weakest power base(s) were to be identified for each uniform and an assessment of the effectiveness of the uniforms was to be made.

### 1.3 Justification for the Study

A variety of factors show just cause for the purposes outlined.

It is agreed that uniforms do project identifiable stereotypes of personality, role and expectations of the wearer, that uniforms do evoke different perceptions of social power which affects public attitude of the uniform wearer, and that variables of age, sex, education, and exposure influence these perceptions (4, 11, 21, 26).

It has been predicted that "it is possible and even likely, that police departments of the future will have large numbers of women performing a full range of jobs from patrol officer to chief administrator" (27, p. 185). Within the next one hundred years, the average police department will have as many as fifty percent female patrol officers and thirty percent female administrators (27). Law

enforcement agencies are presently concerned with the introduction of female officers to this traditionally male oriented occupation. Police administrations desire to know what the community perception of the female officer can be expected to be, including other critical aspects such as job effectiveness, authority, power and control. This concern has been focused upon the uniform worn by the female officers because there is an overriding belief that the uniform creates the initial and lasting perceptions and that the female uniform possesses less social power or different social power than the male uniform.

Previous research indicates the need for additional study in the area of social power and the uniform. Long term projections regarding the numbers of females in the law enforcement organizations demands that solutions to the questions regarding uniform perceptions be answered. The intent of this study is to clarify some of the important variables and to identify directions for future research.

This introductory chapter has attempted to provide the basic framework within which this study has been formulated. The problem to be addressed has been identified as an examination of the social power perceptions of the uniforms worn by male and female officers of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police force during regular summer duty. The subject variables to be considered are the sex of the beholder as well as his background location. In addition to obtaining results indicating social power perceptions, it is hoped

that the findings will be applicable to identification of relevant variables affecting social power perceptions of uniforms.

The remaining chapters will explore the research and theories available, will itemize the methodology used to determine perceived social power, will report the results of all test of hypotheses, and will present interpretive conclusions based on the results.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.

This chapter provides an overview of pertinent research that has been completed in the past. Specifically, studies dealing with the uniform and the concept of social power have been discussed. Two sections included in this chapter are social power and the uniform. Social power section discusses the development of social power theory, the character of power and finally, the bases of social power. The uniform section focuses upon studies that used a uniform to arrive at information on beholder behaviour and perceptions. Secondly, it examines the police uniform studies available.

The information presented dates back to 1957, which was necessary due to the limited quantities of relevant research into clothing and social power reduced noticeably after the 1950's and is only now becoming an avenue of research interest again.

### 2.1 Social Power

Social power is the major focus of this research paper. It is, therefore, critical that a clear understanding of this concept is provided. The development of social power understanding is discussed, independent of the uniform.

The theoretical definition of social power has been addressed by many theorists including Max Weber, Harold

Lasswell, Abraham Kaplan and Robert Bierstedt. These men, as well as others, have contributed greatly to modern thought on social power.

Max Weber stated that "Power is the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which the probability rests" (l. p.4).

From this definition, Adams, 1975 identifies the central elements of social power concepts as including the following: "That it (social power) is a relationship; that any statement of the outcome of its exercise must be couched in terms of probability; and that almost anything may serve as the basis of power" (l. p.4).

Harold Lasswell and Abraham Kaplan, as reported by Adams, 1975, make the following additions to the social power definition: "Power is the participation in the making of decisions; A decision is a policy involving severe sanctions; A sanction is conduct in response to an act that is expected to modify future acts in the direction of conformity" (l. p.5).

In summary, power:

1. exists as a relationship.
2. usually exists for one member only. While the other member has a power base, it fails to operate with enough strength in the current relationship.
3. is based on control over specific aspects of the shared environment.

4. includes decision making, where the powerholder has the decision to use available sanctions and the recipient decides whether to yield and conform.
5. involves the ability to use sanctions that are negative for the recipient to modify behaviour.

Power is much more complex than these five characteristics appear. Within any power structure one finds identifiable features, including power-control relationships, reciprocity, omnipresence, and the concept of authority and legitimacy. These features will be expanded in the following paragraphs.

Both power and control exists within any power structure operating between two parties. The difference between these two concepts should be recognized. "Control is a non-reciprocal relationship in the sense that it exists between an actor and some element of the environment that cannot react rationally to shared behavioural expectancies ...Control is always contingent upon understanding the nature of the object being controlled" (1, p.22). Power, however, is a social relationship "that rests on the basis of some pattern of controls and is reciprocal... Both members of the relationship act in terms of their own self interest and...do so in terms of the controls that each has over matters of interest to the other" (1, p.22).

Control is a one-way process but power operates in both directions between the parties involved in the social relationship. The response to control is not rational but

the response to power is rational because both parties respond in ways to better their personal position in the relationship.

Direct control can exist over humans because the human being is an environmental object, element, or thing. However, direct control over humans can seldom occur over extensive periods of time, particularly within close relationships. As social distance increases, the powerholder perceives others more as environmental objects than as reciprocal members of a relationship. When this type of relationship exists, extended control is possible because action directed toward the individual by the powerholder is based on stereotyped characteristics of the group to which the individual belongs (1). Similarly, it would be expected that the power recipient would react to the powerholder based on perceived stereotyped characteristics.

Just as police officers are often expected to have direct control over humans, they are also given control over symbols. Symbol control rests on the allocation of power to an individual or unit to perform under certain recognized conditions, a ritual action. This action is symbolic in that it carries equivalent meaning to all who share a particular culture. "Some set of people, or social units, that control some telling portion of the environment give their right of decision making to some other person. To keep in bounds, the activities of this individual, they agree upon

some ritual control or symbol control that will signal when he is exercising this derived power under approved circumstances. The people granting the power want to restrict the use of this power to certain situations; the use of symbol control then, carries meaning only if used under the correct ritual circumstances. If used correctly, the power is recognized to be in force; if used incorrectly, the power will not be recognized" (1, p.25).

An applicable example of symbol control is the law enforcement organizations. Society on the whole, and law-makers specifically, grants power to the law enforcement organization, who, in turn, allocate the powers to individual members of the force. Symbols of control are provided each member, including distinctive uniforms, badge, firearms and police vehicles. When these controls are present, the power is recognized by members of the society, but if the same power actions are attempted without these symbols, the power is not recognized.

The concept of power includes the characteristics of reciprocity and omnipresence. All power relationships are reciprocal in nature, but they are not necessarily equal, balanced, or equivalent. It is precisely in those cases where the power is not equal that the power aspect of the relationship can most easily be seen to operate. If a member of a social relationship states, "I am powerless.", it is more likely that he has simply found himself in a situation where the power of another member has him so

contained that none of the alternatives open to him are attractive (1).

Power relationships are potentially present in all social relationships; they are omnipresent. "So long as differences in control exist among actors, there will be the potential of power within relationships" (1, p.28). No relationship is immune from the influence of power, from the most casual to the most intimate social relationship.

Finally, the characteristics of authority and legitimacy are commonly used within the literature dealing with power. Adams, 1975, views authority as a term which is applied to an individual who possesses power, while legitimacy is the cultural potential of an authority, law, or act, to the effect that it conforms to a recognized standard. Simply put, authority answers the question, "What is the basis of power?" while legitimacy answers the question, "Who agrees that the power should not be challenged?"

The basis for authority rests in an agreement among the people who recognize it, but this agreement is generally conditional upon performance. If the individual given the authority fails to perform specified tasks satisfactorily, the authority he holds will probably be challenged. The basis for legitimacy, however, is inherently a matter of agreement, which does not have to be proven through performance (1).

"One of the most significant and obvious indicators of cultural and social change is the emergence of disaccord over the assignment of legitimacy" (1, p.33). Because there is a performance test for the assignment of authority, there is an objective basis for the agreement about where to assign it or when to revoke it. However, there are a variety of reasons to disagree with the legitimacy of any authority group. When subjective challenges are made against legitimacy, it indicates a social breakdown of accepted principles and standards (1). There are many examples of this type of breakdown, including the legitimacy of slave ownership or the legitimacy of a military coup.

There are two types of authority, skill authority and power authority. Skill authority relates to the person who does 'something' better than anyone else. Skill authority is easily challenged and must be continually proven. Power authority is more abstract, based upon an 'invisible' source. It is not easily challenged because it is not easily seen and understood.

The above discussion explains the structure and character of power in general and social power in specifics. A question remains, however; How is the power act completed?

The power act is a complex, sequential process which is applicable to any situation involving social power. Kipnis, 1974, describes the power act, from the perspective of the powerholder.

The first step of the power act considers the reason for exercising the power, which originates in man's dependency on others to mediate important outcomes for himself. When this dependency is combined with a belief that others are unwilling to cooperate, the powerholder experiences an inclination to exert pressures to gain the desired actions. These inclinations are power motivations which "arise when an individual experiences an aroused need state which can only be satisfied by inducing appropriate behaviours in others." (24, p.84).

The three power motivations include:

- a. An irrational response: When power motivation is defined as gaining satisfaction from the manipulation of others, the power need is seen as irrational, neurotic, and perverted.
- b. As a role behaviour: The needs to be satisfied originate in the powerholder's desire to perform an assigned institutional role correctly.
- c. As a universal drive: This source of need is associated with the view that power motivation is a universal attribute of mankind. The emphasis is on the pursuit of resources that will be useful in influencing others and providing "the good life".

Following need arousal in the powerholder, a request for compliance is made. If the target individual refuses or resists compliance, the power act continues with the powerholder considering the resources available for use in

obtaining the compliance. The resources available to the powerholder include both personal and institutional. Personal resources are ones which reside within the individual such as superior intellect or physical strength. These resources are the result of each persons unique endowments and not available to any other person. Institutional resources are derived from an individual's participation in an institutional role and access to these resources vary with the position attained within the organization. Examples of institutional resources include money, law, and military force.

"There are functional relations between the nature of the needs that have been aroused and the kinds of resources it is proper to invoke" (24, p.90). For example, to satisfy the need for love and affection, it is not considered appropriate to invoke personal resources of physical strength nor institutional resources like money or occupational position.

Prior to using any resource, the powerholder experiences a region of inhibitions. A number of factors have been postulated as inhibiting the invocation of resources, including:

- a. the cost versus benefit of utilization of resources.
- b. the subjective values and attitudes of the powerholder that may inhibit resource use.
- c. the restraints originating from the norms of groups, institutions, or societies may inhibit invocation.

"Inhibition against invoking resources may act on one of two ways...first, it may diminish the individual's power motivation...Second, the individual may have to use different resources than those initially preferred in order to satisfy his needs" (24, p.92).

If the region of inhibition is passed, the power act continues with the consideration of the means of influence to be used. This step answers the question, "How shall the resources be presented...as a promise?...as a threat?" Kipnis, 1974, suggests that the powerholder may exploit a base of power in the following ways:

- a. By exercising physical control over the target or his environment.
- b. By exercising control over the gains and costs that the target will actually experience.
- c. By making advantageous use of the target's attitude about being influenced.

Once the means of influence has been decided, the powerholder must wait for the target response to the presentation of resources. This feedback from the target provides the powerholder with information as to the success of his power attempt. If there is continued resistance by the target, and if the power motivation is still strong within the powerholder, the first steps will be repeated again to obtain the desired compliance.

The final step of the power act is a consideration of the consequences of the action for the powerholder. "If his

influence attempt is successful and his needs are reduced, the powerholder should experience satisfaction. . . If his influence attempt is resisted and his needs remain unfulfilled, the powerholder should experience frustration and self-doubt" (24, p.93). In addition to these immediate consequences, the use of resources to control may have long term effects such as affecting the powerholder's perception of self-worth, standards, values, and attitudes. These long term effects will ultimately change his subsequent use of power.

The powerholder is not the only member of the social relationship that performs the evaluative step. The target also, evaluates the total experience and his reactions to the attempts to influence his behaviour. The result of this evaluation will affect the manner in which the target will respond to subsequent requests for compliance.

The steps of the power act are capsulized in Figure 1, page 17. and an example of the power act is included in Figure 2, page 18. Within the relationship between a police officer and a citizen, this process will be followed. The results of each encounter will influence the subsequent behaviours of both the officer and the civilian, as well as their respective perceptions of one another.

The bases of social power (French & Raven, 1959) or the means of influence (Kipnis, 1974) are the means by which the power act takes place. The bases of social power refers to the relationship between the powerholder, P, and the

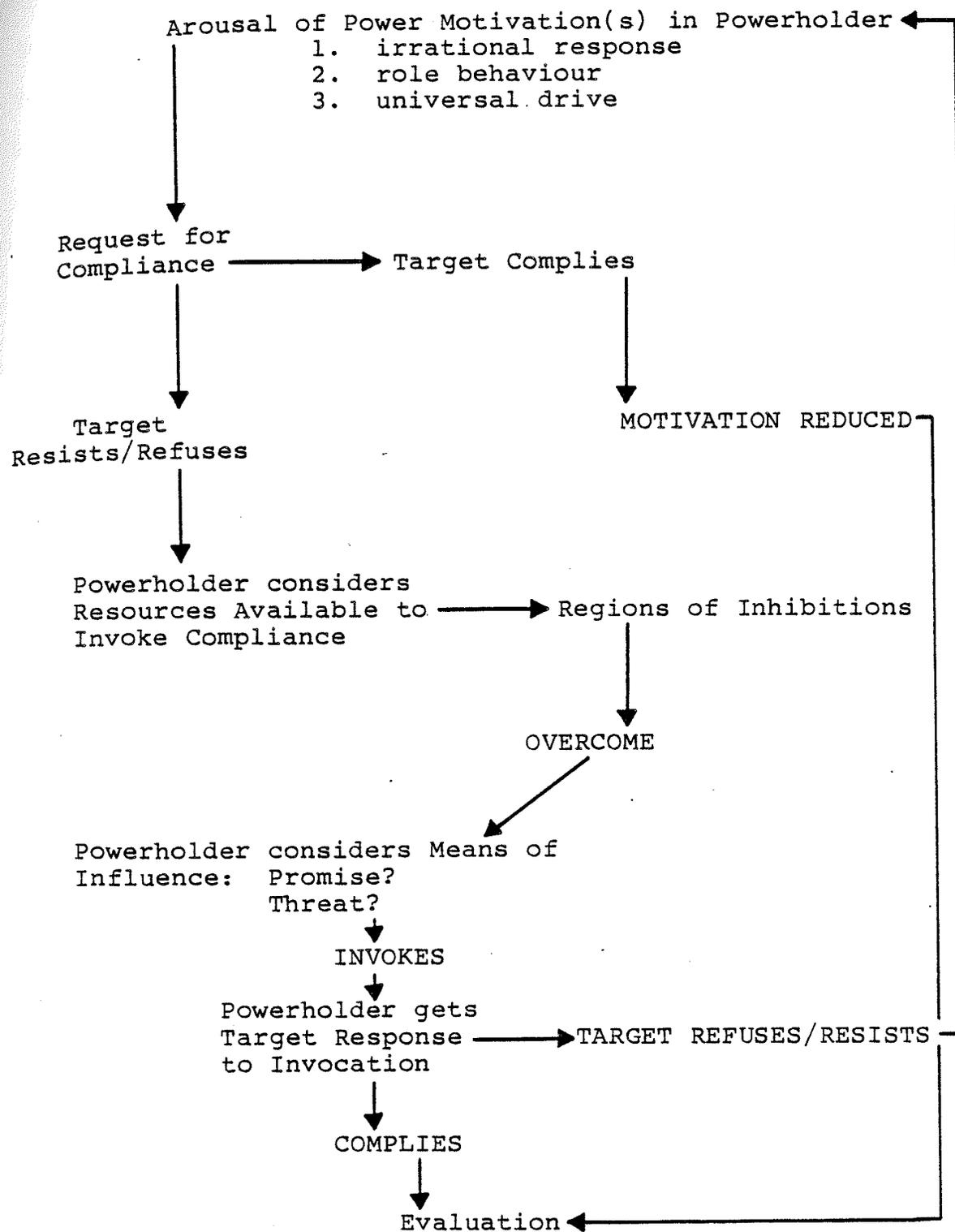


Figure 1. The Power Act.

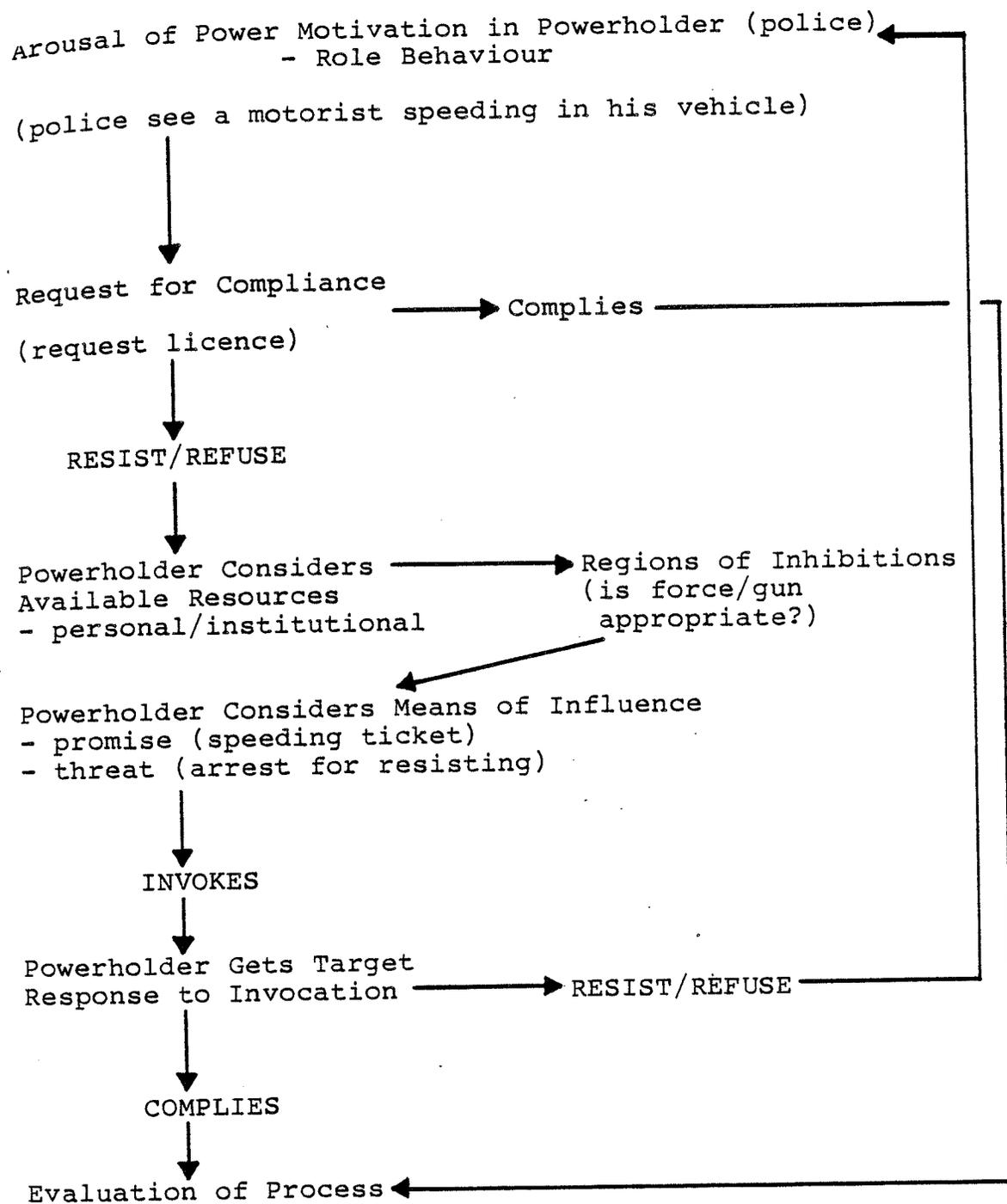


Figure 2. An Example of the Power Act.

target individual, T, upon whom the power is exerted. French and Raven, 1959, identified five different power bases, coercive power (A), referent power (B), expert power (C), legitimate power (D), and reward power (E). Each power base presented includes an explanation of the power base, the relative strength of the power base, the range of the power base, and the probable resources applicable to the power base.

Coercive Power involves P's ability to manipulate the attainment of goals or rewards. This power stems from T's expectation that P is able to punish him if he fails to conform. The strength of coercive power depends upon the magnitude of the threatened punishment, multiplied by the perceived probability that T can actually avoid the punishment if he conforms.

Coercive power is a dependent system because it tends to decrease the attraction of T toward P. To achieve conformity, P must not only place strong negative threats in certain regions of T's life, but he must also introduce some restraining force to prevent T from complete withdrawal from P's range of coercive power. If restraint is not maintained, the probability of receiving punishment for noncompliance is too low to be an effective means of influence (17).

Kipnis (1974) states that as P's expectations are challenged, he is increasingly tempted to increase the amount of pressure placed on T by invoking successively harsher coercive resources. Also, motivational forces and

forms of T resistance are associated with the use of coercive power. "An illustration...is found in the study of factors causing police to arrest a male offender for disorderly conduct. This is a violation that allows police officers enormous latitude in deciding how to respond. Aside from ignoring the situation, the police officers may attempt to persuade the offender, make his presence known, use physical force, or actually make an arrest...What clearly determined when an arrest would be made was whether the offender continued to resist the police officer's orders. As resistance and the concurrent threat of violence grew, the probabilities of an arrest increased sharply. If the offender quieted down and complied in some form with the police officer's request, then the incident terminated without arrest" (24, p.104). Underlying P's selection of the coercive power base is the perception that T's resistance is willfull and voluntary. This generates the conviction, on the part of P, that less severe means of influence are inadequate to obtain the desired compliance (24).

Referent Power of P over T has its base in the identification of T with P. Identification means that T has a feeling of oneness with P, or desires to have such an identity. T's identification with P can be established and maintained if T behaves, believes, or perceives as P does.

Consequently, P has the ability to influence T, even though P may be unaware of the operation of referent power. The stronger the identification of T with P, the greater the referent power of P over T.

The range of referent power may vary considerably, from a very specific and limited range to a broad encompassing range. The range is directly related to extent of the attraction that T has for P.

The system produced by referent power may be either dependent or independent of P, but the degree of dependency is not affected by the observability of T by P. In other words, P does not have to be watching T to obtain conformity. Often, neither T nor P is consciously aware of the operation of referent power in their social interactions (17).

Expert Power of P over T varies with the extent of the knowledge which T attributes to P within the specific area of interest. T evaluates P's expertise by comparing it to his own knowledge and to an absolute standard. When T and P are not members of the same group, the operation of control is called informational power.

When expert power occurs, it is important for T to believe that P is knowledgeable and necessary for T to trust that P is telling what he knows truthfully. If there is no trust, expert power cannot operate.

Expert power produces a structure which is initially dependent on P, but informational power produces a more independent structure. In both instances however, the degree of dependence on P is not affected by the observability of P.

The range of expert power is more limited than that of referent power. It is restricted to specific knowledge and ability areas. It is possible for a "halo" effect to occur, such that P's expertness in one area is transferred to other areas as well. However, to attempt to exert expert power outside the range of accepted expertness will reduce the expert power by undermining T's confidence in P (17).

