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Abstract

This study seeks to investigate whether or not the increased police militarization has in fact truly affected society's perceptions of the police. In the United States we have seen the use of militarized equipment by our local (civilian) police departments on the rise. With various militarized weapons such as: assault rifles, night vision technologies and even camouflaged gear from wartime efforts being distributed to local police agencies as a part of military surplus transfers. The "war on drugs", "war on crime" and "war on terror" are said to be at the forefront of why we have and need such equipment and tactics. Though, is militarization the safest most effective way to combat these professed "wars"? This study analyzes the events leading up to how policing came to be, in addition to detailing how militarized policing came to exist. Furthermore, it showcases the evolution of policing strategies over the years; including the creation of the Special Weapons and Tactics units otherwise known as SWAT. This study is an effort to see if society feels that they are at war with police, but most importantly to gauge society's attitude as well as their perception towards the increased militarization of American Policing. Findings suggest that gender, income and area of study in college are some of the factors that have played a significant role in how individuals perceive police. Results of this investigation may help us find a way to aid and offset this tension amongst police and their constituents; thus in hopes of creating better police and community relations as a result thereof.

Introduction
Overview of Police Militarization

Police militarization as a result of military surplus transfers is not a new component of local police agencies. In fact, this has been an ongoing situation for decades. However, it has been a progressive approach building up to where and what we see today. For instance, decades ago had police departments utilized the same militarized weaponry as today it would not have fit into where society was at that time. Thus, people from those earlier decades would have considered the same tactics we use today as out of place and possibly viewed as being morally wrong. As you will see, the use of militarized equipment in a sense has greatly evolved to fit the views of society.

Police and its functions have evolved over time. The most evident being the 1878 *Posse Comitatus Act*, which has been eroded from its original intentions. The sole

purpose of this law was to restrict the use of the military, as well as its equipment, in domestic law enforcement activities, except where it was specifically allowed by the United States Constitution and or by the United States Congress (Coyne and Hall, 2013). This erosion of the *Posse Comitatus Act* has caused some segments of society to feel uneasy about the events occurring around this controversial issue. In that some feel that the government is too suspicious of their constituents when trying to maintain national security (Whitehead, 2015).

One of the problems facing this issue is the overall lack of research done on this widely contested topic, perception of the militarization of police. It is not a new situation that society is being confronted with, but a situation that now has the attention of the media who can persuade the mind of the masses. This study addresses this shortcoming by taking the data I collected and beginning to examine what and how society feels about the increased militarization of American policing.

This battlefield mindset has seemed to greatly affect police departments and their constituents nationwide. While, not all police departments take part in these tactics, it is a growing trend. Leaving some to ponder whether it will ever stop. Since congress launched this federal recycling program it has transferred well over 4 billion dollars' worth of military equipment to police agencies in all fifty states and U.S. territories (Whitehead, 2015). Today some 17,000 local police forces are equipped with such military equipment as Blackhawk helicopters, machine guns, grenade launchers and some even with tanks (Whitehead, 2015).

Need

Police militarization has accelerated in the 2000s after the September 11th attacks. The first half of the decade brought forth an abundance of funding and equipment as a result of the formation of homeland security (Balko, 2014). This was the rationale needed for police agencies to bulk up their arsenals and for smaller towns to start up more SWAT teams. The "war on drugs," "war on crime," and "war on terror" used as the rationale for militarization are affecting all members of society. Nevertheless, there are times when militarized gear could be used legitimately; however, it is becoming the norm rather than the exception.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is a very important and timely one, potentially a matter of life and death. Police and the society they have sworn to protect and serve are at war with one another. Cops are killing civilians and unfortunately we are seeing cops getting killed in the line of duty in what is being called "retaliation killings." Today's police have become more and more militarized, which has both sides fighting for what they call justice. Here, I will examine the foundational history of policing so that one can understand where it truly came from as well as other surrounding this issue, which includes, but is not limited to the creation of the Special Weapons and Tactics unit or SWAT teams, the evolving strategy of policing and the war on terror, to name a few.

I will also examine the actual militarization of police and the weapons used. I will also discuss why such equipment is deemed necessary for civilian populations and why some are pushing to de-militarize police departments. Lastly, I will discuss the results of the analysis of my original data on how society views law enforcement in various

circumstances. The purpose of this particular study is to determine if the growing militarization of our police forces doomed what we have come to know as community oriented policing? Or has that growth actually helped police departments to "protect and serve?" Understanding these key components could greatly reduce tension amongst society and the police.

Literature Review

Literature Introduction

In general, society thinks of militarization of police departments as being a bad omen. There will be times that militarized police equipment will be crucial in saving lives. The following sections will also elaborate more on society's attitude towards the increased militarization in America. These sections will give detailed information on how society as well as how the police feel about this widely contested topic in America. Especially with local agencies trying to combat the "War on Terror" as a result of the September 11th attacks on America. It is a result of this, according to Kraska (2007), that this is considered to be the prime reason for the militarization of police forces in America. As the government sought whatever means necessary to keep America and its citizens safe from foreign enemies it seems that the tables have turned and, to some, it seems the U.S. citizens are at times getting the brunt of this outcome.

Something else key to note here is the *Posse Comitatus Act* otherwise known as 18 U.S. Code 1385, which was passed by congress in 1878. The sole purpose of the law was to "end the use of federal troops to police state elections in former confederate states" (Doyle, 2000, p.243). In other words, this restricted the involvement of the military as well as its equipment in many domestic law enforcement activities; except where it was specifically allowed by the U.S. Constitution and or ordered by Congress (Coyne and Hall, 2013). State governors could however request military assistance when their domestic forces could no longer maintain control. With that in mind this law has undergone many alterations and seen many exceptions added since its creation. The most important exception was that congress created a "drug exception." Under the new legislation congress granted the secretary of defense the authority to make available any military equipment and personnel needed for local law enforcement purposes as part of the total effort to combat the "war on drugs" (Doyle, 2000). This law grants the military the authority to provide numerous military resources to civilian law enforcement departments nationwide all in an effort to combat the "war on drugs." Though, it was the September 11th attacks, which brought forth a greater need for modernized security measures. This day, along with other security threats against the United States, has lead society to accept a more militarized police force.

Creation of Special Weapons and Tactics-SWAT

Academic scholars have examined Sir Robert Peel and some of his policing theories that have contributed to what they call his nine principles of policing. These nine principles of policing as described by Peel are of vital importance as we examine society's attitude towards the increased militarization of American policing. They are vital because according to C.J. Oakes (2015) most Americans still consider the Bill of Rights sacred. The Bill of Rights is essential for a free society. These rights prohibit the use of military forces against its citizens as well as prevent cruel and unusual punishment

at the hands of public officials. We have seen our military forces recently withdraw from the Middle East; many police departments nationwide have received surplus items. This results in police departments becoming increasingly militarized, which could be seen as problematic by some. Primarily for the fact that it increases chances of having their rights infringed upon. Oakes (2015) goes on to mention that many of the nation's police forces operate in a quasi-military fashion to safe guard the public without encroaching (ideally) on such rights as free citizens. The word "ideally" is essential when you have police departments that are acting in a military fashion as well as trained in military tactics. When you combine militarized structure and behavior coupled with military surplus one could argue that modern police have become a military force.

