If you have issues viewing or accessing this file, please contact us at NCJRS.gov.

153462

Dynamics of Aging in the Illinois Law Enforcement Officer Corps

ILLINOIS
CRIMINAL JUSTICE
INFORMATION AUTHORITY

153462

153462

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the National Institute of Justice.

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted material has been granted by
Illinois Criminal Justice
Information Authority
to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS).

Further reproduction outside of the NCJRS system requires permission of the copyright owner.

Dynamics of Aging in the Illinois Law Enforcement Officer Corps

By

Michele Livojevic, Research analyst
Sandra Bass, Research assistant
Lloyd Babb, Research technician
Jackie Front, Technical assistant
Jeffrey Travis, Technical assistant

Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority

Peter B. Bensinger, Chairman
J. David Coldren, Executive Director
Barbara McDonald, Deputy Executive Director

February 1992

Acknowledgments

The Authority wishes to thank the Illinois Local Governmental Law Enforcement Officers Training Board, the Illinois State Police, and the departments that served as case studies for this research: the Chicago Police Department, the Joliet Police Department, the Bethalto Police Department, and the Madison Country Sheriff's Department. These agencies provided invaluable information that made this study possible.

Dynamics of Aging in the Illinois Law Enforcement Officer Corps Advisory Board

The following agencies and their representatives were instrumental to these research efforts. Advisory board members contributed their time, knowledge, and expertise throughout this study.

Dr. Tom Jurkanin
Illinois Local Governmental
Law Enforcement Officers
Training Board

Chief Dennis Nowicki
Joilet Police Department
Police Executive Research Forum

Chief Charles Gruber
Elgin Police Department
International Association of
Chiefs of Police

Honorable Robert E. Nall
Sheriff, Adams County
Illinois Sheriffs' Association

Commander Joseph Beazley
Chicago Police Department

James Finley
Office of Governmental Affairs
Illinois State Police

Dynamics of Aging in the Illinois Law Enforcement Officer Corps was funded with the assistance of grant number 90-BJ-CX-K007 from the U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics. The opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this document do not necessarily reflect the position of the Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Copyright © 1992, The Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority
120 South Riverside Plaza, Chicago, Illinois, 60606

CONTENTS

Executive summary **1**

Findings 4

Purposes and objectives of the research 7

Chapter 1: Introduction **9**

Effects of retirement on the remaining work force 9

Recruiting 11

Chapter 2: Department staffing trends **15**

Demographic composition of the municipal and sheriffs' officer corps in 1990 16

Officers leaving the corps 20

The Chicago Police Department 28

The Illinois State Police 28

Policy considerations 42

Chapter 3: Recruitment pool changes and recent recruitment trends **45**

The changing Illinois work force 45

Comparison of officers hired to those leaving 47

Recruitment 50

Policy considerations 64

Chapter 4: Patterns in retention **65**

Aging at management level 66

The Illinois State Police 69

Department size and aging dynamics 69

Education and advancement 73

Employee benefits 81

Promotion patterns for women and minorities: The Chicago Police Department 81

Sheriffs' departments: Career mobility patterns of minorities and women 90

Policy considerations 90

Chapter 5: Case studies **93**

Joliet Police Department 93

Bethalto Police Department 101

Madison County Sheriff's Department 105

Cooperation in interagency law enforcement 108

Appendix A: Guide to the quality of available data on the Illinois officer corps 110

PTB data quality assessment 110

Illinois State Police data 115

Summary 122

Appendix B: Methodology 123

Department trend analysis 124

Career mobility pattern analysis 125

Department case studies 128

Administrators' survey 128

Appendix C: Federal and state legislation affecting department hiring and retirement policies 130

Retirement 130

Hiring 132

Endnotes 135

Bibliography 138

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The average age of American workers is increasing. By the year 2000, the median age in Illinois will be 36, six years older than it was in 1980. In less than a decade, the majority of the Illinois work force will be middle-aged for the first time in the state's history. The population is not only aging, but the characteristics of new entrants to the work force are changing.[1] In the year 2000, white males, who have made up the majority of police recruits in Illinois, will be less than 50 percent of new workers. The majority of the work force in the future will be some combination of ethnic minority, female, and recent immigrants.[2] Law enforcement agencies, like all other employers, will feel the impact of this demographic change. An aging officer corps has significant consequences that extend throughout the rank structure and affect human resource allocation in very direct and substantive ways.

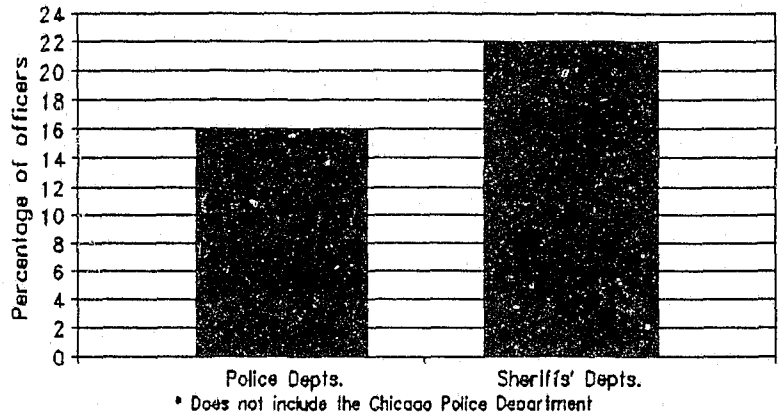
One such consequence is the loss of a large cadre of experienced police officers to retirement. In any context, loss of experienced officers creates a potential vacuum in leadership. However, such losses may have especially drastic consequences for Illinois' municipal police and sheriffs' departments, because large numbers of officers will reach retirement eligibility simultaneously. Increasing numbers of officers who are retirement-eligible—coupled with changes in the composition of the recruitment pool within this decade—make it imperative for law enforcement administrators to critically assess their departments' recruitment and retention strategies (Summary Figures 1, 2, and 3).

The coming retirement wave will create a gap in the ranks that, if filled by promotions, will require a sharp increase in new recruits and a heavy demand for additional management level in-service training. But the lack of federal funding for in-service education for officers has dramatically reduced the rate at which officers increase their education. The escalating training needs of these departments must therefore be met by state and local resources. The following two charts point out the future gap in the management ranks and the limited resources to train replacements (Summary Figure 4).

In addition, to attract qualified new recruits to law enforcement careers, departments will need to become more effective in recruiting, promoting, and retaining women and minorities. This is essential because of the demographic shift in the American labor force to an older work force with a majority com-

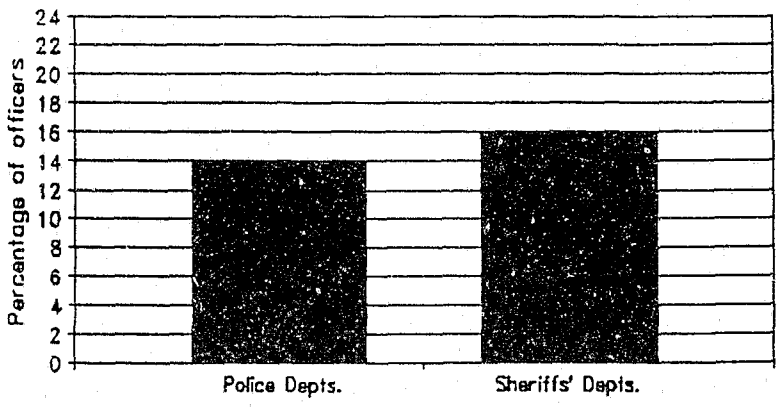
Summary Figure 1

In 1995, 16% of municipal police officers in Cook and the collar counties and 22% of sheriffs' police in Cook, DuPage, and McHenry counties will be eligible for retirement



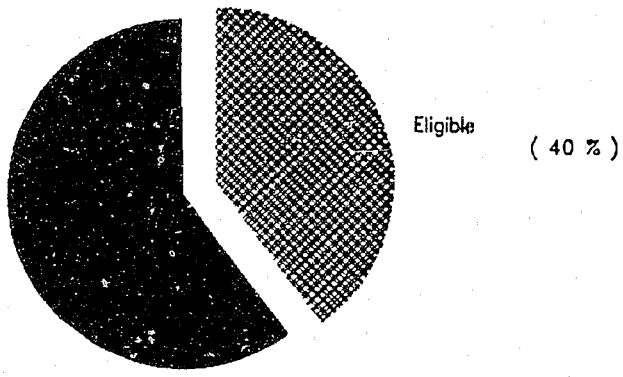
Summary Figure 2

In 1995, 14% of all municipal officers and 16% of all sheriffs' officers will be eligible for retirement outside of Cook and the collar counties



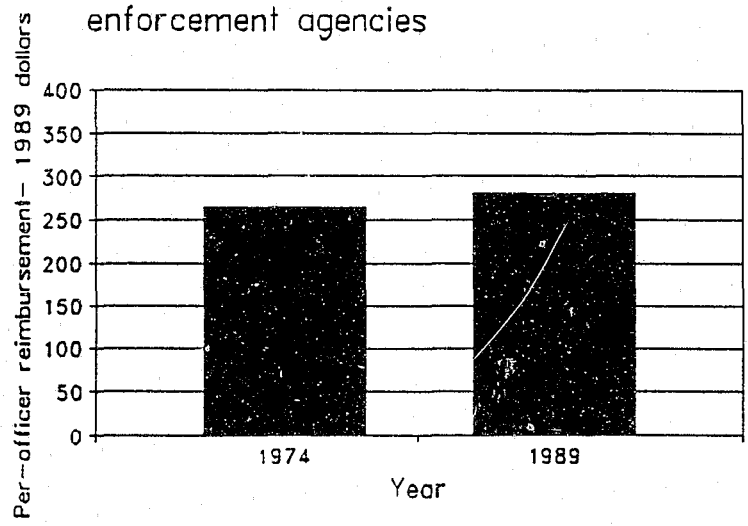
Summary Figure 3

By 1996, 40% of all officers within the Chicago Police Dept. will be eligible for retirement



Summary Figure 4

Per-officer Illinois Police Training Board training reimbursements to local law enforcement agencies



position of women, ethnic minorities, and immigrants by the year 2000 (Summary Figure 5).[3]

Findings

Illinois faces a critical period, as significant percentages of experienced officers reach retirement age within the next four years.

- By 1995, statewide outside of Chicago, 15 percent of municipal police officers and 18 percent of sheriffs' police officers will be eligible for retirement.

- The potential impact of retirement is greater for Cook and the collar counties than for the rest of the state. There is a potential 16 percent loss of municipal police officers in Cook and the collar counties (DuPage, Kane, Lake, McHenry, and Will) and a 22 percent loss of sheriffs' police in Cook, DuPage, and McHenry counties to retirement. (Sheriffs' departments in the remaining collar counties, Kane, Lake, and Will, did not respond to the Authority's survey of law enforcement administrators.) In the rest of the state, 14 percent of police officers and 16 percent of sheriffs' police will be retirement-eligible.[4]

- Statewide, the aging of the officer corps is most acute within managerial ranks of large departments. Managerial staff in police departments with more than 26 officers and sheriffs' police departments with more than 50 officers are the oldest municipal and county law enforcement officers in Illinois.

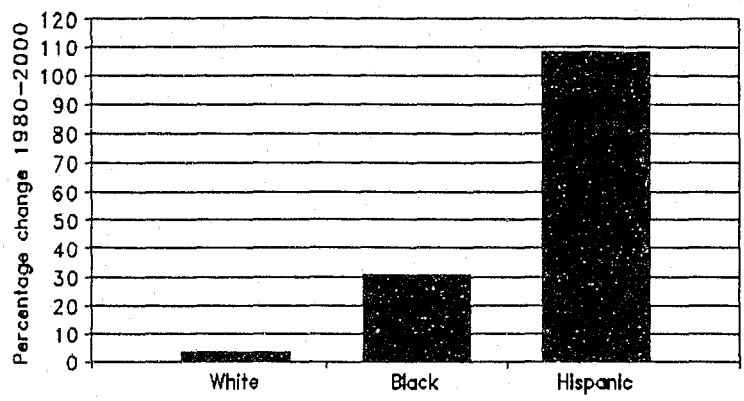
- The potential impact of an older work force in Illinois will be greater for areas outside of Cook and the collar counties. From 1980 to the year 2000, 20- to 35-year-olds, the age group that has traditionally provided the officer recruitment pool, will decrease by 14 percent in Cook and the collar counties and 25 percent in the rest of Illinois.

To meet the challenge of the approaching leadership gap, departments will need to be increasingly attentive to the effects of internal policies on recruitment, promotion, and retention of officers.

- Officers' career mobility—opportunity for promotion—varies by department size. In large departments with older officers at supervisory and

Summary Figure 5

Since 1980, black and Hispanic representation in the work force has dramatically risen



managerial ranks, promotions are tied to job vacancies resulting from the retirement of those officers. In smaller departments with younger officers at these ranks, promotion is more likely to be tied to non-retirement attrition.

- Departments are losing a disproportionate number of female officers. Between 1986 and 1990 one out of every five women hired left their departments, in contrast to one out of every seven males.

- Departments are also losing minority officers at a higher rate. Between 1986 and 1990 nearly one out of every six minority officers left their departments, in contrast to one out of every seven white officers.

- Comparison of promotion patterns suggests that generally women and minorities are not being promoted from entry level and lower supervisory positions at a rate consistent with their representation at entry-level ranks. Since explanations for these retention and promotion patterns were beyond the scope of this study, further research should be conducted to examine the reasons for these patterns.

- Departments that are aging throughout their ranks must be particularly attentive to policies chosen to address critical staffing shortages. Traditional in-house promotion, coupled with lengthy hiring and promotion processes, contributes to an older force. Promotion freezes to redress shortages in lower ranks have negative implications for officers' career mobility and job satisfaction.

Although the educational level of the Illinois officer corps is currently better than national averages, the aging of the corps will create new training needs at a time of shrinking resources.

- Illinois officers' educational levels compare favorably with officers' educational levels across the country. While 45 percent of police officers nationally were reported to have two or more years of college, 61 percent of Illinois' police officers and sheriffs' deputies had this level of education in 1989.

- There are indications that Illinois officers' educational improvement has slowed since the demise of the federal Law Enforcement Assistance

Administration and the Law Enforcement Education Program in 1980. This is most evident among command and executive staff. On average, there was a drop in the in-service educational attainment of commanders and executives from two years to less than six months.

Purposes and objectives of the research

This study describes aging dynamics within the ranks of Illinois' law enforcement agencies and the significance of these dynamics for human resource planning. Data on Illinois state, municipal, and county law enforcement officers were analyzed to determine if aging dynamics were different in different types of law enforcement agencies (police department, sheriff's department, or state police), in different sized departments, and in different geographic regions.

This report also serves as a guide to assist law enforcement administrators in identifying the information they need to assess future human resource needs and suggests some ways departmental administrators and state planning agencies can use that information.

This study describes the current age structure of the officer corps and the relationship between the age structure of the Illinois population to the year 2000 and future law enforcement personnel needs. Trends in other demographic variables affecting the composition of the officer corps, including gender, ethnicity, and educational attainment, were also identified. The analysis focuses on the following issues:

- Projected age distribution of the Illinois population
- The current demographic composition of the officer corps
- Trends in recruitment, promotion, and attrition
- Differences in the demographic characteristics of retiring officers and their potential replacements
- Federal, state, local, and departmental policies relevant to human resource planning
- The availability and quality of data necessary for systematic human resource planning at state and local levels

This report is divided into the following chapters:

- Chapter 1. *Introduction.*

- Chapter 2. *Department staffing trends.* Describes the coming crisis in staffing levels within the context of recent trends in retirement and non-retirement attrition, and discusses the implications of various policies for responding to officer attrition.

- Chapter 3. *Recruitment pool changes and recent recruitment trends.* Describes changes in the composition of the recruitment pool in light of recent recruitment trends and discusses policies designed to replace the increasing loss of officers to attrition.

- Chapter 4. *Patterns in retention.* Describes retention patterns across rank structures and discusses the relationships among retention, career mobility, officers' demographic characteristics, officer education, and training.

- Chapter 5. *Case studies.* Describes the findings of three case studies: the Joliet Police Department, the Bethalto Police Department, and the Madison County Sheriff's Department.

- Appendix A. *Guide to the quality of available data on the Illinois officer corps.* Assesses the availability, quality, completeness, and reliability of data sources on the Illinois officer corps. Age data are examined at entry to law enforcement, at various promotional ranks, and at retirement. The guide discusses the availability and quality of data that will be necessary for administrators to ensure accurate results in research and planning. The guide includes notes on the data necessary to estimate future retirements and presents a simple method of doing estimations.