Legitimate Power is defined as that power which stems from some internalized value(s) in T which dictate that P has a legal right to influence T, and T has an obligation to accept this influence. The concept of legitimacy involves an accepted societal principle, which is not performance tested. French and Raven (1959) identify the most common bases of legitimate power as:

- a. cultural values: P possesses characteristics which are culturally specified as providing the right to prescribe behaviour for T, who does not have these characteristics. Examples include characteristics of age, intellect, caste, skin colour.
- b. acceptance of social structure: If T accepts the rightness of the social structure of his group, he

will also accept the legitimate power distributions within that group.

c. designation by a legitimized agent: Here, an influencer, O, is perceived as being legitimate in prescribing behaviour for T because he has been given the decision making power by P, an agent whom T perceives as being legitimate. This extended system of legitimate power is diagrammed below.

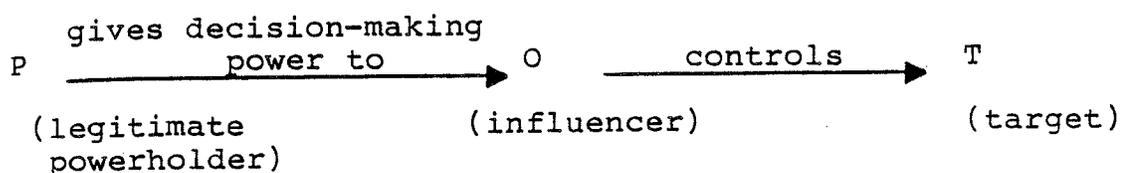


Figure 3. Extended Legitimate Power

The range of legitimate power of P over T operates in areas generally specified along with the designation of that power, as in job descriptions. The range may vary from extremely broad to very limited. The attempted use of legitimate power outside the specific range of that power (defined and accepted by the population) will decrease the legitimate power of P and will also reduce his authority. Such use of perceived non-legitimate power decreases the attractiveness of P and may result in societal and

organizational changes of the standard upon which the legitimate power is based (17, 24).

Some exercises of power are openly challenged by the population because they are perceived as being illegitimate. Examples of modern day challenges, which have often resulted in changes in social standards include protests against organized crime, nuclear power and world arms race (1).

Measurement of legitimate power is difficult due to their abstract nature, but measurement is possible through the use of attitudinal surveys of the population, which gives an indication of the cultural rules of conduct and identify the legitimate base (17).

Reward Power is the ability of P to mediate rewards for T. The strength of this reward power increases with the magnitude of the rewards which T perceives P is able to provide. Reward power depends on P's ability to either produce positive rewards or to remove or decrease negative situations (17, 24).

The use of real rewards, rather than promises, tends to increase the attraction of T toward P, over time. This attraction feature of reward power is closely associated to the structure of referent power.

The range of reward power is specifically limited to those areas where P can reward T for conforming. Use of rewards to change behavioural systems increases the probability attached to future promises of rewards, and

thereby, increases the strength of the power base. Exerting reward power outside the range, and failure to produce the reward decreases the power base strength because T begins to disbelieve promises, based on the results of past experiences (17).

Examples of resources often used as reward power include pay raises, job promotions, and so on. Any resource used must be perceived as being positive by T before they will be effective means of influence (24).

Based on findings of Kipnis (1974) and French and Raven (1959), a number of generalizations applicable to the bases of social power were made, including:

1. For all types of power, the stronger the base, the greater the power.
2. For all power bases the range of influence varies, but usually referent power possesses the widest range.
3. Attempts to exert power outside the accepted range will tend to reduce the power strength.
4. The state produced by reward and coercive power are highly dependent on P, and the more observation of T required, the more dependent the system.
5. Coercive power results in decreased attraction of T toward P and high resistance. Reward power results in increased attraction and low resistance.
6. The more legitimate T perceives coercion to be, the less its use will result in resistance and decreased attraction.

7. Access to institutional resources increases the probability that P will attempt to influence T and increases the self-esteem of P.
8. The more P attempts to influence T, the more likely P will believe T's behaviour is not self-controlled, but is controlled by P. This belief becomes stronger when the means of influence is based in control of institutional rather than personal resources.
9. As P believes he is causing T's behaviour, he will begin to devalue T's worth.
10. The use of institutional means of influence increases the psychological distance between P and T.

The preceding pages have presented the framework and background of the concept of power, social power, and the bases of power. What, if any, is the relationship between social power and the uniform? Section 2.2 examines this question through relevant literature.

## 2.2 Social Power and the Uniform

Many variables have been identified as having an effect on beholder perception of uniform social power(s) and perception of the character of the individual wearing the uniform. "The extent to which impression formation is based on dress is probably a function of the distinctiveness of the clothes as well as the clarity of the stereotype connected with that dressing style" (6, p.1259).

Coursey (1973) used the example of riot-equipped police officers whose dress and equipment created such a strong perceived stereotype that it superceded most other factors in judging what the wearer is really like. To test the assumption that specific, identifiable stereotypes are transmitted through uniforms, Coursey (1973) initiated a study in which two experimenters, teaching similarly structured classes of subjects, dressed in priest's vestments for Class A and in regular coat and tie for Class B, were rated by the subjects on a variety of personal characteristics. The subjects completed two questionnaires, one on the first day of class and the other after nine weeks had elapsed. The results of this study suggested that uniforms do transmit certain measurable stereotypes and that the stereotypes may include both positive and negative characteristics. Although some of the communicated message fades with increased exposure and contact, the uniformed person may continue to be perceived as more socially isolated and different from non-uniformed persons because of his unusual and deviant dress. Coursey (1973) recommends the need for additional research into transmitted stereotypes using other types of uniforms and other subject populations.

Long and Long (1976) also investigated the effect of religious attire and status on a third person, placed in an interview situation. Their study focused on the variables of attire and status and whether they significantly

influenced the amount and type of information received during an interview. The subjects were undergraduate education students, both male and female, enrolled in the same university course. Four different task situations were tested, including:

- a. nun interviewer, introduced as a nun and wearing the traditional habit.
- b. nun interviewer, introduced as a nun, wearing street clothing.
- c. non-nun interviewer, not introduced as a nun, wearing a traditional habit.
- e. non-nun interviewer, not introduced as a nun, wearing street clothing.

It was generally concluded that religious status, identified through introductions, was less important during the interview than the impact of the uniform. The uniform of the nun has a more significant effect on the interviewee than the verbal label (as in task situation c). This study by Long and Long (1976) supports Coursey's (1973) findings that religious attire transmits identifiable stereotypes to a beholder. It is also significant that the uniform is a more powerful perceptive tool than the label alone.

Rinn (1976) conducted a study based on nursing staff dress and its effect on patient behaviour. Results showed that "the highest rate of maladaptive behaviour occurred when nursing personal was attired in white uniforms, the lowest rate when staff members were dressed in street

apparel, and an intermediate rate when staff dressed in optional apparel. The data was interpreted to mean that the effect of the nursing apparel on patient's behaviour was a function of patient's expectations and that street clothes were more conducive to a therapeutic milieu than optional dress or white uniforms" (29, p.944).

Although the subjects used in Rinn's (1976) study were psychiatric patients, the results are relevant when considered in conjunction with previously reported uniform studies. The impact of the identifiable uniform on beholders appears to occur whether the beholder is in a "normal mental" state or whether he has diagnosed mental illness. This indicates the societal recognition of the uniforms and the strength of perceived perceptions.

Although the expectations of the wearer P, is influential to his behaviour toward a beholder T, the more critical variable of effect is the perceptions and expectations that the perceiver has of the uniformed person. These studies indicate that the traditional uniform of the police officer, nun, and nurse transmit to the beholder, specific and measureable stereotypes of wearer role, status, and character (11, 26, 29).

This report is concerned with the perceptions of the R.C.M.P. uniform. Literature dealing specifically with police uniforms identifies variables which influence the perceptions of the uniformed officer, the perceived social power of the uniform and the effectiveness of the uniformed

person in the performance of duties.

Tenzel and Cizanckas (1973) planned and conducted a longitudinal study of community response to uniform changes. "The initial focus of the experiment was to alter the visible image of the policeman in order to make his appearance less threatening and more professional to the community" (35, p.422). The changes introduced to the police uniform included:

- a. a change from traditional militaristic uniforms to one more similar to the civilian mode of dress, consisting of a standardized olive blazer with an identification patch, worn over dark trousers.
- b. a name plaque on left breast pocket replaced the badge.
- c. no name or insignia to indicate rank.
- d. the removal of the nightstick.
- e. the gun holster worn inconspicuously beneath the blazer.

The rationale for these changes were two-fold; "First, it was felt that the effect of the uniform was one of fear and alienation...chevrons and insignias symbolized a militaristic organization to its civilian community - an hierarchial as compared to an egalitarian system...the removal of the symbols which emphasize the discrepancy between the policeman and the people...would decrease anxieties associated with the relationship. Secondly, it was hypothesized that the uniform acted as a filter which

screens the wearer from ideas and opinions that could potentially broaden his conceptual framework" (35, p.423). This means that it was believed that, to some extent, an officer's behaviour was shaped by the uniform. The uniform was a constant visual reminder of both rank and authority and, consequently, an inhibiting factor to the presentation and reception of new or unpopular ideas. By decreasing the symbols of authority, it could be expected to allow for greater flexibility in social relationships. The rationale presented implies that the authors made the assumptions that the social power of the police uniform is primarily that of coercive power, perceived by both the officer and the civilian.

The initial results of the uniform change have been favourable, both in terms of police and community response. Positive examples cited include an increased recruitment of more highly educated persons, less violence within police/community relationships, and a decrease in assaults on officers in the field (35).

In 1975, Cizanckas and Feist released an additional report regarding the experiment of 1973. The 1975 report dealt exclusively with the community response to the uniform experiment. The ability to recall accurately, the new uniform decreased with age. Overall, 53% of all subjects were able to give reasonably accurate descriptions of the blazer uniform; 13% partially accurate descriptions. As the age of the subject increased over 60 years, the

accuracy of the descriptions decreased.

The home location of the subject also affected the recall level. Persons living near the police station remembered the uniform more accurately than persons living in outlying districts. The more exposure a person has to police officers, the more likely he is able to recall the uniform. Finally, the more education the respondent had, the more likely he was to recall the uniform.

While only 53% of subjects remembered the uniform well, 80% of the subjects gave the new uniform a strong positive endorsement. Only 11% of the respondents had an unfavourable opinion of the uniform, and 9% were neutral on the issue. Some of the positive comments made included perceptions that the officers in the new uniform were more friendly, easier to approach and more similar to the "common" man.

Such statements indicate that the traditional uniform, prior to the change, did transmit stereotypes of the wearer's personality and expected behaviour. The traditional uniform was perceived as a greater coercive power symbol than the "suit" blazer, and was seen as being socially isolating, rigid and deviant.

This follow-up study also examined the community perception of female officers. In response to the statement, "The police department should have more women patrol officers.", 56% of the subjects disagreed and 44% agreed. It was found that subjects with more education and who were

under the age of 40 were more likely to agree with the statement. The sex of the respondent did not appear to significantly influence agreement (9).

The uniform studies of 1973 and 1975 provides important insights as to relevant perceptual variables, including age, location, exposure, education and sex of the subjects. These variables appeared to influence perceptions, opinions, and memory regarding the police uniform.

Other authors have been concerned with the shift in some police departments toward more casual attire with the expectation to reduce antagonism between the police and the community (5, 8). Chapman, 1970, reports that in many cities and towns in the United States, police departments have completely modified their appearance by changing from the traditional "blues or blacks" (uniforms) to blazers and pants with small identifying crests. The purpose underlying changes is to discover the validity of the belief that the traditional, military-style uniform impedes an officer in his work within the community. The changes are designed to improve the police image and make local citizens feel more at ease with the officers with whom they interact. Apparently, one of the main thrusts behind the modification programs is directed toward minority groups, because many members of these minorities "perceive the traditional uniforms as symbols of oppressive authority" (8, p.130).

However, critics of the modified uniform include both members of the community and police personnel. "Police say the big problems is that once they put on blazers and slacks they do not look like law officers any more" (8, p.132). Many supervisors have serious doubts about the feasibility and practicality of non-traditional uniforms. They fear, along with other things, instances of mistaken identity; who is the criminal and who is the officer (8)?

In spite of objections, there are indications that many people do favour the change and prefer to see officers dressed less like soldiers and more like regular people. In a San Francisco study, "one patrolman on each work turn made his rounds in a uniform that resembled a blue business suit. After about nine months, about 1500 citizens who had been contacted by these officers were interviewed about their reactions...46% liked the new clothing, 24% opposed it and the remainder had no opinion" (8, p.132).

Because this research is concerned with the female uniform of the R.C.M.P., it is important to examine literature concerned with perceptions of female police officers, from within the police department and within the community.

Milton (1978) states that there has been a basic change in the attitude of those in law enforcement such that the idea of women on patrol, or acting as detectives, is no longer a radical proposal. However, old attitudes die a slow and painful death. In the opinion of male officers,

females are not as capable of handling incidents of violence as well or as effectively as males. But, as exposure and interaction with their female counterparts increased, the male officer became more positive toward policewomen. Finally, it was those male officers who had less formal education who were more likely to perceive that females had no place on the patrol force (27).

The community attitude toward female officers has undergone changes as well. Milton (1978) states that the idea of women taking active, visible roles in law enforcement organizations is much more acceptable than it was only a decade ago. This attitude shift is illustrated by a number of developments, including:

- a. a noticeable reduction in media highlighting the hiring of females for police duty.
- b. the introduction of female officers in television prime time programs such as Police Woman, Police Story, and Chips.
- c. the traditional image of the police officer has been eroded such that young women are selecting the police force as future careers (27).

Results of the 1972 Washington Police Department Study reported by Milton (1978) indicate that the majority of citizens approved the use of women on patrol, although they were moderately skeptical of a woman's ability to handle violent suspects or situations. This attitude is very similar to some male officers, who question the ability of

female officers in dangerous situations. Some possible reasons for such an attitude may be that the community has not had the experience and exposure with female officers in "life and death" situations, and continue to operate under the impression that females are the "weaker" sex.

Regarding the question of female officer effectiveness, Milton (1978) again refers to the 1972 Washington study, where a significant number of women were assigned to patrol duty to test effectiveness and performance in comparison to the male officers. The study included equal numbers of newly hired and trained male and female officers. The police districts used resembled one another in terms of crime rates and socioeconomic characteristics.

Efforts were taken to ensure equal treatment of both sexes by the district supervisor. Other controls included education level, civil service test scores, amount of previous employment and pre-employment interview scores. The single significant difference was that 68% of the females were black while only 42% of the males were black.

The evaluation procedures lasted two years and included measurement techniques of on the job observation, survey questionnaires for citizens in the community, and in-depth personal interview with citizens who had some contact with the police officers. Results from this research include:

- a. It is appropriate from a performance standpoint to

hire women for patrol assignments on the same basis as men.

- b. Women gave fewer traffic citations and made fewer arrests than men, but the results were unclear whether this was due to having fewer opportunities.
- c. The men were more likely to engage in serious unbecoming conduct while off duty. This type of behaviour may be reflected in citizen attitude toward police.
- d. There were no significant differences between the males and females in number of sick days used, injuries sustained, or absent days due to injury.
- e. The women required, on average, two weeks longer to pass the police driving test, than the men.

These findings are important to this research because they provide clues for making hypotheses. Studies have found that females do not differ in the performance of their job related duties, and indeed, are better police representatives while off duty. Also, it indicated that female officers may be less likely to arrest or ticket, which may mean that females will be perceived as less coercive than male officers.

This chapter has discussed social power and uniform perceptions. Definitions have been highlighted and theoretical developments have been traced. Variables of relevance have been identified and explained, including age, sex, education, exposure, and their impact on both community and law enforcement attitudes.

## OBJECTIVES AND GENERAL HYPOTHESES STATEMENTS

3.

The review of the current literature provided several different tangents which had potential for new research studies. The primary objectives for this research study are:

- a. To examine social power perceptions of the R.C.M.P. working, summer uniform, worn by male and female officers.
- b. To compare the difference in power perceptions among and within the three visuals to determine the relative power base strengths, as perceived by different subject groups.
- c. To determine the strongest and weakest power base for each uniform, as it is perceived by different subject groups.
- d. To compare the perceived total social power of each uniform, for each subject group.
- e. To identify relevant variables that affect the beholder perceptions of a uniform.
- f. To identify potential future needs and directions for additional research in the area of social power perceptions of persons wearing uniforms.

Objectives (a) through (d) are encompassed in the hypotheses put forth in this study. Objectives (e) and (f) are addressed in the discussion and through careful

consideration of the results and their respective implications. Nine hypotheses were formulated, with due consideration of the questions and concerns outlined within the introductory chapters and condensed into the objectives listed. The hypotheses are given in the null and alternate forms. The null hypotheses are ones which are hoped to be rejected. The alternative hypotheses state the expectations of the researcher.

Hypotheses 1 (Ho1): All subjects, regardless of grouping by sex or location variables, will not perceive any significant difference between total social power means scores and the main value of 3.50, for each uniform style. This means that subjects in this study will perceive that the R.C.M.P. officer does not have power over their behaviour. The alternate hypothesis states that all visuals, for all subject groups, will be perceived as possessing total social power values within the positive strength range, that there will be a perceived significant difference.

Hypothesis 2 (Ho2): Perceptions of each social power base (coercive, referent, expert, legitimate, reward) will not be significantly different for each subject group and uniform style. This means that one hopes to be able to reject the hypothesis that the R.C.M.P. uniform is perceived as having no primary power base and that each power base is equally important to power perceptions. The alternate hypothesis

states that each subject group will perceive each social power base as possessing significantly different strengths of power, for each uniform style.

Hypothesis 3 (Ho3): Each subject, regardless of grouping by sex or location variables, will perceive that there is no significant difference among the total social powers (TSP) of each R.C.M.P. uniform, Male/Pant, Female/Pant and Female/skirt. This means that the perceived power is not influenced by the uniform style and remains constant for all uniforms. The alternate hypothesis states that the Male/Pant uniform will possess the strongest TSP, that the Female/Pant uniform will have stronger TSP than the Female/Skirt uniform and that Female/Skirt uniform has the weakest TSP of all Visuals, based on the preliminary findings of the pre-tests.

Hypothesis 4 (Ho4): It is hypothesized that rural subjects perceive that all uniform styles have no significant difference of perceived strength bases of social power as will urban subjects. Alternately, it is hypothesized that rural subjects will perceive each uniform style and each social power base as possessing significantly greater strength social power than will urban subjects.

Hypothesis 5 (Ho5): It is hypothesized that all subject groups would perceive that legitimate power base was not significantly different in strength to each other power base

for each of the three uniforms. The alternate hypothesis states that legitimate power perceptions, for all subjects and all visuals, will be stronger than any other social power base.

Hypothesis 6 (Ho6): It is hypothesized that reward power would be perceived as having not significantly different strengths as each of the other power bases, for all subject groups, for all uniforms. The alternate hypothesis states that reward power will be perceived as being the weakest power base of all social power bases examined.

Hypothesis 7 (Ho7): It is hypothesized that the dependent variables of effectiveness and efficiency will be perceived by each subject group, for each uniform style, as not possessing positive power scores, that there would be no significant difference perceived between mean scores and 3.50. It was anticipated that both effectiveness and efficiency would be perceived as possessing positive strength power, that a significant difference would be perceived.

Hypothesis 8 (Ho 8): Hypothesis 8 examines the relationship between the two dependent variables of effectiveness and efficiency. It is hypothesized that the perceptions of effectiveness and efficiency will not be significantly different for subject groups and uniform styles. It is

expected that the perceptions of these characteristics will differ significantly such that effectiveness is perceived as being more positive than efficiency.

Hypothesis 9 (Ho9): Hypothesis 9 examines the relationship of effectiveness and efficiency to the social base of legitimate power. The null hypothesis states that no significant difference will be perceived between the power strengths of legitimate power and effectiveness nor legitimate power and efficiency. It was anticipated that the legitimate power base would be perceived more positively than either effectiveness or efficiency characteristics.

Through the testing of these nine hypotheses, it is possible to make suggestions that could be used as the starting point of future research as well as identifying those variables which appeared to significantly affect the perceptions of subjects.

Appendix D, page 143, includes the nine hypotheses in the equation formats of the null (Ho) and the alternate (Ha) type.

## METHOD

4.

This chapter explains the methods of approach taken to test the hypotheses. The chapter includes four sections:

- 4.1 Subjects
- 4.2 Measurement Instrument
- 4.3 Variables
- 4.4 Data Analysis

4.1 The Subjects

A total of 330 subjects were tested. Pre-determined discard criteria eliminated 25 of these subjects. Discard criteria included:

1. Subjects less than 18 and greater than 21 years of age.
2. Subjects who were non-Canadian.
3. Subjects who were not working toward an undergraduate degree.
4. Subjects who stated that a family member was now or had been members of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police.

After elimination of all discard subjects, a total of 305 subjects were used in the analysis. Overall, 141 male and 164 female subjects participated. These subjects were obtained from three separate class sections. In order to achieve test group similarity, these controls existed:

1. All subjects used were full-time University of Manitoba students, enrolled in Psychology 120, during the 1980-81 winter session.
2. Only Psychology 120 sessions of greater than 100 students were considered for tests groups.
3. Testing was completed during regularly scheduled class times and locations.
4. All test rooms were equipped with a front/centred screen.
5. All testing was completed within the same 4 hour limit time span of the day (10:30 AM - 2:30 PM).
6. The instructing professor was held as constant as possible. Groups 1 and 2 had the same professor. No one professor was assigned lecture duties for three sections of greater than 100 students.

Based on the response obtained, the subjects were subgrouped by the location variable (urban, rural). Figure 4, page 45, shows the actual numerical breakdown of subject groups.

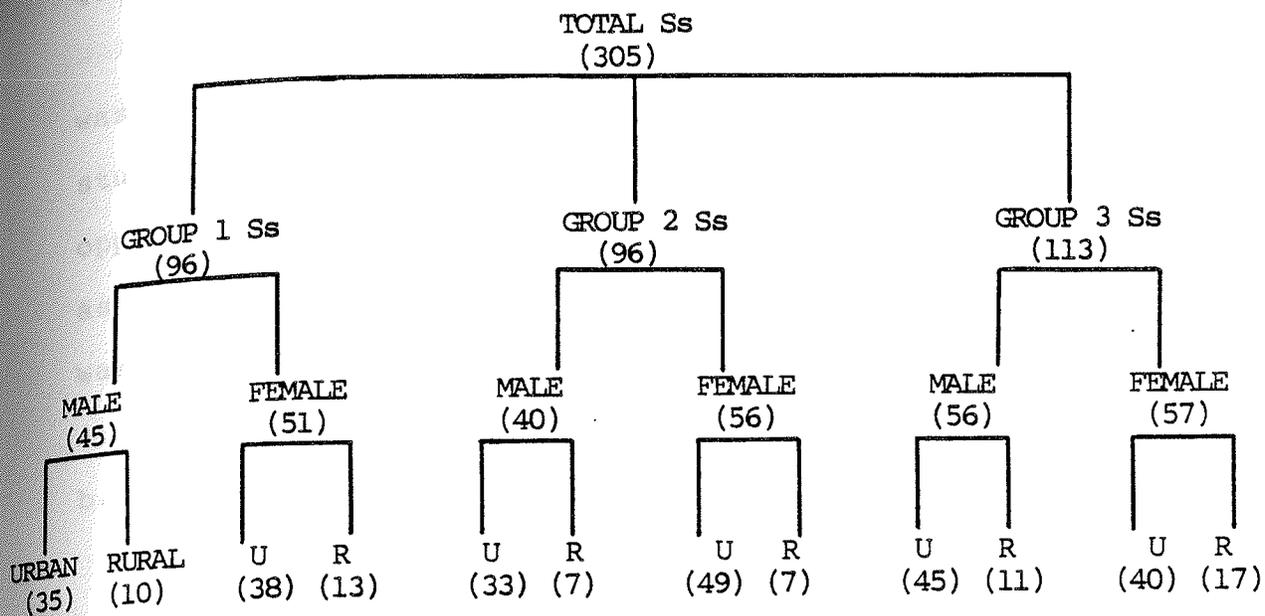


Figure 4. Numbers of subjects in each test group.