This can be seen with the start of the Special Weapons and Tactics unit, or SWAT for short, in the mid-1960s. There was an increase in violent crime especially in the Los Angeles area. In 1969, the SWAT team performed a raid taking down the largest Black Panther party group and some four years later did the same on the Symbionese Liberation Army (SLA) (Balko, 2014). This created a nationwide firestorm as many police departments nationwide now were interested in their own SWAT teams. In fact, in the SLA raid SWAT officers were asking to use fragmentation grenades that explode into body-piercing shards, and historically only used by the military (Balko, 2014). Though that request was not granted, it was still a viable option that would have surely put an end to that raid sooner. Essentially this meant that SWAT officers had the skills and equipment necessary to combat such an issue. Thus the U.S. military cannot act as our police force when dealing with U.S. citizens under the *Posse Comitatus Act*. This SWAT alternative is iconic in how police have become more reflective of a military force for volatile domestic situations. It is here we have begun to see how increased police militarization is coming about.

Evolving Strategy of Policing

Some say the militarization of a police force starts early because of the training cadets are exposed to. In fact, as soon as the individual enters into the academy this socialization into a paramilitary officer begins. Currently every police officer in the United States undergoes some form of certification at a police academy. Police academies are also called law enforcement training facilities. They are schools that specialize in a series of courses to certify people as law enforcement officers (Conger, 2008). Being that the federal government delegates policing to the state and local levels there is no national policing criteria for police academies. Although each state has its own academy curriculum, which are taught by seasoned police officers who have obtained special state certifications. Some even teach various languages in order to serve their communities diverse ethnic backgrounds. These are just some of the evolutions policing has undergone since its creation.

According to Bickel, the U.S. Department of Justice explains that the majority of police recruits nationwide receive their training in academies with a stress-based military orientation. This grueling process is no easy task. At times it may even seem horrific to an untrained eye, but this is the training process used widely across the country. This style of training is modeled after the military boot camp, which consists of intense physical demands, public discipline, withholding privileges and immediate reaction to

infractions (Bickel, 2013). Recruits undergo numerous physical and grueling demands some of which includes being pepper sprayed and being tasered.

The instructors in charge of these recruits in this stress training model use indiscriminate verbal abuse, debasement, humiliation, confrontation, harassment, hazing and shouting as forms of punishment (Bickel, 2013). They are also exposed to routines such as pushups, pull-ups, hand to hand combat and timed runs that are designed to push their bodies to the limits. The recruit's appearances are even scrutinized as there is close-cropped hair for men and women cannot wear cosmetics. According to Bickel, these are just some of the physically and mentally demanding exercises that thousands of men and women in police academies must experience in hopes of becoming a police officer. This type of training is what makes them militaristic.

War on Terror

One day could be the very day that enhanced the drive to police militarization nationwide, that day was September 11, 2001. A day the world saw the United States fall under attack on its home soil. Those attacks led to thousands of lives being lost and a broad spectrum of new laws being enacted. That very day altered the military function of the U.S. Military and changed the entire world's view on terrorism. After examining Peter Kraska's work, it can really open eyes as to just how far the American criminal justice system has become militarized. One can definitely see how the conventional distinctions between that of the military and police have become overwhelmingly blurred. An example of this is the usage of the Police Paramilitary Units or PPU. They found that roughly 18 percent of the small, medium and large police departments often use PPUs to just patrol high-crime neighborhoods. In that, PPUs debunk the stereotypical SWAT team methods of just handling hostile terrorist, or crazed barricaded gunmen (Kraska, 2001). In his research Kraska, further found "a sharp rise in the number of police paramilitary units, rapid expansion in their activities, the normalization of paramilitary units into mainstream police work, and a close ideological and material connection between PPUs and the US armed forces." With these units carrying out the daily functions of police patrols in certain communities, which are modeled directly after military special operations squads such as the Navy Seals and Delta Force. We see yet another prime example of the increased militarization taking effect in our country. Kraska explains that since the September 11 attacks the American public has been inundated with numerous headlines and responses to the tragedy. This he believes has caused the American people and the world to accept these widespread military approaches for problem solving.

Why Militarization of Policing

This section will examine why the U.S. has militaristic policies in our local police departments nationwide. As mentioned earlier many believe the convergence of the police and military are the result of paramilitary training in police academies. According to Kraska, the U.S. military handles the country's external security through the practice of war and the civilian police handle our internal security by the enforcement of federal and local laws. Over the course of fifteen years the traditional distinctions between that of the military/police, war/ law enforcement and internal and external security are rapidly blurring. He traced this to two interrelated trends that surround this blur, which are

"militarization of U.S. police and crime control, and the police-ization [sic] of the U.S. military" (Kraska, 2007).

The blur between police and military are in part due to the following empirical indicators. As mentioned earlier there is the 1878 *Posse Comitatus Act* in which previously to the 1980s eliminated military involvement in internal security or police matters. Kraska found there is a significant erosion of the 1878 *Posse Comitatus Act* within the United States. He also believes it is the advent of an unprecedented cooperative relationship between the U.S. military and U.S. Civilian police at the highest and lowest level of an organization; a result seen from the technological transfers, massive military weapons transfers, information sharing between the military and police targeted at domestic security, which are all in an effort in both drug control and terrorism control efforts (Kraska, 2007). The steep growth of police special operation units, for example SWAT teams and how they have become the norm, was yet another way they found how the two entities are becoming blurred. For instance, a surprisingly high percentage of police agencies deploy their swat teams to do routine patrol work in crime hot spots, a strong indicator of the normalization associated with paramilitary police units (Kraska, 2007). In fact, the Pittsburgh police department purchased a $250,000 Armored Personnel Carrier using homeland security grant money to conduct street sweeps in high crime neighborhoods, all while fitted with full military clothing and weaponry (Kraska, 2007). There is also a growing tendency by the police to rely on the military war model to formulate ways to control drugs, crime and terrorism in this country.

Thus, it is obvious that police have to some extent been militarized, given the paramilitary training and the erosion of the 1878 *Posse Comitatus Act*. We saw that with Sir Robert Peel, who designed uniforms around military styles and call signs that were borrowed from the military. Thus as Kraska puts it, any assertion that the police are, or are not militarized is simply misguided. Kraska believes that this is something easily overlooked by police analysts, whom he feels react defensively to using those organizing concepts (Kraska, 2007). This creates a one-dimensional lens for society to view police, to either being militarized or not being militarized. The point Kraska wants to make here is that analysis of militarization among the civilian police have to focus in on where civilian police fall on the continuum; whether it be culturally, organizationally, operationally or materially and in which way they are headed.