- Appendix B. *Methodology.* Describes the research methods used for the aggregate data analyses and case studies.

- Appendix C. *Federal and state legislation affecting department hiring and retirement policies.*

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Illinois' law enforcement community is experiencing two converging trends:

1. The retirement of experienced officers is producing a gap in managerial ranks.

2. The traditional recruitment pool is shrinking.

By the year 2000, there will be fewer young recruits aged 20 to 35 than in the past, and those recruits will have a different demographic profile. In addition, there will be increased competition for workers, caused by a shortage in skilled labor in the state (*Five Year Plan 1990–1995,* 1990). These converging trends can lead to shortages in staffing levels and can affect department performance. The policy choices made today will determine if this convergence has beneficial or negative impacts for law enforcement in Illinois.

In 1987, the Hudson Institute, a policy and think tank organization in Indiana, reported that, by the year 2000, a majority of American workers (62 percent) will be over age 35. According to the institute's report, *Workforce 2000: Work and Workers for the 21st Century*, nonwhites, women, and immigrants will make up more than five-sixths of the net additions to the work force (Johnston and Packer, 1987). These changes are significant for law enforcement, which has traditionally recruited young, white men and has been staffed by relatively small percentages of women and minorities. Administrators must reassess their recruitment, promotion, and retention strategies in light of the realities of a changing labor force. The focus on recruiting younger officers, in particular, may have been based on a common perception that younger officers are more effective than older officers in ensuring public safety.

Effects of retirement on the remaining work force

For example, in a 1977 report to the U.S. Congress, the Comptroller General recommended that the federal government continue its policy of providing earlier retirement benefits to federal law enforcement personnel, so that the quality of law enforcement would be improved by maintaining a young and vigorous work force

(*Special Retirement Policy for Federal Law Enforcement Personnel Needs Reevaluation*, 1977). Many law enforcement administrators embrace early retirement as a management tool, to prevent their efforts to make changes in their departments from being thwarted by entrenched personnel.

Contrary to the Comptroller General's findings and public opinion, however, interviews with Illinois law enforcement administrators suggest a general consensus that the increasing loss of officers to retirement, particularly at the management and command levels, has serious implications for their departments. In fact, some administrators contend that older officers are more amenable to new approaches in policing, and that their loss obstructs positive change (Brown, 1989).

When officers retire the gap must be filled—often by promotion. Information collected in interviews conducted by Authority staff and data from other studies (McGinnis, 1989; *A Profile of Municipal Police Departments in Vermont*, 1989; Wright, 1989) have identified both beneficial and negative effects of retirement on the remaining staff, including the following points:

Positive effects

- Retirements provide chiefs and sheriffs with the opportunity to promote energetic, new officers who can improve the performance of their departments (interviews with Chicago Police Department command staff, June 1991).

- The increased potential for promotion has been linked to increased job satisfaction and job performance. Officers with greater opportunity for promotion have a greater incentive to perform (McGinnis, 1989).

Negative effects

- It is difficult to replace the knowledge of department policy and procedures and the breadth of job experience of retiring officers.

- For departments that promote from within and have limited allocations of staff, replacing a large percentage of retiring officers at higher ranks creates shortages in the ranks below. Unless administrators are willing to operate below full strength, selection criteria may be relaxed as

departments struggle to hire sufficient replacements. This can result in the hiring of officers with sub-standard qualifications. (Wright, 1989).

Recruiting

As in the private sector, availability of new recruits in law enforcement agencies will be affected by fluctuating economic trends and labor markets. But all law enforcement agencies must also cope with similar influences stemming from their public safety functions and from their status as governmental agencies. Public accountability places constraints on departmental budgets, standards, policies, and procedures that must be considered in developing strategies and long-term planning.

In addition, federal legislation has limited the ability of departments to set mandatory ages for entry-level hiring and for retirement and to establish physical, psychological, and drug use criteria for recruits (see Appendix C). The elimination of federally supported law enforcement education has also placed heavier burdens on individual officers and departments to meet training needs and to upgrade education qualifications. While some federal legislation has limited the ability to shape staffing policy, legislation has been proposed to ease staffing shortages. Legislation was pending in the U.S. Congress as of November 1991 to provide college scholarships to young people ($40,000 total per student) in return for guaranteed service on state or local police departments ("Is the Police Corps Proposal Just What the Doctor Ordered or Bad Medicine?" 1989).

At the department level, some police departments have turned to nontraditional means of redressing officer shortages. In addition to traditional recruitment, hiring, and promotion, these departments have employed such methods as lateral entry and increased employment of civilians.

Lateral entry

Lateral entry means hiring officers from outside of a department at their current or higher rank, retaining any seniority they have accrued, rather than requiring them to enter at the bottom rung. This controversial strategy, proposed as early as 1977 (Goldstein, 1977), is still considered to be an untested and unconventional substitute for traditional in-house promotion processes. Some research suggests that lateral entry is rare below the top command ranks. Von Maanen (1989) has noted that "as one moves down the hierarchical ladder, lateral entry is

unknown and supervisory positions are filled only from the pool of applicants directly below the vacant slot."

Interviews with Illinois police administrators found differences of opinion on lateral entry below the executive level. Some administrators said that community resistance to hiring outsiders and the benefits of promoting officers with experience in their departments and communities make the adoption of lateral entry unfeasible (interview with Chicago Police Department command staff, June 1991). Others said that promotional policies should not preclude hiring outside officers with skills that match staffing needs (meeting with chiefs of large Illinois cities, October 1990).

Whether lateral entry is used in Illinois is also determined, in part, by an officer's ability to carry his or her pension rights intact to his or her new job. Generally, departments serving communities of 5,000 or fewer residents are members of the Illinois Municipal Retirement Fund (IMRF). Officers moving from one IMRF member department to another can transfer their pension rights. Officers moving from or to departments with independent pension funds generally do not have these transfer rights, except at the executive level.

In addition, larger departments, such as the Chicago Police Department, are more likely to have strong police and fire boards or civil service commissions that are instrumental in hiring and promotion selections and that are likely to favor recruiting locally and promoting from within the department (interview with Chicago Police Department command staff, June 11, 1991).

Lateral entry is also severely limited in Illinois by a state statute (Ill.Rev.Stat. 1989, ch. 24 , par. 10- 2.1-4) which mandates that, with the exception of the lowest rank of police chiefs and fire chiefs, all rank appointments be made from the rank below. This mandate can be superseded only with passage of a city or town ordinance.

As part of this study, the Authority conducted a survey of law enforcement administrators in August 1991 to assess whether lateral entry is used by law enforcement agencies in Illinois. The survey was responded to by 567 police departments and 75 sheriffs' departments.

Very few of the departments surveyed have chosen to override the statute that inhibits lateral entry for those above the lowest rank. A follow-up telephone survey identified only three police departments that use lateral entry but restrict it to patrol officers who are allowed to retain seniority achieved at their previous jobs.

The Cook County Sheriff's Department restricts lateral entry to entry-level (patrol) positions, allowing those officers to retain seniority.

Employing civilians

Employing civilians in certain positions has been suggested as a way to maintain adequate manpower levels (Skolnick and Bayley, 1986; Wright, 1989). The Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics Survey conducted by the federal Bureau of Justice Statistics in 1987 reported a growing trend toward employment of civilian staff in large police departments (serving communities of more than 250,000). The average percentage of civilian employees increased from 20.5 percent in 1977 to 23 percent in 1987 in the 59 municipal police departments included in the report (Reaves, 1989).

In the past, hiring civilians has been suggested as a way to relieve sworn officers of support duties such as clerical and technical work (Wright, 1989). In those situations, civilians are not being assigned to work directly involved with enforcing the law and keeping the public order. For example, in early 1991 the Chicago Police Department hired 215 additional civilian employees to offset a reported shortage of 1,165 employees. However, these civilians were slated for such positions as clerical workers, crossing guards, and custodians and so would not correct the reported shortage of 737 police officers (Recktenwald, 1991b). Such difficulties in maintaining staffing levels have given rise to suggestions to hire civilian personnel for more policing functions, "ultimately relegating the [sworn] officer to respond to emergency situations only, such as in-progress or serious crimes" (Hyams, 1991:25). To identify the extent to which civilians are being employed for policing in Illinois police and sheriffs' departments, administrators responding to the Authority's law enforcement administrators' survey were asked about the percentage of civilian staff assigned patrol duty in their departments.

Thirty-three sheriffs' departments and 313 police departments responded to the question. Of the police departments, 268 (86 percent) employed no civilians in patrol. Thirty sheriffs' departments, 91 percent of those responding, did not employ civilians for patrol duties. Only three sheriffs' departments employed civilians in this capacity. The use of civilians in police patrol work increased with department size. The percentage breakdowns for those police and sheriffs' departments of different sizes that did report employing civilians to support patrol follow:

- One to 10 officers—6 percent (13 out of 204 departments)

- 11 to 25 officers—14 percent (10 out of 73 departments)
- 26 to 49 officers—37 percent (14 out of 38 departments)
- 50 or more officers—35 percent (11 out of 31 departments)

The survey did not gather specific information on the types of duties and assignments civilian staff performed.

Chapter 2

DEPARTMENT STAFFING TRENDS

A picture of the active officer corps is the first step in an assessment of future staffing levels and human resource needs. This profile must go beyond a simple count of officers on staff to include the following:

- A description of the demographic composition—age, gender, and ethnicity of the active corps.
- A comparison of the demographic characteristics of officers leaving their departments and those who are hired to replace them.

Profiles of currently active officers, those recently hired, and those who have recently left their departments show trends in the character of the corps that will carry into the near future. They also identify short-term trends in recruitment, retention, and attrition that may positively or negatively affect a potential crisis caused by inadequate staffing levels and a vacuum in leadership.

The following analysis includes an assessment of state and regional trends in the police officer corps' demographic composition, recruitment, hiring, and attrition for the years 1986 to 1990. Retirement estimates to the mid-1990s are presented for police and sheriffs' departments, the Chicago Police Department, and the Illinois State Police.

Since both the Chicago Police Department (CPD) and the Illinois State Police (ISP) made available automated data on their officer corps, they have been treated separately in the analysis. CPD data were obtained from the department's Research and Development Division. This allowed for analysis of data on the entire CPD force for all pertinent variables not available from the database maintained by the Illinois Local Governmental Law Enforcement Officers Training Board (also known as the Police Training Board [PTB]). Data obtained from the Illinois State Police's Research and Development Bureau, unlike that for CPD and other municipal and county departments, included only the active force and terminated (discharged) officers, not "new hires."

Demographic composition of the municipal and sheriffs' officer corps in 1990

Municipal police officers in Illinois outside Chicago, with an average age of 37, were younger in 1990 than sheriffs' police officers, who averaged 40 years of age. Chicago Police Department officers were the oldest in the state, with an average age of 43. The active forces for municipal police departments outside of Chicago and for sheriffs' police departments averaged the same years of service (11) and the same educational level (14 years) (Figure 1). The forces are predominantly white (97 percent for municipal police and 95 percent for sheriff's police departments) and male (96 percent for municipal police and 95 percent for sheriffs' police departments).

White officers outside Chicago had, on average, served 11.4 years, roughly 6 years longer than the average length of service for black, Asian, and Hispanic officers. Women and minorities hired in the 1980s under affirmative action policies will show longer years of service over the next decade, if they remain on their forces and close the gap with white male officers.

The Chicago Police force had, on average, longer service (16 years), a slightly lower mean educational level (13 years), and a far larger percentage of female and minority officers than did municipal and sheriffs' departments outside of Chicago. The CPD force was 69 percent white and 86 percent male in 1990.

Minorities and women in the Illinois officer corps are concentrated in the Chicago Police Department (Figure 1). From 1986 to 1990, other police departments in the state had increases in minority representation (Figure 2). The combined increase for black, Hispanic, and Asian officers in departments outside of Chicago was 116 percent. The total number of black officers outside Chicago rose from 89 to 185; the number of Hispanic officers from 12 to 30; and the number of Asian officers from 2 to 7. The number of female officers outside Chicago increased by a slightly lower percentage than any ethnic minority, but the increase for this period was 84 percent, rising from 158 in 1986 to 291 in 1990.

Minority representation within sheriffs' departments remained essentially the same from 1986 to 1990. Across the board, there was little increased representation for any ethnic group.

Sheriffs' police officers outside of Cook, DuPage, and McHenry counties, served fewer years on average and were somewhat more likely to be white than officers in the Chicago-area suburbs. Regardless of region, sheriffs' departments are predominantly composed of men (Figure 3). Given the projected decrease in

Figure 1 Department manpower trends Composition of Illinois officer corps 1990						
	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served	Average education level	% white	% male
Police	7,618	37	11	14	97	96
Sheriffs	1,365	40	11	14	95	95
Chicago Police Department	12,401	43	16	13	69	86

Note: Since the PTB database did not have current information on officers' educational levels, data from the 1990 Police training Board census included a sample of 529 officers and 493 sheriffs' police at a 95- percent confidence level. Data provided by the Chicago Police Department did not include updated information on officers' educational levels. To standardize current education for CPD officers, educational degrees were assigned values equivalent to the number of years normally taken to earn them. For example, bachelors' degrees were equated to 16 years of education.

Chicago data on mean age is based on the total sworn Chicago police force.

Figure 2

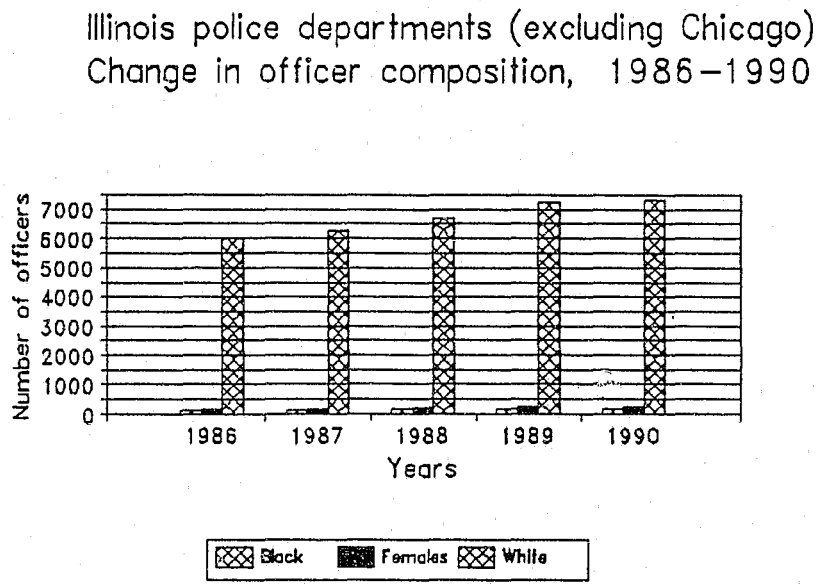

Illinois police departments (excluding Chicago)
Change in officer composition, 1986–1990
Number of officers
7000
6000
5000
4000
3000
2000
1000
0
1986
1987
1988
1989
1990
Years
Black
Females
White

Figure 3
Geographic breakdowns
Total active Illinois police force that responded to
the July 1990 Police Training Board census

	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served	Average education level	% white	% male
Chicago	12,401	43	16	13	69	86
Cook* and Collar	4,744	37	11	14	97	96
Rest of Illinois	2,874	38	11	14	98	97

Total active sheriffs' force
that responded to the July 1990
Police Training Board Census

	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served	Average education level	% White	% Male
Cook, DuPage, and McHenry counties	493	41	13	14	89	96
Rest of Illinois	872	40	10	13	98	95

* Excludes Chicago Police Department.

people in the 20- to 35-year-old age group outside of the Chicago area suburbs, law enforcement agencies in those areas are likely to be faced with critical shortages of officers in the future.

Officers leaving the corps

Regional termination data from the PTB database include information on Illinois officers who left their departments from 1986 to 1990. Data for the Chicago Police Department and complete data for the Cook County Sheriff's Department are not included. Slightly fewer than 2,000 officers outside of Chicago left municipal and county law enforcement between 1986 and 1990. However, it is possible that these officers have continued their careers elsewhere—with the Illinois State Police, in federal law enforcement, or in another state.

Why do officers leave?

Retirement is one factor in attrition. Municipal police officers and sheriffs' police are retirement-eligible at a minimum age of 50 with 20 years of service. Statewide, retirees constitute a small but significant percentage of total attrition. Of those who reach retirement eligibility, the percentages actually retiring between 1986 and 1990 varied by department across the state from 6 percent to 24 percent. Those who retired were primarily white men between the ages of 55 and 58 with 24 to 26 years of service (99 percent).

Loss of officers through attrition other than retirement—such as training washouts, management dismissals, voluntary resignations, and deaths—is higher for the rest of Illinois than for Cook and collar counties (Figure 4).