#### 4.2 Measurement Instrument

The instrument used to measure the dependent variable was the semantic differential scale. The scale used in this study was developed by the investigator by selecting opposing word pairs from a thesaurus, which were identified as synonyms for the concepts of social power. A pre-test was given to determine word pair effectiveness in:

- a. selecting a reliable judgement of the concepts.
- b. providing result similarity among different subjects and visuals.

A number of pre-test subjects were obtained by the investigator. They included both male and female undergraduate students, enrolled full-time at the University of Manitoba. The pre-test subjects were individually presented with a pack of index cards. On each card, opposing word pairs were printed. Subjects were asked to examine each set of words and to group them according to similarity of meanings. For example, cards with opposite terms like white-black and light-dark may be placed together as having similar meaning. After all cards had been placed into similar concept groups, subjects were given seven additional index cards on which coercive power, referent power, expert power, legitimate power, reward power, effectiveness, efficiency were printed. Subjects were asked to use the card terms to label each group they had made. Each label could be used only once and each group was to receive only one label. All pre-test subjects tested had 100% agreement when labelling/

grouping word pairs. Any word pairs that subjects were unable to group (a total of four word pairs) were eliminated from further use. Table 1, page 47, identifies the number of word pairs used for each dependent variable, and Appendix C, page 132, shows all word pairs included in the questionnaire.

TABLE 1

## Number of Word Pairs Per Dependent Variable

<u>DEPENDABLE VARIABLE</u>	<u>NUMBER OF WORD PAIRS</u>
Coercive Power (A)	14
Referent Poser (B)	7
Expert Power (C)	15
Legitimate Power (D)	9
Reward Power (E)	6
Effectiveness	7
Efficiency	9

A total of 67 individual semantic differential word pair scales were used to obtain subjects' perceptions of the dependent variables. A seven space scale was used in the study which was coded, one through seven, such that numbers one, two, and three indicated a positive perception of the power base, four indicated a neutral or equal perception, and five, six and seven indicated a negative perception of the power base.

Neither verbal nor written labels were assigned to each of the individual scales. Instructions in the questionnaire booklet (see Appendix C), reviewed orally with each subject group, defined the relative meanings to be associated with each response space.

Response time allocated for the completion of the questionnaire booklet was one complete class period. This time includes questionnaire distribution, oral instructions, subject completion, and questionnaire return. The average time remaining after all instructions was 35 minutes which subjects' used to complete the questionnaire (refer to Appendix A & C, pages 124 and 132).

#### 4.3 Variables

This study was concerned with the examination of a number of variables. The remaining section of the method chapter will examine the independent, moderator, and dependent variables.

#### 4.3.1 Independent/Moderator Variables

The independent treatment variable, which is manipulated, was the visual stimuli presented to subjects. The three visuals used in the study (see Appendix B) satisfied the following constants:

- a. Visual presentation to subjects via colour slide projections. Each subject viewed one slide only.
- b. Each visual showed uniform in a full frontal and side view, such that the front view was always seen as being to the left of the subject.
- c. Each visual maintained the same background and lighting features.
- d. All uniforms shown were summer, working uniforms with all normal equipment and accessories.
- e. The same female officer is used for the two female uniform styles.
- f. The visuals remained on screen from the start of the test till all questionnaires had been turned in.

Each group responded to one visual only. The three visuals were randomly assigned to the groups. Each uniform is shown in a black and white photograph in Appendix B, page 130. The uniforms, as described in the R.C.M.P. dress code manual, consist of a khaki coloured skirt, dark blue cloth pants or skirt with a 1 3/4 inch wide yellow stripe down the outside seam of each pant leg. The cap worn is dark with a yellow band and centered badge. The shirts include shoulder epaulets and identifying crests, and are worn with dark blue ties and tie clips.

The independent moderator variables provided information required to group the subjects for analysis. The four moderator variables are sex, location, exposure, and attitude. Part B of the questionnaire booklet, (Appendix C, page 132), served to determine the independent moderator variables.

- a. Sex: Sex is a measured moderator variable which has two factors, male and female.
- b. Location: Location is a measured moderator variable which has two factors, urban and rural. A subject is classified into one of the factors based on the following criteria:
  1. high school location
  2. permanent home location
  3. the police force servicing locations (1) and (2)
- c. Exposure: Exposure is a measured moderator variable which has two factors, high exposure and low exposure.

$$\text{High Exposure} = \frac{\text{Total Ss Response}}{\text{Maximum Response}} \geq .5$$

$$\text{Low Exposure} = \frac{\text{Total Ss Response}}{\text{Maximum Response}} \leq .5$$

Attitude: Attitude is a measured moderator variable which two factors, positive and negative attitude.

$$\text{Positive Attitude} = \frac{\text{Total Ss Response}}{\text{Maximum Response}} \geq .5$$

$$\text{Negative Attitude} = \frac{\text{Total Ss Response}}{\text{Maximum Response}} \leq .5$$

## 4.3.2

Dependent Variables

Seven dependent variables were measured using a seven point semantic differential scale. Each dependent variable used several word pairs which were combined to arrive at a figure which represented the subject's perception of one visual to one dependent variable. The perceptions of the social power bases are given, numerically, as means ( $\bar{x}$ ).

The dependent variables include the social power bases identified by French and Raven, 1959, as well as effectiveness and efficiency. The dependent variables are defined in the following list. Subjects who rate a uniform within the boundaries of 0.9995 to 3.5005 accord the wearer positive power.

1. Coercive Power (A): A person who is perceived by the beholder as having the ability to punish or negatively influence aspects of life if one does not conform to his wishes.
2. Referent Power (B): A person who is perceived by the beholder as being admirable and one whom one tries to emulate in terms of behaviour, personality and group memberships.
3. Expert Power (C): A person who is perceived by the beholder as a source of knowledge and advice because of his superior ability, skill, or knowledge in a given area of interest.

4. Legitimate Power (D): A person who is perceived by the beholder as having the legal and authorized right to dictate behaviour and/or actions under specific circumstances.
5. Reward Power (E): A person who is perceived by the beholder as having the ability to supply positive rewards if one conforms to his wishes.
6. Job Effectiveness: A person is job effective if he is perceived as performing job duties equal to other peers and is equally suited to the position as his peers.
7. Job Efficiency: A person is job efficient if he is perceived as performing job related duties with a minimum waste of resources like time, money, and energy.

#### 4.4 Data Analysis

This section describes the statistical design used and the statistical analysis that were undertaken in the study. The sequence of analyses used are described chronologically as:

1. Numerically code the subject responses. Each subject had a total of eighty (80) individual responses which were transformed into the pre-determined numerical code (refer to Appendix C).
2. The mean value of each subject's perception of each of the dependent variables was calculated. This provides

single numerical values for each subject, for each social power base. Dependent variables efficiency and effectiveness were also included and the single numerical values determined.

3. A frequency distribution table(s) was constructed to all subject groups, using the same class intervals, class boundaries, and class marks. Frequency distribution tables were set up using the matrix in Table 2, page 54.

The percentage frequency distributions were determined from the respective frequency distribution tables.

5. The percentage frequency tables were used to tabulate the cumulative percentage points for each subject/visual group.
6. Frequency histograms were plotted for each subject/visual group, for each social power base under study. Also, the cumulative percentage points were plotted. These graphs were examined for major trends that appeared, prior to further data analysis.
7. Using the frequency distribution tables, means ( $\bar{x}$ ) were calculated for the sixty groups itemized in Table 2, page 54.

TABLE 2

Frequency Distribution Matrix

UNIFORM	(x) times	SUBJECT GROUP	(x) times	SOCIAL POWER BASE
Male/Pant		Male (M)		Coercive (A)
Female/Pant		Female (F)		Referent (B)
Female/Skirt		Urban (U)		Expert (C)
		Rural (R)		Legitimate (D)
				Reward (E)

The calculated means for each of the sixty groups are included in Tables 5 and 6, pages 62 and 63, Results and Discussion section.

8. Total social power means were calculated for each visual and for each subject group. The calculated, total social power (TSP) means for uniforms (Male/Pant, Female/Pant, Female/Skirt); Subject Groups male (M), female (F), urban (U), and rural (R), are included in Table 3, page 57, Results and Discussion section.
9. Sub-groups of male/rural (M/R), male/urban (M/U), female/rural (F/R), and female/urban (F/U) were eliminated from further analysis for the following reasons:
  - a. The sample sizes resulting from further breakdown of the main subject groups were extremely small in some cases. It was felt that the small sample size would not be a representative nor valid sample.

- b. Relationships among the major subject groups are essential to determine the relevance of sub-group analysis.

Data analysis continued with four major subject groups, M, F, U, R, for the three visuals.

10. The variance and standard deviation was computed for the following:
  - a. all test groups diagramed in Table 2, page 54.
  - b. the twelve test groups of 4 Ss groups x 3 visuals x total social power mean.
  - c. all test groups for each visual for the effectiveness and efficiency variables.
11. Hypotheses were written in the Ho:Ha format. Levels of significance were selected for theta. The appropriate critical regions were determined. The respective t or z values were calculated for each Ho:Ha statement, and based on results obtained, the Ho was either rejected or it was determined that there was inadequate data to make a judgement statement.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.

The purpose of this section is twofold: to provide an organized, concise report of the data analysis and to interpret and integrate the results through the discussion. Each hypothesis is discussed sequentially.

a. Hypothesis 1:

The results of data analysis of Hypothesis 1 are located in Table 3, page 57 and Table 4, page 58. Table 3 provides the means of total social power scores that were compared to 3.50 (a value which indicates negative perceptions) to determine perceptions within the positive range. Table 4 provides the z score statistic used to determine rejection of the null hypothesis.

Null hypothesis 1 states that all subjects (Male, Female, Urban, Rural) will not perceive any significant difference between total social power means scores and the base value of 3.50. This means that no uniform would be perceived as possessing positive total social power. It was expected that each uniform would be perceived positively.

Each total social power mean was compared to 3.50, a value which indicates less positive power perceptions. The Male/Pant uniform results indicate that each subject group perceives total social power of the uniform as being positive. The Female/Pant uniform is perceived as possessing total social power means by the urban and female subject groups. Total social power of the Female/Skirt uniform indicate that rural and female subject groups perceive

TABLE 3

Means of Total Social Power Scores  
for Uniform Styles and Subject Groups

Subject Group	Uniform Style		
	Male/Pant Vis. 1	Female/Pant Vis. 2	Female/Skirt Vis. 3
Urban	3.33*	3.25*	3.46
Rural	2.83*	3.32	3.13*
Male	3.31*	3.49	3.62
Female	3.13*	3.11*	3.00*

Note.—Means less than 3.50 indicate a perception within the positive range.

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 4

Calculated z scores for the  
Rejection of Hypothesis 1

Subject Group	Uniform Style		
	Male/Pant Vis. 1	Female/Pant Vis. 2	Female/Skirt Vis. 3
Urban Ss	-3.4482*	-4.496*	-0.7708
Rural Ss	-8.0611*	-0.8100	-4.7474*
Male Ss	-2.5446*	-0.1415	-1.9976
Female Ss	-6.3062*	-6.2140*	-8.8656*

Note.—Critical region for rejection of  $H_0$  is  $z < -2.055$ .

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

the uniform as possessing more positive total social power than do urban and male subjects.

Male subjects perceive the female uniforms, both pant and skirt styles, as possessing less positive total social power than the Male/Pant uniform. Female subjects rejected the null hypothesis for each uniform style and perceived that each uniform style possessed positive strength total social power.

There is agreement among 67% of the subjects that the working summer uniform of the R.C.M.P. officer is perceived as having positive total social power that is composed of each of the five power bases. Of the three uniforms, the Male/Pant style is perceived as being more consistently positive than the other female uniform styles. This may be explained by two considerations:

1. length of time of exposure of the male uniform.
2. the "traditional" expectations of law enforcement officers' role and sex.

All subjects are familiar with the R.C.M.P. because of its long term existence as Canada's national police force. The introduction of women into the force is a relatively new phenomenon and, consequently, their uniforms cannot be known as well nor viewed as positively as the male uniform. In addition to this awareness, subjects may perceive that traditionally, the R.C.M.P. officer has been male. This expectation may result in less positive perceptions of female officers' total social power.

Female subjects appear to be more willing than any other subject group to accept the female officer in a law enforcement role. This may be a reflection of the women's movement demand for employment equity and changing attitudes toward the female role. The results of male subjects' perceptions indicate that males view the female uniforms as possessing less power than the male counterpart. It would, therefore, be expected that the less positive perceptions of the male citizen would affect the effectiveness, actual and perceived, of the female R.C.M.P. officer.

Urban subjects perceived the Male/Pant and Female/Pant uniforms as possessing total social power within the positive strength range. The Female/Skirt uniform was perceived by these same groups as not possessing positive strength total social power. Rural subjects failed to reject the null hypotheses for the Female/Pant uniform while rejecting the null for the Female/Skirt and Male/Pant uniforms. The incongruity between the perceptions of the two female uniform styles may be attributed to such social attitudes as stereotyped perceptions of appropriate female roles and dress, or the negative connotation that may be attached to a "macho" image. The inconsistency may also be a result of the recent introduction of females to the R.C.M.P. force. Also, few females have been assigned, traditionally, to patrol duty where their public visibility and interaction would increase. Female officers are more often assigned to urban rather than rural locations. Finally, variations in

total social power perceptions may be related to the sex differences of the subjects. It is significant that males allocate less positive total social power to the female uniform styles than do female subjects. This difference between perceived social power may be a result of what is commonly called "male chauvinism". It is possible that the male perception of the female uniforms is biased by the sex of the uniform wearer or by the sex indicated by the uniform (skirts indicate female).

The results of Hypothesis 1 support the problem statement which indicated that police administrations across Canada and the United States had been concerned about the public perception of the female officer and her uniform. Female officers are perceived differently than males, and these perceptions indicate an overall weakness in the total social power of the female officers' uniform. This result has significance for law enforcement administrations in terms of duties assigned to and uniforms designed for the female officer.

b. Hypothesis 2:

The results of Hypothesis 2 data analysis are tabled in Tables 5, 6, 7 and 8, pages 62, 63, 64, and 65, respectively. Tables 5 and 6 give the mean comparisons of the social power bases scores for each subject group and uniform style. Tables 7 and 8 give the calculated z and t scores which determine rejection of the null hypothesis.

TABLE 5

Mean Comparisons of Social Power Bases for Uniforms and Subject Groups  
- Hypothesis 2

Subject Group	Hypotheses				
	Coercive = Referent	Coercive = Expert	Coercive = Legitimate	Coercive = Reward	Referent = Expert
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1					
Male	3.70 = 3.40	3.70 = 2.85*	3.70 = 2.60*	3.70 = 3.99	3.40 = 2.85*
Female	3.38 = 3.31	3.38 = 2.70*	3.38 = 2.53*	3.38 = 3.55	3.31 = 2.70*
Urban	3.83 = 3.49*	3.83 = 3.05*	3.83 = 2.38*	3.83 = 2.89	3.49 = 3.05*
Rural	3.49 = 3.21	3.49 = 2.95	3.49 = 1.41*	3.49 = 3.10	3.21 = 2.95
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2					
Male	4.53 = 3.46*	4.53 = 3.16*	4.53 = 2.55*	4.53 = 3.75*	3.46 = 3.16
Female	3.89 = 2.86*	3.89 = 2.79*	3.89 = 2.51*	3.89 = 3.42*	2.86 = 2.79
Urban	4.21 = 3.32*	4.21 = 2.78*	4.21 = 2.63*	4.21 = 3.32*	3.32 = 2.78*
Rural	4.29 = 3.00*	4.29 = 3.14*	4.29 = 2.33*	4.29 = 3.82	3.00 = 3.14
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3					
Male	4.24 = 3.62*	4.24 = 3.18*	4.24 = 2.85*	4.24 = 4.22	3.62 = 3.18*
Female	3.52 = 2.81*	3.52 = 2.49*	3.52 = 2.34*	3.52 = 3.80	2.81 = 2.49
Urban	4.03 = 3.46*	4.03 = 3.00*	4.03 = 2.62*	4.03 = 4.17	3.46 = 3.00*
Rural	3.64 = 2.93*	3.64 = 2.63*	3.64 = 2.64*	3.64 = 3.79	2.93 = 2.63

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 6

Mean Comparisons of Social Power Bases for Uniforms and Subject Groups  
- Hypothesis 2

Subject Group	Hypotheses				
	Referent = Legitimate	Referent = Reward	Expert = Legitimate	Expert = Reward	Legitimate = Reward
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1					
Male	3.40 = 2.60*	3.40 = 3.99*	2.85 = 2.60	2.85 = 3.99*	2.60 = 3.99*
Female	3.31 = 2.53*	3.31 = 3.55	2.70 = 2.53	2.70 = 3.55*	2.53 = 3.55*
Urban	3.49 = 2.38*	3.49 = 2.89*	3.05 = 2.38*	3.05 = 2.39*	2.38 = 2.89*
Rural	3.21 = 1.41*	3.21 = 3.10	2.95 = 1.41*	2.95 = 3.10	1.41 = 3.10*
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2					
Male	3.46 = 2.55*	3.46 = 3.75	3.16 = 2.55*	3.16 = 3.75*	2.55 = 3.75*
Female	2.86 = 2.51*	2.86 = 3.42*	2.79 = 2.51	2.79 = 3.42*	2.51 = 3.42*
Urban	3.32 = 2.63*	3.32 = 3.32	2.78 = 2.63	2.78 = 3.32*	2.63 = 3.32*
Rural	3.00 = 2.33	3.00 = 3.82*	3.14 = 2.33*	3.14 = 3.82*	2.33 = 3.82*
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3					
Male	3.62 = 2.85*	3.62 = 4.22*	3.18 = 2.85	3.18 = 4.22*	2.85 = 4.22*
Female	2.81 = 2.34*	2.81 = 3.80*	2.49 = 2.34	2.49 = 3.80*	2.34 = 3.80*
Urban	3.46 = 2.62*	3.46 = 4.17*	3.00 = 2.62*	3.00 = 4.17*	2.62 = 4.17*
Rural	2.93 = 2.64	2.93 = 3.79*	2.63 = 2.64	2.63 = 3.79*	2.64 = 3.79*

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 7

Calculated z and t Scores for Rejection of Hypothesis 2

Subject Group	Hypotheses				
	Coercive = Referent	Coercive = Expert	Coercive = Legitimate	Coercive = Reward	Referent = Expert
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1					
Male	1.8645	4.8823*	4.2719*	1.8448	3.0934*
Female	0.4082	7.1951*	8.9582*	2.0459	3.5756*
Urban	2.5279*	6.1273*	11.6841*	-0.4549	3.3460*
Rural <sup>a</sup>	1.2517	1.9300	9.3778*	1.9127	0.8781
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2					
Male	5.2970*	7.7930*	11.9638*	3.8903*	0.1575
Female	6.4890*	7.4796*	9.8658*	3.2445*	0.3919
Urban	6.0834*	11.5443*	13.0363*	6.1720*	3.660*
Rural <sup>b</sup>	2.6764*	2.5420*	4.2553*	0.9922	-0.4751
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3					
Male	3.3917*	6.6625*	9.2053*	0.1278	2.4189*
Female	4.8999*	7.1231*	8.5137*	-1.8343	2.2679
Urban	3.8178*	7.4909*	11.4355*	-1.0495	3.0204*
Rural <sup>c</sup>	2.8503*	4.8210*	4.7125*	0.6661	1.4903

Note.-Critical region for all groups except rural is  $z < -2.33$  and  $z > 2.33$

<sup>a</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ , 23 - 1 df is  $t < -2.326$  and  $t > 2.326$

<sup>b</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ , 14 - 1 df is  $t < -2.462$  and  $t > 2.462$

<sup>c</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ , 28 - 1 df is  $t < -2.326$  and  $t > 2.326$

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 8

Calculated z and t Scores for the  
Rejection of Hypothesis 2 (cont'd)

Subject Group	Hypotheses				
	Referent = Legitimate	Referent = Reward	Expert = Legitimate	Expert = Reward	Reward = Legitimate
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1					
Male	3.0769*	-3.6578*	1.6340	-6.5367*	-5.3939*
Female	4.9436*	-1.4294	1.1356	-5.3026*	-6.9577*
Urban	8.6381*	-2.9412*	5.5464*	-6.5217*	-12.0127*
Rural <sup>a</sup>	7.4349*	0.4872	5.2260*	-0.5329	-7.5480*
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2					
Male	5.0249*	-1.3583	4.0317*	-3.1234*	-6.6890*
Female	2.0625*	-2.9350*	1.7621	-3.5275*	-5.3624*
Urban	4.9676*	0.0000	1.2245	-3.7165*	-5.0439*
Rural <sup>b</sup>	2.1817	-2.5115*	3.1665*	-2.8204*	-5.0680*
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3					
Male	4.4025*	-3.2397*	2.2000	-6.4237*	-8.8961*
Female	3.4841*	-6.6309*	1.1152	-8.7920*	-10.1955*
Urban	6.0172*	-4.7747*	2.9945*	-8.5526*	-12.6531*
Rural <sup>c</sup>	1.4209	-3.9522*	-0.0513	-5.5529*	-5.4348*

Note.—Critical region for all groups except rural is  $z < -2.33$  and  $z > 2.33$

<sup>a</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $23 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.326$  and  $t > 2.326$

<sup>b</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $14 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.462$  and  $t > 2.462$

<sup>c</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $28 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.326$  and  $t > 2.326$

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

Hypothesis 2, null form, states that for each subject group (Male, Female, Urban, Rural) and uniform style (Male/Pant, Female/Pant, Female/Skirt), the power perceptions for each power base (Coercive, Referent, Legitimate, Expert, Reward) will not be significantly different in strength to one another. It was anticipated that the power bases would be perceived as possessing significantly different strengths of social power.

The hypothesis testing yielded results which provide several important trends regarding the relationship between two different power bases. Each test is examined separately.

Ho; Coercive = Referent: All subject groups, Female/Pant and Female/Skirt uniforms, rejected the null hypothesis. Only the urban subjects, Male/Pant uniform, rejected the null hypothesis. Overwhelmingly, subjects perceive that there is a significant difference between the male and female R.C.M.P. uniforms, in terms of the coercive and referent power bases. Referent power is perceived more positively than coercive power. The perceptual difference between coercive and referent power bases is illustrated by Figures 5 and 6, pages 67 and 68, respectively.