Types of Militarized Police Weapons

The influx of military weapons into civilian police departments began in 1997, as congress first launched its 1033 program (Whitehead, 2015). This program authorized the United States Department of Defense to transfer surplus military equipment to various state and local police agencies across the country. This federal recycling program has transferred nearly $4.3 billion in military equipment across all fifty states and U.S. territories (Whitehead, 2015). The most prominent and visible item being sent to local law enforcement are the mine resistant, ambush-protected vehicles otherwise known as the MRAPs. They are designed to withstand threats such as bullets, grenades and roadside bombs at the front lines of war, with more than 600 of these vehicles having been sent to local law enforcement agencies nationwide (Rezvani, Pupovac, EADs & Fisher, 2014). In fact, Los Angeles County police department has nine of these said vehicles for use.

The 1033 program consists of more than just the notable MRAPs. According to Rezvani since 2006 the Pentagon has also distributed: 79,288 assault rifles, 205 grenade launchers, 11,959 bayonets, 3,972 combat knives, and $124 million worth of night vision equipment including night- vision sniper scopes, 479 bomb detonator robots, 50 airplanes-including 27 cargo transport planes, 422 helicopters, deception equipment and more than $3.6 million worth of camouflage gear (Rezvani, et al., 2014). In that, according to Whitehead, local police agencies in 2013 alone received more than half a billion dollars' worth of this equipment. This is kept track of by the Department of Defense as they utilize a National Stock Number on every item they distribute (Whitehead, 2015). That way they can identify what exactly has been given—which also helps in determining the overall cost calculations for statistical purposes. However, weapons and stereotypical military gear are relatively just a small part of the 1033 program. The Department of Defense even provided building materials, musical instruments, copiers and even toiletries (Rezvani, et al., 2014). So in retrospect when someone says military equipment was provided it does not necessarily have to be just weaponry.

Effects of Militarization on Society
Now that we have examined the history and causes of militarization, what effect does this have on society? Most of society if they were driving down the road and noticed the headlights of a patrol car behind them would freeze and panic. In that very moment drivers education 101 comes to the forefront of our minds. We begin to drive as safely as possible careful not to make any wrong moves out of fear of being pulled over. This is pure anxiety on the civilian, but it also is rough on the law enforcement officials because they are unsure about your feelings towards police as well. These anxieties could potentially be why trust between police/peace officers and civilians has decreased over the years.

An example of which, we have seen recently in the streets of Ferguson, Missouri as police aimed assault rifles at peaceful protestors, or when paramilitary SWAT raids a home in the middle of the night. It is these types of acts that cause police forces to treat civilians like the enemy, but also society to see police as the enemy, according to the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) (Weiss, 2014). This makes us unsafe as it encourages a culture that treats the people like enemies as opposed to treating people like someone they are supposed to serve and protect (Weiss, 2014).

It is important to remember that congress approved of the 1033 program in an effort to combat the "war on drugs" (Rezvani, et al., 2014). Though, as mentioned earlier, Peter Kraska detailed the dangers of deeming situations as a "war" as in the "war on drugs" and "war on crime." This, according to Kraska, has included actions such as the no-knock/ quick-knock raids usually performed by paramilitary personnel. They are designed to generally collect evidence such as illegal drugs, drug money or guns within a private residence (Kraska, 2007). Often resulting in what most would call a crude form of a drug investigation. These raids often occur at night where law enforcement officials don black militarized gear while using battering rams, flash bang grenades, that are meant to disorient the occupants. All while officers expect the occupants of those said dwellings to immediately comply. These examples highlight some of the circumstances that are driving a harder wedge between police departments rapport with its constituents.

Public Perception of Militarization of Police

        The U.S. Department of Justice recently performed a study that examined factors that influenced public opinion of the police in four diverse areas of Los Angeles (Ashcroft, Daniels & Hart, 2003). This is very similar to what my study is testing, which is examining the public's opinion of the police and its militarization. It was initially found that people had two types of contact with police officers, they were formal and informal (Ashcroft, Daniels & Hart, 2003). The formal contacts included situations such as calls to police stations requesting service and police questioning residents regarding possible crimes, which resulted in the arrest of 1 percent of the said respondents (Ashcroft, Daniels & Hart, 2003). The informal contacts included conversations with police officers on patrol, interaction with police at community meetings, police sponsored youth activities and community safety fairs; with forty-seven percent of these respondents reporting having had informal contact with police (Ashcroft, Daniels & Hart, 2003). Even though nearly half reported informal contacts, only 1 in 5 stated they knew or recognized police officers who worked in their community (Ashcroft, Daniels & Hart, 2003).

        In fact, when analyzing the 1967 President's Commission survey on household victimization another problem arises. Many respondents at that time had a tendency not to report crimes. Their report stated the most frequently used reason for all offenses was that the police could not do anything. Some other responses included not wanting to harm the offender, police did not want to be bothered, they did not want to take the time or too confused and did not know how to report their issues ("President's Commission on," 1967). These following reasons could reflect how some people perceive police in general. However when looking back over my criminal justice studies, it is safe to say that everyone at some point in time has done something illegal, whether a minor offense or serious offense. The only difference is we just were not caught.

        Many factors go into how a person perceives a subject matter. Whitehead referenced a book written by Jacques Ellul in 1972. In it Ellul, wrote a statement that we appear to be living in what he called the "illusion of freedom" (Ellul, 1972, p.6). An illusion that we are living in this free society where we have these "freedoms" that are in a sense really not there. Leaving Whitehead to state, that we need to take notice to the reality of life in an American police state (Whitehead, 2015).

        Most perceptions do vary from person to person. The study performed by Ashcroft, Daniels and Hart found that residents from what society would call crime prone areas, were indeed less likely to approve of the police (Ashcroft, Daniels & Hart, 2003). In contrast, individuals who experienced some sort of informal contact with police expressed some approval. This could reinforce the idea that we just have to get to know our community's police officers; hence this could be the reason for utilizing so many more foot patrol officers now as we did in the past. They also found that social factors that society has recently claimed to be problematic are actually not as important as we think. Their results found that race and ethnicity as well as the mass media had very little influence in determining society's perception of police. What did play a role in the perception of police officers was the level of crime and disorder in their neighborhood, along with those respondents who had only formal contacts with police officers

(Ashcroft, Daniels & Hart, 2003). These factors did play a significant role in how these residents shaped their opinion around police officer and police militarization views.

Demilitarization of Police

       After the protest occurring in Ferguson, Missouri and the world saw how militarized police handled peaceful protestors, many have since called for demilitarization of police agencies nationwide. When protestors refused to retreat from the streets, threw firebombs or walked too close to a police officer the response was swift and severe, as tear gas and rubber bullets were used in retaliation (Bosman and Apuzzo, 2014). This occurred after 18 year old Michael Brown was fatally shot by police. The world saw unnerving images of explosions, billowing tear gas and armored vehicles that made everyone uneasy. Sights, that according to Bosman and Apuzzo, resembled a "chaos-stricken corner of Eastern Europe, not the heart of the American Midwest" (Bosman and Apuzzo, 2014 p.1). Though to the rest of the world, there were images of explosions, billowing tear gas and armored vehicles, it was the portrayal as a battle ground that truly had people up in arms for demilitarization. In most instances, when this equipment was handed down little to no training and a few if any limitations were put on its use (Bosman and Apuzzo, 2014). As you see there is some conflict of interest prevalent from what policing was founded on, how they are trained, and how that translates into real world use.