Voluntary resignations and management dismissals can be due to internal factors such as departmental reorganizations and budget cuts. External factors can also contribute to turnover, for example, a labor shortage where there is keen competition for employees. The projected labor shortage over the next decade discussed in the introduction to this report (*Five Year Plan 1990–1995,* 1990) may worsen retention patterns as officers leave law enforcement.

Case studies of the Bethalto Police Department and the Madison County Sheriff's Department found that non-competitive salaries in small departments outside the Chicago area contribute to non-retirement attrition. This is particularly true for police departments where salary ranges are tied to small municipal tax bases. These departments not only compete for recruits but must struggle to retain

Figure 4
Percentage of departures from the
law enforcement officers corps
1986 - 1990

Police departments*

	Number of departures	Retired	Other attrition
Cook and Collar Counties	861	23%	77%
Rest of Illinois	762	20%	80%

Sheriffs' departments

	Number of departures	Retired	Other attrition
Cook, DuPage, and McHenry Counties	50	24%	76%
Rest of Illinois	286	6%	94%

* excludes the Chicago Police Department

trained officers who can transfer their skills to other employers at higher salaries. In the case of Bethalto, officers left to take positions with larger municipal police departments and with the Madison County Sheriff's Department. As the labor market tightens, and labor shortages create more demand, these officers will have increased opportunity to take jobs as managers in service industries or within private security in industrial and commercial enterprises.

Who is leaving?

Officers who leave their departments prior to pension eligibility present a challenge to police administrators in human resources planning. Are people being hired with the "right stuff"? If the answer is yes, are people leaving with invaluable training and professional experience who could and should be retained? Are there issues that management could address that might change some of these retention patterns?

Of those who left the officer corps before retirement between 1986 and 1990, 4 percent were minorities and 7 percent were women. Eighteen percent of the minority officers and 20 percent of the women in the corps left their departments. In addition, many women leave within the first few years of service. One out of five women hired between 1986 and 1990 left their departments during that time period.

Discussions with women officers during the course of the research provide two possible explanations for the low retention rate of women in the corps. First, female officers who join police departments after working in women-dominated fields, such as nursing or teaching, find that for the first time in their working experience they are one of a very small number of women in their department. This can lead to a sense of isolation for female officers who may leave before they are able to make a full adjustment to the predominantly male law enforcement work environment. Second, the fact that there are few women and minorities at ranks higher than patrol may create the perception of inequity—that promotion is harder for female and minority officers than for male officers. A perceived lack of career mobility can lead to job dissatisfaction and to the decision to leave the department. It should be noted that these explanations are drawn from anecdotal information that can only be verified with additional research into the reasons why departments are having trouble retaining female and minority officers.

With mean educational levels of 13.6 to 14 years, women who have left their departments have slightly more education (six months to one year) than men who

left their departments. With the exception of municipal police in the Chicago-area suburbs, where education does not differ by race, minorities exhibit a similar, somewhat higher (14 years versus 13 years for white officers) mean educational level. These women and minority officers have similar tenures, five years for women and six years for minorities.

The relationship between age and education at hire and years of service at termination can provide some clues about the changing applicant pool, as well as some information on the characteristics of officers who are leaving. For example, it is possible that certain groups of officers are entering as well as leaving law enforcement to seek second careers. The fact that white men are older at hire in sheriffs' police departments in Cook, DuPage, and McHenry counties suggests that these officers may be entering second careers. In addition, the survey of departmental administrators conducted for this study and the Bethalto Police Department case study found that many Illinois officers who leave their departments move to other law enforcement agencies.

In Cook, DuPage, and McHenry counties, at hire, male sheriffs' police officers (average age 33) are five years older than female officers (average age 28) and white officers (average age 33) are four years older than minority officers (average age 29). This would suggest that white men may be more likely to move to positions as deputies to begin second careers. These officers may well have come from the ranks of municipal police departments. In fact, the Authority's survey of police administrators found that 77 percent of police officers leaving their departments in 1989 stayed in municipal or county law enforcement.

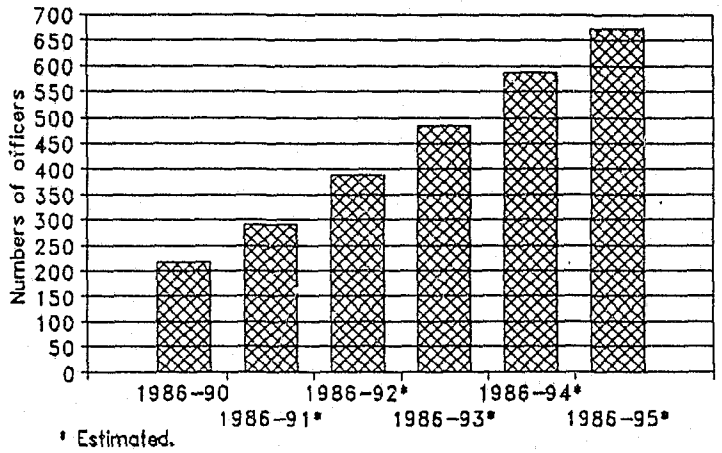
How many will leave?

Knowing who will be leaving in the future is as critical to human resources planning as knowing which officers have left. What do the data tell us about attrition in the next five to six years? Although the data cannot address other types of attrition with any certainty, they can tell us how many officers will become retirement-eligible. Based on the minimum requirements of age and service, analysis of the active force in 1990 indicates who will be eligible for retirement through 1995.

Municipal police departments in the Chicago-area suburbs could lose a total of 674 officers who will be eligible for retirement by 1995, 16 percent of their active 1989 force (Figure 5).

Figure 5

Cook and collar county police (excluding Chicago) estimated retirement-eligible officers, 1991 - 1995



* Estimated.

Analysis of the Joliet Police Department suggests that the most experienced officers are the ones who are leaving. By 1995, five out of six Joliet police lieutenants will be retirement-eligible, as will 44 percent of sergeants. Eighteen percent of the 1990 force will be eligible for retirement. In the year 2000, 31 percent of the 1990 force will meet retirement eligibility.

Although the percentage loss over the next five years (14 percent or 357 officers) is lowest for police departments outside of Cook and the collar counties, the true loss may be more keenly felt in those areas (Figure 6). Many of these departments are small—10 officers or fewer. The case study of the Bethalto Police Department suggests that small departments may be experiencing high turnover among officers who are not eligible for pensions. Additional loss due to retirements will exacerbate such departments' difficulty in maintaining adequate staffing levels.

By 1995, sheriffs' departments in Cook, DuPage and McHenry counties could lose a total of 22 percent of their 1990 police force to retirement, the highest percentage loss for law enforcement by region (Figure 7).

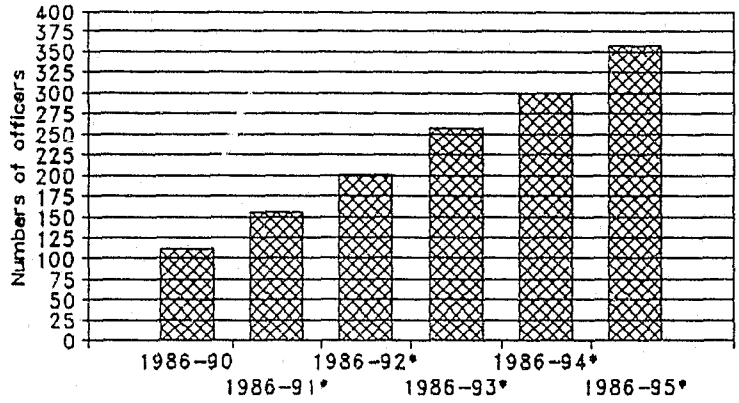
A large number of officers were hired in the 1960s, creating a "bubble" reaching retirement age by the mid-1990s. Sheriffs' departments in the rest of Illinois will lose fewer officers to retirement. Even so, the 16-percent loss of 124 officers estimated to take place by 1995 is a sizeable proportion of the 1990 active sheriffs' police corps (Figure 8).

Why do officers leave their departments? How does department policy positively or negatively influence attrition rates? A statewide survey by the Authority of 567 police department and 75 sheriffs' department administrators found that a majority of officers who leave their departments remain in Illinois law enforcement. Officers leave their departments primarily because of inadequate pay, lack of opportunity for promotion, and the need for a career change.

In 1989, 384 Illinois municipal police officers employed by the departments surveyed left their departments. The majority of these officers, 82 percent, remained in Illinois law enforcement. Seventy percent took positions with Illinois municipal or county law enforcement agencies. The rest took positions with state law enforcement agencies, primarily the Illinois State Police (11 percent), and federal agencies (7 percent). Forty-nine (93 percent) of the 53 sheriffs' police officers in the departments surveyed who left their departments remained in state. Thirty (61 percent) went to municipal or county agencies and fifteen (31 percent)

Figure 6

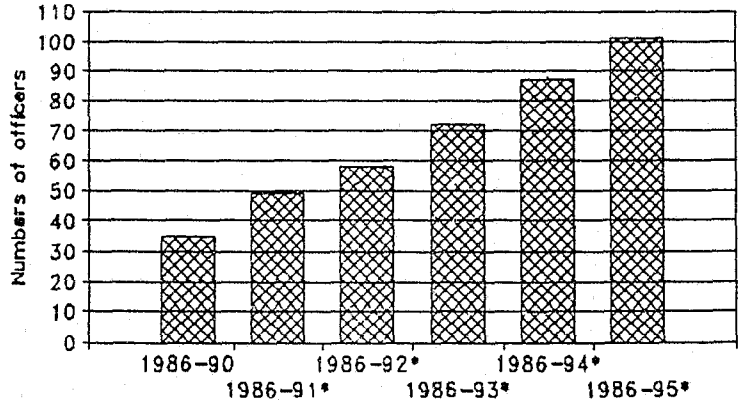
Police departments (excluding Cook and Collar)
Estimated retirement-eligible officers, 1991-1995



* Estimated.

Figure 7

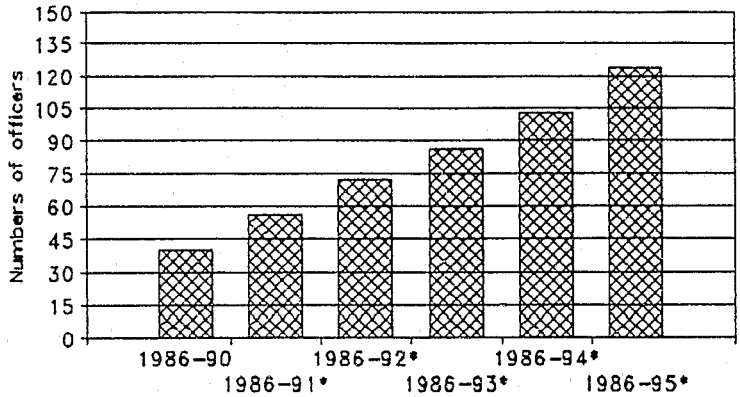
Cook, DuPage, and McHenry county sheriffs' depts. estimated retirement-eligible officers
1990 - 1995



* Estimated.

Figure 8

Sheriffs' departments (excluding Cook and collar)
Estimated retirement-eligible officers, 1991-1995



* Estimated.

went to other state agencies. The remaining four (8 percent) took positions with federal agencies.

Reasons for resignations that police and sheriffs' administrators said were most common were similar.

Job advancement, pay, and career change were reported to be the three most frequent reasons for resignations (Figure 9). Personal or domestic problems and job-related stress were among the top six. Difficulties with management and supervision were reported to be more frequent reasons for resignation by police administrators than sheriffs' administrators.

Department size is closely related to the relative importance of the top three reasons for resignation: job advancement, pay, and career change (Figure 10). In departments with fewer than 26 officers, pay is the most common reason. In larger departments, job and career change figure more prominently.

The Chicago Police Department

The data used for the construction of department trends for the Chicago Police Department include relevant portions of the automated personnel records of the 12,401 active Chicago police officers employed in December 1990. These data were supplemented by interviews from officers in the Chicago Police Department, including interviews with Superintendent LeRoy Martin.

An officer is eligible for retirement in the Chicago Police Department, with 50 percent benefits, at age 50, with 20 years service. Due to changes in federal law and union contract provisions, the mandatory retirement age at CPD fluctuated between 63 and 70 throughout the 1980s. Currently, under a union agreement signed in April 1990, officers must retire at age 63.

In April 1991, 2,512 officers were eligible for retirement. By the end of 1996, a total of 5,008 officers, 40 percent of the department in 1990, will have become retirement-eligible (Figure 11).

The Illinois State Police

The Illinois State Police maintains a database on all terminated officers, containing start and end dates, date of birth, rank at departure, and the reason for departure. Years of service and age at termination are easily calculated. Data are available on 1,200 officers from January 1978 through December 1989.

Figure 9
Most common reasons for resignations
Police departments
N = 567

Reason	Number of departments	Percentage*
Job advancement	180	32
Pay	169	30
Career change	165	29
Domestic/personal problems	86	15
Difficulties with management	66	12
Stress (job related)	60	11
Difficulties with supervisor	49	9
Too light a work load	46	8
Further education	44	8
No promotion	41	7
Too heavy a work load	38	7

Sheriffs' departments
N = 75

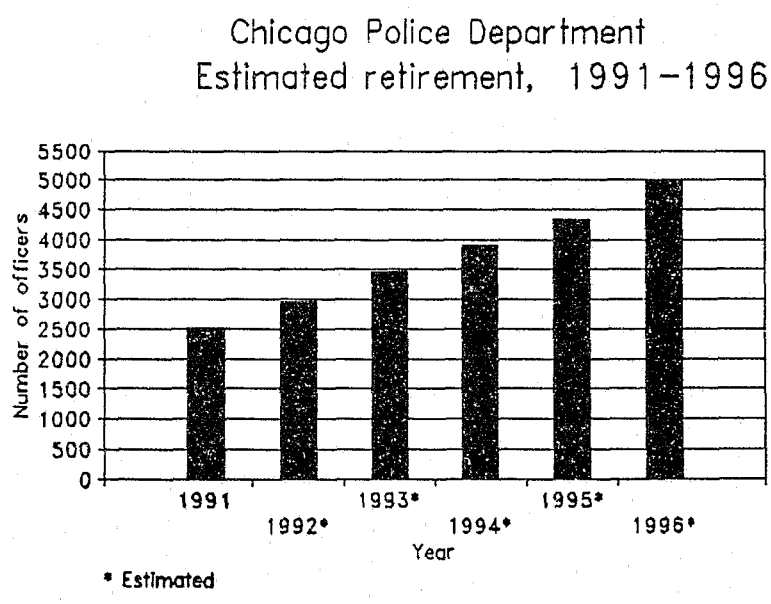
Job advancement	30	40
Pay	36	48
Career change	28	37
Domestic/personal problem	9	12
Difficulties with management	3	4
Stress (job related)	5	7
Difficulties with supervisor	2	3
Too light a work load	1	1
Further education	4	5
No promotion	4	5
Too heavy a work load	1	1

* Total does not equal 100% due to multiple responses.

Figure 10 Most significant reasons for resignations from police and sheriffs' departments					
	Department size				
Reason	1* (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=334)	11 - 25 (N=132)	26 - 49 (N=76)	50+ (N=47)
Job advancement	27%	13%	13%	13%	23%
Pay	46%	18%	16%	16%	15%
Career change	27%	13%	9%	20%	15%

* There are no sheriffs' departments this size.
Totals may not equal 100% due to multiple responses.

Figure 11



These data can identify the point at which ISP officers leave their careers and why they leave. Figure 12 shows the percentages of departures, classified by explanation, over the 12-year period. ISP categorizes departures as terminated (a termination by management during the initial year-long probationary period), dismissed (a termination by management after the probationary period), resigned (officer initiated), death, and retirement.