The resources available for use by these power bases are different and cannot be substituted. Coercive power requires some form of physical or institutional strength while referent power requires nothing from the power holder, for the power to exist. Consequently, these power bases are perceived to be significantly different, such that the

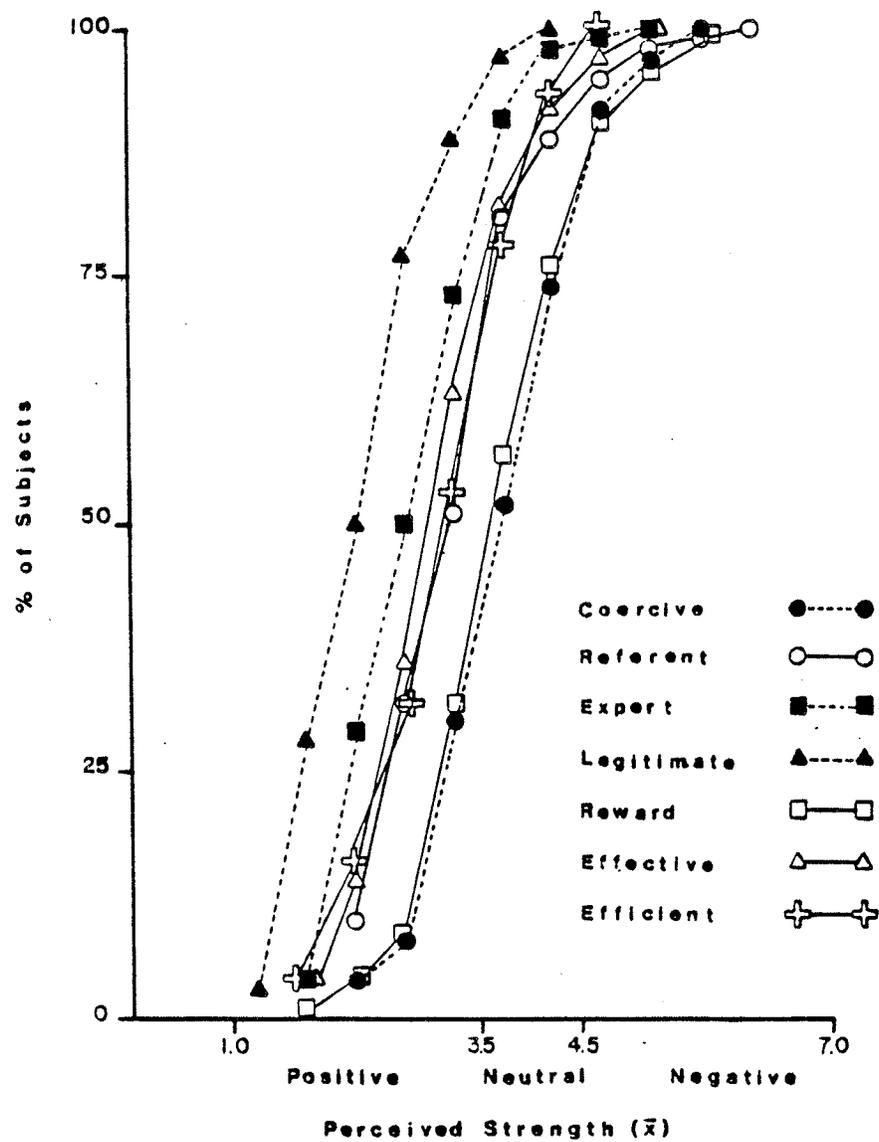


Figure 5. Urban Perceptions of Male/Pant Uniform

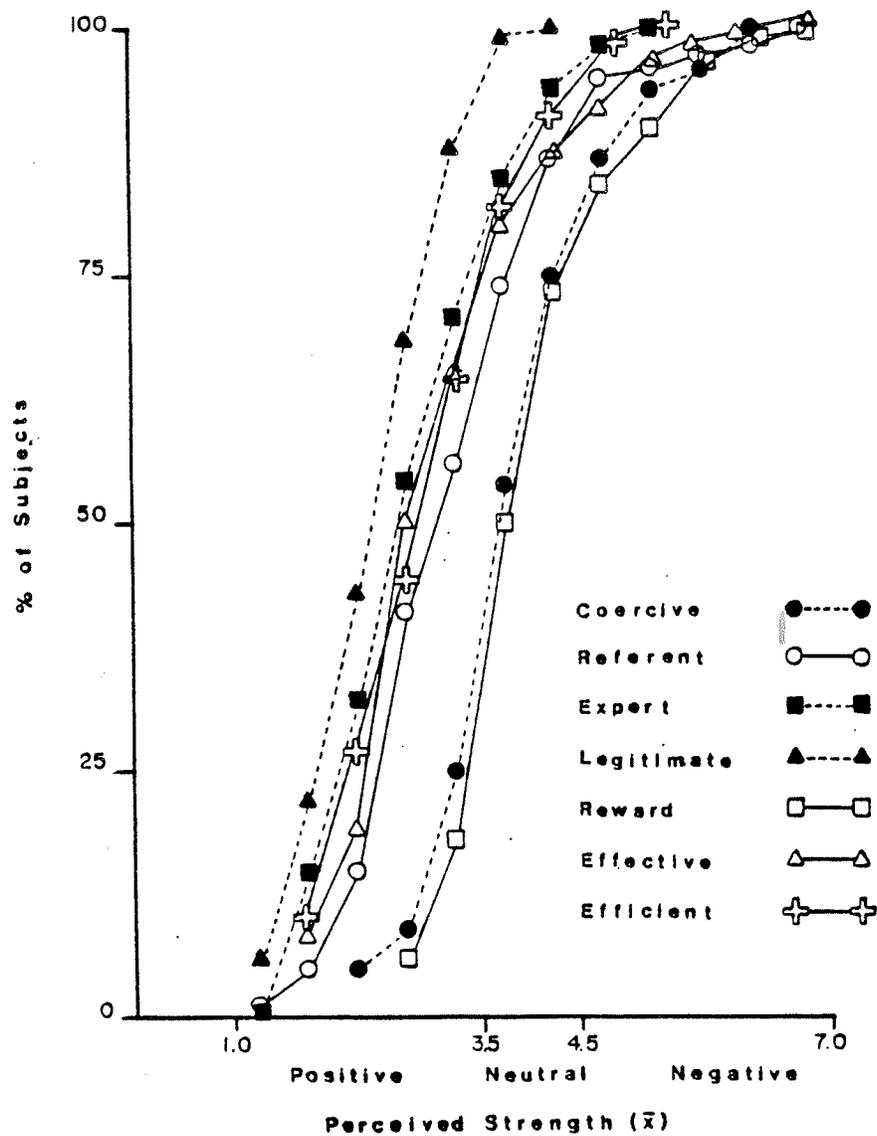


Figure 6. Urban Perceptions of Female/Skirt Uniform

referent power base is more positive than the coercive power base.

It is possible that the terms used to obtain perceptions of coercive and referent powers are interpreted differently for the male and female uniforms, such that the male uniform elicits stronger reactions from the subjects. This would certainly be a factor if one considers that the male uniform has been in existence longer, and is therefore, probably better known, and consequently, possesses stronger stereotyped responses from beholders. In addition, if the sex of the wearer significantly influences perceptions, then the strength of social power base perceptions may be increased by the fact that males are often seen to be more coercive than females, and perhaps, often more admired, in this society. Finally, one might anticipate that perceptions of coercive and referent social powers of the male and female uniforms would differ significantly. Both the pant and skirt uniforms of the female officer are perceived as having significantly different amounts of coercive and referent power, while the perceptions of male uniform do not reject the hypothesis that these power base have similar strengths. Perhaps this is because female officers who are seen as possessing the ability to carry out negative threats are not admirable and vice versa. Alternately, male officers have the ability to carry equal quantities of 'threat' power and target admiration. This difference in perceptions may place the female officer at a disadvantage with her male

counterpart, as well as affecting the desired image of the female in uniform.

Ho; Coercive = Expert: With the exception of the rural subjects, Male/Pant uniform, all other subject groups, for each uniform style, rejected the null hypothesis and the conclusion is made that there is a perceived significant difference between the coercive and expert power bases. Also, z and t statistics indicate that expert power is perceived to be more positive than the coercive power base. Figure 7, page 71, illustrates the rural perceptions of the Male/Pant uniform. Comparing the plotted points of coercive and expert powers on Figure 7 to those of Figure 8, page 72, clearly shows that:

a. failure to reject the null hypothesis is shown by the closeness of the two plotted curves.

b. rejection of the null - perceived significant difference is illustrated by a separation of the plotted curves.

c. that expert power curves are more positive than coercive power curves. The closer to the vertical axis, the more positive strength the power base possesses.

Overall, the R.C.M.P. uniforms are perceived as possessing significantly different strengths of coercive and expert power bases. The resources for the power bases are different, non-interchangeable. Coercive power requires physical or institutional powers while expert power base requires resources of perceived knowledge and/or skills.

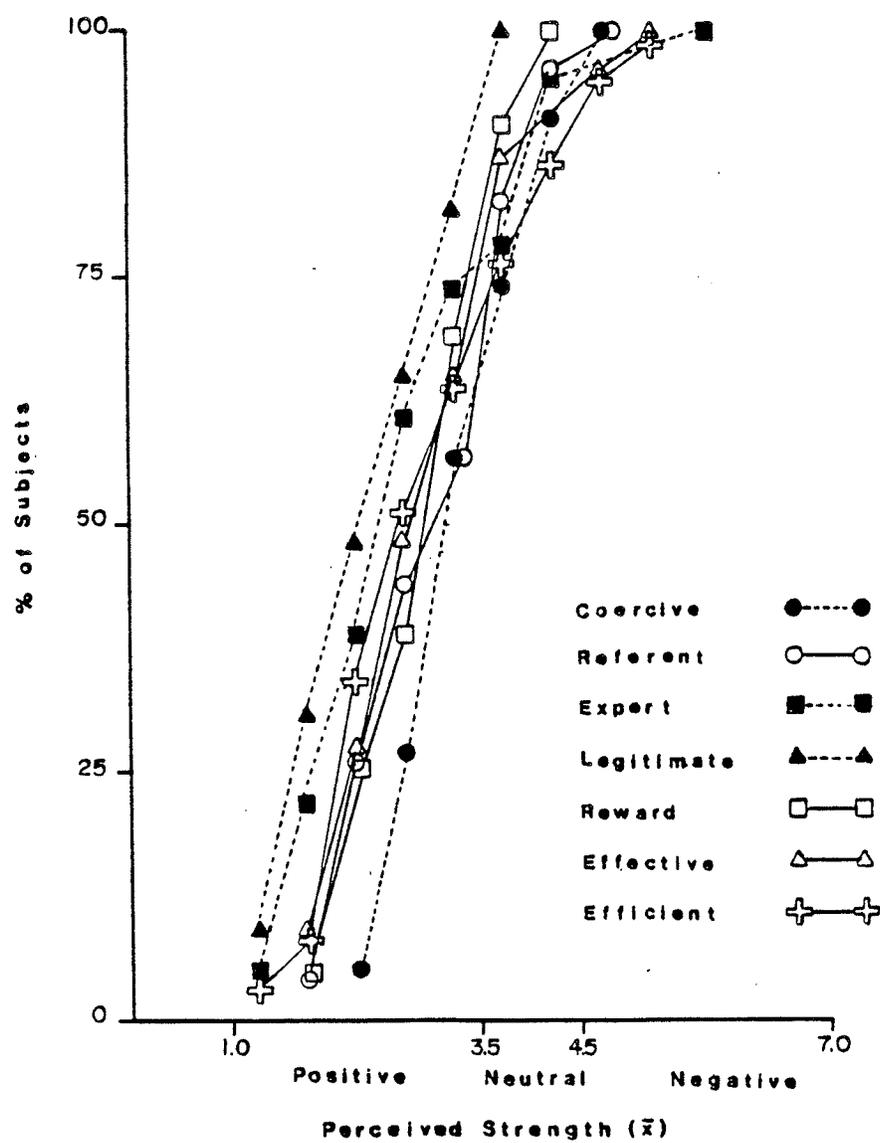


Figure 7. Rural Perceptions of Male/Pant Uniform

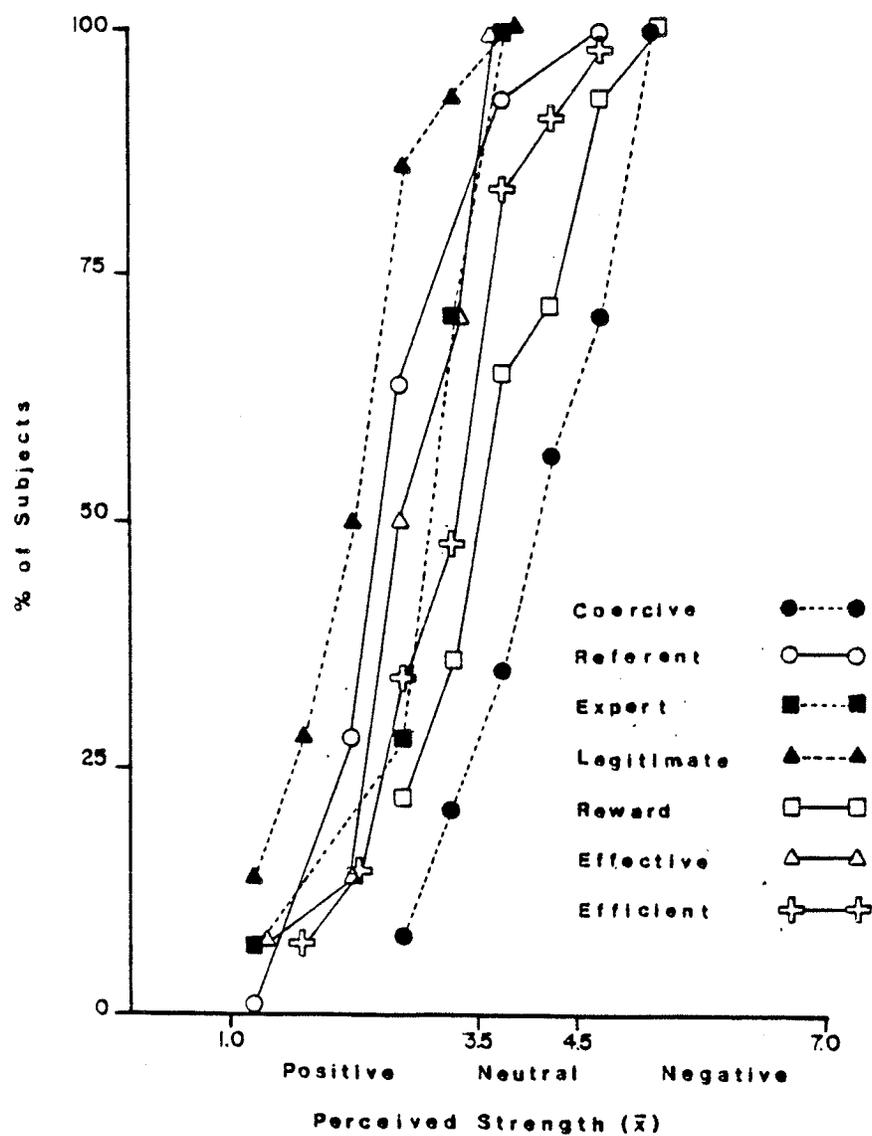


Figure 8. Rural Perceptions of Female/Pant Uniform

Rural subjects may fail to reject the null hypothesis because they have had greater exposure to the R.C.M.P. Male/Pant uniform.

Ho; Coercive = Legitimate: Without exception, all subject groups for all uniform styles, rejected the null hypothesis. The conclusion is drawn that coercive power strength is perceived as being significantly different from legitimate power strength. This relationship is clearly illustrated by Figure 9, page 74. Legitimate power is clearly shown to be perceived as positive while coercive power is perceived to be much less positive. Examination of all Figures 5 - 16 will illustrate the consistency of this relationship.

The significance of this relationship is that if one tests a uniform and finds that it has very strong (highly positive) coercive power, one may also conclude that the same uniform will not be perceived as having highly strong legitimate power. This is important for law enforcement agencies which strive for a "positive image" with the public. If the desire is to be perceived as being legitimate, the agency can test the uniform perceptions prior to commitment to large scale uniform modifications.

Ho; Coercive = Reward: For all subject groups who observed the Male/Pant and Female/Pant uniforms, the null hypothesis was not rejected, indicating there is no significant difference in subjects' perceptions of these two power bases. Subjects viewing the Female/Pant uniform, with

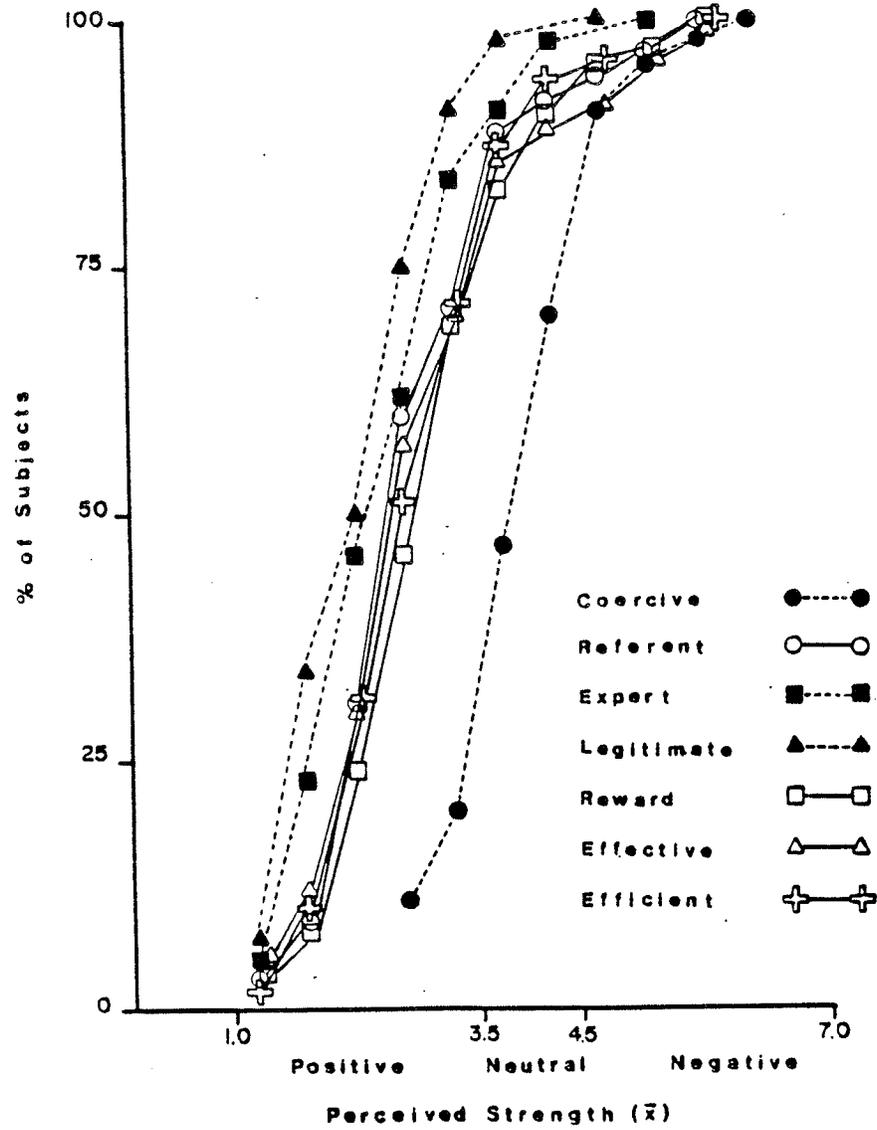


Figure 9. Female Perceptions of Female/Pant Uniform

the exception of the rural group, perceived that there was a significant difference between the strength of coercive and reward power bases. Some possible explanations for the differing perceptions include:

1. One might speculate that subjects who viewed the Female/Pant uniform shared some unknown characteristic that affected perceptions of these two power bases.
2. The differences may be a result of the 'conflict' created by the Female/Pant uniform. The uniform is in the grey area of traditional Male-Female role expectations. The wearer is obviously female, while the uniform is quite mannish. This conflict might manifest itself in responses that vacillate between opposites, such that the Female/Pant uniform is perceived as having only partial components of the Male/Pant and Female/Skirt expectations. In effect, the Female/Pant uniform may be receiving less perceived coercive power due to the sex of the wearer and possibly more reward power because of it. This would result in definite inequalities.
3. It is possible that the smaller sample size of the rural subjects who viewed the Female/Pant uniform influenced the results, but a similar small sample size did not appear to affect responses for other uniforms. A second possibility to explain differences is that the R.C.M.P. is responsible for policing rural areas, and this means that rural subjects are more

familiar with the R.C.M.P. personnel. This might positively affect their acceptance of female officers in spite of the fact that rural subjects are less likely to be exposed to the female R.C.M.P. officer.

Ho; Referent = Expert: The results of testing this null hypothesis were highly variable, both among subject groups within a uniform and between the uniforms themselves. For all uniform styles, urban subjects rejected the null hypothesis, but rural subjects failed to reject the same null hypothesis. This supports the assumption that the background location is a significant factor which affects social power perceptions. It is possible that when there is greater contact, interaction, and familiarity with members of the R.C.M.P., there is a smaller chance of perceiving the social power bases of a uniform as an extreme.

Both male and female subject groups rejected the null hypothesis for the Male/Pant uniform and failed to reject the null hypothesis for the Female/Pant uniform. The male subjects rejected, female subjects failed to reject the null hypothesis for the Female/Skirt uniform. The results obtained regarding the differences in perceptions among the three uniforms for male and female subjects fails to provide clear conclusions. However, it appears that the female subject group has a tendency to perceive the female style of uniforms as having no significant difference in the strengths of referent and expert powers. This may mean that female citizens will accept female R.C.M.P. officers as being more admirable and more expert than will male citizens.

Reasons inconclusive results were obtained may include:

- a. The opposing word word pairs used to determine perceptions were not reliably measuring true perceptions.
- b. The two concepts of expertness and referent power are too closely related for conclusive differences to be perceived. One must assume that if one is perceived as an expert, then he would also be a role-model. This obviously, is not, in all instances, true. Rather, the two concepts are quite separate in their focus.

Ho; Referent = Legitimate: All subject groups who viewed the Male/Pant uniform rejected the null hypothesis and the conclusion is made that the Male/Pant uniform is perceived as having significantly different strengths of referent and legitimate powers. For the Female/Pant and Female/Skirt uniforms, only the rural subject groups failed to reject the null hypothesis. Figures 8 and 10, pages 72 and 78, illustrate that the rural perceptions of legitimate and referent powers are not significantly different, for the female uniforms. Figure 11, page 79, is an excellent example of significantly different perceptions of referent and legitimate power bases.