       Another area of note is that these types of weaponry are being disproportionately used in communities of color (Weiss, 2014). Weiss has already documented the vast disparities by race in the use of militarized police. It is widely known amongst society that policing tactics across the country often unfairly target communities of color—especially involving paramilitary weapons and tactical situations (ACLU, 2015). Figure 1 below from the ACLU (2015) database showcases the distribution of SWAT raids by racial composition of Cincinnati, Ohio neighborhoods, saying this is the trend occurring nationwide:

Figure 1
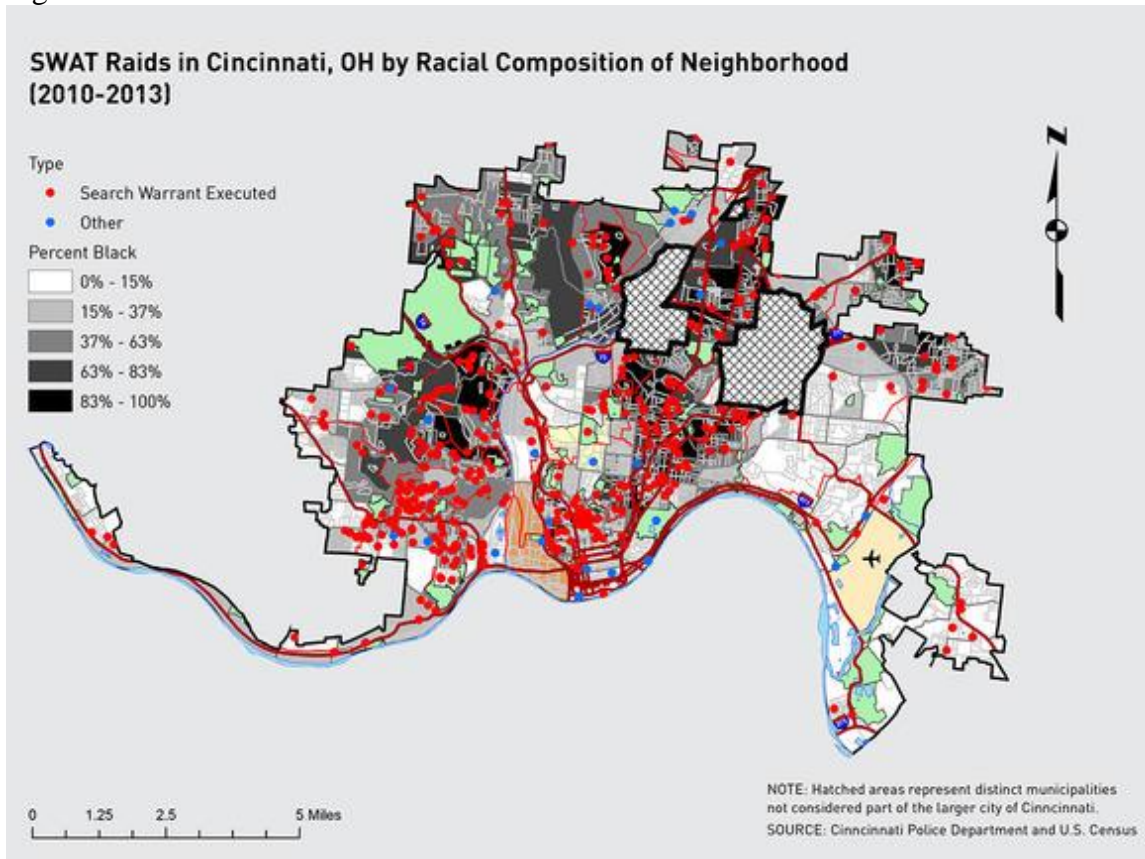
As a result many students and minority groups across the country are being urged by the ACLU to contact their administrators to tell them they do not need a militarized police force. Making the case that, "getting MRAPs off our campuses would be a great start, but building a movement that gets them off our streets entirely would be better" (Weiss, 2014, p.1).

Even with all the tension at hand in this country as a result of the said issue, the U.S. government has cracked down on what a local police department can receive. As a result the federal government will not provide tanks and grenade launchers because of the backlash in Ferguson, Missouri. In the meantime, if departments do seek less-imposing military equipment, than local law enforcement agencies will have to face stringent federal oversight and restrictions as opposed to the past (Johnson, 2015). Here President Obama seeks to eliminate the intimidating image that these local departments are showcasing as they patrol the streets with advanced militaristic weaponry. President Obama's explanation for the seizing of this equipment was that "militarized equipment can make one feel like police are an occupying force" (Rogers, 2015, P.1). This in turn was done to improve community relations between police and their communities. With that being said, under orders from the president, the federal government is now seizing some military surplus equipment back from across the country (Rogers, 2015). This includes equipment such as: tanks and other tracked armored vehicles, armed aircraft, firearms and ammunition ranging from .50 caliber or larger, grenade launchers and bayonets, to name a few (Johnson, 2015). As for other equipment such as various types of

firearms, ammunition and explosives, detailed restrictions and conditions will be applied before they are able to be obtained.

That is not all, as these local agencies must now provide to the federal government a "clear and persuasive explanation of the need for the controlled equipment," and they will not be eligible unless they have adopted what are called general policing standards (Johnson, 2015). These include community policing programs that utilize foot patrolled walking the beat. This interaction with various members of their communities is a lot different than the zero tolerance approach we have seen over the past years especially in big city police departments (Johnson, 2015). Could this be the reason why so many local police departments are bringing back foot patrols- in hopes of potentially gaining the opportunity to reapply for the said equipment? We may not know for sure, but given it is a prerequisite to even obtain military equipment it most certainly makes one think it does.

Methodology

My study's population was college students. The participants in my sample (n=106) were students from a major Mid-Western University. Although this sample size is small, it will provide a basis for this preliminary examination of this topic and I can use the information gathered to collect more in depth data at a later date.

The selected subject population included individuals 18 years or older that are enrolled at this major Midwestern university. This method provided me with raw data from various backgrounds and personalities to examine how the respondents view police in America. These individuals, college students, were chosen because they are most likely to be in positions to make policy; therefore their opinions may reflect the future directions of the Criminal Justice System or society as a whole.

Surveys were administered on paper and in person after approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) per university and the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) regulations. This was an anonymous and voluntary survey; participants were not given a chance to make any identifying marks on their surveys. When the surveys were completed responses were collected and were locked in a file cabinet per IRB guidelines. Choosing the paper survey eliminated any outside persons from participating in my survey, which could have skewed the data and or harmed the study.

The participants were given a survey packet with a consent form at the beginning. This form gave them a detailed explanation of how the survey itself would be conducted. Once the surveys were administered and completed I collected each individual survey. Afterwards I began transferring the data collected on output spreadsheets into SPSS for coding and statistical testing. Those who chose not to participate simply left the survey blank. This occurred in 14 surveys that were half completed; thus the results in those surveys were not included.