There are four groups of interest:

- Officers who retire
- Officers who leave within their first year
- Officers who quit with an average of five years of experience
- Officers who stay beyond five years but leave before retirement eligibility

Retirement

Until 1991, ISP allowed its officers to retire either at age 55 with 20 years of service or at age 50 with 25 years of service.[6] Using these conditions for retirement, in 1990, the Illinois State Police had estimated that 56 officers would be eligible for retirement in fiscal year 1992. However, on July 24, 1991, legislation was passed that enabled Illinois State Police officers who had reached age 50 or had 30 years of service by December 31. 1991 to take an early retirement over a nine month period (PA 81-14; see Appendix C.). Unless reenacted with subsequent legislation, the Early Retirement Incentive plan (ERI) is available to Illinois State Police officers from August 1, 1991, to May 1, 1992. As of December 1, 1991, 54 percent (148) of the 274 officers eligible for ERI had enrolled in the program. An additional three officers were scheduled for retirement between August 1, 1991, and May 1, 1992, under the alternative formulas of age 50 with 25 years of service or age 55 with 20 years of service.[7]

Since the mid-1980s, ISP retirees have retired, on average, at age 55 with 20 years of service. Sixty is the mandatory retirement age. Figure 13 shows the age and service-years breakdown for the 12-year time period, 1978 to 1989, by rank. There are two parallel rank structures at ISP, the Division of State Troopers (DST) and the Division of Criminal Investigation (DCI). DST titles are trooper through major; DCI titles are special agent (SA) through major. The breakdown in Figure

Figure 12
Illinois State Police departures
1978 - 1989
N = 1261

Reason	Number of departures	Average age	Average years served	% of all departures
Terminated	149	27.5	0.7	11.8
Dismissed	21	34.0	7.7	1.7
Resigned	380	32.0	5.2	30.1
Death	39	43.5	17.5	3.1
Retirement	672	54.9	27.4	53.3

Figure 13
Average age and years of service at retirement
of Illinois State Police officers
7/79 - 12/90

Division of State Troopers (DST)				
	Average age at retirement	Number of officers	Average years served at retirement	Number of officers
Trooper	54.8	265	26.6	265
Sergeant	54.7	81	27.2	81
Master sergeant	54.8	89	28.7	89
Lieutenant	54.9	36	28.6	36
Captain	55.2	27	29.0	27
Major	55.5	9	29.5	9

Division of Criminal Investigation (DCI)				
	Average age at retirement	Number of officers	Average years served at retirement	Number of officers
Special agent	56.3	30	23.9	30
Special agent sergeant	55.4	10	26.1	10
Special agent master sergeant	56.0	18	26.1	18
Special agent lieutenant	56.9	11	25.5	11
Special agent captain	54.1	6	28.8	6
Special agent major	57.8	5	20.3	5

13 gives a descriptive overview of attrition in the ranks. Across all ranks, age and years of service are consistent with the overall distribution.

First-year failure

The probationary period for new entrants—cadets—is one year from the date of employment. Those who "wash out" usually leave voluntarily or are terminated by management within the first year. Figure 14 shows these departures from 1983 to 1990 (1983 is the first year that total cadet class size is available). The failure rate, also referred to as the washout rate, has declined. Currently, ISP has a 10-percent to 15-percent washout rate, a decrease since the mid-1980s. ISP management feels that the decline may be due to an increased base requirement of two years of college. The requirement has been in effect since 1988. The washout rate is expected to remain around 10 percent.

Other attrition

Other than age and years of service, we do not know very much about ISP officers who make it beyond the probationary period, but do not stay until retirement. (Demographics such as sex and race are not available in the ISP database.)

Age at entry may be one key difference between those who stay on the force and those who leave mid-career. Figure 15 shows the entry age of career officers (those who stay long enough to retire from the force) and those who left at mid-career (before retirement eligibility) from 1978 through 1989. Until the mid-1980s, career officers were older at entry than those who left mid-career. Older recruits might have had more maturity and commitment. Younger officers may have been more likely to leave if they had more opportunities outside of policing.

Since the mid-1980s, the entry age of career officers who remain until retirement has dropped, and in 1989 it was only slightly higher than the entry age of those who left mid-career. This may reflect some changes in agency standards. Officers who leave mid-career tend to leave after 10 years of service. At this point in their careers, most officers know what the likelihood of promotion to management ranks will be. If officers do not see their careers advancing, they may choose to leave. It has also been suggested by ISP staff that other factors, such as budgeting, changes in leadership of the agency, and organizational changes have also had an effect on attrition.

Figure 14

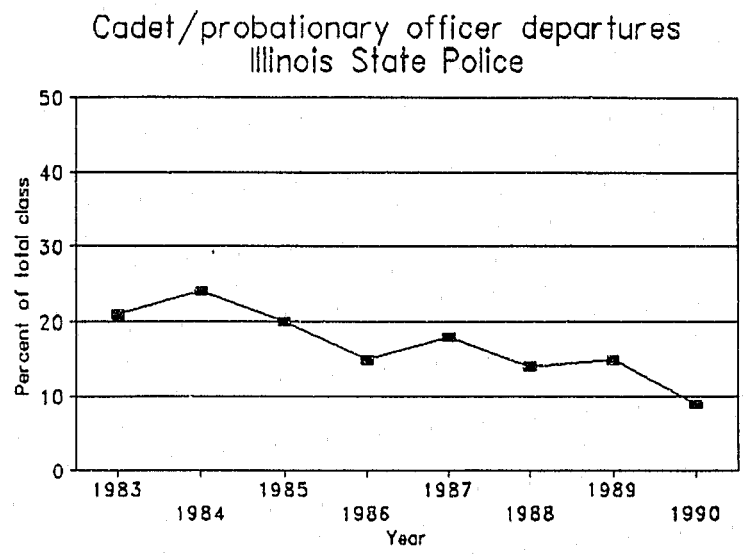
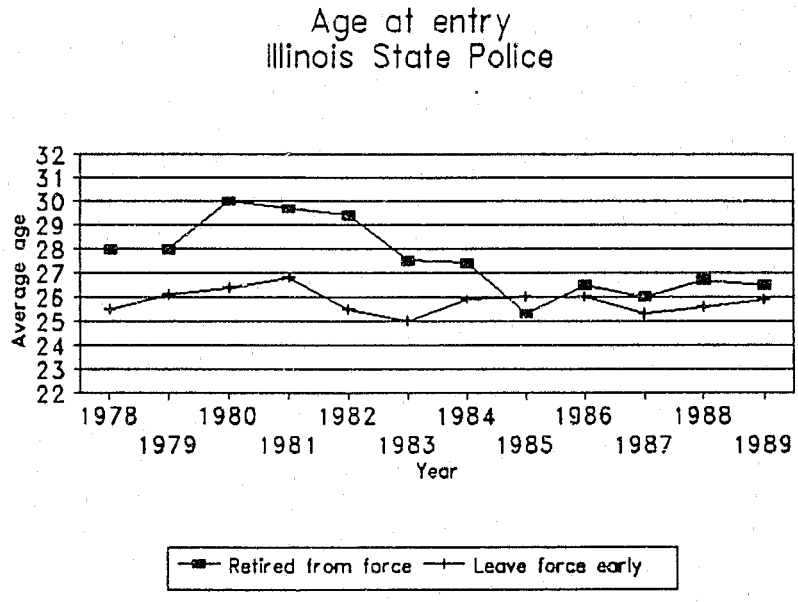


Figure 15



Patterns of attrition in the ranks

Figure 16 shows the rank structure of ISP's two enforcement divisions, DST and DCI. DCI is one-fourth the size of DST and draws its agents from the qualified pool of troopers. ISP policy mandates that one must be hired and trained as a trooper before becoming eligible for transfer into DCI. Transfers between these and other divisions within the department are not only provided for, but encouraged at all ranks.

Under the ranks of trooper and special agent are three longevity steps designed to recognize length of service within these primary ranks. While they are not promotions, the title change is accompanied by a standard increase in pay.

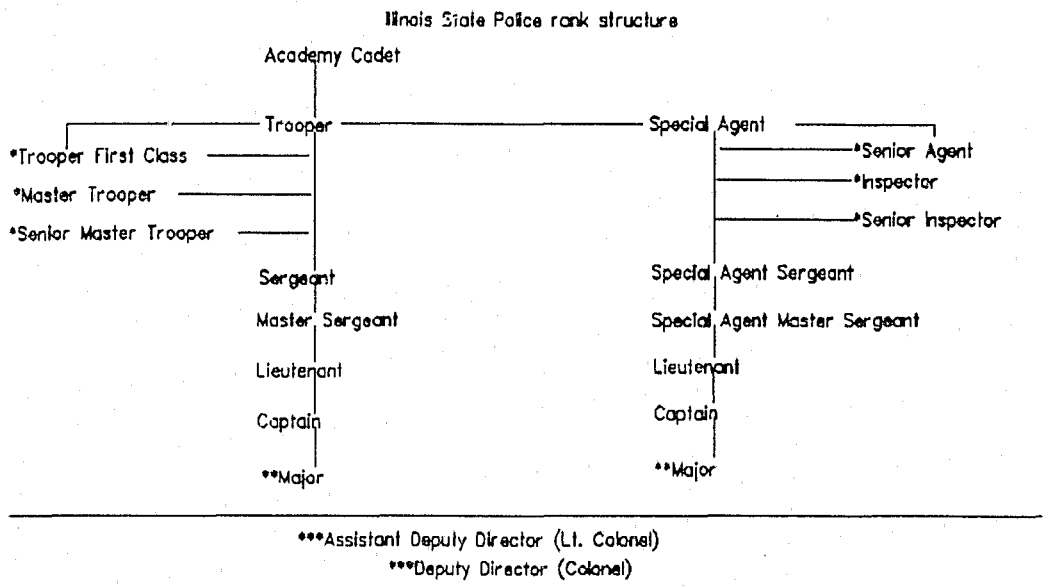
Historically, a college degree was required for entry in DCI. Since 1978, DCI and DST both draw from the eligible pool of troopers. As previously stated, ISP policy holds that troopers have an equal chance of being selected by either division. Figure 16 shows the career ladders of both divisions.

To compare attrition by rank between the two groups, rank was collapsed into four categories, entry level (excluding troopers), line management, master sergeants, and senior management. (While considered line management, master sergeants are treated separately because they are not represented by collective bargaining.)

DST and DCI

For the years 1978 through 1989, attrition in DST (excluding troopers) was primarily among line management, senior management, and master sergeants (Figure 17). Furthermore, it was almost entirely due to retirement (Figure 18). This is what we might expect, given the fact that many senior people were in the management ranks. There was sporadic attrition at the entry level in the mid-1980s. In contrast, in the early 1980s, DCI officer attrition (excluding troopers) was almost entirely at the entry level (Figure 19). Figure 20 further confirms that the percentage of officers at entry level who resigned was much higher in the late 1970s and early 1980s for DCI than for DST, probably because of a management reorganization in 1977 and several years of wage freezes that left ISP behind in pay compared to other agencies. However, entry-level attrition remained high compared to DST throughout the nine year period.

Figure 16



*Longevity recognition at 7, 14, and 21 years
**Highest merit rank
***Exempt rank – appointed by the director

Figure 17

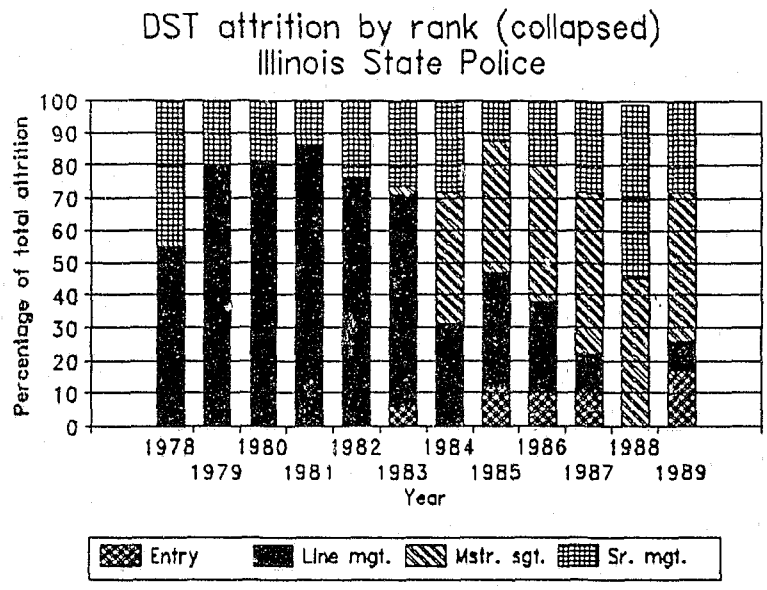


Figure 18

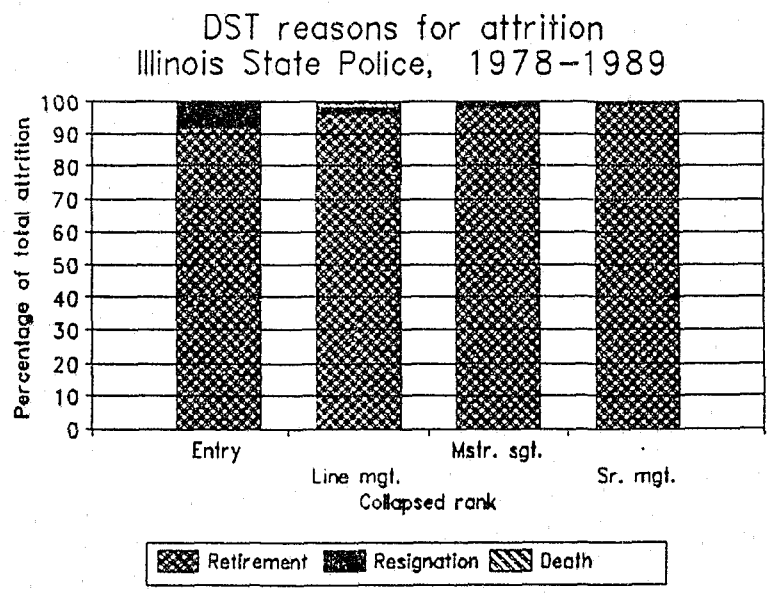


Figure 19

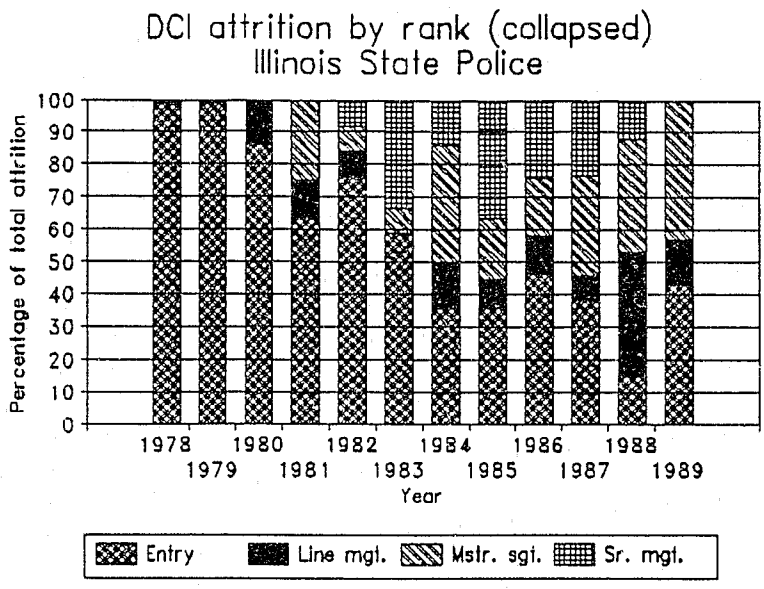
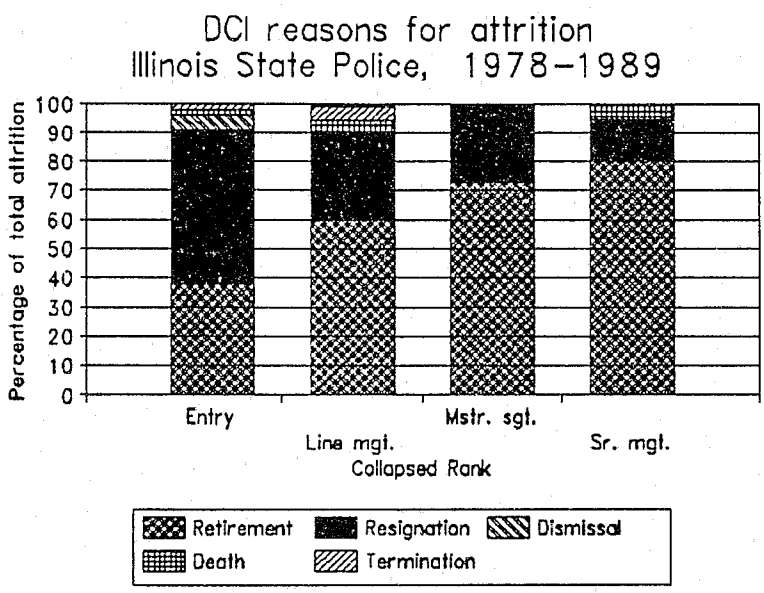


Figure 20



Troopers

The patterns of attrition for troopers are not shown in Figures 17 through 20 because they form the pool of officers eligible for promotion in both DCI and DST. Troopers are the largest group of officers, by rank, in ISP. Theoretically, troopers may choose to pursue their careers in either division.