Ho; Referent = Reward: Testing of this null hypothesis produced highly variable results. The Female/Skirt uniform was the only exception, where testing results showed an 100% rejection of the null hypothesis, for all subject

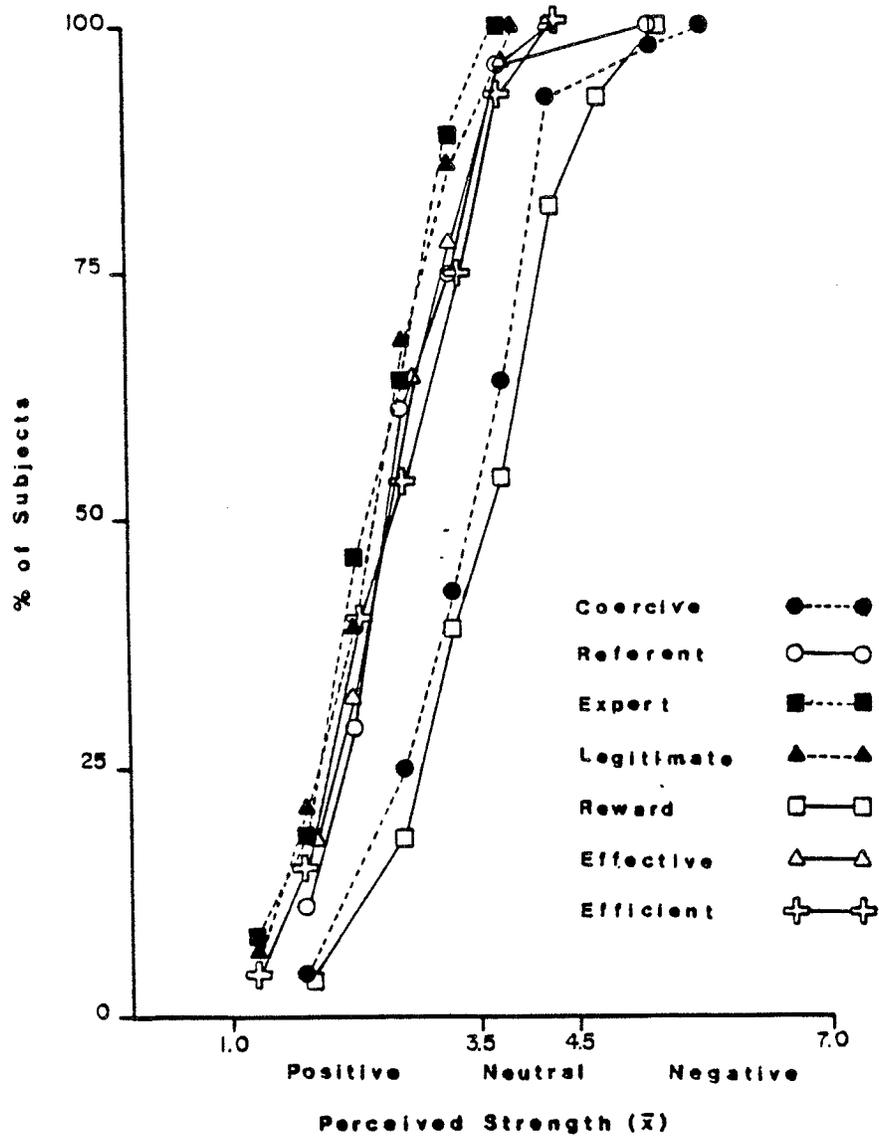


Figure 10. Rural Perceptions of Female/Skirt Uniform

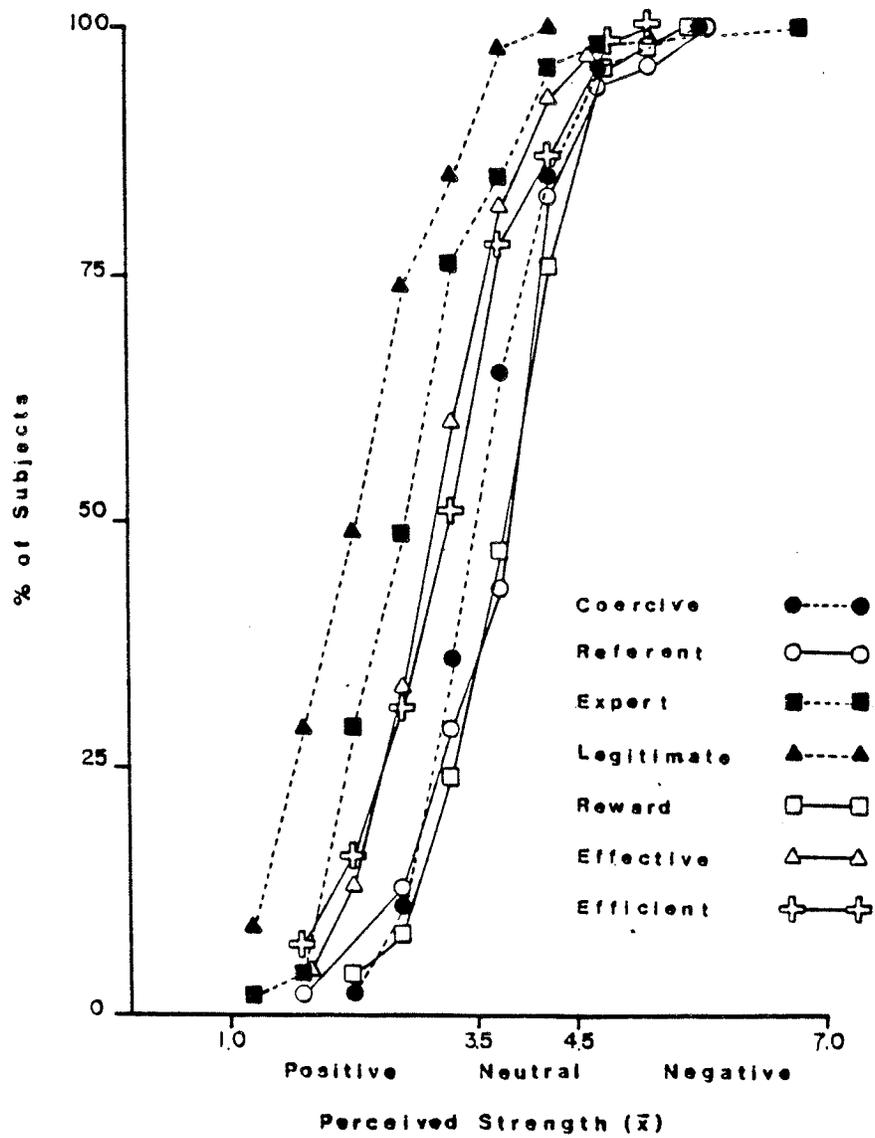


Figure 11. Male Perceptions of Male/Pant Uniform

groups. It is significant that the traditional female dress (skirt style) is perceived as having similar strengths of both reward and referent power bases. Subsequent tests indicate that these power bases are perceived as having less strength, therefore, this uniform style is seen as having less ability to reward or as having fewer admirable qualities.

Ho; Expert = Legitimate: Fifty-eight percent of the subject groups failed to reject the null hypothesis and the conclusion is made that expert power is not significantly different in perceived strength from legitimate power. The exceptions included Male/Pant uniform, urban and rural subjects, Female/Pant uniform, male and rural subjects and Female/Skirt uniform, urban subjects. In each exception, legitimate power was perceived to be significantly different from and more positive than expert power.

It is significant that there appears to be a perceptual link between expertness and legitimacy. This provides positive feedback for the R.C.M.P. administration regarding the image its officers present to the public.

The similarity of perceptions is illustrated well in Figures 10 and 12, pages 78 and 81. Figure 5, page 67, shows an example of a perceived significant difference between the expert and legitimate power bases.

Ho; Expert = Reward: This null hypothesis was rejected by all subject groups for each uniform style with the exception of rural subjects - Male/Pant uniform (Figure 7, page 71). Reward power is perceived as being significant

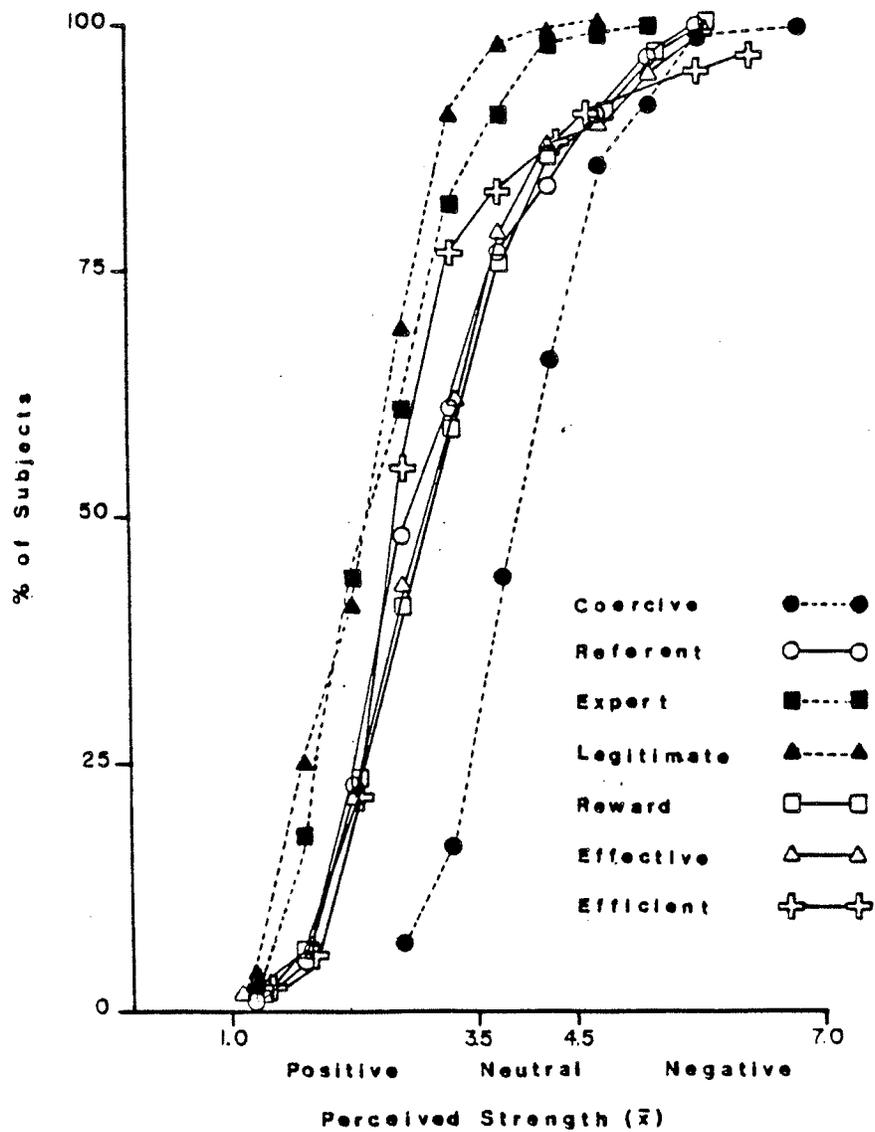


Figure 12. Urban Perceptions of Female/Pant Uniform

different in strength from expert power. The bases of these powers are different, dependent on different resources which cannot be interchanged. The calculated  $z$  and  $t$  scores (Table 8, page 65) indicates that expert power is perceived to be more positive than reward power. Figures 5, 6, 8-16 illustrate the perceptual difference between expert and reward powers, as well as showing the relative positiveness of each power base.

The rural subject group perceives no significant difference between expert and reward power bases, for the Male/Pant uniform. It is interesting to note that the rural subject group has the most exposure to the R.C.M.P. officer. The rural subjects did not react similarly to the female uniform styles. The conclusion is made that the perceptions of expert and reward powers may be influenced by the sex of uniform wearer.

Ho; Legitimate = Reward: There is 100% agreement that the perceived strength of legitimate power is significantly different from the perceived strength of reward power. Legitimate power is perceived as being more positive and possessing greater strength than reward power, for each uniform style and subject group. Figures 5-16 illustrate the significant difference in perceived power between legitimate and reward power bases, as well as the relative strengths of the bases.

A uniform perceived as possessing very strong/positive legitimate power will also be perceived as possessing a

weaker/less positive amount of reward power. This supports the conjecture that reward power is often interpreted as being 'wrong', as in the situations of bribery or ticket 'fixing'.

A summary of the strongest power base relationships includes:

- a. expert power is perceived to be significantly different from reward power.
- b. legitimate power is perceived to be significantly different from reward power.
- c. coercive power is perceived to be significantly different from both legitimate power and expert power bases.
- d. coercive power is perceived to be not significantly different from reward power.
- e. legitimate power is perceived to be not significantly different from expert power.

The strengths indicate magnitude as well as which bases are perceived similarly by beholders. For example, if a uniform is perceived to be very legitimate, the same uniform will probably have strong expert power and weak reward power. These relationships may be critical when one considers the implementation of uniform modifications to obtain a desired image.

c. Hypothesis 3:

Table 9, page 85, gives the mean total social power scores that were compared and those test situations which rejected the null hypothesis. Table 10, page 86, gives the calculated z scores for each hypothesis situation, which determines rejection.

Hypothesis 3 was posed to determine the relative strengths of the perceived total social power allocated to each R.C.M.P. uniform by the four subject groups. It was expected that the Male/Pant uniform would be perceived as possessing the most total social power, followed by the Female/Pant, the Female/Skirt uniforms.

There is no conclusive evidence that would support the belief that the Male/Pant uniform is perceived more positively than the Female/Pant uniform. There is no agreement that the perceived total social power of the Female/Pant uniform is more positive than that of the Female/Skirt uniform. At a 98% level of confidence, male subjects failed to reject the null hypothesis for each uniform comparison. It may be suggested from examination of raw mean scores that male subjects perceive the Female/Skirt (3.00) to be most powerful, followed by the Female/Pant (3.11) then the Male/Pant (3.13) uniform being perceived as the least powerful. This may be a result of the male subject making a conscious effort to be 'fair' to the female uniforms. That is, a perceptual effort to see the female uniforms positively in order to be a "liberated male"!

TABLE 9

Comparison of the Total Social Power Means  
of the Uniform Styles

Subject Group	Hypotheses		
	Male/Pant=Female/Pant Vis. 1 = Vis. 2	Male/Pant=Female/Skirt Vis. 1 = Vis. 3	Female/Pant=Female/Skirt Vis. 2 = Vis. 3
Urban Ss	3.33 = 3.25	3.33 = 3.46	3.25 = 3.45*
Rural Ss	2.83 = 3.32*	2.83 = 3.13*	3.32 = 3.13
Male Ss	3.13 = 3.11	3.13 = 3.00	3.11 = 3.00
Female Ss	3.31 = 3.49	3.31 = 3.62*	3.49 = 3.62

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 10

Calculated z Scores for the Rejection of Hypothesis 3

Subject Group	Hypotheses		
	Male/Pant=Female/Pant Vis. 1 = Vis. 2	Male/Pant=Female/Skirt Vis. 1 = Vis. 3	Female/Pant=Female/Skirt Vis. 2 = Vis. 3
Urban Ss	-1.0884	-1.7520	-2.6889*
Rural Ss	-3.5740*	-2.5084*	1.3679
Male Ss	0.2265	1.5535	1.2304
Female Ss	-1.8091	-3.0392*	-1.3486

Note.-Critical region is  $z < -2.055$ \* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

Female subjects, at a 98% level of confidence, failed to reject the null hypothesis comparing Male/Pant and Female/Pant uniforms, Female/Pant and Female/Skirt uniforms but did reject the null hypothesis comparing the Male/Pant and Female/Skirt uniforms. Comparison of the mean scores indicates that females perceive the total social-power of the Male/Pant most positively, the Female/Pant next, followed by the Female/Skirt uniform. This indicates that female subjects find it difficult to accept the traditionally dressed female officer as having similar levels of social power as the traditionally uniformed male personnel. It is possible that the skirt continues to transmit a "weakness" to the female beholder, in spite of recent developments in the women's movement, ERA, and sexual equality in the workforce.

Rural subjects failed to reject the null hypothesis comparing the Female/Pant and Female/Skirt uniforms. Comparisons between the Male/Pant uniform and both female uniform styles resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis by rural subjects. The Male/Pant uniform is perceived to be the most powerful of all three uniforms, while the Female/Pant uniform would appear to be perceived as least powerful, by the rural subjects. This result may be caused by the exposure a rural subject has had to the R.C.M.P. male officer. Urban subjects perceived only the two female uniforms as having significant differences in the total social power means.

Generally, the three R.C.M.P. uniforms were perceived to hold the following total social power (TSP) relationships:

$$\text{Male/Pant TSP} = \text{Female/Pant TSP} > \text{Female/Skirt TSP}$$

The strongest uniform is the traditional Male/Pant uniform. The weakest uniform, overall, is the Female/Skirt uniform. In light of these perceptions of total social power, it may be wise to consider discarding the skirt uniform, altogether. This move may help to solidify the image of the Female/Pant uniform and increase her total social power.

d. Hypothesis 4:

The mean scores that were compared and results of the hypotheses tests are given in Table 11, page 89. Table 12, page 90, provides the calculated t scores used to determine rejection regions for the hypothesis tests.

Hypothesis 4 examined the relationship between rural and urban subjects' perceptions of the positiveness or strengths of the five social power bases (Coercive, Referent, Expert, Legitimate, Reward) for the three uniform styles (Male/Pant, Female/Pant, Female/Skirt). The alternate hypothesis stated that the power base means perceived by the rural subjects would be smaller than the social power base means perceived by the urban subjects, for the same uniform style. The smaller the mean, the greater the power base strength, so it was anticipated that rural subjects

TABLE 11

Comparison of Rural and Urban Subjects'  
Perceptions of the Social Power Bases

Uniform Style	Hypothesis: Rural Perception = Urban Perception				
	Coercive (A)	Referent (B)	Expert (C)	Legitimate (D)	Reward (E)
Male/Pant Vis. 1	3.49 = 3.83*	3.21 = 3.49	2.95 = 3.05	1.41 = 2.38*	3.10 = 3.89*
Female/Pant Vis. 2	4.29 = 4.21	3.00 = 3.32	3.14 = 2.78	2.33 = 2.63	2.82 = 3.32
Female/Skirt Vis. 3	3.64 = 4.03*	2.93 = 3.46*	2.63 = 3.00*	2.64 = 2.62	3.79 = 4.17*

Note.-Hypothesis statements written in rural = urban format

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 12

Calculated t Scores for the Rejection of Hypothesis 4

Uniform Style	Hypothesis: Rural Perception = Urban Perception				
	Coercive (A)	Referent (B)	Expert (C)	Legitimate (D)	Reward (E)
Male/Pant - Vis. 1	-2.3895*	-1.6252	-0.4156	-5.4249*	-5.4249*
Female/Pant - Vis. 2	0.1912	-1.3372	2.0907	-1.5562	2.2503
Female/Skirt - Vis. 3	-2.4415*	-4.7724*	-2.7261*	0.1432	-2.3931*

a Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $23 - 1$  df;  $t < -2.074$

b Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $14 - 1$  df;  $t < -2.160$

c Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $28 - 1$  df;  $t < -2.052$

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

would allocate the stronger power bases to each uniform.

At a 98% level of confidence, in no instances was the null hypothesis totally rejected. The null hypothesis was rejected for the Male/Pant uniform in the following power bases: legitimate, reward, and coercive. The null hypothesis was not rejected for the referent and expert power bases, and one can conclude that there is no significant difference in the rural/urban perceptions of these two power bases for the Male/Pant uniform.

The null hypothesis failed to be rejected for each power base, for the Female/Pant uniform. Rural and urban subjects did not perceive any significant difference in the strengths of coercive, referent, expert, legitimate and reward power bases.

The null hypothesis for the Female/Skirt uniform was rejected for all power bases with the exception of legitimate power. There is no significant difference between the perception of the legitimate power base for the Female/Skirt uniform by rural and urban subjects. There is, however, a significant difference perceived to be between the mean scores of coercive, referent, expert, and reward power bases, for the Female/Skirt uniform, rural vs urban subjects.

Overall, rural subjects perceive the traditionally dressed male and female officers differently than do urban subjects. For the Male/Pant and Female/Skirt uniforms, rural subjects perceive most power bases more positively than do urban subjects. This may support the conjecture

that as familiarity increases, so does perceived strength of the social power bases. Rural subjects are more likely than urban subjects to think that R.C.M.P. officers are more powerful because they have more interaction with the R.C.M.P. police force. The Female/Pant uniform is perceived by rural and urban subjects as having no significant difference between social base mean scores. This may be a result of a mental conflict in trying to deal with the dual male/female appearance of the uniform or perhaps an equal lack of actual familiarity with the Female/Pant uniform.

e. Hypothesis 5:

Table 13, page 93, gives the data compared and the results for Hypothesis 5. Table 14, page 94, lists the calculated z and t scores used to determine rejection(s) of the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5 was posed to determine which of the five social power bases was perceived as being the strongest, for each uniform style and subject group. It was anticipated from pre-test data that the legitimate power base would be perceived to be the most positive/strong of all power bases, for each uniform, by each subject group.

At a confidence level of 98%, the following results were obtained:

1. All subject groups (Male, Female, Urban, Rural) of each uniform (Male/Pant, Female/Pant, Female/Skirt) rejected the null hypothesis that perceived coercive power is not

TABLE 13

Determination of the Strongest Social Power Base by Comparing  
Social Power Mean Scores for Each Uniform and Subject Group

Subject Group	Hypotheses			
	Coercive = Legitimate A = D	Referent = Legitimate B = D	Expert = Legitimate C = D	Reward = Legitimate E = D
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1				
Male Ss	3.70 = 2.60*	3.40 = 2.60*	2.85 = 2.60	3.99 = 2.60*
Female Ss	3.38 = 2.53*	3.31 = 2.53*	2.70 = 2.53	3.55 = 2.53*
Urban Ss	3.83 = 2.38*	3.49 = 2.38*	3.05 = 2.38*	3.89 = 2.38*
Rural Ss	3.49 = 1.41*	3.21 = 1.41*	2.95 = 1.41*	3.10 = 1.41*
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2				
Male Ss	4.53 = 2.55*	3.46 = 2.55*	3.16 = 2.55*	2.75 = 2.55*
Female Ss	3.98 = 2.51*	2.86 = 2.51	2.79 = 2.51	3.42 = 2.51*
Urban Ss	4.21 = 2.63*	3.32 = 2.63*	2.78 = 2.63	3.32 = 2.63*
Rural Ss	4.29 = 2.33*	3.00 = 2.33	3.14 = 2.33*	3.82 = 2.33*
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3				
Male Ss	4.24 = 2.85*	3.62 = 2.85*	3.18 = 2.85	4.22 = 2.85*
Female Ss	3.52 = 2.34*	2.81 = 2.34*	2.49 = 2.34	3.80 = 2.34*
Urban Ss	4.03 = 2.62*	3.46 = 2.62*	3.00 = 2.62*	4.17 = 2.62*
Rural Ss	3.64 = 2.64*	2.93 = 2.64	2.63 = 2.64	3.79 = 2.64*

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 14

Calculated z and t Scores for the Rejection of Hypothesis 5

Uniform Style	Hypothesis			
	Coercive = Legitimate A = D	Referent = Legitimate B = D	Expert = Legitimate C = D	Reward = Legitimate E = D
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1				
Male	4.2719*	3.0769*	1.6340	-5.3939*
Female	8.9582*	4.9430*	1.1356	-6.9577*
Urban	11.6841*	8.6381*	5.5464*	-12.0127*
Rural	9.3778*	7.4349*	5.2260*	-7.5480*
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2				
Male	11.9638*	5.0249*	4.0317*	-6.6890*
Female	9.8658*	2.0625	1.7621	-5.3624*
Urban	13.0363*	4.9676*	1.2245	-5.0439*
Rural	4.2553*	2.1817	3.1665*	-5.0680*
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3				
Male	9.2053*	4.4025*	2.2000	-8.8961*
Female	8.5137*	3.4841*	1.1152	-10.1955*
Urban	11.4355*	6.0172*	2.9945*	-12.6531*
Rural	4.7125*	1.4209	-0.0513	-5.4348*

Note.—Critical region for all groups except rural is  $z > 2.33$ .