Dependent Variables Survey Questions (See Appendix A)

Four image questions were also used to measure respondent's levels of fear and confidence in the police. In order to determine the effect of militarization Images 1 and 4 were used to measure perception of traditional policing and Images 2 and 3 were used to measure perceptions of more militarized policing. The four image questions were

measured on Likert scales (Not fearful at all, Extremely fearful and Not confident at all, Extremely confident) each ranging from numbers 1-7. Each image had two answer choices for the participants. The first answer choice had numbers ranging from 1 being not fearful at all to number 7 being extremely fearful. The second answer choice had numbers ranging from 1 being not confident at all to number 7 being extremely confident.

The respondents will give us insight into if they one, trust the police, two have confidence in the police, and three how they view police as a whole. With the four image questions indicating if they fear the police or not as well as what is their confidence level with police in a particular police scenario. This allowed me to get a picture of the participant's overall perceptions of police and police militarization. This variable also allowed me to see if they are confident in the individuals that are there to protect their communities.

Hypotheses

The variables listed above will be used to test the presented study.

H_1: Increased police militarization has affected how society perceives police.

Analysis

This data is analyzed and reported in aggregate fashion so a particular respondent cannot be identified. The variables described above including the four image questions were analyzed using the Independent Sample t-Test so that we can compare the means between the different types of variables.

One variable used ANOVA so that I could see if there were any significant differences between the means of household income; as these are used when more than three unrelated groups are present. This was used to compare the effect of household income to all four image questions; as these groups consisted of low (<$10,000-$29,999), medium ($30,000-$69,000), and high (>$70,000-90,000) incomes.

Next, I ran a factor analysis. I chose to do this test to see if any of my variables were related and tapping into latent constructs. I chose to test this on Question 26: when you see police, which are you more likely to feel?; Question 37: Police with assault rifles dressed in full riot gear make me feel like I am an enemy and not someone they are supposed to Protect and Serve?; Question 38: I believe I live in a free society where I don't have to fear that a police officer might perpetuate violence upon me? These were used to measure fear. With the following questions used to measure confidence levels amongst the participants. Question 25: when you interact with police do you feel like you are innocent until proven guilty?; Question 33: given what you know about your local police department, what is your level of confidence in the police? and Question 39: I feel law enforcement in military fatigues has become in and of itself a symbol of mistrust between the police and civilian populations.

Table 1 below shows the means of each variable in the component one column; values that are close to one are good values and what we want. However, based on these values two new variables were created to tap into the latent constructs of fear and confidence. The first new variable became known as the 'Fear Factor' variable that was measured on a scale of 1 to 6 to measure the fear questions. The second new variable became known as the 'Confidence Factor' that was measured on a scale of 1 to 4 to measure the confidence. This scale was measured 1 to 4 because Question 25 had a result

that was found to be very insignificant, so it was removed from the factor based on its low Eigen value. Thus all of the fear questions showed significant findings so its scale remained 1 to 6. Unlike the four image questions also in this study whose scale remains on the 1 to 7 level.

Table 1

Structure Matrix

	Component 1
Fear Q#37	.895
Fear Q#26	.933
Fear Q#38	.914
Confidence Q#25	.074
Confidence Q#33	.820
Confidence Q#39	.846

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

In the ensuing chapter, the results of the statistical analysis and findings from the respondents are analyzed and discussed.

Results
Interpretation of Demographic variables
As explained in the previous section the sample consisted of 106 participants who were students from a major Midwestern university. The samples were drawn during the month of March 2016.

Table 2
Student participants by College

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	College of Health & Human Services	62	58.5
	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM)	18	17.0
	College of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences (Class)	18	17.0
	College of Education	6	5.7
	College of Creative Arts & Communication (CCAC)	2	1.9
	Total	106	100.0

Almost half of the participant's mothers and fathers had only a high school diploma. Specifically, there were 47 mothers (44%) and 46 fathers (43%) with only a

high school education. With 48 of the participants (45%) having a household income between $30,000 and $69,999. This left 26 participants (25%) in a household earning less than $29,999 annually. All while 32 of the participants (30%) in the study earned more than $70,000 a year. The sample was overwhelmingly white, with 75 white participants (71%), 23 black or African Americans (21%), 5 Asians (5%), 2 American Indians or Alaskan Natives (2%), and 1 coded other (1%). Even though race will be an important factor in perceptions of police I collapsed this variable due to the small sample size, leaving me with 75 participants who identified as White (71%) and 31 who identified as non-White (29%).

Correlation Analysis

When examining the correlation matrix you can first see that we have strong correlations between the variables selected. These correlations are to determine if there are specific factors that effect if people fear the police and their level of confidence in them as well.

Table 3
Correlation Matrix

Correlations											
		FF	Confidencefactor	Gender	Age	R_majorprogram	R_RaceWhitenonwhite	Image1Conf	Image2Fear	Image3Fear	Image3Conf	Image4Conf
FF	Pearson Correlation	1	.898**	.328**	-.138	.775**	.776**	-.106	.155	.217*	.066	.087
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.001	.157	.000	.000	.280	.112	.025	.500	.377
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Confidencefactor	Pearson Correlation	.898**	1	.313**	-.236*	.791**	.842**	-.090	.167	.229*	.102	.136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.001	.015	.000	.000	.358	.086	.018	.296	.163
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Gender	Pearson Correlation	.328**	.313**	1	.062	.144	.219*	-.140	.273**	.324**	-.048	-.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001		.526	.140	.024	.153	.005	.001	.625	.624
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.138	-.236*	.062	1	-.119	-.141	-.228*	.019	.042	-.217*	.113
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.157	.015	.526		.224	.150	.019	.844	.671	.025	.250
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
R_majorprogram	Pearson Correlation	.775**	.791**	.144	-.119	1	.852**	-.012	.105	.143	.150	.240*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.140	.224		.000	.902	.282	.143	.124	.013
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
R_RaceWhitenonwhite	Pearson Correlation	.776**	.842**	.219*	-.141	.852**	1	-.021	.175	.191*	.129	.246*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.024	.150	.000		.832	.073	.049	.188	.011
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Image1Conf	Pearson Correlation	-.106	-.090	-.140	-.228*	-.012	-.021	1	-.410**	-.473**	.607**	.306**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.280	.358	.153	.019	.902	.832		.000	.000	.000	.001
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Image2Fear	Pearson Correlation	.155	.167	.273**	.019	.105	.175	-.410**	1	.847**	-.435**	-.091
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.086	.005	.844	.282	.073	.000		.000	.000	.356
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Image3Fear	Pearson Correlation	.217*	.229*	.324**	.042	.143	.191*	-.473**	.847**	1	-.415**	-.068
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025	.018	.001	.671	.143	.049	.000	.000		.000	.491
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Image3Conf	Pearson Correlation	.066	.102	-.048	-.217*	.150	.129	.607**	-.435**	-.415**	1	.149
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.500	.296	.625	.025	.124	.188	.000	.000	.000		.126
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Image4Conf	Pearson Correlation	.087	.136	-.048	.113	.240*	.246*	.306**	-.091	-.068	.149	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.377	.163	.624	.250	.013	.011	.001	.356	.491	.126	
	N	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The correlation in Table 3 above shows several statistically significant correlations. Gender had a correlation with the fear factor variable. Although it is a weak