Attrition patterns of troopers are of interest because the majority of officers spend their entire careers at this rank. Figure 21 shows trooper attrition for the years 1978 to 1989. The high numbers of troopers who resigned in the late 1970s mirror organizational changes and pay differentials at ISP. The rise in troopers who resigned in 1988 is also most likely due to budgetary constraints or changes in administration. Even so, the majority of troopers retire.

While it appears that retirements have generally fallen in recent years, a comparison to ISP's retirement-eligible population shows that from 1984 to 1986, retirements were only slightly below what was expected (Figure 22). From 1987 through 1989, however, retirements were far below what was expected. While eligibility is based on age and years of service, actual retirements are sensitive to additional factors.

Part of the reason for the discrepancy between actual retirements and expected retirements is that officers do not usually retire immediately upon reaching eligibility. Many stay longer in order to collect increased benefits. While age and years of service are the most useful predictors, other factors govern clearly individual decisions. Forty-six percent of the officers eligible for retirement under the Early Retirement Incentive plan (126) chose to retire. Among those 148 officers enrolling in the program, 45 percent were at the entry-level rank of trooper or special agent, 41 percent were at supervisory rank, and 13 percent were at management rank. This group also included one district commander. The 148 officers enrolled in the ERI program represent a seven-fold increase in the number who retired in 1989.

In summary, retirement attrition rates will affect critical shortages in the Illinois law enforcement officer corps by the mid-1990s. In addition, loss of officers at entry level or at mid-career should be of concern to all departments. Such losses represent deficiencies in critical experience at patrol, investigatory, and supervisory levels that threaten the viability of the corps and the provision of public safety.

Figure 21

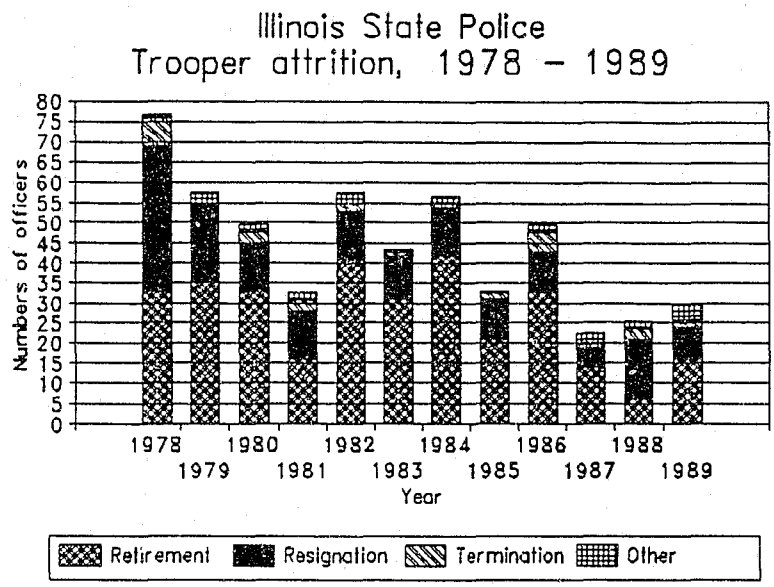


Figure 22
Expected versus actual retirements
Illinois State Police troopers
1984 - 1989

Year	Expected retirements	Actual retirements	% (actual/expected)
1984	36	42	117
1985	35	21	60
1986	33	33	100
1987	33	14	42
1988	34	6	18
1989	35	16	46

Note: Eligibility age 50 with 25 years of services or age 55 with 20 years of service. Retirement is mandatory at age 60. Eligibility figures are estimates.

Policy considerations

Municipal police departments

Departments in which large numbers of officers will become eligible for retirement over the next five years, exemplified by departments with 25 or more officers, should reassess the effects of retirement policies that encourage resignations at younger ages, for example at age 50 with 20 years of service. These departments will increasingly lose larger percentages of experienced officers at all ranks, but particularly at management and command levels. Such losses will be particularly acute for the Chicago Police Department ,where 40 percent of the officer corps will be retirement-eligible by 1996. Larger departments should reevaluate their supervisory- and management-level in-service training programs to ensure that officers who are candidates to replace management and command staff will be adequately prepared to assume their new roles in the near future.

Departments whose attrition is higher for entry-level positions must assess policies that may cause low retention. Small departments of fewer than 25 officers could consider adopting policies that balance their non-competitive salaries with improved benefit packages and the provision of educational incentives. In addition, the Bethalto Police Department case study data suggest that small departments should avoid offsetting staffing shortages with weekly shift rotations that demand difficult and consistent physical and psychological short-term readjustments (see Chapter 5).

To offset financial losses of recruit and in-service training investments caused by high entry-level resignations, small departments could consider pre-employment contracts that mandate reimbursement for training expenditures, as has the Bethalto Police Department. However, departmental administrators must consider the likelihood of an increase in grievances if they are unionized and must also consider the possibility of "contract buy-outs" in which training costs will be reimbursed by a new employer rather than by the resigning officer. Although a "contract buy-out" can defray financial loss for the original employer, it may reduce one of the objectives of a pre-employment contract—increasing retention rates among trained and experienced officers.

Illinois State Police

ISP should work to curb pre-retirement attrition. Although there are generally sound reasons for officers leaving during the first year that are related to a lack of suitability to work in law enforcement, attrition after the first year is less easily explained and may be corrected by revising policy.

Managers should try to understand the reasons for attrition losses and formulate strategies to redress these losses. Attention should be directed to the following:

- The relatively high percentage of departures (30 percent of the total departing) that have five or fewer years of service. Departures for this group implies that promotion strategies may not be encouraging officers to remain beyond five years.

- Unless the Early Retirement Incentive plan is legislatively reenacted, the sharp increase in retirement attrition will be most acute in fiscal year 1992. To maintain current staffing levels, officers should be recruited and trained to replace those lost to retirement. However, funds were not made available to train potential replacements and no cadet training classes have been scheduled for fiscal year 1992 (Finke, October 6, 1991).[8] Illinois State Police administrators have expressed concern that legislation resulting in increased retirement attrition without the provision of resources to recruit and train replacements will negatively effect staffing levels within the ISP sworn officer corps.[9]

Entry-level attrition was particularly high for DCI officers. Lack of mobility for DCI officers may contribute to this pattern. If this is true, policy changes could reduce this trend. The relatively small percentages of attrition at the management level shown in Figure 19 suggest that DCI officers may be younger, and fewer may be eligible for retirement.

In addition, the higher attrition rates for DCI officers may be partly because DCI officers who work in undercover operations may suffer more job-related stress. Illinois State Police administrators should explore whether stress or other factors contribute to higher DCI attrition rates.

The relationship between ISP's increased educational requirement since 1988 of two years of college and a decreased washout rate for ISP's new entrants needs

further investigation. As more years of data accumulate, this relationship may become better defined.

Chapter 3

RECRUITMENT POOL CHANGES AND RECENT RECRUITMENT TRENDS

A department's ability to replace large numbers of officers lost to retirement attrition over the next five years will depend on recruitment strategies that take into account the realities of a changing recruitment pool. In the near future, recruits will be older, and they will increasingly be women and members of racial and ethnic minority groups. These changes will have a different impact on departments, depending on their location in the state. For instance, the decline in the 20- to 35-year-old cohort will have particular impact on areas outside of Cook and the collar counties. In addition, the recent recruitment trends described below do not indicate that most departments in the state have adjusted their recruitment strategies to accommodate changes in the Illinois work force. Along with demographic changes in the recruitment pool, recruitment and hiring policies will be affected by legislation mandating equal employment opportunity for workers with disabilities (see Appendix C).

The changing Illinois work force

The Illinois Department of Employment Security has projected changes in the composition of the state's work force that have critical implications for law enforcement planning. The groups of individuals that have traditionally made up officer recruitment pools are shrinking. The proportion of whites in the Illinois work force is decreasing, as are the age cohorts from which most recruits have been drawn—young people in their 20s and 30s (see Figure 23). Unless police administrators adjust their policies to confront these demographic changes, it will become increasingly difficult for them to maintain staffing levels.

In addition to changes in the composition of the labor force, the Illinois Department of Commerce and Community Affairs has reported that between the years 1980 and 2000, the demand for workers is expected to increase significantly faster than the supply. Current projections estimate that the Illinois economy will generate 770,000 new jobs during this period. At the same time, the Illinois adult population will increase by only 558,000. This scenario raises labor shortage concerns that are heightened by projected declines in the size of the 20- to 35-year-old age group. That age group has traditionally had the highest rate of participation

Figure 23 State of Illinois Labor force growth by race 1980 - 2000			
Race	Projected size of labor force in 2000 (in thousands)	Change from 1980	
		Population increase/decrease (in thousands)	% change
White	4,640.1	148.9	3.3
Black	864.0	206.6	31.4
Hispanic	587.2	308.6	107.7

Labor force growth by age 1980 - 2000			
Age	Projected size of labor force in 2000 (in thousands)	Change from 1980	
		Population increase/decrease (in thousands)	% change
16 - 19	386.5	-56.4	-12.7
20 - 24	607.1	-196.6	-24.5
25 - 34	1,366.9	-78.0	-5.4

Source: Illinois Department of Employment Security

in the labor force. With that group shrinking, new methods will need to be developed to encourage other age groups' participation (*Five Year Plan 1990–1995.* 1990). In short, law enforcement recruitment policies should be developed that focus on the emerging minorities and females in the labor force to offset critical shortages in department staffing levels.

Changes in the age distribution of the Illinois work force will be more dramatic for regions outside of Chicago and its suburbs (Figure 24). This is particularly the case for the age cohort that has traditionally provided the recruitment pool for law enforcement agencies, people between the ages of 20 and 35.

Comparison of officers hired to those leaving

Illinois police department hiring patterns from 1986 to 1990 do not reveal major fluctuation in hiring patterns for any of the characteristics reported here (Figure 25). There was a consistent decrease in the percentage of white officers hired during that period and a slight increase in the percentage of males hired.

The education level of newly hired officers was higher in both 1986 and 1990 than that of officers terminated in the same period. There is a slight indication that some white and male officers have been replaced by minorities and women. These replacements have benefitted minorities more than women. The magnitude of this change does not reflect the increasing numbers of women and minorities in the work force, however.

Analysis of hiring patterns in sheriffs' departments indicates that the percentage of minorities hired from 1986 to 1990 fluctuated, with small increases in minority hiring. Those increases must have been followed by decreases that are not obvious in Figure 26, however. From 1986 to 1988, the percentage of white deputies hired decreased from 96 percent to 92 percent, but rose over the following two years to 98 percent.

In 1987 the percentage of male officers hired by sheriffs' departments—90 percent—was the lowest percentage of men hired by either municipal or county law enforcement agencies during the five-year period.

The demographic characteristics of sheriffs' departments in 1990 are essentially the same as they were in 1986. It should be noted that this is a short time frame in which to establish a trend, but it does provide an indication of short-term patterns. With the exception of educational level, which is higher for officers hired, comparison of sheriffs' police officers hired to those terminated suggests

Figure 24 Age cohort change for Cook and the collar counties and the rest of Illinois: 1980 - 2000			
Cook and collar counties			
Age cohort	1980	2000	% change
20 - 24	655,431	493,171	-25
25 - 35	563,660	573,302	2
Rest of Illinois			
Age cohort	1980	2000	% change
20 - 24	417,986	281,184	-33
25 - 35	658,152	524,572	-20

Figure 25 Profile of officers hired by Illinois police departments in 1986 and 1990*					
Year	Average age at hire	Average education level	% white	% male	Officers hired
1986	28	13.5	98	91	335
1990	27	13.6	93	93	648

Profile of officers terminated by Illinois police departments from 1986 to 1990 N = 1,623			
Average age at hire	Average education level	% white	% male
28	12.93	97	95

* Excludes Chicago Police Department.

Figure 26
Profile of officers hired by Illinois sheriffs' departments in 1986 and 1990

Year	Average age at hire	Average education level	% white	% male	Officers hired
1986	30	13.4	96	97	77
1990	30	13.2	98	94	99

Profile of officers terminated by Illinois sheriffs' departments from 1986 to 1990
N = 336

Average age at hire	Average education level	% white	% male
32	12.82	97	93

that officers who leave and those replacing them have similar characteristics. Overall, change has been minimal.

Recruitment

In Illinois, between 1979 and 1989, there was an 18-percent decrease in the 20-35 age cohort, the prime police recruitment target group. Some suburban Illinois departments are concerned about a shortage in qualified applicants (Baker, 1989).

The Chicago Police Department

In Chicago, the recruitment pool is not a problem. The recruitment pool for the Chicago Police Department appears to be deep enough to meet projected attrition rates. There were 37,300 applicants for 600 hundred new positions in 1991 (Recktenwald, 1991a). Seventy percent of the 37,300 applicants were racial minorities and 30 percent were women, while the vast majority of retirement-eligible officers are white and male. The increase in minority representation that can be expected will make the department more representative of the Chicago community at large. While whites currently make up 68 percent of all Chicago police officers, according to 1990 U.S. Census data only 37 percent of Chicago residents are white (Figure 27).

The overrepresentation of male and white officers in the Chicago Police Department increases with rank. In the summer of 1991, 14 percent of the department was female. Although there were no women at the rank of captain, there were two female commanders and three women in directors' positions, a position equivalent to the service rank of commander. Although minorities were represented at the executive level, they were not well represented at mid-management levels (see Chapter 4). In late 1991, the department pledged to double the number of merit promotions to career enhancement positions for minorities from 15 to 30 percent. With this change, if 20 officers were promoted by merit, then 30 percent—six or seven officers—would be minorities (Ortiz, 1991).[10]

Opponents of affirmative action have argued that women and minorities are being hired regardless of applicant quality. However, there is reason to believe that the increased representation of minorities and women will, in fact, result in a better-educated force. Minority officers have equivalent years of education on average to their white counterparts on the force. Furthermore, women have more years of education than men (Figure 28).

Figure 27
Minorities in the Chicago population and the Chicago Police Department in 1991

	Chicago population	Chicago Police Department
White	37%	68%
Black	38%	24%
Hispanic	19%	7%
Asian	4%	0.5%
Native American	2%	0.5%

Figure 28
Average education levels in the Chicago Police Department in 1991

	Average education level
White officers	12.9
Minority officers	12.9
Male officers	12.9
Female officers	13.1

Thus, the real concern is not the educational qualifications of minority and female recruits but whether the volume of qualified new recruits will be sufficient to offset attrition rates. A large number of applicants, passing through a slow and extended selection process, poses serious problems for a department facing large-scale, but somewhat unpredictable retirement over the next decade. The president of the Illinois Fraternal Order of Police, John Dineen, said that Chicago was understaffed by 737 police officers in the beginning of 1991 (Recktenwald, 1991a). By January 2, 1992, the department had hired 1,017 officers.

Illinois outside Chicago

The Authority's 1990 survey of 567 police chiefs and 75 sheriffs provides insight in to policies that have influenced recent trends in recruitment and hiring (see Appendix B for methodology). The survey identified policies used during 1989 in Illinois police and sheriffs' departments, such as residency requirements, recruitment targeting, and hiring screening processes.

Hiring policies

Hiring policies such as affirmative action plans, collective bargaining agreements, and residency requirements for employment are indicators of how departments make recruitment, hiring, and promotion decisions. Residency requirements mean that recruits must become residents of the communities served by the department hiring them. The existence of an affirmative action plan suggests a commitment to recruitment, hiring, and promotion of minorities and women. Unionization and the existence of collective bargaining agreements means that administrators must respond to officers' grievances against recruitment, hiring, and promotion decisions.

Fifty-eight percent of police departments and 84 percent of sheriffs' departments responding to the Authority's administrators' survey have residency requirements for employment (Figure 29). Thirty percent of police departments and 39 percent of sheriffs' departments have affirmative action plans. Thirty-three percent of police departments and 64 percent of sheriffs' departments have collective bargaining agreements.

As department size increases, the percentage of departments with residency requirements, affirmative action plans, and collective bargaining increases.

Figure 29
Departments that have residency requirements, affirmative action plans, and collective bargaining agreements

Police departments

Department size						
Policies	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)	All depts. (N=567)
Residency requirement	11	179	75	36	26	327 (58%)
Affirmative action plan	6	59	48	30	26	169 (30%)
Collective bargaining	3	38	67	48	33	189 (33%)

Sheriffs' departments

Department size						
Policies	1* (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)	All depts. (N=75)
Residency requirement	-	30	13	14	6	63 (84%)
Affirmative action plan	-	9	6	8	6	29 (39%)
Collective bargaining	-	16	11	14	7	48 (64%)

* There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Departments with 50 or more officers are most likely, and departments with 10 or fewer officers are least likely, to have all three.