<sup>a</sup> Critical region is  $n < 30$ ,  $23 - 1$  df,  $t > 2.074$

<sup>b</sup> Critical region is  $n < 30$ ,  $14 - 1$  df,  $t > 2.160$

<sup>c</sup> Critical region is  $n < 30$ ,  $22 - 1$  df,  $t > 2.052$

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

significantly different from perceived legitimate power.

Legitimate power is perceived as being stronger and more positive than the coercive power base. Figures 5-16 clearly illustrate the perceptual difference between these two power bases and also help to rank order the power bases according to perceived positiveness.

2. All subjects, for each uniform rejected the null hypothesis that legitimate power is not significantly different from reward power. Rather, it is evident from examination of the mean scores and Figures 5-16 that the legitimate power base is perceived to be more positive than the reward power base.

3. Seventy-five percent of the subject groups rejected that there was no significant difference between the legitimate and referent power bases and concluded that legitimate power is perceived to be more positive than referent power. The null hypothesis was failed to be rejected by both female and rural subjects viewing the Female/Pant uniform and rural subjects viewing the Female/Skirt uniform. Though some mean differences were not statistically significant, it is important to note that in every instance, comparing referent and legitimate power bases, the legitimate mean score is smaller (more positive).

4. Fifty-eight percent of the subject groups perceived that there was no significant difference between legitimate power and expert power mean scores. On those instances where the null hypothesis was rejected (Male/Pant uniform-

urban and rural subjects; Female/Pant uniform-female and rural subjects; Female/Skirt-urban subjects) the mean score of legitimate power was lower (more positive) than the mean score of referent power. There appears, however, to be a perceptual link between these two social power bases.

Figure 10, page 78, Female/Skirt-rural subjects' perceptions illustrate the perceptual link graphically. Note that the legitimate and expert power bases are practically superimposed on one another.

The strongest power base is the legitimate power base, for all uniform styles. This is significant as it shows that the image desired by the police force is being obtained, even in the minds of the 'youth' who have often been characterized as being anti-establishment.

f. Hypothesis 6:

Table 15, page 97, gives the results of the hypothesis test. Table 16, page 98, gives the calculated z and t scores used to determine rejection of the null hypothesis tests.

Hypothesis 6 was posed to determine the weakest power base of the five social power bases. It was expected that reward power would be perceived most negatively (weakest) for all uniform styles and subject groups.

The results suggest major trends. All subject groups, for each uniform style, perceived no statistical significant difference between reward and coercive power bases. Figures 5-16 illustrate the perceptual similarity between reward and

TABLE 15

Determination of the Weakest Social Power Base by Comparing Social Power Mean Scores for Each Uniform and Subject Group

Subject Group	Hypotheses			
	Coercive = Referent A = E	Coercive = Export B = E	Coercive = Legitimate C = E	Coercive = Reward D = E
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1				
Male	3.70 = 3.99	3.40 = 3.99*	2.85 = 3.99*	2.60 = 3.99*
Female	3.38 = 3.55	3.31 = 3.55	2.70 = 3.55*	2.53 = 3.55*
Urban	3.83 = 3.89	3.49 = 3.89*	3.05 = 3.89*	2.38 = 3.89*
Rural	3.49 = 3.10	3.21 = 3.10	2.95 = 3.10	1.41 = 3.10*
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2				
Male	4.53 = 3.75	3.46 = 3.75	3.16 = 3.75*	2.55 = 3.75*
Female	3.98 = 3.42	2.86 = 3.42*	2.79 = 3.42*	2.51 = 3.42*
Urban	4.21 = 3.32	3.32 = 3.32	2.78 = 3.32*	2.63 = 3.32*
Rural	4.29 = 3.83	3.00 = 3.83	3.14 = 3.83	2.33 = 3.83*
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3				
Male	4.24 = 4.22	3.62 = 4.22*	3.18 = 4.22*	2.85 = 4.22*
Female	3.52 = 3.80	2.81 = 3.80*	2.49 = 3.80*	2.34 = 3.80*
Urban	4.03 = 4.17	3.46 = 4.17*	3.00 = 4.17*	2.22 = 4.17*
Rural	3.64 = 3.79	2.93 = 3.79*	2.63 = 3.79*	2.64 = 3.79*

\* reject  $H_0$ ,  $p < .02$

TABLE 16

Calculated z and t Scores for the Rejection of Hypothesis 6

Uniform Style	Hypotheses			
	Coercive = Reward A = E	Referent = Reward B = E	Expert = Reward C = E	Legitimate = Reward D = E
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1				
Male	1.8448	-3.6578*	-6.5367*	-5.3939*
Female	2.0459	-1.4294	-5.3026*	-6.9577*
Urban	-0.4549	-2.9412*	-6.5217*	-12.0127*
Rural <sup>a</sup>	1.9127	0.4872	-0.5329	-7.5480*
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2				
Male	3.8903	-1.3583	-3.1234*	-6.6890*
Female	3.2445	-2.9350*	-3.5274*	-5.3624*
Urban	6.1720	0.0000	-3.7165*	-5.0439*
Rural <sup>b</sup>	0.9922	0.4872	-0.5329	-7.5480*
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3				
Male	0.1278	-3.2397*	-6.4237*	-8.8961*
Female	-1.8349	-6.6309*	-8.7920*	-10.1955*
Urban	-1.0495	-4.7747*	-8.5526*	-12.6531*
Rural <sup>c</sup>	0.6661	-3.9522*	-5.5529*	-5.4348*

Note.—Critical region for all groups except rural is  $z < 2.33$ .

<sup>a</sup> Critical region is  $t < -2.074$

<sup>b</sup> Critical region is  $t < -2.160$

<sup>c</sup> Critical region is  $t < -2.052$

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

coercive power base to strengths. Figures 11, page 79, and 13, page 100, are particularly good examples of the similar perceptual lines of reward and coercive powers.

There is 100% agreement that there is a statistically significant difference between legitimate power and reward power mean scores, for all uniform styles and subject groups. Reward power is perceived less positively than legitimate power, as illustrated in Figures 10, 11, and 14, pages 78, 79, and 101, respectively.

All but two subject groups reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between reward and expert power bases. The majority of subjects perceive that the uniforms possess more positive strength expert power than reward power. The exceptions, rural subjects for the Male/Pant and Female/Pant uniforms, failed to reject the null hypothesis, perceiving that there was no significant difference between the strengths of expert and reward powers. Thus, perception by rural subjects may be a result of their exposure and interaction with R.C.M.P. officers wearing a pant style uniform. Figures 7 and 8, pages 71 and 72, illustrate the perceptions of rural subjects who perceived no significant difference. Figures 12 and 15, pages 81 and 102, illustrate a significant difference between expert and reward power bases.

It is evident that both reward and coercive power bases share the position of least powerful social power base. This is supported both statistically, Table 16, page

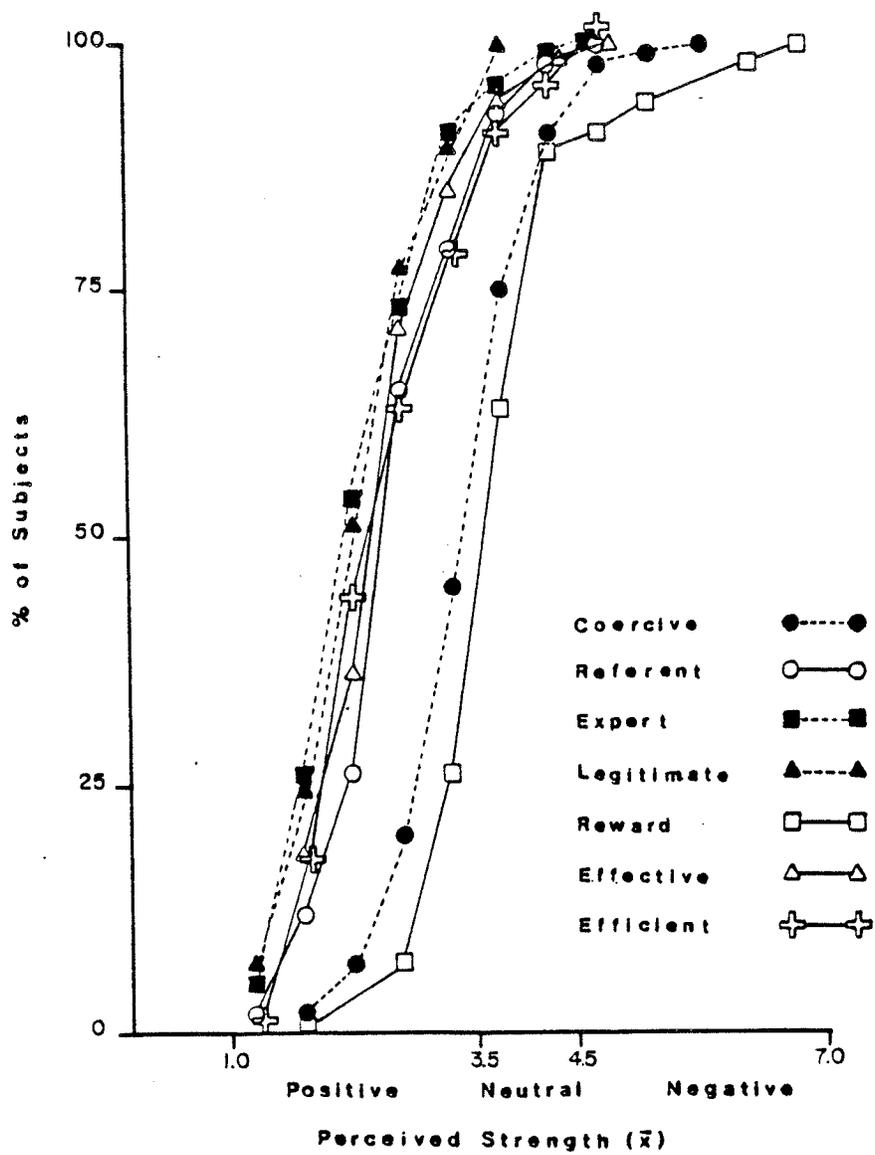


Figure 13. Female Perceptions of Female/Skirt Uniform

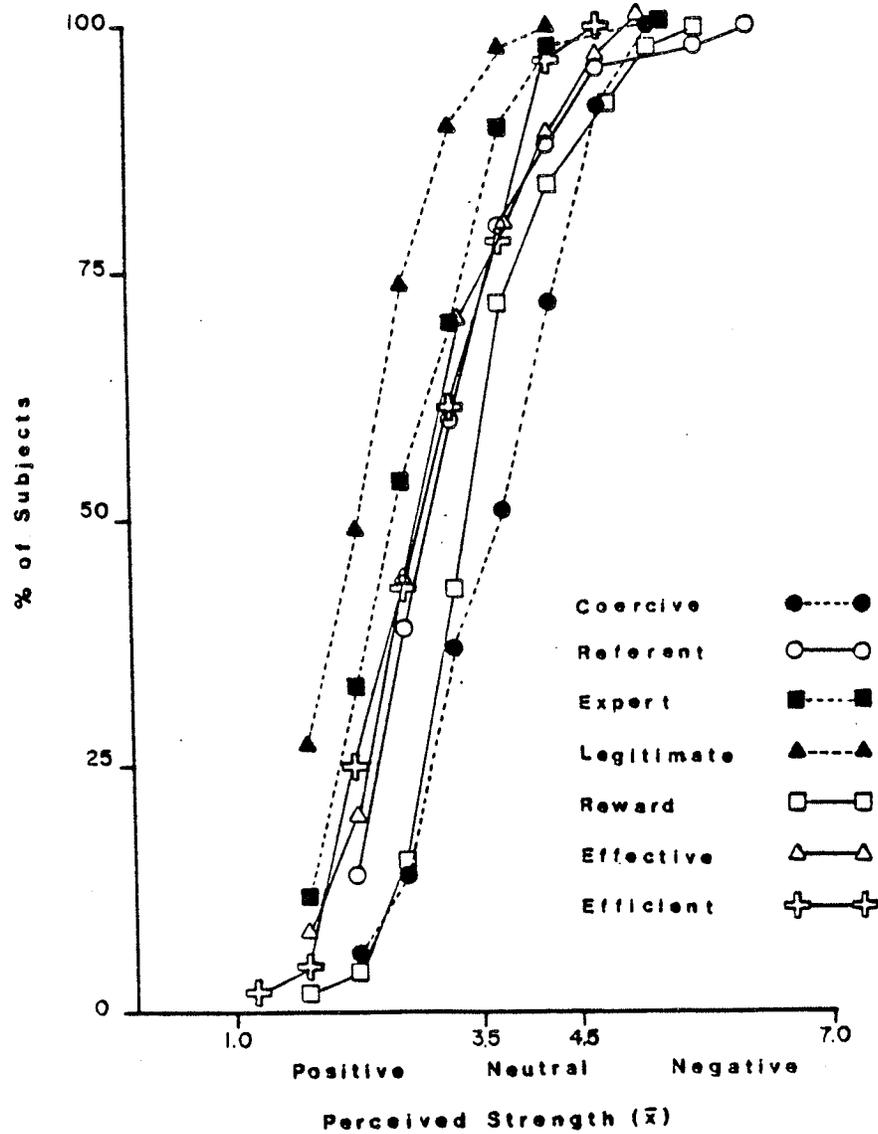


Figure 14. Female Perceptions of Male/Pant Uniform

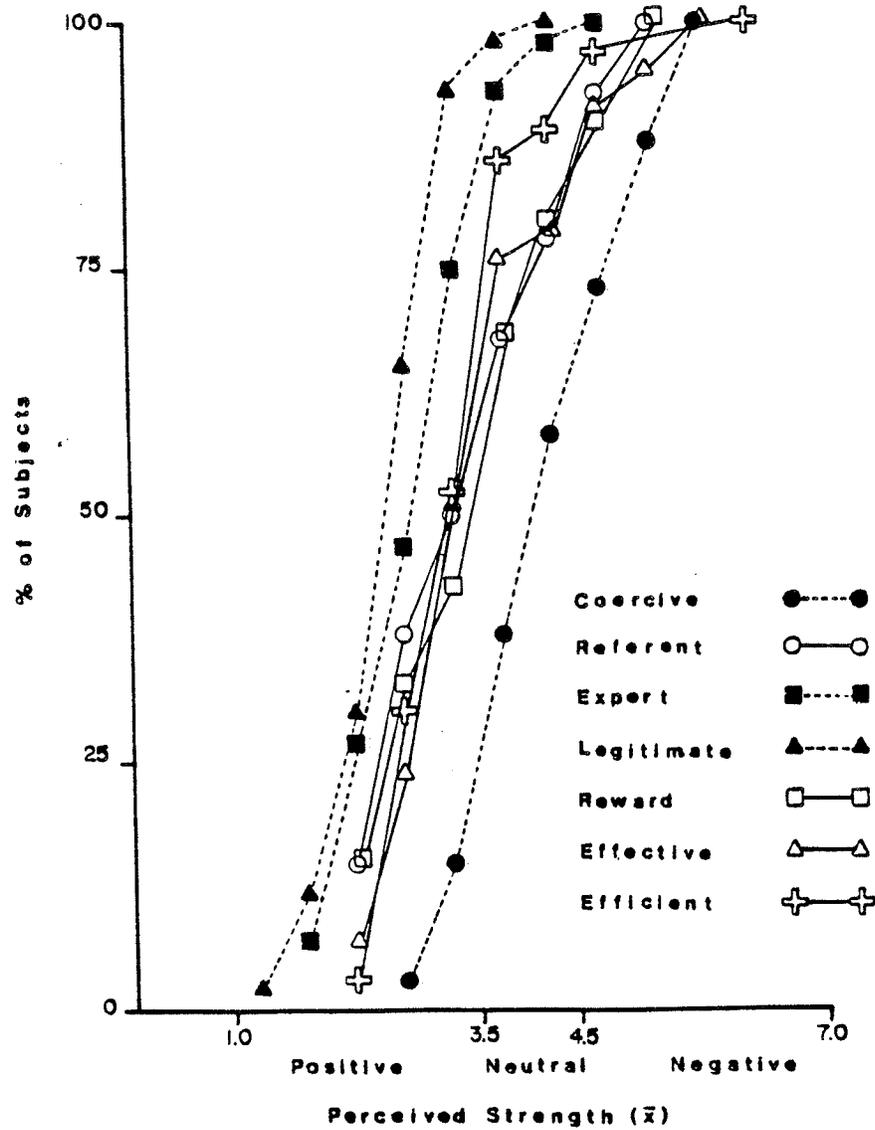


Figure 15. Male Perceptions of Female/Pant Uniform

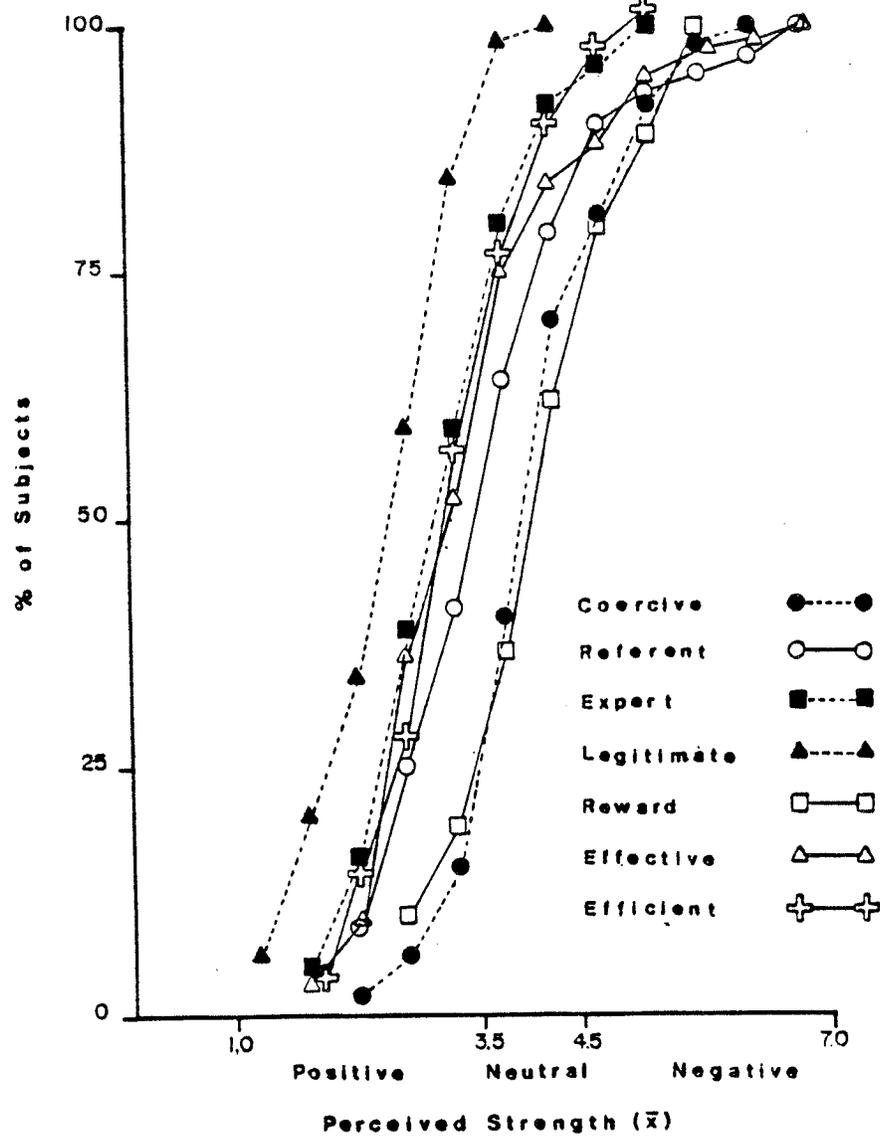


Figure 16. Male Perceptions of Female/Skirt Uniform

98, and graphically through Figures 5-16. This finding is important in that it suggests that the majority of subjects in this study perceive that the R.C.M.P. officer does not use threats or rewards to alter behavior.

g. Hypothesis 7:

Results of the data analysis for Hypothesis 7 are located in Tables 17 and 18, pages 105 and 106. Table 17 provides the mean scores of effectiveness and efficiency that were compared to 3.50. Table 18 gives the calculated z and t statistics used to determine rejection of the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 7 determined the positiveness of variables of effectiveness and efficiency. The null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean scores and the value of 3.50. It was anticipated that the variables of effectiveness and efficiency would be perceived to be within the positive strength region, for each R.C.M.P. uniform and subject group. Overall total subject perceptions of effectiveness and efficiency did result in a rejection of the null hypothesis that the perceived means would not be perceived as differing significantly from 3.50. Female subjects perceived that each uniform possessed effectiveness within the positive range.

Both the Female/Pant and Female skirt were perceived as possessing positive strength efficiency by female subjects. Urban subjects failed to reject the null

TABLE 17

Perceived Positiveness of Effectiveness and  
Efficiency Scores

Subject Group	Hypotheses - Uniform Style		
	Male/Pant	Female/Pant	Female/Skirt
	$\bar{x} = 3.50$	$\bar{x} = 3.50$	$\bar{x} = 3.50$

Effectiveness Variable			
Male	3.38	3.61	3.63
Female	3.22*	3.11*	2.82*
Urban	3.34	3.36	3.34
Rural	3.16	3.05*	2.85*
Total	3.29*	3.32*	3.22*

Efficiency Variable			
Male	3.42	3.53	3.54
Female	3.28	3.06*	2.85*
Urban	3.42	3.24	3.29
Rural	3.12	3.33	2.90*
Total	3.35*	3.25*	3.19*

Note.—Means less than 3.50 denote perceptions within the positive range

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 18

Calculated z and t Scores for the  
Rejection of Hypothesis 7

Subject Group	Hypotheses - Uniform Style		
	Male/Pant $\bar{x} = 3.50$	Female/Pant $\bar{x} = 3.50$	Female/Skirt $\bar{x} = 3.50$
Effectiveness Variable			
Male	0.2582	0.7806	0.9149
Female	-2.2563*	-2.7008*	-6.7527*
Urban	-1.7186	1.1745	-1.3989
Rural	-1.7347 <sup>a</sup>	-2.2113* <sup>b</sup>	-4.7170* <sup>c</sup>
Total	-3.5117*	-2.4161*	-4.1979*
Efficiency Variable			
Male	-0.6121	0.2513	0.3190
Female	-1.8628	-3.4948*	-5.8611*
Urban	-0.8630	-2.0015	-1.9681
Rural	-1.7368 <sup>a</sup>	-0.7284 <sup>b</sup>	-3.9037* <sup>c</sup>
Total	-2.4272*	-3.4674*	-4.7546*

Note.-Critical region for all groups except rural is  
 $z < -2.055$

<sup>a</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $23 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.074$

<sup>b</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $14 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.160$

<sup>c</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $28 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.052$

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

hypothesis for either effectiveness or efficiency. Rural subjects perceived that both female uniforms possess positive strength effectiveness but that the male uniform does not possess positive strength effectiveness. Male subjects failed to reject the null hypothesis for each uniform for effectiveness and efficiency.