correlation at .328** it was still found to be statistically significant. It also had a statistically significant weak correlation with the confidence factor at .313**. These can be interpreted as females are more affected by both the fear factor and confidence factor than are males. This means that females have both more fear of police as well as more confidence in them than do males. Race as well as what major you were in also had some statistically significant findings. Race had a strong positive uphill correlation at .776**, whereas Race in the confidence factor had a very strong positive uphill correlation at .842**. These can be interpreted as non-whites are more affected by both the fear factor and confidence factor than are whites meaning that non-whites have more fear of and confidence in police than whites. Student major had a strong correlation with the fear factor at .775**, as well as a strong correlation with the confidence factor at .791**. These can be interpreted as Non-CJFS majors are more affected by both the fear and confidence factor than are CJFS majors meaning that non-criminal justice majors had a higher level of both fear and confidence than criminal justice majors. Based on the correlations found in Table further exploration into these results were done through t-test and those results are discussed next.

When examining the following independent samples t-test only the most significant variables are addressed in this report. In this preliminary examination with a small sample size, many variables were included, only the significant variables are addressed in this section.

Fear Factor & Confidence Factor (T-test)
Table 4

	Sig	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean	
Fear factor Race_whitenonwhite	.000	.000	White Non-white	3.6667 6.0000
Confidence Factor Race_whitenonwhite	.000	.000	White Non-white	2.4800 4.0000
Fear factor Cjfsnoncjfs	.000	.000	CJFS Non-CJFS	3.0000 5.4237
Confidence Factor Cjfsnoncjfs	.000	.000	CJFS Non-CJFS	2.1489 3.5424
Image#1 Level of fear (standard police car) Cjfsnoncjfs	.050	.008	CJFS Non-CJFS	1.8700 2.6100
Image#3 Level of fear (militarized police officers) Cjfsnoncjfs	.146	.010	CJFS Non-CJFS	2.0100 1.7370
Image #2 Level of Fear (militarized police vehicle) Gender	.248	.004	Male Female	1.7560 1.5990
Image #3 Level of Fear (militarized police officers) Gender	.781	.001	Male Female	1.8460 1.7910

Image #2 Level of confidence (militarized police vehicle) Whitenonwhite	.313	.011	White	4.8000
			Non-white	5.8400
Survey Q#26 fear (See police likely to feel) Outside employment interaction with CJFS	.659	.039	Yes	1.3871
			No	1.5909
Survey Q#38 fear (Police might perpetuate violence) Outside employment interaction with CJFS	.053	.022	Yes	1.4355
			No	1.6591
Survey Q#39 confidence (military fatigues symbol of mistrust) Outside employment interaction with CJFS	.000	.043	Yes	1.2258
			No	1.4091
Survey Q#37 fear (Police with assault rifles riot gear) Gender	.000	.022	Male	1.2542
			Female	1.4681
Survey Q#26 fear (See police more likely to feel) Gender	.695	.000	Male	1.3220
			Female	1.6596
Survey Q#38 fear (Police officer might perpetuate violence) Gender	.037	.000	Male	1.3729
			Female	1.7234
Survey Q#33 confidence (local police department Confidence) Gender	.000	.041	Male	1.4746
			Female	1.8085
Survey Q#39 confidence (military fatigues symbol of mistrust) Gender	.000	.000	Male	1.2203
			Female	1.4043
Survey Q#33 confidence (local police department Confidence) Cjfsnoncjfs	.000	.000	CJFS	1.1489
			Non-CJFS	2.0000
Survey Q#26 fear (See police more likely to feel) Whitenonwhite	.000	.000	White	1.2533
			Non-white	2.0000
Survey Q#39 confidence (military fatigues symbol of mistrust) Whitenonwhite	.197	.000	White	1.0133
			Non-white	2.0000

When the relationship between the fear factor, the confidence factor and race each resulted in a statically significant finding; an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the fear factor for whites and non-whites. There was a significant difference in the scores for whites (m=3.67, SD=1.03) and non-white (m=6.00, SD=.000); p=.000. These results suggest that the fear factor really does have an effect on non-whites. In that non-whites had a statistically significant larger mean for the fear factor with police militarization than whites. In other words, non-whites were significantly more fearful of militarized police than whites.

When the confidence factor was examined there was a significant difference in the scores for whites (m=2.50, SD=.530) and non-whites (m=4.00, SD=.000); p=.000. These results suggest that the confidence factor really does have an effect on non-whites. In that non-whites had a statistically significant larger mean for the confidence factor with police militarization than whites. In other words, non-whites had a higher level of confidence in militarized police than did whites. This is a rather odd finding considering they are more fearful of police militarization. Though, this could be because the non-white survey population is so much smaller than the white population that this finding could need future further analysis when more attention is brought to the issue of race. In that the non-white population survey could have had other factors playing into their responses. Such as their major, gender and household income could have played a role in whether or not confidence was affected. Especially since the more income a family has the better their relationship with the criminal justice system is expected to be. Thus meaning non- whites could very well be fearful of militarized police but could also be confident in them getting their job done.

When I compared the difference in scores for the fear factor score for CJFS majors and non-CJFS majors there were significant differences in scores for CJFS (m=3.00, SD=.000) and non-CJFS (m=5.42, SD=.875); p<.001. These results suggest that the fear factor really does have an effect on non-CJFS majors. In that non-CJFS are more likely to be scared and affected by militarized police than would CJFS majors. In that non-CJFS majors are more fearful of militarized police than are CJFS majors. The t-test conducted for the confidence factor had a significant difference in scores. For the CJFS (m=2.15, SD=.360) and non-CJFS (m=3.54, SD=.502); p<.001. These results suggest that the confidence factor really does have an effect on CJFS individuals. In that non-CJFS majors have lower confidence in militarized police than do CJFS majors.

(Photo elicitation section)

When I compared the difference in scores for level of fear in Image#1 CJFS students (criminal justice and forensic science) to non-CJFS students there was a significant difference in the scores for CJFS students (m=1.87, SD=1.28) and Non-CJFS students (m=2.61, SD=1.51) conditions; p=0.009. Thus meaning non- CJFS students were more fearful of Image#1. The next significant variable compared the level of fear to Image#3 in CJFS students to non-CJFS students. There was a significant difference in scores for CJFS students (m=3.21, SD=2.010) and non-CJFS students (m=4.19, SD=1.74) conditions; p=.009. This showed non-CJFS students were fearful of the image of militarized police officers than were CJFS students.

The next variable analyzed was gender, which had two significant findings. An independent t-test was conducted to compare level of fear in Image#2 in males and females. There was a significant difference in the scores for males (m=3.49, SD=1.76) and females (m=4.45, SD=1.60) conditions; p=0.005. This shows females are more fearful of the militarized police vehicle than males. The next significant finding dealt with level of fear to Image#3. There was a significant difference in the scores for males (m=3.20, SD=1.85) and females (m=4.45, SD=1.79) conditions; p=0.001. This can be interpreted as females are more fearful of the military police officers than are male students.