This pattern is true more of police than of sheriffs' departments. Small and medium-sized sheriffs' departments (2–10, 11–25, and 26–49 officers) are more likely to have residency requirements, suggesting emphasis upon local recruitment and in-house promotion. Small departments (2–10 and 11–25 officers) are less likely to have affirmative action plans and collective bargaining agreements.

As discussed in Chapter 2 of this report, outside of Chicago, police and sheriffs' departments are increasing their minority representation by very slight margins (see Figure 2). The ability to recruit ethnic and racial minorities is somewhat restricted for departments outside of Cook and the collar counties. According to the 1990 U.S. Census, metropolitan Chicago was 39 percent white and Illinois outside of metropolitan Chicago was 87 percent white. However, there are metropolitan areas outside of Cook and the collar counties that have relatively large minority populations. For example, police departments that responded to the Authority's administrators' survey included Rockford (19 percent minority), Alton (24 percent minority), Peoria (22 percent minority), and Springfield (14 percent minority) (1990 U.S. Census). Of large departments that actively recruit, only 22 percent of police departments and 11 percent of sheriffs' departments target minorities and women. The low percentages of women (who are evenly dispersed throughout the state) and minorities in departments outside of Chicago suggest that significant numbers of minorities and women are not consistently being recruited, hired, or retained. Sixty-eight percent of the largest police departments and 75 percent of the largest sheriffs' departments report that they have affirmative action plans.

Education and experience targets

Statewide, approximately 75 percent of police departments and 68 percent of sheriffs' departments actively recruit from certain groups or specific recruitment pools. However, responses to a question asking which groups are targeted for recruitment indicated that administrators tend to focus recruitment activities on those with previous job experience, high school graduates, or those with some college more than they focus on college graduates, minorities, or women.

Large police departments tend to target more highly educated candidates and are typically more committed to hiring women and ethnic or racial minorities

than are smaller police departments (Figure 30). Small police departments tend to recruit experienced officers with high school educations. The tendency for small departments to rely on experienced officers may be due to budgetary constraints, since hiring experienced officers can defray training costs. Large sheriffs' departments have more diverse targeting patterns than smaller sheriffs' departments. As is the case with comparably sized police departments, the characteristics of the available recruitment pool are varied. However, unlike large police departments, large sheriffs' departments are the most likely to recruit experienced officers.

Screening

Background checks are the most common screening method used by Illinois law enforcement agencies. Eighty percent of police departments and 89 percent of sheriffs' departments check candidates' backgrounds before hiring them. Other types of screening are far less uniformly applied:

- Thirty-eight percent of police departments and 37 percent of sheriffs' departments have no physical hiring restrictions, such as vision or age.
- Thirty-eight percent of police departments and 52 percent of sheriffs' departments do no drug screening.
- Fifty-six percent of police departments and 73 percent of sheriffs departments do not use psychological testing.

Regardless of department size, age and vision are the most common physical hiring restrictions used in Illinois law enforcement agencies (Figure 31). In contrast, fewer than one-fifth of police departments and sheriffs' departments use weight and height to restrict hiring.

Medium-sized and large police departments, those with 26 officers or more, are more likely to conduct psychological and drug screening of potential officers (Figure 32). A clear majority of police departments employing 11 or more officers use these screening techniques, in contrast to less than 30 percent of the smallest departments employing 10 officers or fewer. Although the relationship between department size and drug and psychological screening is also evident for sheriffs' departments, the relationship is not as strong. It should be noted that the number

Figure 30
Percentage of departments targeting certain areas of recruiting*

Police departments

Department size					
Hiring target	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)
Experience	41	44	18	21	32
GED	4	9	7	3	11
High school	20	25	21	5	21
Some college	13	17	21	25	34
College degree	4	9	10	18	42
Female/Minority	6	9	13	28	50
No targeting	22	21	35	31	21
No recruiting	41	38	38	34	18

Sheriffs' departments

Department size					
Hiring target	1** (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)
Experience	-	25	38	40	63
GED	-	3	13	-	13
High school	-	11	19	13	25
Some college	-	6	31	33	38
College degree	-	8	25	13	13
Female/Minority	-	6	19	20	13
No targeting	-	33	31	20	13
No recruiting	-	33	25	33	25

* Totals may not equal 100% due to multiple responses.
** There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Figure 31
Percentage of agencies with certain hiring restrictions*

Police departments

Department size						
Restriction	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)	All depts. (N=567)
Age	28	34	80	75	79	50
Height	2	6	31	30	21	14
Weight	7	9	34	36	34	19
Vision	24	18	73	79	71	40
No restriction	61	54	6	8	16	38

Sheriffs' departments

Department size						
Restriction	1** (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)	All depts. (N=75)
Age	-	39	25	73	63	45
Height	-	3	-	13	25	7
Weight	-	6	-	27	25	11
Vision	-	14	25	33	5	24
No restriction	-	56	38	-	25	37

* Totals may not equal 100% due to multiple responses.
** There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Figure 32
Percentage of agencies using in-house and outside professional psychological and drug screening as part of the hiring process*

Police departments

Department size						
Part of the hiring process	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=61)	All depts. (N=567)
Psychological screening	6	23	78	90	82	44
Drug screening	13	29	69	72	82	44
No policy in place for drug screening	65	52	15	12	8	38

Sheriffs' departments

Department size						
Part of the hiring process	1** (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)	All depts. (N=75)
Psychological screening	-	14	31	53	25	27
Drug screening	-	11	31	20	63	23
No policy in place for drug screening	-	72	50	27	13	52

* Totals may not equal 100% due to multiple responses.
** There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

of sheriffs' administrators responding to the screening questions was too small to make conclusive interpretations.

Figure 32 indicates that approximately 72 percent of the smallest sheriffs' departments and 54 percent of the smallest police departments (1–10 officers) do not screen for drugs as part of their hiring procedure. The use of both in-house and outside professional drug screening increases with size for police and sheriffs' departments.

Significantly, most police and sheriffs' departments do not use drug screening as part of the promotion process (Figure 33).

Because large departments often have larger budgets and greater resources, they are in a better position to use outside professional psychological and drug screening services. This is reflected in the relationship between department size and the use of professional screening services (Figure 34).

This pattern is stronger for police departments than for sheriffs' departments. A clear majority of police departments and a near majority of sheriffs' departments employing 26 or more officers use professional screening services. The relationship between department size (and resources) and professional drug and psychological screening is most evident in a comparison of small departments employing one to 10 officers and larger departments employing 50 or more. These services are used by less than 20 percent of small police and sheriffs' departments, but by 50 percent or more of large departments.

Who makes hiring and promotion decisions?

The degree to which hiring and promotion decisions are determined within departments themselves depends upon whether or not the departments' hiring and promotion processes are under the authority of a board of police and fire commissioners or a civil service commission. Commissions' authority can extend to the appointment of all members of police and fire departments, including the chief of police and chief of the fire department (Ill.Rev.Stat., ch. 24, par. 10-2.1-4).

Hiring and promotion processes in municipal police departments that employ 11 or more officers are often governed by boards or commissions (Figures 35 and 36). Smaller departments rely more heavily on personal interviewing in hiring and promotion. This suggests that smaller departments have more direct internal control over hiring and promotion.

Figure 33
Percentage of departments that do not have a drug screening policy in place at the time of promotion

Police departments

	Department size					
	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)	All depts. (N=567)
No policy in place for drug screening at the time of promotion	80	76	73	66	87	75

Sheriffs' departments

	Department size					
	1* (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)	All depts. (N=75)
No policy in place for drug screening at the time of promotion	-	75	75	80	88	77

* There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Figure 34
Percentage of departments that use outside professional testing*

Police departments

Department size						
Professional testing used	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)	All depts. (N=567)
Psychological	7	18	75	79	82	40
Drug	7	20	55	61	71	34

Sheriffs' departments

Department size						
Professional testing used	1** (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)	All depts. (N=75)
Psychological	-	17	19	53	50	28
Drug	-	11	19	40	63	24

* Totals may not equal 100% due to multiple responses.
** There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Figure 35
Percentage of departments that use different components as part of their hiring process*

Police departments

Department size						
Hiring process	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)	All depts. (N=567)
Interview	52	60	9	10	13	40
Hiring authority**	50	52	96	100	97	69

Sheriffs' departments

Department size						
Hiring process	1*** (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)	All depts. (N=75)
Interview	-	72	50	27	50	56
Hiring authority****	-	25	50	100	88	52

* Totals may not equal 100% due to multiple responses.
** Includes board and civil services.
*** There are no sheriffs' departments this size.
**** Includes board, civil service, and merit board.

Figure 36
Percentage of departments that use different components as part of their promotion process*

Police departments

Department size						
Promotion process	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)	All depts. (N=567)
Interview	39	55	12	21	18	39
Promotion authority**	39	48	97	98	97	66

Sheriffs' departments

Department size						
Promotion process	1*** (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)	All depts. (N=75)
Interview	-	67	50	33	63	56
Promotion authority****	-	19	50	100	75	48

* Totals may not equal 100% due to multiple responses.
** Includes board and civil services.
*** There are no sheriffs' departments this size.
**** Includes board, civil service, and merit board.

Since counties are not statutorily mandated to have civil service or police and fire board commissions, sheriffs' departments rely on personal departmental interviews to make hiring and promotion decisions. Regardless of department size, sheriffs' departments are influenced less in hiring and promotion by outside factors than are municipal police departments.

Policy considerations

Recruitment and hiring strategies need to be geared to the realities of a changing labor force in Illinois. Departments should increase their recruiting of women and minorities, whose representation in the Illinois law enforcement officer corps, outside of Chicago, is minimal.

The degree to which the recruitment of experienced officers before others continues could determine the degree to which not only women and minorities, but also college-educated officers, will be added to the corps. Educational advancement of active officers has decreased with the demise of the Law Enforcement Education Program in 1984, and fewer officers in recent years have chosen to pursue associate's or bachelor's degrees (see Chapter 4). Relying on recruits who are experienced rather than those with college degrees could negate efforts to create a more educated police corps.

To correct the disparities in hiring policies across Illinois, uniform, legislatively mandated hiring standards should be considered. To assist those departments that do not have the resources to improve their screening procedures, it may be appropriate to allocate funds at the state level to make regional or countywide professional screening procedures available to the many smaller departments in the state.

1991 saw increased public attention to police behavior resulting from negative media coverage of police brutality in Los Angeles and charges of racism and incompetence by Milwaukee police officers. These cases emphasize departments' accountability for officers' behavior. Attempts to ensure the suitability of candidates for police work should begin at the time of hiring. Testing for drug use and psychological testing are two common screening techniques that add to the thoroughness of pre-hiring screening procedures.

Chapter 4

PATTERNS IN RETENTION

In addition to affecting manpower needs at the departmental level, the officer corps' age composition affects officers' career experiences. Active officers pass a series of milestones or career junctures between recruitment and leaving the force. The potential for recruitment and promotion at each career juncture is largely determined by the age of the individual officer and by the age of officers within each rank of the department.

However, aging is not the only variable affecting career patterns. Education, gender, and minority status also affect officers' career experiences. In addition, career patterns are affected by department size and rank structure. Officers employed by the Bethalto Police Department, a department of 10, will have different career patterns from those in the Joliet Police Department, a department of 176 sworn officers in 1990. The rank structure of the Illinois State Police is likely to create a different set of career patterns than the Chicago Police Department's rank structure. To identify these differences, this analysis has sought answers to the following questions:

- What are the career patterns associated with officer characteristics such as age, gender, race, education, and length of service at each rank?

- If career patterns suggest that older officers with increased education and years of service are concentrated in higher ranks, do officers in lower ranks have the necessary education and skills to perform as adequate replacements?

- What effect does opportunity for promotion have upon officer career patterns?

- How common are non-traditional promotion policies, such as lateral transfer, and what effect do such policies have on officer career mobility patterns?

The analysis that follows is based on a random stratified sample drawn from the Police Training Board database of 741 municipal police officers and 618 sheriffs' police in Illinois who were active in 1986.

Aging at management level

The aging of the officer corps, evident throughout the rank structure, is most acute at the middle management level (Figure 37). At 45 and 47 years old respectively, managers in municipal police departments and sheriffs' departments are three to four years older than command/executive staff. Because departments in Illinois continue to favor in-house promotion, the pattern of older management is likely to be maintained in coming years, unless retiring managers are replaced by younger officers whose talents lead to early promotion.

In municipal police departments, 17.4 percent of command and executive staff, but only 4.2 percent of patrol officers are more than 50 years old. From patrol to management ranks, the percentage of officers older than 50 increased with rank: 15.3 percent of supervisors were older than 50, as were 18.7 percent of managers. This comparison again points out that managers are the oldest officers in municipal law enforcement. The tendency for more managers to remain in their departments beyond age 50 may be due to the wage differential between management and lower ranks, which makes the additional pension benefits accruing with pay increases past age 50 more of an enticement to managers than to patrol officers.

The aging of management is even more obvious for sheriffs' police than for municipal police departments. The percentage at management rank over age 50 is nearly twice as large for sheriffs' police officers (34 percent) than municipal police officers (17 percent).

In sheriffs' departments there is a somewhat similar pattern of more officers over age 50 in higher ranks. Ten percent of sheriffs' patrol officers, compared to 34 percent of managers, are past 50. Thirteen percent of supervisory staff and 14 percent of command/executive staff are past 50.

Aging dynamics such as these can influence officers' career paths and shape administrative personnel and staffing allocation decisions. From the chiefs' and sheriffs' perspectives, an older management cohort means that the collective skill and expertise of police managers may be lost to the department for some time when these managers leave. The duration of that loss will depend on the length of

Figure 37
Characteristics of officers by rank

Police departments

Rank	Number of officers	Percent male	Percent white	Average age	Average years served
Patrol	518	95	97	37	9.1
Supervisor	128	99	99	43	16.8
Manager	48	100	97	45	19.2
Command/ executive	23	100	100	42	17.2
Detective	22	95	100	41	15

Sheriffs' departments

Rank	Number of officers	Percent male	Percent white	Average age	Average years served
Patrol	428	95	93	39	11
Supervisor	100	98	95	43	15
Manager	44	95	98	47	20
Command/ executive	21	100	100	43	12

time that it takes replacements to adapt to the role and its responsibilities. With respect to officers' career experiences, such dynamics can affect career mobility and job satisfaction. Internal factors, such as pension plans, budgetary cutbacks, or promotion freezes, can determine officers' longevity, as can external factors, such as slack or tight labor markets. Excluding these factors, the age-in-rank distribution shown in Figure 37 can have the following outcomes for local and county law enforcement officers in Illinois:

- Increased entry-level recruitment. To maintain service levels, even departments with zero growth rates, but with older cohorts within each rank, will have to replace a higher percentage of patrol officers who retire or are promoted than will departments with a younger age distribution. For potential patrol officers, "older" departments can provide career openings.

- Additional opportunity for promotion. For departments that promote from within, an older cohort of managers increases the opportunity for promotion among patrol officers and supervisors. This can act as an incentive to remain with the force and improve job performance for those officers with an eye to career mobility. However, promotion potential has a down side. If career mobility is an end in itself, its unfulfilled promise can lead to a sense of stagnation and job dissatisfaction for officers passed over for promotion. This may be particularly true for college-educated officers, who view their degrees as a qualification for early promotion.

- Promotion freezes. These can increase the length of service between rank steps and can increase management problems within departments.

- Plateauing. An older age distribution throughout the ranks, and one which peaks at mid-career within management ranks, may lead to a sense of career stagnation. Older officers with longer service within a particular rank could begin to see their jobs as stabilized to the point of being too routine. This could particularly apply to the administrative tasks connected with supervision and management. For older patrol officers with longer years of service, work on the streets they once considered a challenge may no longer provide an adrenaline rush. They may increasingly feel the need to escape the intermittent physical

dangers, tedium of paperwork, and vulnerability to citizen complaints associated with patrol work (Childers, 1991).

- A Chicago Police Department commander mentioned another dimension of career mobility particularly relevant to patrol officers. As officers age, their life circumstances change. For example, the responsibilities of parenting can alter the patrol officers' attitude toward work that is inherently physically demanding and dangerous.

The Illinois State Police

The Illinois State Police Division of State Troopers is more compatible with the rank categorizations used in this analysis for purposes of comparison across departments than is the DCI rank structure. As a result, the following analysis involves all active officers in DST in 1990.

An analysis of DST officers suggests a somewhat younger corps at the patrol rank than either municipal police or sheriffs' departments (Figure 38). Unlike police and sheriffs' management staff, ISP managers are not the oldest officers in the corps, but are equivalent in age to command staff.