It appears that the R.C.M.P. uniforms do project an overall positive strength image of effectiveness and efficiency. Individual group perceptions, however, indicate that the perceived strengths of effectiveness and efficiency are not consistently perceived to be positive. It is evident that the perceptions of effectiveness and efficiency for each of the three uniforms could be improved, particularly for male and urban subjects.

h. Hypothesis 8:

The results of the data analysis of Hypothesis 8 are located in Table 19, page 108 and Table 20, page 109. Table 19 provides the means of effectiveness and efficiency that were compared and Table 20 contains the z and t scores calculated to determine rejection of the null hypotheses.

Hypothesis 8, null form, states that the variables of effectiveness and efficiency would not be perceived as being significantly different in strength. It was expected that subjects would perceive a significant difference between two characteristics and that effectiveness would be the more positive of the two.

TABLE 19

Comparison of Mean Scores of Effectiveness and Efficiency  
for Each Uniform and Subject Group

Subject Group	Hypotheses
	Effectiveness = Efficiency
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1	
Male	3.38 = 3.42
Female	3.22 = 3.28
Urban	2.24 = 3.42
Rural	3.16 = 3.12
Total	3.29 = 3.35
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2	
Male	3.61 = 3.53
Female	3.22 = 3.06
Urban	3.36 = 3.24
Rural	3.05 = 3.33
Total	3.32 = 3.25
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3	
Male	3.63 = 3.54
Female	2.82 = 2.85
Urban	3.34 = 3.29
Rural	2.85 = 2.90
Total	3.22 = 3.19

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 20

Calculated z and t Scores for the  
Rejection of Hypothesis 8

Subject Group	Uniforms		
	Male/Pant Vis. 1	Female/Pant Vis. 2	Female/Skirt Vis. 3
Male	-0.3442	0.5677	0.6334
Female	-0.4835	0.3463	-0.2997
Urban	-0.8593	1.0067	0.4371
Rural	-0.2041 <sup>a</sup>	-1.3759 <sup>b</sup>	-0.3628 <sup>c</sup>
Total	-1.0033	0.9396	0.4498

Note.—Critical region for all Ss group but rural is  $z < -2.055$

<sup>a</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $23 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.055$

<sup>b</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $14 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.160$

<sup>c</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ ,  $28 - 1$  df is  $t < -2.052$

\* reject  $H_0$ ,  $p < .02$

The null hypothesis was failed to be rejected by all subject groups, for each uniform style. The strengths/positiveness of effectiveness and efficiency are perceived as being not significantly different, for each subject group and uniform style. This is illustrated in each of Figure 5-16, where the plotted curves for effectiveness and efficiency follow a similar path.

i. Hypothesis 9:

The results of Hypothesis 9 analysis are provided in Table 21, page 111 and Table 22, page 112. The mean comparisons are given in Table 21 and the z and t scores are given in Table 22.

Hypothesis 9 was posed to determine the relative positiveness of effectiveness and efficiency when compared to the strongest social power base. Effectiveness and efficiency perceived power scores were compared to scores of legitimate power. The null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant difference perceived between either legitimate and effectiveness or legitimate and efficiency variables. It was expected that the legitimate power bases would be perceived as being the more positive of the variable comparisons.

The null hypothesis was rejected, as expected, for all uniform styles and subject groups, with the one exception of rural subjects - Female/Skirt uniform. The conclusion is made that there is a significant difference between the

TABLE 21

Comparison of Perceived Strength of Legitimate Power  
to Effectiveness and Efficiency Variables

Subject Group	Hypotheses	
	Legitimate = Effectiveness	Legitimate = Efficiency
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1		
Male	2.60 = 3.38*	2.60 = 3.42*
Female	2.53 = 3.22*	2.53 = 3.28*
Urban	2.38 = 3.34*	2.38 = 3.42*
Rural	1.41 = 3.16*	1.41 = 3.12*
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2		
Male	2.55 = 3.61*	2.55 = 3.53*
Female	2.51 = 3.11*	2.51 = 3.06*
Urban	2.63 = 3.36*	2.63 = 3.24*
Rural	2.33 = 3.05*	2.33 = 3.33*
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3		
Male	2.85 = 3.63*	2.85 = 3.54*
Female	2.34 = 2.82*	2.34 = 2.85*
Urban	2.62 = 3.34*	2.62 = 3.29*
Rural	2.64 = 2.85	2.64 = 2.90

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

TABLE 22

Calculated z and t Scores for the  
Rejection of Hypothesis 9

Uniform Style	Hypotheses	
	Legitimate = Effective	Legitimate = Efficient
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1		
Male	-3.359*	-3.531*
Female	-7.233*	-7.862*
Urban	-11.88*	-12.55*
Rural <sup>a</sup>	-10.31*	-10.07*
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2		
Male	-10.77*	-9.959*
Female	-5.831*	-5.345*
Urban	-9.182*	-7.673*
Rural <sup>b</sup>	-3.965*	-4.812*
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3		
Male	-7.808*	-6.907*
Female	-5.298	-5.629*
Urban	-9.184*	-8.546*
Rural <sup>c</sup>	-1.432	-1.861

Note.—Critical region for all groups except rural is  
 $z < -2.055$

<sup>a</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ , 23 - 1 df is  $t < -2.074$

<sup>b</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ , 14 - 1 df is  $t < -2.160$

<sup>c</sup> Critical region for  $n < 30$ , 28 - 1 df is  $t < -2.052$

\* reject  $H_0$ ;  $p < .02$

positiveness of legitimate power and both effectiveness and efficiency. Also, legitimate power is more positive than either effectiveness or efficiency. This is illustrated in Figures 5-9, 11-16. Figure 10, page 78, shows the one exception, and illustrates that rural subjects perceived no significant difference between legitimate power and effectiveness and efficiency for the Female/Skirt uniform.

It appears evident that the characteristics of effectiveness and efficiency can be measured independently of the social power perceptions and that the social power perceptions do not influence perceived effectiveness and efficiency. This is indicated by the fact that subjects perceive the uniforms as being very legitimate and expert, but at the same time, perceiving that the officers are less effective and efficient than they are legitimate and expert. Given these significant differences, it may be possible that perceptions of both effectiveness and efficiency can be increased to a more positive position for each of the uniforms. This may be done by adding accessories to the existing uniform or by elimination of the Female/Skirt uniform, altogether.

6.

## CONCLUSIONS

This study has shown that the R.C.M.P. summer, working uniform does transmit identifiable and measureable perceptions of the five social power bases, coercive, referent, expert, legitimate, and reward, identified by French and Raven, 1959. The perceptions that a beholder has, when confronted by a uniformed officer, are clearly classified into these power bases. The total power perception is the sum of all component parts.

The relationships among the five social power bases remains fairly stable for all uniform styles (Male/Pant, Female/Pant, Female/Skirt) all subject groups (male, female, urban, and rural). While each group displays unique differences and individuality of responses, overall, similar relative strength positioning is evident. In general, for all uniforms and for all subject groups, it can be concluded that the social power bases are aligned, from most strong to least strong, in the following manner:

Legitimate Power	Expert Power	Referent Power	Coercive Power	Reward Power
Most Strong			Least Strong	

Also, it was also indicated that subjects perceive that legitimate power and expert power are very similar in strength as well as coercive and reward powers.

The strongest perceived power bases, for all subject groups and for all visuals, are legitimate power and expert power bases. The weakest power base(s) perceived are coercive power and reward power.

Perceptions of the total social power, the cumulative strengths of all social power bases, differs as a function of the style of uniform observed and the grouping characteristic(s) of the subject. The Male/Pant uniform displayed the greatest stability of total social power perceptions among the different subject groups. The Male/Pant uniform is perceived by all subject groups as possessing positive strength total social power.

Female subjects perceive that all uniforms possess positive strength total social power. Male subjects perceive that the Female/Pant uniform and the Female/Skirt uniform do not possess strengths in the positive range.

Urban subjects perceive that the Male/Pant uniform and the Female/Pant uniform possess positive strength total social power, but the rural subject groups perceive that positive total social power is evident in the Male/Pant and Female/Skirt uniforms. Urban subjects appear to respond more positively to the traditional male style of uniform, regardless of sex of the wearer, while the rural subjects respond to the traditional styles associated with the sex of the wearer.

Relevant variables that affect the social power perceptions of the R.C.M.P. uniform styles include the sex of the beholder and the background location of the beholder. Differences in perceptions are particularly significant for the beholder sex variable, such that females perceive female uniform styles as possessing greater social power(s) than do males, observing the same uniform.

Given the nature of these conclusions, one is able to offer interpretations of their significance to the role of the uniform in law enforcement. The Male/Pant, regular, summer duty, R.C.M.P. uniform is the most successful uniform in creating consistent perceptions of social power. This uniform may be expected to be perceived as being more powerful, overall, than either female uniform styles. One may speculate, therefore, that a male officer in the Male/Pant uniform, will obtain very consistent patterns of reaction from the citizens with whom he interacts. Reaction to the female uniform, particularly the Female/Skirt style, would not likely be consistent, particularly when the interaction is with the male citizen. This inconsistency of perceptions may negatively affect the female officer in the performance of duties. It may be, for the purpose of providing perceptual balance, that law enforcement agencies place female officers with male partners. This partnership may assist the female officer to obtain social powers at a similar level as given her male counterpart. Alternately, this arrangement may, in reality, only emphasize the power

difference and consequently make the female, the inferior partner.

The style and appearance of the Male/Pant and Female/pant uniforms are very similar. In fact, some female officers select to wear the male uniform components rather than the female issue. This fact leads one to conclude that the uniform is less of an influence on the perceived social power than the sex of the wearer. If the uniform was the key factor in power perceptions, one would expect to find little difference between the Male/Pant and the Female/Pant uniforms. This, however, is not the case.

The weakest power bases, coercive and reward powers, remains constant for all uniform styles and all subject groups tested. One may conclude that the R.C.M.P. officer is not perceived as having the ability to dictate behaviour through the use of either threats or positive rewards. It is possible that subjects interpret these two power bases as being not applicable to the law enforcement role. Recent publicity regarding cases of alleged police brutality may have created the opinion that officers cannot force behaviour through coercion; the citizen has legal recourse against the use of such power. Also, reward power may include the connotation of bribery, which again, is illegal and not part of the traditional role of the law enforcement person.

The strongest power bases of legitimate power and expert power remains consistent for all uniforms and all

subject groups. One may speculate that the youthful subject group is very much in agreement with the traditional "establishment" rules of behaviour and the enforcement of those rules. If the subjects failed to perceive the strong base of legitimacy of the police officer, support would be given to the contention that this population was radical and revolutionary. This assumption is supported by the belief that when legitimacy is absent, social chaos follows.

The female subject groups consistently displayed positive perceptions of the female uniforms. For this reason, one might conclude that the female officer would be more effective with female citizens, because of their positive view of the female officer's position. Males do not perceive the female uniforms with the same positiveness. Therefore, one might speculate that the female officer is at a disadvantage because of her sex, or that the female officer requires power symbols, in addition to the ones provided male officers, to increase the perception of power that she presently receives. These conclusions are supported by the current position of many law enforcement agencies, in which the female officers have traditionally worked with female citizens.

The strength of effectiveness and efficiency are perceived to be not significantly different from one another, by all subject groups for each of the three uniforms. The conclusion is made that the perceptions of these two characteristics are similar, in the minds of the citizen.

Overall, each uniform was accorded positive perceptions of both effectiveness and efficiency. This speaks to the public image of the R.C.M.P., that the uniformed officers have some positive feedback as to their job performance skills and resource useage. Effectiveness and efficiency perceptons are not as positive as legitimate power perceptions. This indicates a need for new effort to increase a positive public awareness and attitude toward the R.C.M.P. officer. Once again, female subjects were the most positive toward the female uniforms, supporting the conjecture that female officers would have the best working relationship with female citizens.

#### Limitations of the Study

As in any research study, limitations are present which affect the applicability of findings and conclusions. Consequently, all results of this study must be evaluated in light of the limitations present in the research study.

The results obtained and conclusions drawn are limited to the distinct population of subjects used. The social power perceptions of first year, undergraduate, Psychology 120 students cannot be ascribed to any other group of subjects with any degree of certainty. Rather, one would test other groups, using the same data collection tool.

This study can offer no conclusions regarding social power perceptions of any other uniform. The results are limited to the summer regular duty R.C.M.P. uniform. Per-

ceptions of other uniforms would require additional testing, possibly using study results to formulate hypotheses.

The testing instrument used in the gathering of data was developed specifically for this research. Naturally, the results obtained from the measurement instrument are limited to that specific test questionnaire. Pre-test results from questionnaire development were very consistent, and considered, for the purpose of this research, a reliable measurement instrument.

The results obtained in this study are limited by the level of significance used to test the hypothesis. The level of significance directly relates to the certainty with which one is able to accept results as being true. The results obtained in this study are acceptable at a 98% level of certainty.

The effect of the unlimited visual viewing afforded each subject on the results of the hypothesis testing was considered to be equal for all test groups. Each group was allowed the same viewing time, so that any perceptual changes that may have occurred, will have occurred for all subjects. The intent of this study was not to isolate the 'first impressions' social power perceptions of the uniforms, so that the prolonged exposure does not negatively affect the useability of the results.

7.

## FUTURE NEEDS AND DIRECTIONS

The uniform worn by the R.C.M.P. officer is critical to the role of the officer and to the functioning of the law enforcement agency. Given this importance, it is evident that additional research should be carried out on the uniform and its perceived social power.

The following recommendations are suggested for consideration into future research:

1. Continued research into the subject variables identified. Studies involving sub-groups of the main subject groups, Male/Urban, Male/Rural, Female/Urban and Female/Rural, should be considered to determine the consistency of identified trends of social power remains for these smaller sub-groups.
2. Studies including the variables of attitude and exposure of the subjects should be considered. This would increase the body of knowledge about relevant variables that affect perceptions of social power of the uniform, as well as testing the relationship between attitude and exposure.
3. Identification and isolation of key components of the R.C.M.P. uniform which affect or determine power perceptions would provide the needed background to initiate uniform alterations to fit/achieve the desired social power mix.

4. Comparing the perceived social bases of uniforms worn during different seasons or for different occasions would be useful in isolating key uniform features. It would also be interesting to compare the perceived social power of the seasonal uniforms to the nature of the interactions between citizens and officers.
5. A study which introduces new features to the uniform would be useful in studying the types of changes one could make, and the resulting changes in social power perceived.
6. A study which compares the social power of the uniform worn by a model and of a uniform without a model would provide useful information in determining the relative effect the uniform itself has in social power perceptions. This study is important to determine if the perceptions are based on the uniform or on the model in the uniform.
7. Comparisons of perceived social power between different law enforcement agency uniforms would be very interesting in attempting to isolate uniform variables which influence perceived social power.
8. Performing an identical study, using different population groups would test the representativeness of the results obtained for the university student population.

8.

## APPENDICES

- A The Method Supplement
- B Visuals
- C Coded Questionnaire
- D Hypotheses Statements
- E Variance and Standard Deviation Calculations

## APPENDIX A

The Method Supplement

This appendix presents the theory behind the method selections in Chapter 4, The Method. The following topics are included in this appendix.

- a. The Semantic Differential Scale
- b. The Test Sessions

The semantic differential scale is an instrument of general utility used to measure connotative meaning. "It is a very satisfactory measure which can be fruitfully used to measure a wide variety of aspects of person perception" (28, p.55). It is a technique by which many different measures can be obtained rather than being in itself, a single measuring device. It specifies differences between concepts in terms of their perceived meaning (10, 12, 28).

In the form in which it is usually administered, the semantic differential typically contains a set of scales listed down a page, at the top of which is a stimulus person, object, or idea for the respondent. Each individual scale contains gradations between an adjective and its opposite. Subjects are asked to consider the stimulus in terms of each of the scales listed on the page. They check one of the divisions on each scale, indicating how much they believe that scale is expressive of the meaning of the concept being rated. The closer the mark is placed to one

of the polar terms, the more applicable is that term to the stimuli, according to that subject (28).

Most forms of the semantic differential scale use an uneven number of response alternatives. A response placed in the central location indicates that the polar terms are perceived as being equally applicable to the stimulus or that the subject has insufficient information on which to base a decision. It is possible to use an even number of response alternatives, but this creates problems when the responses of relatively unknown people are being measured. In these cases, subjects may feel they require a neutral point, and if one is not available, frustration and anger results. Most researchers use a seven point scale because it has been found that fewer divisions irritated subjects, and that nine divisions are used, the grouping of responses is often unsatisfactory (12, 21, 28).

Use of the semantic differential scale demands that one decide whether to include labels to each of the scale divisions. Examples of scale point labels include terms like 'extremely true', 'very true', 'somewhat true', and 'extremely false'. If labels are provided, the number of alternatives that may be usefully offered is limited since the wider the range of response, the distinction between adjacent steps becomes more blurred. It has also been found that when labels were made available to subjects, there was a tendency for subjects to make less extreme responses to the stimuli presented. Warr and Knapper (1968) advocate

non-labelling of scale divisions. Their reasons are two-fold, including:

- a) Non-labelling helps to draw the attention of the subjects away from the middle/neutral alternative.
- b) Simply requesting that the more extreme responses be used to indicate greater applicability of a polar term is satisfactory to obtain responses.

Finally, Warr and Knapper (1969) state that with subjects of relative intellect, the optimum number of scale divisions is nine. With less intelligent subjects or with children, fewer scale divisions should be used.

Prior to use of the semantic differential scales, the investigator must determine the time allowed for the subject to respond. It is customary to ask subjects to work rapidly through the scales without pausing for more than a few seconds on each response. After some initial practise, subjects are able to respond at this speed without difficulty. It has been stated that the speed at which the subjects work does not appear to affect the stability of the responses (38). This is supported by a study, performed by Warr and Knapper, 1968, in which the stability of responses from two groups of subjects was compared. Subjects in one group were asked to respond rapidly, giving first impressions. The second group was asked to work slowly and carefully through the scales, giving considered judgements. The responses of the rapidly responding Ss were more stable, although the difference between the groups failed to reach the level of

significance. An additional support of the rapid response pace is the Ss opinion that it is preferable to work at a rapid pace (38).

Semantic differential scale raw data consists of check marks made against a number of bipolar scales. Analysis of this data requires the attachment of a numerical value to each scale division in order to make the raw data more amenable to statistical treatment(s).

Figure 17, page 127, illustrates two methods of coding the seven point scale into numerical values. Both are equally workable, however, it is usually advisable to avoid negative values, the second example is the preferred form, and the form selected by this investigator. Once the raw data of each subject has been coded numerically, a number of operations are open to the investigator, depending upon the hypothesis of interest.

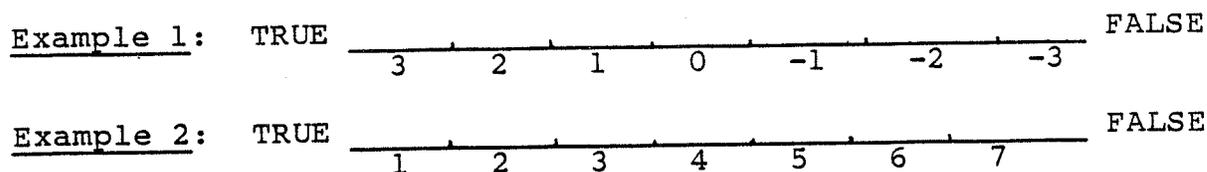


Figure 17. Coding of Scale Divisions

The testing sessions were run according to the informations presented below:

VISUAL NO.	LOCATION	TIME/DATE	NUMBER OF SUBJECTS	
			MALE	FEMALE
1	U. of M.	29/01/81 10:30-11:30	46	54
2	U. of M.	29/01/81 1:30-2:30	45	60
3	U. of M.	02/02/81 10:30-11:30	63	62

Each test group was treated identically. The investigator attended the class at a pre-arranged time, with all necessary questionnaires and visual stimuli. The professor of the class then briefly introduced the investigator and the following procedures occurred, in the sequence presented:

- a. Questionnaires were distributed to all students in the class.
- b. The investigator introduced herself and briefly explained the nature of the study and student participation.

- c. Subjects were instructed not to open questionnaires until given consent.
- d. Subjects were informed of their professor's consent to their participation in the study.
- e. Subjects were instructed to number the front cover of the questionnaire booklet with a 1, 2, or 3, depending on the visual being presented.
- f. Questionnaire format was orally reviewed and instructions to Parts A and B was read to subjects.
- g. The appropriate visual was presented on the front screen, lights were dimmed and the subjects were requested to begin on Part A of the questionnaire.
- h. Upon completion of the questionnaire parts, subjects submitted the questionnaire, either in the female group or male group.
- i. During the test session, subjects were orally informed of the time, date, and location of the debriefing session. This was also written on the blackboard in the classroom.
- j. Subjects were given the entire class to complete the questionnaire, but the average time required was twenty minutes. After all questionnaires had been turned in, subjects were thanked for their participation and the investigator left the class.

NOTICE/AVIS

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~~EST/SONT~~ colour photos

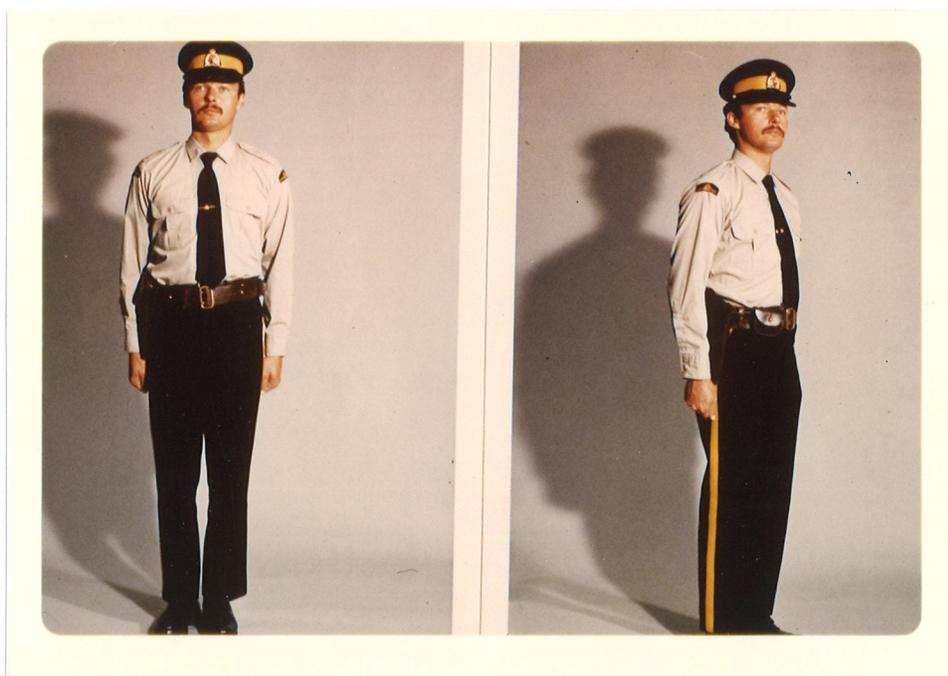
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## APPENDIX B

Visuals

This appendix duplicates the three visuals used in the test sessions. Each slide was composed of two views of the uniform, one front and one side view.