When I compared the difference in scores for Race (White vs. non-white) level of confidence to Image#4 in white and non-white students there was a significant difference in the scores for white (m=4.80, SD=1.87) and non-white (m=5.84, SD=1.90); p=0.011. This can be interpreted as non-whites are more confident in Image#4 than whites.

(Survey question section)

When the differences in scores for the participant's criminal justice system interaction outside of employment were compared, there were three significant findings. The first significant finding was Question #37 that measures fear in yes and no conditions (on a scale from 1-2). There was a significant difference in the scores for Yes (m=1.39, SD=.491) and No (m=1.59, SD=.497); p=0.039. This is interpreted as people who did not have interaction with the criminal justice system were more likely to be fearful and to experience anxiety when they see the police.

When I compared the difference in scores for Question #38. There was a significant difference in the scores for Yes (m=1.44, SD=.497) and No (m=1.66, SD=.479); p=0.023. This can be interpreted as people who did not have interaction with the criminal justice system are more fearful that they don't live in a free society where a police officer might perpetrate violence upon them than people who did have an interaction with the criminal justice system. In other words, people who interacted with the criminal justice system were less likely to report high levels of fear that police may perpetrate violence on them.

When the differences were compared in scores for Question #39 that measures confidence in (yes and no.) There was a significant difference in the scores for Yes (m=1.23, SD=.422) and No (1.41, SD=.497); p=.043. This can be interpreted as people who did not have interaction with the criminal justice system believed law enforcement in military fatigues are a symbol of mistrust more than people who did have an interaction with the criminal justice system.

Gender

When the difference in scores was compared for males and females Question #37 measured using a Likert scale format (Strongly Agree, Agree, etc.) on a scale of 1-7. There was a significant difference in the scores for male (m=1.25, SD=.439) and females (m=1.47, SD=.504); p=0.022. This can be interpreted as females are more fearful of police with assault rifles dressed in full riot gear than males.

When comparing the answers of males and females to Question #26 that could be answered (Safe and secure (coded as 1) or more likely to experience anxiety (coded as 2). There was a significant difference in the scores for males and females; males (m=1.322, SD=.471) and females (m=1.66, SD=.479); p=0.000. Meaning females are more fearful and experience more anxiety when they see the police than do males.

The next finding was Question #38 measured using a Likert scale format (Strongly Agree, Agree, etc) on a scale of 1-7 to measure fear in male and females. There was a significant difference in the scores for male (m=1.373, SD=.488) and female (m=1.72, SD=.452); p=0.000. This can be interpreted as females believe they live in a free society where they don't have to fear a police officer might harm them more so than males.

When I compared the difference in scores for Question #33 measured using a Likert scale format (Strongly Agree, Agree, etc) on a scale of 1-7. There was a significant difference in the scores for male (m=1.47, SD=.503) and females (m=1.81, SD= .398); p=0.000. This can be interpreted as females given what they know about their local police department have more confidence in them than do males.

The last significant variable finding here compared to Question #39 measured using a Likert scale format (Strongly Agree, Agree, etc.) on a scale of 1-7. There was a significant difference in the scores for males (m=1.22, SD=.418) and females (m=1.40, SD=.497); p=0.041. Meaning females feel law enforcement in military fatigues has become a symbol of mistrust more so than males.

Criminal Justice Majors vs. Non-Criminal Justice Majors

When the differences in scores were compared for CJFS students to Non-CJFS students, there was one significant finding. When I compared the difference in scores for Question #33 measured using a Likert scale format (Strongly Agree, Agree, etc) on a scale of 1-7. There was a significant difference in the scores for CJFS (m=1.149, SD=.360) and non-CJFS (m=2.00, SD=.000); p=0.000. In other words non-CJFS students have more confidence in their local police than do criminal justice majors.

Race

When I compared the difference in scores for Race (white vs. non-white), there were two significant findings. When I compared the difference in scores for Question #26, that could be answered (Safe and secure or more likely to experience anxiety) on a scale of 1-2. There was a significant difference in the scores for white (m=1.25, SD=.438) and non-white (m=2.00, SD=0.000); p=0.000. This is interpreted as non-whites fear the police or experience more anxiety when they see them. For Survey Question #39 measured using a Likert scale format (Strongly Agree, Agree, etc.) on a scale of 1-7. There was a significant difference in the scores for white (m=1.01, SD=.115) and non-white (m=2.00, SD=0.000); p=0.000. This can be interpreted as non-whites feel police in military uniforms has become a symbol of mistrust more so than whites.

Income

A one way ANOVA between subjects was conducted to compare the effect of household income for all four of the image questions in the low (<$10,000-$29,999), medium ($30,000-$69,999) and high ($70,000-$90,000>) income households. There was a significant effect of household income on Image#4 (that measures confidence) at the p<.05 level for the three conditions; p=.011. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the low income condition (m=5.77, SD=1.608) was significantly different than the medium income condition (m=4.31, SD=1.991). However, the high income condition (m=5.27, SD=1.910) did not significantly differ from the low income and medium income conditions. This can be interpreted as people making less than $10,000-$29,999 (low income) have more confidence in police when they are exposed to Image #4 than do those with a mid-level income.

Discussion

This research project yielded some very important results in regard to people's perceptions of the police. The data was very broad in regards to participants, which came from various academic programs, but the majority of the participants were white. Although a good amount allowed for a diverse spectrum of races. This allowed for a pretty good analysis to occur regardless of the participants that did not complete the survey. To examine this said data I used a correlation matrix, factor analysis, independent samples T-test and a one way ANOVA to determine which variables are significant. As well as if there are any differences between the variables identified in the results section.

Gender

My results found that females are more fearful of police than males. The first variable found females to be fearful of military police vehicles as well as females who are more fearful of militarized police officers than are males. There is minimal literature regarding gender and perceptions of police so I chose to ground this explanation in the literature regarding gender and overall fear. So what is fear? This definition is defined by numerous scholars worldwide, but there is no set definition. One potential definition was described as "an emotion, a feeling of alarm or dread caused by awareness or expectation of danger", whereas another was defined as "an emotional reaction characterized by a sense of danger and anxiety (Chun, Y& Lim, H, 2015). So this notion according to Warr states "fear of crime, like criminal victimization itself, is not randomly distributed in our population" (p.26). In that the two groups that continuously show the greatest fear of victimization are the elderly and women (Warr, 1993).

Another explanation for the high level of fear amongst females in general is that the cognitive processing that women and men experience are not the same (Smith and Torstensson, 1997). This is not to say men are not afraid at times as well; as males are victimized in all kinds of street crimes, all except rape and domestic issues (Chun, Y& Lim, H, 2015). Further representing how males have two times the risk of being in a homicide, robbery or violently attacked than are their female counterparts (Chun, Y& Lim, H, 2015, 2015). Though there are some significant differences amongst males and females. One of which, being that females as well as the elderly are more sensitive to risk than males and the young (Warr, 1993). This as a result means similar levels of risk in turn produce significantly different levels of fear amongst men and women, as well as young and old (Warr, 1993). For instance, if there is a 10 percent chance of a crime occurring that the reaction that follows is going to be very different in that of a 19 year old male and a 50 year old female; in which this differential sensitivity to risk plays a role in how women and elderly perceive crime (Warr, 1993).