The difference in age and years served between patrol officers and supervisors suggests that seniority is longest between patrol and supervisory positions. The equivalent ages of managerial and command staff suggest that the mean age of command staff will increase with promotions from the managerial ranks in the future. The difference in years served for patrol officers compared to supervisors in ISP (approximately 10) when compared to police patrol officers and supervisors (eight years) and sheriffs' patrol officers and supervisors (four years), shows that length of service at the patrol/supervisory juncture may be shorter for sheriffs' deputies than for municipal police or ISP officers.

Department size and aging dynamics

The relationship of department size to age of supervisors and managers suggests that small police and sheriffs' departments (1–10 officers) have somewhat younger supervisory and managerial staff than do larger departments (Figure 39). In the case study of the Bethalto Police Department, a small department with high officer turnover, combined with promotion from within, resulted in younger-than-average officers with fewer years of service throughout the rank structure.

Figure 38
Illinois State Police
DST branch average age and average years of service by rank

Rank	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served
Patrol	1143	34.3	7.4
Supervisor	650	43.7	17.3
Manager	72	47.5	22.4
Command/executive	20	47.6	23.2

Figure 39
Supervisors and managers mean age by department size
Police departments

Department size				
Supervisors/managers	1 - 10 (N=352)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)
Number of officers	19	51	47	59
Mean age	39	43	44	44

Sheriffs' departments

Department size				
Supervisors/managers	1 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)
Number of officers	6	35	47	86
Mean age	39	40	42	46

Regardless of municipal police department size, patrol officers tend to be younger than officers at higher rank, not only because patrol is an entry-level position, but because officers who are not promoted from patrol tend to leave the force, moving "up or out." Across departments, only a small percentage of patrol officers remain on the force past age 50 (Figure 40). Larger percentages of officers in patrol stay on past 50 in sheriffs' departments, even though sheriffs' police are eligible for early retirement under the Illinois Municipal Retirement Fund. This enhanced retirement plan, which is available to sheriffs' departments and not municipal police departments, provides for full pension at age 50 with 20 years of service. Generally, for municipal police departments included in this study, pension plans, whether IMRF or independent, provide pensions at age 55 with 20 years of service. In some instances, full pension benefits are not provided until age 60. It may be that sheriffs' police officers staying past age 50 do not have the 20 years service required for an early retirement at full pension. There are other possibilities for exploration in further research:

- Are the job demands in smaller sheriffs' departments (fewer than 50 officers) less demanding than larger sheriffs' departments? In rural areas, the "action" on patrol may be limited. This would reduce the physical demands on older patrol officers.

- To what extent does the patrol work in municipal police departments differ from patrol work in sheriffs' departments? Are these differences contributing to the greater tendency for sheriffs' police officers in patrol to leave their departments after reaching 50?

  It is interesting that the percentage of sheriffs' police officers in patrol employed by larger sheriffs' departments who stay past age 50 is closest to the percentages for municipal police departments. If the nature of patrol has something to do with these differences, it may be that patrol work for larger sheriffs' departments may have similarities to municipal police patrol that are not found in smaller sheriffs' departments.

- Are patrol officers in police departments and larger sheriffs' departments more likely to be promoted to higher rank before reaching age 50?

Figure 40
Percentage of officers in patrol that are 50 years of age or older by department size
Police departments

Department size				
Officers in patrol	1 - 10 (N=352)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)
Number of officers	72	131	108	207
≥ 50 years old	7%	1.5%	2%	6%

Sheriffs' departments				
Department size				
Officers in patrol	1 - 10 (N=6)	11 - 25 (N=35)	26 - 49 (N=47)	50+ (N=86)
Number of officers	6	35	47	86
≥ 50 years old	14%	20%	24%	7%

The longer average years of service for sheriffs' police in patrol statewide (11 years compared to municipal police patrol officers' 9.1) would not indicate this. But sheriffs' police patrol officers have only four years fewer service than do supervisors in sheriffs' departments. This suggests somewhat faster promotion in sheriffs' departments than in municipal police departments. These measurements of central tendency are not conclusive. Since the PTB database does not have continuous data relevant to change in rank over the course of an officer's career, this remains speculation.

Education and advancement

The 1989 Police Executive Research Forum report on the status of police education cited a seminal 1967 study in arguing that a college-educated corps increases the professionalism of policing:

"We accept higher education for the police for a variety of reasons: It gives the police [officers] greater dignity; it improves their efficiency; it enhances their image; it is important for advancement in the field of law enforcement; it enables police [officers] to recognize and deal with social problems better and more expeditiously; it professionalizes the field of law enforcement" (Smith et al, 1967, in Carter et al, 1989:128).

There is no consensus, however, that increased education, and particularly a college education, results in better job performance (Collins, 1979; Berg, 1970).

Some career officers have questioned the assumption that being a good police officer requires a college degree. To some extent, this skepticism is validated in the research literature on officer education and performance. Some researchers see the relationship between education and improved performance as spurious and suggest that the traits of a successful officer are due less to the college classroom than to a self-selection process. In other words, one of the characteristics of a successful officer is to seek self-improvement. (Hogan and Kurtines, 1975; Topp and Kardash, 1977). Although college-educated officers tend to receive higher evaluations, these ratings are not the result of their college educations but are due to the fact that they, as a group, are more likely to possess the traits of success (Eskridge, 1989).

However, arguments tying education to police professionalism do tend to outweigh those questioning the connection (Carter et al, 1989; Langworthy, 1989;

Eskridge, 1989; Goldstein, 1977). On the whole, police administrators interviewed for the present study saw the increased average education of the Illinois corps as positive.

Education and rank

Regardless of whether or not higher education is necessary to be an effective police officer, Illinois officers at patrol rank have fewer years of education than the older supervisors and managers they will be replacing through promotion.

On average, police officers and sheriffs' police officers in a sample drawn from the PTB database have educational levels of approximately 1.5 years beyond high school (sheriffs' police 13.5 years total of education; municipal police officers 13.7). There is a positive relationship between current education, educational change from time of hire, and rank (Figure 41). Education peaks at management level for municipal police officers and at supervisory level for sheriffs' police officers.

In 1990, managers and executives in police and sheriffs' departments had somewhat higher levels of education than officers at other ranks. In addition, they increased their education from time of hire somewhat more than officers at lower ranks. Municipal police managers and executives had equivalent educational levels of more than 14 years, more than one year more than supervisors.

Managers and executives in sheriffs' departments had increased education from time of hire by more than one year, more than have other officers. However, unlike municipal police officers, whose education increased with rank, sheriffs' police officers' education is equivalent across ranks.

Since current information on degrees earned was not available in the PTB database, years of education equivalent to degree completion can be used as an indication of the extent to which Illinois has moved toward having a college-educated corps. In 1990, these percentages of municipal and sheriffs' officers had the following levels of education:

- 38 percent: 12 years (high school)
- 41 percent: 13 to 15 years (some college)
- 16 percent: 16 years (college)
- 4 percent: 17 or more years (post-undergraduate/graduate school)

Figure 41
In-service education by rank
1990 (in years)

Police departments

Rank	Number of officers	Average years of education at hire	Average years of current education	Change in education (in years)
Patrol	344	13.2	13.5	.3
Supervisor	85	12.7	13.7	1
Manager	34	12.4	14.9	2.5
Command/ executive	14	12.4	14.7	2.3
Detective	22	12.5	13.5	1

Sheriffs' departments

Rank	Number of officers	Average years of education at hire	Average years of current education	Change in education (in years)
Patrol	428	12.8	13.5	.7
Supervisor	100	12.9	13.8	.9
Manager	44	12.2	13.7	1.5
Command/ executive	21	12.4	13.6	1.2

The educational level of the Illinois corps is better than that of police departments across the country. In 1988, 45 percent of police officers nationally had two or more years of college. Sixty-one percent of the Illinois corps, both sheriffs' police and municipal police officers, had equivalent years of education.

Some command staff in the Chicago Police Department staff saw disadvantages to college-educated officers. They suggested that college-educated officers may be likely to expect promotion after shorter periods on the force and express dissatisfaction if their expectations were not met.

Most Illinois police and sheriffs' departments require a high school education, or its equivalent, a GED (Figure 42). In 1989, the Police Executive Research Forum found that this is the basic requirement used by a majority of police departments throughout the country (Carter et al, 1989).

Although a higher percentage of police departments require education beyond high school than do sheriffs' departments, fewer than 11 percent require some college or a college degree, regardless of department size.

Police departments, more than sheriffs' departments, require some college education. However, there are few, if any, educational requirements for promotion within either type of law enforcement agency (Figure 43).

In-service education and LEEP

The Police Executive Research Forum report noted that many of today's police managers furthered their education in the federal Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP), which existed from 1968 to 1982 (Carter et al, 1989). The PERF study found a steady increase in the average education of police officers: in 1970, only 15 percent of all officers had two or more years of college, compared to 45 percent in 1988. Under the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, LEEP provided loans and grants to criminal justice students as an incentive to enroll in degree programs and pursue law enforcement careers (Carter et al, 1989).

In 1982, the LEAA and LEEP programs ceased operation, with the last LEEP funds made available for the 1979–1980 academic year. With the demise of LEEP, the cost of officers' in-service education has shifted from the federal to the local or individual levels. In communities where income incentives and educational reimbursement have not been available, the costs of undergraduate or graduate educations must be borne by the officers themselves.

Figure 42
Formal education requirements

Police departments

Department size					
Requirements	1 (N=47)	2 - 10 (N=295)	11 - 25 (N=115)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)
GED	26%	37%	60%	58%	55%
High school	43%	48%	34%	33%	30%
Some college	-	3%	0.9%	1.7%	11%
2 years of college	-	1%	5%	10%	3%
No formal education required	19%	11%	-	1.6%	3%

Sheriffs' departments

Department size					
Requirements	1* (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=35)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)
GED	-	28%	50%	60%	63%
High school	-	50%	44%	27%	25%
Some college	-	3%	-	6.7%	-
2 years of college	-	-	-	6.7%	12.5%
No formal education required	-	17%	8%	-	-

* There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Figure 43
Formal education requirements needed for promotion

Police departments

Department size					
Education	1 (N=45)	2 - 10 (N=273)	11 - 25 (N=111)	26 - 49 (N=59)	50+ (N=36)
College hours	1 (1.8%)	10%	9%	5%	11%
Degree required	-	1%	-	7%	8%
No college education	44 (81%)	81%	87%	85%	76%

Sheriffs' departments

Department size					
Education	1* (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=30)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=7)
College hours	-	3%	-	-	-
Degree required	-	3%	-	-	-
No college education	-	78%	100%	100%	88%

* There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Assessing the impact of LEEP is beyond the scope of the present study. However, a comparison of in-service change in educational attainment for officers before and after LEEP ended can identify trends for further exploration. This kind of comparison is of course limited by the relatively fewer years during which post-LEEP cohorts could further their education. Police Training Board data for two groups of officers are compared in Figures 44 and 45. The first group, hired before 1981, had the opportunity to take advantage of LEEP's federal subsidies. The second group was hired after the program was dismantled.

An analysis of educational change by rank for the pre-1981 group revealed a positive relationship between education and rank. Illinois patrol officers hired before 1981 increased their average education by approximately one year from time of hire to present (from 12.6 to 13.5 years).

With the exception of detectives, officers at all ranks in the pre-1981 group increased their education by nearly a year or more. Officers in management and command staff positions began their service with less education, but by 1990 had increased their education more than officers at lower ranks. The positive relationship between rank and educational levels can be seen as an indication of the ambition that couples upward career and educational mobility. However, it is impossible to assess with these data how influential a part additional education played in officers' promotion to higher ranks.

Officers hired from 1981 through 1990 also increased their education, but their change in mean education fell short of the change for officers hired before 1981. Officers hired at patrol level in 1981 or later began their service with higher average education (13.4 years) but did not appreciably increase their education (13.5 years).

In contrast to the pre-1981 hires, the highest educational increase among those hired from 1981 through 1990 was by managers, who increased their education by .7 years. Differences between the two groups are most extreme at the command/executive level. On average, the pre-1981 commanders and executives increased their education by two years. The increase for commanders and executives hired from 1981 through 1990 was less than six months.

This comparison is skewed in favor of the pre-1981 cohorts since it includes officers who, in some instances, had an entire career to further their education. However, it does suggest that in the 10 years following the LEEP program the momentum toward a "college-educated corps," a major LEEP objective, has slowed somewhat.

Figure 44
Comparison of educational change for officers by rank
hired before 1981 (in years)

Rank	Number of officers	Average years of education at hire	Average years of current education
Patrol	465	12.6	13.5
Supervisor	189	12.7	13.7
Manager	85	12.2	14.3
Commander/ executive	31	12.1	14.3
Detective	41	12.3	12.3

Figure 45
Comparison of educational change for officers by rank
hired from 1981 through 1990

Rank	Number of officers	Average years of education at hire	Average years of current education
Patrol	519	13.4	13.5
Supervisor	47	13.5	14.1
Manager	7	13.0	13.7
Commander/ executive	13	13.2	13.6

It also suggests that educational advances have slowed to a greater degree within management and command ranks.

Education without LEEP

With the dissolution of federal programs subsidizing officer education, this responsibility shifted to municipal and county law enforcement agencies. Since department budgets are tied to local tax bases, not all agencies have the financial resources to provide educational subsidies. Smaller departments dependent upon smaller local tax bases are less financially capable of subsidizing officers' education. Figure 46 examines the relationship between department size and the provision of educational reimbursement and/or educational incentive programs.

Police departments provide more educational benefits than do sheriffs' departments. Approximately three-quarters of sheriffs' departments with fewer than 50 officers offer no educational subsidies. Only the smallest police departments (1–10 officers) come close to this percentage. The percentage of police departments that provide no educational benefits decreases dramatically with department size. Approximately 60 percent of departments with one to 10 officers do not provide educational benefits, in comparison to 8 percent of departments with 50 officers or more. Regardless of department size, educational reimbursement is favored over incentive pay in police and sheriffs' departments.

Employee benefits

Employee benefit packages can act as inducements to join and remain in a department. Figure 47 indicates that in Illinois, health, retirement, and disability insurance are the most common benefits provided by police and sheriffs' departments. Few single-officer police departments provide benefits, and they are limited. Forty-eight percent provide disability insurance.

Promotion patterns for women and minorities: The Chicago Police Department

In his study of police sergeants nationwide, Von Maanen reported that the average time for police officers to attain sergeant rank is more than 12 years (Von Maanen, 1989). Although reaching first rung on the promotion ladder, from patrol to sergeant, seems a lengthy process in the Chicago Police Department (13.5 years), it appears to be on a par with the 16.8 mean years of service within the supervisory ranks in police departments statewide (Figure 48). In fact the length

Figure 46
Percentage of departments providing education benefits

Police departments

Department size					
Benefits	1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)
Education reimbursement	24	30	60	85	89
Education incentive pay	2	7	24	41	34
No education benefits	61	63	27	10	8

Sheriffs' departments

Department size					
Benefits	1* (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)
Education reimbursement	-	14	14	33	38
Education incentive pay	-	11	6	13	13
No education benefits	-	72	75	73	50

* There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Figure 47
Percentage of departments providing officer benefits

Police departments

Benefit	Department size 1 (N=54)	2 - 10 (N=298)	11 - 25 (N=116)	26 - 49 (N=61)	50+ (N=38)
Health insurance	20	88	99	98	97
Dental insurance	6	33	51	75	71
Life insurance	20	71	95	97	92
Eye care	4	13	17	34	42
Retirement	15	70	94	95	95
Deferred compensation	7	16	35	70	82
Disability insurance	48	66	75	69	68
Employee assistance	2	13	41	72	66

Sheriffs' departments

Benefit	Department size 1* (N=0)	2 - 10 (N=36)	11 - 25 (N=16)	26 - 49 (N=15)	50+ (N=8)
Health insurance	-	83	94	100	100
Dental insurance	-	22	31	27	63
Life insurance	-	33	75	93	88
Eye care	-	3	6	7	25
Retirement	-	92	99	100	75
Deferred compensation	-	14	29	53	75
Disability insurance	-	42	63	67	63
Employee assistance	-	16	6	40	63

* There are no sheriffs' departments this size.

Figure 48
Age and years served prior to rank attainment
in the Chicago Police Department

Rank	Number of officers	Average age at rank attainment	Average years served prior to rank attainment
Sergeant	1,243	38.5	13.5
Lieutenant	316	44.4	20.0
Captain	143	48.1	23.7

of service between rank steps in the Chicago Police Department is likely to increase because of recent promotion freezes implemented in response to a critical shortage of patrol officers (Recktenwald, 1991a). This may increase management problems within the department.