VISUAL 1 - MALE/PANT UNIFORM



VISUAL 2 - FEMALE/PANT UNIFORM



VISUAL 3 - FEMALE/SKIRT UNIFORM

## APPENDIX C

Coded Questionnaire

This appendix duplicates the questionnaire which each of the subjects completed. Information within the brackets indicates the coding of each piece of raw data. The title page is reproduced below:

## "THE UNIFORM"

## QUESTIONNAIRE BOOKLET

Within this booklet, you should find two sections: Part A and Part B. Begin by answering Part A and work sequentially through the booklet til you complete Part B.

DO NOT REFER BACK TO CHANGE PAST RESPONSES.

PLEASE BE SURE TO ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS IN PART A AND PART B.

DO NOT BEGIN UNTIL YOU HAVE BEEN INSTRUCTED TO DO SO.

(#1, 2, or 3 to indicate visual observed)      Booklet Number \_\_\_\_\_



	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
AUTHORATIVE								UNAUTHORATIVE	(A)
DOMINATING								DOMINATED	"
CONTROLLER								CONTROLLED	"
STRONG								WEAK	"
FORCEFUL								NOT FORCEFUL	"
POWERFUL								POWERLESS	"
DANGEROUS								NOT DANGEROUS	"
DEMANDING								UNDEMANDING	"
VIOLENT								PEACEFUL	"
MENACING								NOT MENACING	"
AGRESSIVE								UNAGRESSIVE	"
RESOURCEFUL								WASTEFUL	(Effect)
EFFECTUAL								INEFFECTUAL	"
POTENT								IMPOTENT	"
CAPABLE								INCAPABLE	"
COMPETENT								INCOMPETENT	"
EFFECTIVE								INEFFECTIVE	"
PRODUCTIVE								UNPRODUCTIVE	"
ADMIRABLE								NOT ADMIRABLE	(B)
RESPECTED								NOT RESPECTED	"
LAUDABLE								LAMENTABLE	"
MERITORIOUS								NOT MERITORIOUS	"
COMMENDABLE								NOT COMMENDABLE	"
SUPERIOR								INFERIOR	"
WORTHY								WORTHLESS	"
PREPARED								UNPREPARED	(C)
PRACTISED								NOT PRACTISED	"

TRAINED	_____	UNTRAINED	(C)
PROFICIENT	_____	INEPT	"
SKILLED	_____	UNSKILLED	"
QUALIFIED	_____	UNQUALIFIED	"
PROFESSIONAL	_____	UNPROFESSIONAL	"
WELL INFORMED	_____	NOT WELL INFORMED	"
CONVERSANT	_____	UNVERSESED	"
AWARE	_____	UNAWARE	"
FAMILIAR	_____	UNFAMILIAR	"
EXPERIENCED	_____	INEXPERIENCED	"
WISE	_____	NOT WISE	"
APPRECIATIVE	_____	UNAPPRECIATIVE	"
AN EXPERT	_____	NOT AN EXPERT	"
AUTHORIZED	_____	UNAUTHORIZED	(D)
VALID	_____	INVALID	"
CONSTITUTIONAL	_____	UNCONSTITUTIONAL	"
PERMISSIBLE	_____	PROHIBITED	"
LEGITIMATE	_____	ILLEGITIMATE	"
LICIT	_____	ILLICIT	"
LEGAL	_____	ILLEGAL	"
LAWFUL	_____	UNLAWFUL	"
REAL	_____	COUNTERFEIT	"
KIND	_____	CRUEL	(E)
LENIENT	_____	STRICT	"
MERCIFUL	_____	MERCILESS	"
COMPASSIONATE	_____	NOT COMPASSIONATE	"
SATISFIER	_____	DISSATISFIER	"

CAN REWARD	_____	CANNOT REWARD	(E)
OF CONSEQUENCE	_____	OF NO CONSEQUENCE	(Effic)
SUCCESSFUL	_____	UNSUCCESSFUL	"
IMPRESSIVE	_____	UNIMPRESSIVE	"
POWERFUL	_____	POWERLESS	"
STRONG	_____	WEAK	"
ADQUATE	_____	INADEQUATE	"
EFFICIENT	_____	INEFFICIENT	"
RESOURCEFUL	_____	NOT RESOURCEFUL	"
ORGANIZED	_____	DISORGANIZED	"
THREATENING	_____	NOT THREATENING	(A)
PERSUASIVE	_____	UNPERSUASIVE	"
COMPELLING	_____	NOT COMPELLING	"

### PART B

INSTRUCTIONS: Part B is intended to gather the needed background information. Please answer the following questions only once, checking the most appropriate response from the list that has been provided. Feel free to make additional comments in the space that has been provided at the conclusion of Part B. Your name is not required for this study. The investigator guarantees complete confidentiality of all responses made in this study.

1. Age Group: under 18 \_\_\_\_\_
- 18 to 20 \_\_\_\_\_
- 21 to 23 \_\_\_\_\_ (discard Ss)
- 24 to 26 \_\_\_\_\_ " "
- 27 to 29 \_\_\_\_\_ " "
- 30 or over \_\_\_\_\_ Please specify (discard Ss)

2. Sex: Male \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Female \_\_\_\_\_ (1)
3. Are you a Canadian citizen? Yes \_\_\_\_\_  
 No \_\_\_\_\_ (discard Ss)
4. Degree being sought: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Year in program? \_\_\_\_\_
5. a. State the location (name of the city/town) where you made your home during the majority of the last two months:  
 \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Which police force was predominantly responsible for law enforcement in the location stated in 4a?  
 Royal Canadian Mounted Police (R.C.M.P.) \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Other \_\_\_\_\_ Please specify \_\_\_\_\_ (1)
- c. State the location (name of the city/town) where you attended high school:  
 \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Which police force was predominantly responsible for law enforcement in the location stated in 4c?  
 Royal Canadian Mounted Police (R.C.M.P.) \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Other \_\_\_\_\_ Please specify \_\_\_\_\_ (1)
6. Are you or any members of your immediate family members of the Royal Canadian mounted Police force?  
 Yes \_\_\_\_\_ (discard Ss)  
 No \_\_\_\_\_
7. a. Estimate the number of times per week you normally observe a R.C.M.P. officer on duty:  
 Never \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Once a week \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Twice a week \_\_\_\_\_ (2) (Ss EXPOSURE)  
 Everyday \_\_\_\_\_ (4)  
 Other \_\_\_\_\_ Please specify (3) \_\_\_\_\_

- b. Estimate the number of times per week you normally have face to face interaction with a R.C.M.P. officer on duty:

Never \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Once a week \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Twice a week \_\_\_\_\_ (2) (Ss EXPOSURE)  
 Everyday \_\_\_\_\_ (4)  
 Other \_\_\_\_\_ Please specify (3) \_\_\_\_\_

- c. When was the last time you recall having face to face interaction with a R.C.M.P. officer on duty?

Today \_\_\_\_\_ (4)  
 Last week \_\_\_\_\_ (3)  
 Last month \_\_\_\_\_ (2) (Ss EXPOSURE)  
 Last year \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Never \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Unable to recall \_\_\_\_\_ (0)

- d. In your opinion, have the majority of your face to face interactions with R.C.M.P. officers on duty been:

Positive experiences for you \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Neutral experiences for you \_\_\_\_\_ (0) (Ss ATTITUDE)  
 Negative experiences for you \_\_\_\_\_ (-1)

- e. Estimate the total number of times you have observed a female R.C.M.P. officer on duty:

Never \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Between 1 and 5 times \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Between 6 and 10 times \_\_\_\_\_ (2) (Ss EXPOSURE)  
 Between 11 and 20 times \_\_\_\_\_ (3)  
 Greater than 20 times \_\_\_\_\_ (4)

- f. Estimate the total number of times you have had face to face interaction with a female R.C.M.P. officer on duty:

Never \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Between 1 and 5 times \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Between 6 and 10 times \_\_\_\_\_ (2) (Ss EXPOSURE)  
 Between 11 and 20 times \_\_\_\_\_ (3)  
 Greater than 20 times \_\_\_\_\_ (4)

- g. When was the last time you observed a female R.C.M.P. officer on duty?

Today \_\_\_\_\_ (4)  
 Last week \_\_\_\_\_ (3)  
 Last month \_\_\_\_\_ (2) (Ss EXPOSURE)  
 Last year \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Never \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Unable to recall \_\_\_\_\_ (0)

- h. When was the last time you had face to face interaction with a female R.C.M.P. officer on duty?

Today \_\_\_\_\_ (4)  
 Last week \_\_\_\_\_ (3)  
 Last month \_\_\_\_\_ (2) (Ss EXPOSURE)  
 Last year \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Never \_\_\_\_\_ (0)  
 Unable to recall \_\_\_\_\_ (0)

- i. Recall your most recent observation of or interaction with a female R.C.M.P. officer on duty. Where did this experience take place?

Officer was sitting in a patrol car \_\_\_\_\_  
 Officer was on street patrol \_\_\_\_\_  
 Officer was on airport duty \_\_\_\_\_ (NOT USED)

i. (continued)

Officer was at the R.C.M.P. headquarters \_\_\_\_\_

Officer was on duty in a court of law \_\_\_\_\_

Other \_\_\_\_\_ Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

j. What was the female R.C.M.P. officer wearing at the time of the observation/interaction you recalled in 5i?

Pants and shirt uniform \_\_\_\_\_

Skirt and shirt uniform \_\_\_\_\_

Patrol jacket \_\_\_\_\_

Winter parka \_\_\_\_\_ (NOT USED)

Dress uniform \_\_\_\_\_

Plainclothes \_\_\_\_\_

Other \_\_\_\_\_ Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

8. a. In your recollection, what is the most memorable situation involving you and an on duty R.C.M.P. officer(s)? Briefly recount this experience. Please do not include names, dates, etc. unless you wish to do so.

Example: My most memorable experience was when my high school class was given a tour of the R.C.M.P. headquarters. The guiding officer was most helpful.

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

(Ss ATTITUDE)

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

b. State the sex of the officer(s) involved in the most memorable experience recounted in 8a.

Male \_\_\_\_\_ How many? \_\_\_\_\_

(Ss EXPOSURE TO M/F OFFICERS)

Female \_\_\_\_\_ How many? \_\_\_\_\_

c. In your opinion, was this memorable experience:

Positive for you \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Neutral for you \_\_\_\_\_ (0) (Ss ATTITUDE)  
 Negative for you \_\_\_\_\_ (-1)

9. In your recollection, what is the most frequently occurring situation involving you and an on duty R.C.M.P. officer(s)? Briefly recount this frequently occurring experience.

Example: The most frequently occurring situation for me is when I am stopped on the highway for a routine check.

\_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_ (Ss ATTITUDE)  
 \_\_\_\_\_

State the sex of the R.C.M.P. officer(s) normally involved in the frequently occurring situation recounted above.

Male \_\_\_\_\_ (Ss EXPOSURE TO  
 Female \_\_\_\_\_ M/F OFFICERS)

In your opinion, are these frequently occurring situations:

Positive for you \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Neutral for you \_\_\_\_\_ (0) (Ss ATTITUDE)  
 Negative for you \_\_\_\_\_ (-1)

10. What would you say is your general overall attitude toward the R.C.M.P.?

Positive toward the R.C.M.P. \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Neutral toward the R.C.M.P. \_\_\_\_\_ (0) (Ss ATTITUDE)  
 Negative toward the R.C.M.P. \_\_\_\_\_ (-1)

11. What is your overall attitude toward female R.C.M.P. officers?

Favourable \_\_\_\_\_ (1)  
 Neutral \_\_\_\_\_ (0) (Ss ATTITUDE)  
 Unfavourable \_\_\_\_\_ (-1)

12. As R.C.M.P. officers, are females more suited to specific duties?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ (1) (Ss ATTITUDE)

No \_\_\_\_\_ (-1)

If your answer to question 12 was yes, what types of duties do not suit or are not appropriate for the female R.C.M.P. officer? Why?

\_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_ (IDENTIFICATION  
 OF STEREOTYPES)

13. In your opinion, what is the most distinctive feature of the R.C.M.P. uniform in the slide?

\_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_ (NOT USED)  
 \_\_\_\_\_

PLEASE FEEL FREE TO USE THE FOLLOWING SPACE TO WRITE IN  
 ADDITIONAL COMMENTS ABOUT YOUR RESPONSES OR ABOUT THE  
 QUESTIONNAIRE. THANK-YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

## APPENDIX D

Hypotheses Statements

This appendix presents the nine hypotheses, null and alternate forms, level of significance, and critical regions, in a concise form.

## HYPOTHESES STATEMENTS

#	Null Hypothesis (H <sub>0</sub> )	Alternate Hypothesis (H <sub>a</sub> )	Individual Statements	$\alpha$	Critical Region(s)
1	$\mu_{TSP} = 3.50$	$\mu_{TSP} < 3.50$	3Uniforms x 48s = <u>12</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$
2	$\mu_A = \mu_B = \mu_C = \mu_D = \mu_E$ ( $\mu^1 \mu^2 = 0$ )	$\mu_A \neq \mu_B \neq \mu_C \neq \mu_D \neq \mu_E$ ( $\mu^1 \mu^2 \neq 0$ )	9H <sub>0</sub> x 3Uniforms x 48s = <u>108</u>	.02	$z < -2.33, z > 2.33$ $t < -2.326, t > 2.326(1R/3R)$ $t < -2.462, t > 2.462(2R)$
3	$\mu_{TSP1} = \mu_{TSP2} = \mu_{TSP3}$ ( $\mu^1 \mu^2 = 0$ )	$\mu_{TSP1} < \mu_{TSP2} < \mu_{TSP3}$ ( $\mu^1 \mu^2 < 0$ )	3H <sub>0</sub> x 48s = <u>12</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$
4	$\mu_R = \mu_U$	$\mu_R < \mu_U$	3Uniforms x 5 Powers = <u>15</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$ $t < -2.074(1R)$ $t < -2.160(2R)$ $t < -2.052(3R)$
5	$\mu_A = \mu_D$ $\mu_B = \mu_D$ $\mu_C = \mu_D$ $\mu_E = \mu_D$	$\mu_A > \mu_D$ $\mu_B > \mu_D$ $\mu_C > \mu_D$ $\mu_E > \mu_D$	4H <sub>0</sub> x 48s x 3Uniforms = <u>48</u>	.02	$z > 2.055$ $t > 2.074(1R)$ $t > 2.160(2R)$ $t > 2.052(3R)$
6	$\mu_A = \mu_E$ $\mu_B = \mu_E$ $\mu_C = \mu_E$ $\mu_D = \mu_E$	$\mu_A < \mu_E$ $\mu_B < \mu_E$ $\mu_C < \mu_E$ $\mu_D < \mu_E$	4H <sub>0</sub> x 48s x 3Uniforms = <u>48</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$ $z < -2.074(1R)$ $z < -2.160(2R)$ $z < -2.052(3R)$
7	$\mu_{effective} = 3.50$  $\mu_{efficient} = 3.50$	$\mu_{effective} < 3.50$  $\mu_{efficient} < 3.50$	2H <sub>0</sub> x 48s x 3Uniforms = <u>24</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$ $t < -2.074(1R)$ $t < -2.160(2R)$ $t < -2.052(3R)$
8	$\mu_{effective} = \mu_{efficient}$	$\mu_{effective} < \mu_{efficient}$	48s x 3Uniforms = <u>12</u>	.02	Same as above #7
9	$\mu_{legitimate} = \mu_{effective}$ $\mu_{legitimate} = \mu_{efficient}$	$\mu_{legitimate} < \mu_{effective}$ $\mu_{legitimate} < \mu_{efficient}$	2H <sub>0</sub> x 48s x 3Uniforms = <u>24</u>	.02	Same as above #7

Note.-Symbol Key: Coercive = A, Referent = B, Expert = C, Legitimate = D, Reward = E  
The smaller the mean value, the greater the perceived power.

HYPOTHESES STATEMENTS

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#	Null Hypothesis (Ho)	Alternate Hypothesis (Ha)	Individual Statements	$\alpha$	Critical Region(s)
1	$\mu_{TSP} = 3.50$	$\mu_{TSP} < 3.50$	3Uniforms x 4Ss = <u>12</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$
2	$\mu_A = \mu_B = \mu_C = \mu_D = \mu_E$ { $\mu^1 \mu^2 = 0$ }	$\mu_A \neq \mu_B \neq \mu_C \neq \mu_D \neq \mu_E$ { $\mu^1 \mu^2 \neq 0$ }	9Ho x 3Uniforms x 4Ss = <u>108</u>	.02	$z < -2.33, z > 2.33$ $t < -2.326, t > 2.326$ (1R/3R) $t < -2.462, t > 2.462$ (2R)
3	$\mu_{TSP1} = \mu_{TSP2} = \mu_{TSP3}$ { $\mu^1 \mu^2 = 0$ }	$\mu_{TSP1} < \mu_{TSP2} < \mu_{TSP3}$ { $\mu^1 \mu^2 < 0$ }	3Ho x 4Ss = <u>12</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$
4	$\mu_R = \mu_U$	$\mu_R < \mu_U$	3Uniforms x 5 Powers = <u>15</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$ $t < -2.074$ (1R) $t < -2.160$ (2R) $t < -2.052$ (3R)
5	$\mu_A = \mu_D$ $\mu_B = \mu_D$ $\mu_C = \mu_D$ $\mu_E = \mu_D$	$\mu_A > \mu_D$ $\mu_B > \mu_D$ $\mu_C > \mu_D$ $\mu_E > \mu_D$	4Ho x 4Ss x 3Uniforms = <u>48</u>	.02	$z > 2.055$ $t > 2.074$ (1R) $t > 2.160$ (2R) $t > 2.052$ (3R)
6	$\mu_A = \mu_E$ $\mu_B = \mu_E$ $\mu_C = \mu_E$ $\mu_D = \mu_E$	$\mu_A < \mu_E$ $\mu_B < \mu_E$ $\mu_C < \mu_E$ $\mu_D < \mu_E$	4Ho x 4Ss x 3Uniforms = <u>48</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$ $z < -2.074$ (1R) $z < -2.160$ (2R) $z < -2.052$ (3R)
7	$\mu_{\text{effective}} = 3.50$  $\mu_{\text{efficient}} = 3.50$	$\mu_{\text{effective}} < 3.50$  $\mu_{\text{efficient}} < 3.50$	2Ho x 4Ss x 3Uniforms = <u>24</u>	.02	$z < -2.055$ $t < -2.074$ (1R) $t < -2.160$ (2R) $t < -2.052$ (3R)
8	$\mu_{\text{effective}} = \mu_{\text{efficient}}$	$\mu_{\text{effective}} < \mu_{\text{efficient}}$	4Ss x 3Uniforms = <u>12</u>	.02	Same as above #7
9	$\mu_{\text{legitimate}} = \mu_{\text{effective}}$ $\mu_{\text{legitimate}} = \mu_{\text{efficient}}$	$\mu_{\text{legitimate}} < \mu_{\text{effective}}$ $\mu_{\text{legitimate}} < \mu_{\text{efficient}}$	2Ho x 4Ss x 3Uniforms = <u>24</u>	.02	Same as above #7

Note: Symbol Key: Coercive = A, Referent = B, Expert = C, Legitimate = D, Reward = E

## APPENDIX E

Variance and Standard Deviation Calculation

Tables 23, 24 and 25, pages 145, 146, and 146, respectively, give the standard deviations and variances calculated for each of the seven dependent variables, total social power scores, and total effectiveness and efficiency scores.

TABLE 23

Variance ( $s^2$ ) and Standard Deviations ( $s$ ) of Dependent Variables

Group	Coercive		Referent		Expert		Legitimate		Reward		Effectiveness		Efficiency	
	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	
Male/Pant Uniform - Vis. 1														
Urban	0.621	0.788	0.996	0.836	0.559	0.747	0.502	0.708	0.651	0.807	0.632	0.795	0.627	0.792
Rural	0.467	0.683	0.684	0.827	1.333	1.155	0.664	0.815	0.489	0.699	0.885	0.941	1.103	1.050
Male	0.552	0.743	0.611	0.781	0.811	0.901	2.438	1.558	0.556	0.746	0.609	0.780	0.768	0.877
Female	0.695	0.833	0.804	0.897	0.676	0.822	0.463	0.681	0.634	0.796	0.785	0.886	0.710	0.843
Female/Pant Uniform - Vis. 2														
Urban	0.690	0.831	1.062	1.030	0.715	0.846	0.518	0.720	1.019	1.009	1.166	1.080	1.386	1.177
Rural	2.450	1.565	0.801	0.895	0.415	0.644	0.519	0.721	0.691	0.831	0.478	0.706	0.656	0.810
Male	0.708	0.842	0.925	0.962	0.529	0.728	0.388	0.623	0.901	0.949	0.805	0.892	0.571	0.756
Female	0.648	0.805	1.019	1.009	0.769	0.877	0.592	0.770	1.017	1.008	1.166	1.080	0.887	0.942
Female/Skirt Uniform - Vis. 3														
Urban	0.763	0.873	1.131	1.063	0.840	0.917	0.523	0.723	0.745	0.863	1.113	1.055	0.968	0.984
Rural	0.714	0.845	0.619	0.787	0.515	0.718	0.547	0.739	0.706	0.840	0.531	0.729	0.661	0.813
Male	0.717	0.847	1.152	1.073	0.701	0.837	0.558	0.747	0.767	0.876	1.129	1.063	0.880	0.938
Female	0.627	0.792	0.572	0.736	0.566	0.752	0.468	0.684	0.701	0.838	0.577	0.760	0.701	0.837

TABLE 24

Variances and Standards Deviations for  
Total Social Power

Subject Group	Uniform Style					
	Male/Pant		Female/Pant		Female/Skirt	
	$s^2$	s	$s^2$	s	$s^2$	s
Male	1.244	1.116	0.997	0.999	1.105	1.051
Female	0.878	0.937	1.109	1.053	0.906	0.952
Urban	0.888	0.942	1.100	1.049	1.144	1.070
Rural	0.793	0.891	1.365	1.864	0.849	0.922

TABLE 25

Variances and Standard Deviations of  
Total Effectiveness and Efficiency

Item	Uniform Style					
	Male/Pant		Female/Pant		Female/Skirt	
	$s^2$	s	$s^2$	s	$s^2$	s
Total Effectiveness	0.690	0.831	1.071	1.035	1.002	1.001
Total Efficiency	0.737	0.859	1.045	1.022	0.957	0.978

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