Another crime that plays a role of why women are more fearful is because of rape. According to Warr here "rape is feared more than any other crime amongst younger women, who view rape as approximately equal in seriousness to murder, and as the violent crime most likely to happen to them" (p.26). This is linked to a number of precautionary and avoidance behaviors among women (Warr, 1993). So even if men are more victimized in street crimes than are females, their fear is indeed higher than males. According to Chun, Y& Lim, H, the difference in levels of fear for females and males depends on the situation and kinds of crime being committed (Chun, Y& Lim, H, 2015). Thus if women are more fearful of militarized police and police vehicles that does not

mean they fear regular police officers and police vehicles. The method in which one perceives an issue is a very hard area to measure, hence why scholars have not been able to make one set definition of what fear actually is.

Race

   My results found that non- whites were more confident in Image#4. This would be what I would call the least fearful photo elicitation for the participants; as some of the other images were a bit more menacing. Though given the long history of mistreatment and distrust between society and the police it's no wonder how this particular image was the most statistically significant. According to Barlow and Barlow, the more militant the civil rights movement became in the 1960s the more direct conflict with police minorities (non-white individuals) experienced. No one wants to fear going out the door that they may lose their life, but for some this is a constant fear. Potentially more for minorities, which could be a future study all on its own. Since the other images are more closely related to the police this could yield another result. In that because of the low support for law enforcement among many minority groups nationwide, this tension is a major interference for police to maintain order while on duty (Barlow and Barlow, 2000). This could show police relations with their citizens are not as great as they need to be with non-whites. The National Institute of Justice (2013), says "research consistently shows that minorities are more likely than whites to view law enforcement with suspicion and distrust; in that minorities frequently report that the police disproportionately single them out because of their race or ethnicity" (p.1). This statement alone could be used to explain why non-whites are less confident in the police than whites.

Social Class

   My results found those in the low income bracket were more confident in Image#4. This image had more joy and peace than the other three images used in this study. Though financially speaking those earning less money wouldn't be confident in the other three images because even here there is inequality. Prisons and the criminal justice system are made up primarily of the poor in our country (Reiman, 1984). Reiman goes on to mention that this is not just because they are more criminally minded, but that "instead, it is because the criminal justice system effectively weeds out the well-to-do" (Reiman, 1984 p.78). This inevitably results in those earning less to be who we will find in trouble at the end of the day. Thus there is no wonder that the other three images did not result in statistically significant findings. These images to this group could be viewed as oppressive images that they one are fearful of, as well as not confident in because of these present societal inequalities.

Summary and Conclusions
<u>Contributions</u>

   This is a relatively new topic in the area of law enforcement; however, it seems as though it has just subsisted under the societal radar. With that being said, it was not easy reviewing literature on this highly controversial topic because there is not much research available to examine it. With the perception of the police and police departments ever changing, this study focused on examining how society perceives police and police militarization. This study will provide more academic research and information for

people to see how society views police militarization as well as potential ways to help community police relations. With the study occurring at a diverse Mid-western university, the results reviewed showcased the varying perceptions of how people view this highly contested issue including a variety of general variables.

Another key point to remember in this preliminary examination, is that the negative perceptions of police is an overall systemic issue. Each side needs to take a step back reevaluate themselves and try to understand where each is coming from. For instance police have to understand that some communities have been oppressed for many years now. So simply having one or two police community meetings a year is not going to fix decade's worth of concerns society has acquired with their police and vice versa; it will take time. Also, communities have to understand police are the ones who make it as safe for us to go about our daily lives often in very safe conditions; and this is no easy task in such a cruel world. Not to mention police are human too and are doing jobs that most people do not have the stomach to do.

Consequently, as we see more and more military equipment and officials donning this gear tensions will continue to rise. Thus by conducting this survey we have seen how people view the police. The more confidence an individual has in a person the more effective that relationship will be. That is why officers, whether militarized or not, who mingle with their constituents through informal contacts will have relationships tailored to that specific community (Ashcroft, Daniels & Hart, 2003).

Limitations and Future Directions

In any research study there are limitations that exist as well as avenues that call for further inquiry. The following are just some of the limitations and possible future directions I found while writing this study. This topic, though highly controversial, was done with great care and consideration concerning our men and women in blue as well as the communities in which they are sworn to protect. Not every officer is a problem nor are all simply in it for the militarization. It is the policies that put most of them in a situation with no other choice but to follow orders. Policing is no easy task especially with so many different types of personalities in the world. Yet sooner or later something or someone must put an end to the problems we have seen occurring more and more in our streets. We have seen in history that the criminal justice system is not made to work for all people of a population; even though this is a systemic issue that affects everyone as a whole.

As a result of the varying perceptions of police from person to person in any given situation a huge limitation was my survey. College student's perceptions cannot be generalized to the population as a whole. With that being said, my future work will include members of the community, religious organizations as well as community leaders and not just college students. Others studying police militarization should do so using a broader sample as well. This will take place to truly gauge how society feels about police and police militarization. This survey only represents the diverse student population here at this major Midwestern University. It is primarily a commuter school, which brings forth all walks of life. This alone has provided me with a wealth of broad and diverse responses. In that I chose college students because they are likely to be in positions to make policy decisions and/or in society in general. Thus this may be a good

representative sample of the University and maybe even the City; but not on a national scale.

  Another area that would be good for future analysis is that of Age as was reported in the results. In that how does Age correlate with how one perceives fear and confidence. As sources mentioned earlier found that those who are elderly are more fearful than those who are younger. The sample was not conducive to studying age as there was a maximum age of the 40-60 age brackets, and only five respondents in that group.

  Race is also an important variable that needs further examination. Due to data limitations this study could only look at white and non-white racial categories. Future work should sample in such a way that it is able to examine race in a more meaningful way. In that this is especially important given the recent events and heightened tensions amongst police and minority communities.

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Appendix A

Dependent variables

Survey Question #14: Are any of your family or close friends employed in the Criminal justice system? (Yes or No)

Survey Question #16: Outside of employment have you ever had interaction with the Criminal justice system? (Yes or No)

Survey Question #25: When you interact with police do you feel like you are innocent until proven guilty? (Yes or No)

Survey Question #26: When you see police how are you more likely to feel? (Safe and secure or more likely to experience anxiety)

Survey Question #33: Given what you know about your local police department, what is your level of confidence in the police? (Likert scale 1-7)

Survey Question #37: Police with assault rifles dressed in full riot gear make me feel like I am an enemy and not someone they are supposed to protect and serve? (Likert scale 1-7)

Survey Question #38: I believe I live in q free society where I don't have to fear a police officer might perpetuate violence upon me? (Likert scale 1-7)

Survey Question #39: I feel law enforcement in military fatigues has become in and of itself a symbol of mistrust? (Likert scale 1-7)

Photo Elicitations

Image 1)

Image2)

Image 3)

Image 4)