If the promotion process is viewed as lengthy, ambitious officers can become frustrated. CPD commanders interviewed thought this was particularly true for college-educated officers who are more likely to expect that a degree puts them on a "fast promotional track." When it becomes clear that there is no such track, their job dissatisfaction can contribute to personnel/management problems.

With the largest percentage of minorities and women in the Illinois officer corps, the Chicago Police Department provides an opportunity to monitor the career paths of officers in those groups. CPD promotion policy is based on a combination of seniority, testing, and affirmative action programs. The CPD rank structure has not been categorized according to function to provide more specific information on career paths. The following analysis includes officers with the job titles police officer (patrol), sergeant, lieutenant, captain, district commander, and detective, as of June 1991.[11]

Women

In 1990, across ranks, female officers were younger than male officers and had served fewer years (Figure 49). At first glance, this suggests differential treatment of female officers in the promotion process, since female officers had been promoted to the ranks of sergeant, lieutenant, and detective with fewer years of service. However, the ratio of promotions to total numbers of males and females suggests the opposite at the rank of sergeant, the first rung on the promotional ladder. In 1990, there was one female sergeant for every 15 female patrol officers, compared to one male sergeant for every 6 male patrol officers. This can, in part, be explained by their comparatively shorter length of service. Although the longest service in 1990 for women was that of lieutenants (17.6 years), male officers at this rank had comparable length of service to that of captains, with an average of 25 years.

As women increase their seniority, they should increase their potential for promotion to senior ranks within management and command staff. However, this potential may be hampered if a disproportionate number of female officers are doing administrative work rather than gaining "front line" patrol experience. In

Figure 49
Chicago Police Department officers age and years of service by gender in 1990

	Women			Men		
Rank	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served
Patrol	1,352	36.7	6.4	7,348	42.4	15.5
Sergeant	88	41.8	14.2	1,148	47.0	22.5
Lieutenant	8	44.3	17.6	272	49.8	25.4
Detective	46	41.0	12.4	857	47.0	22.5

interviews, CPD command staff unanimously agreed that patrol experience is viewed as an important element in officers' training and experience. They expressed concern that the traditional criteria for career mobility in the department may change to accommodate officers who have not developed the knowledge and skills at the patrol level that are essential for effective supervision and management (interviews with Chicago Police Department command staff, June 11, 1991).

Minorities

At first glance, Figure 50 suggests that career patterns for white officers and black officers are not dissimilar. Age and years of service at all ranks are fairly comparable for both groups, although black patrol officers, district commanders, and detectives have served fewer years than white officers at those ranks. In addition, the rate of promotion for Hispanic officers appears to be faster than the rate of promotion for other ethnic groups. However, the ratio of promotions to total number of officers in the corps for these ethnic groups suggests a disparity in promotion patterns. Given the total numbers of these groups of officers on the force, higher percentages of black officers (84 percent) and Hispanic officers (87 percent) than white officers (74 percent) are at patrol level. This can be explained by increased hiring of minorities in recent years.

At the ranks of sergeant, lieutenant, and district commander, the number of officers at those ranks is proportionate to their total numbers on the force for all ethnic groups. However, at the ranks of captain and detective, this comparability breaks down. Although one out of every four officers on the force is black, there is one black captain for every 29 white captains and one black detective for every 12 white detectives. The fewer average years of service for black (17 years) than for white detectives (22 years) could explain some of the disparity for detectives. However, at the rank of captain, black officers and white officers have served approximately the same number of years on average. Given the smaller numbers of black officers on the force, there may be few black officers relative to white officers who have the requisite average of 28 years of service to attain the rank of captain. As more black officers increase their years of service, differences at this rank may disappear.

Age and years of service of Native American and Asian patrol officers were similar in 1990, and like Hispanic officers, both groups were younger and had less service years in the two largest groups (Figures 50 and 51). However, unlike

Figure 50
Chicago Police Department average age and average years of service by ethnic group and rank in 1990

Black police officers			
Rank	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served
Patrol	2,298	40	11
Sergeant	297	48	22
Lieutenant	51	50	24
Captain	3	55	28
District commander	9	51	26
Detective	67	45	17

White police officers			
Rank	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served
Patrol	5,708	43	16
Sergeant	868	46	22
Lieutenant	220	50	25
Captain	88	54	29
District commander	12	57	33
Detective	816	48	22

Hispanic police officers			
Rank	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served
Patrol	638	36	8
Sergeant	68	45	18
Lieutenant	9	45	22
Captain	1	45	23
District commander	4	47	23
Detective	16	47	14

Figure 51
Chicago Police Department average age and average years of service by rank and ethnic group

	Native American officers			Asian officers		
Rank	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served	Number of officers	Average age	Average years served
Patrol	18	34	7	38	36	7
Sergeant	0	-	-	3	45	19
Lieutenant	0	-	-	0	-	-
Captain	0	-	-	0	_	-
District commander	0	-	-	0	-	-
Detective	1	47	21	3	35	11

Hispanic officers, these officers had either not been promoted to higher rank (Native Americans) or, if promoted (Asians), had not gone beyond the rank of sergeant. This is again, in part, related to their smaller numbers and shorter years of service.

In the case of black officers and white officers who had earlier entry to the force and were represented in greater numbers, patterns for years of service and age in all ranks were somewhat similar. However, the proportion of those promoted from their respective groups was not equivalent for the ranks of captain and detective. The disparity in the numbers of Native Americans and Asians is a reflection of the smaller percentage of those applying to enter the force: a total of 2 percent of the applicant pool in 1991 was Native American and Asian, compared to 18.3 percent black women, 34.6 percent black men, 3.2 percent Hispanic women, and 11.4 percent Hispanic men (Speilman, 1991).

Sheriffs' departments: Career mobility patterns of minorities and women

The numbers of women and minorities beyond patrol rank in the sample sheriffs' departments were too small to draw conclusions concerning officers' career mobility beyond the observation that women and minorities have been hired more recently than white men, which means that there are proportionately fewer women and minorities above the patrol level. Women and minorities seeing few of their peers at higher levels may also leave sheriffs' departments early because of the perception of a lack of promotion opportunity. From the PTB sample total of 618 sheriffs' police officers, two women out of a total of 28 were supervisors and two were managers. Twenty-five black sheriffs' police officers and five Hispanic officers were in patrol. Three black officers and two Hispanic officers were supervisors. There was one Hispanic manager in the sample. In contrast to the Chicago Police Department, where black officers are found at all rank levels, black sheriffs' police officers do not have a mobility pattern similar to whites. Black officers in the sample had not been promoted beyond the supervisory level.

Policy considerations

In summary, officers at supervisory and managerial ranks in large departments are the oldest officers in the Illinois corps. These departments will be losing invaluable skills of an experienced cadre of officers unless they are able to promote comparable replacements. Since few police and sheriffs' departments in Illinois

use lateral entry, and those that do restrict the policy to entry-level positions, administrators will primarily rely on in-house promotions. This will make it particularly important to retain those officers who demonstrate potential for promotion. In addition, the present study shows an erosion in the educational attainment of officers at management and command ranks since the demise of the federally funded Law Enforcement Education Program in the early 1980s. This suggests that Illinois may lose officers to retirement whose replacements will not have the same opportunity to increase their education, unless their departments offer educational reimbursement or compensation programs. However, the financial constraints facing many departments may make this impossible.

Comparison of officer career mobility patterns and retention rates suggests that women and minority officers are not being promoted in the same ratios as white and male officers. This analysis also found that female officers are leaving their departments after a few years of service. These findings suggest that retention and promotion patterns of women and minorities should be examined in further research.

The inability of small departments to retain experienced officers is costly in terms of training and potentially damaging to department performance throughout the rank structure. Small departments are less likely to provide non-wage inducements such as educational reimbursement programs, life and health insurance associated with the retention of trained and experienced officers.

A department's ability to retain officers will, in part, be determined by its ability to provide competitive salaries. Department administrators identified pay as being one of the most frequent reasons for officer resignations. However, job advancement and career change were also cited as frequent reasons for departures. This suggests that non-wage job incentives, such as improved benefit packages, in-service training programs, and educational reimbursement policies, could improve department retention rates by convincing experienced officers to remain with their departments. However, such incentives may be financially impractical for those departments that could most benefit from them. Small departments could consider implementing pre-employment contracts to recoup the cost of training officers who leave within the first few years of service (see the Bethalto case study in Chapter 5). In addition, as suggested by the Bethalto Police Department case study, officer resignations may not be in response to comparative wage differentials but to staffing allocation policies, such as physically and psychologically demanding shift rotations.

Department promotion policies have resulted in female and minority groupings at patrol and lower supervisory levels. Although increased length of service for these officers who entered their forces later than whites and males can reverse this trend, department administrators should ensure that equitable promotion opportunities are in place within their departments.

The lack of uniform screening policies for promotion as well as hiring can only be addressed at the state level. As discussed in Chapter 3, possible legislation mandating uniform hiring and promotion standards, accompanied by funds made available to those departments that lack the financial resources to implement those standards, might help correct the current disparity in hiring and promotion policies across the state.

Chapter 5

CASE STUDIES

The case studies that follow are not intended to be comprehensive in nature. They were conducted on-site to provide additional information on departmental human resources policies and planning within the context of the community served. The most important role of the case studies is to provide detailed local-level policy analysis to complement the broader statistical analysis of this study.

Joliet Police Department

Joliet, Illinois, is a community of 80,000 located 39 miles southwest of Chicago. Situated along the Illinois waterway system, Joliet is an ideal hub for water, rail, and interstate transportation. Historically, this access to transportation attracted manufacturing, but, in the recession of the early 1980s, Joliet's industrial base almost disappeared. Like many cities, its economic base is now becoming service-oriented, and Joliet's fastest growing industry is health care. Joliet's proximity to Chicago and its affordable housing are attracting new residents. New home construction is the highest in 50 years. Since 1980, Joliet's population gains offset its losses, posting a modest increase of 3 percent.

From 1967 to 1990, the Joliet Police Department grew from an authorized strength of 82 sworn officers to 170. Undoubtedly, the increase in the number of officers over this 23-year period mirrors community growth and a concomitant rise in calls for service.

In late 1966 and again in early 1970, two independent studies were commissioned by the Joliet Police Department. Both studies corresponded to changes in senior management and were intended to provide management with a picture of departmental operations. The first, conducted by the Public Administration Service of Chicago, reviewed the organization, management, and operations of the department. The study recommended organizational changes, centralizing some operations, developing personnel management guidelines, and increasing training in order to improve policing. A significant increase in the number of officers (from 80 to 117) was proposed, to accommodate these structural changes and to improve service. Few of these recommendations were actually implemented.

The 1970 study, conducted by the Field Operations Division of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), critiqued the department's operations, recommending additional organizational changes to remedy the redundant and confusing nature of the department's state of operations. Staffing remained the same but was redistributed, especially at the command level, where supervisory personnel were increased.

The largest increases in department growth occurred between 1967 and 1973. In the last 10 years, growth has been relatively constant.

Recently, there has been a major change in management. The current chief, Dennis E. Nowicki, was appointed in 1989. His predecessor, Fredrick W. Breen, served as chief for 17 years. Chief Nowicki's views of policing have had a strong impact on the deployment of officers and the organizational structure needed to support it.

In 1989, the department reviewed its manpower allocations. From 1983 to 1988, there had been increases in calls for service and in reported crime. Overall, calls for service increased 59.8 percent, total arrests were up 52.8 percent (adult and juvenile), and moving violation citations increased 48.3 percent. Using a standard formula developed by Northwestern University and based on Joliet Police Department data for the first six months of 1989, staffing needs to meet basic patrol responsibilities were estimated at 115, an increase of 23 officers. The formula assumes an ideal ratio of patrol functions that is not universally practiced by police departments. It does not factor in departmental variation in policy or procedure, nor is it sensitive to "peak" hours when demand for service is highest. These policies are set by administrators who play a key role in determining strategies for providing service. Management must rely on continued analysis of the workload to refine service decisions. Technology, such as a computer-aided dispatch (CAD) system, can provide data for assessing peak-hour scheduling. At Joliet, plans for a CAD system to address the needs of both the police and the Will County Sheriff's Department are under way. This technology will enable the department to make more precise staffing allocations, and will enhance dispatcher ability to make appropriate call-for-service assignments. The installation of the CAD system is anticipated for 1992.

Composition of the Joliet Police Force

The composition of the Joliet Police Department over the last five years provides insight into the department's recruitment and selection practices. Figure 52 shows the sex and ethnicity of hires for this time period.

There has been a strong commitment to hire qualified female and minority candidates not only for diversity on the force but to reflect the community. The impact of these hires is shown in the composition of the entire force for the same years (Figure 53).

While the numbers of female and minority officers are small, blacks have made the most gains. The number of female officers has been stagnant. Female officers over this period tend to be slightly older than their male counterparts. Chief Nowicki said he is working on ways to attract and keep female officers.

In addition to increased hiring of minorities, promotional opportunities were expanded. In 1988, an affirmative action plan, negotiated with the city, the unions, and the Black Police Officers Association, was adopted by the city and given strong support by the fire and police board. The plan was adopted, in part, in anticipation of a potential lawsuit that was to be filed on behalf of minority officers seeking promotions. An agreement was reached to promote to sergeant one black officer a year for the next few years. The only obstacle to promotion was seniority. Most officers serve about 15 years before promotion to sergeant. Black officers, promoted to sergeant, averaged about 12 years. The affirmative action promotion provided for in the plan is accomplished through the creation of an additional authorized sergeant position. Chief Nowicki believes that it is this unique feature that allowed the acceptance of the plan by all parties involved in the negotiations.

Turnover

Of the 16 retirements over this same period, 1986 to 1990, all were white males. This is not surprising given the years of service required for pension eligibility. Figure 54 summarizes the age and years of service of retirees.

Figure 55 details the characteristics of officers who left after having passed their probationary period but long before they were eligible for retirement.

Even though the numbers are small, the turnover of female officers is evident. Further research is needed to understand and address this issue. Black officers also leave, but not in the same proportion as female officers. Figure 56 shows the

Figure 52

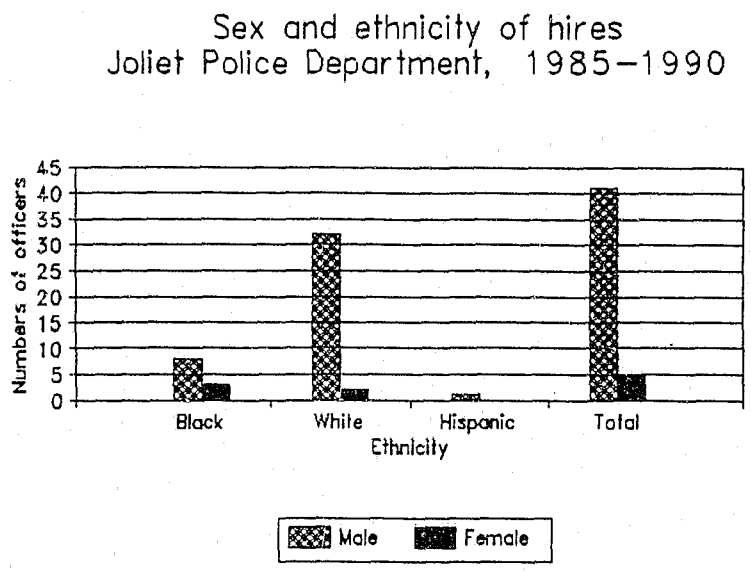


Figure 53
Composition of the Joliet Police Department
by sex and ethnicity
1986 - 1990*

Year	Male	Female	Black	Asian	Hispanic	White
1986	153	6	3	1	1	154
1987	151	6	3	-	1	153
1988	152	8	7	-	1	152
1989	159	8	16	-	9	142
1990	160	7	18	-	10	139
Gain/loss	±7	+1	+15	-1	+9	-15

* These figures reflect an October 1991 update of data originally analyzed in May 1991. As a result, the totals in this table for 1990 will not be consistent with those presented in tables 57 and 58 which were based on the May 1991 analysis.

Figure 54
Average age and years served of retired Joliet police officers
1986 - 1990

Year	Average age	Average years served	Number of retirees
1986	53.9	26.2	5
1987	54.2	28.2	5
1988	56.5	29.4	2
1989	56.4	27.1	3
1990	65.5	33.6	1

Figure 55
Characteristics of Joliet Police Department departures
by sex and ethnicity
1986 - 1990

Year	Male	Female	Black	Asian	Hispanic	White
1986	4	-	-	1	-	3
1987	4	1	1	-	-	4
1988	2	2	2	-	-	2
1989	1	1	1	-	-	1
1990	2	1	-	-	-	3
Total	13	5	4	1	-	13
Turnover	7%	42%	29%	100%	-	7%

Figure 56
Ethnic composition of the Joliet Police Department by rank, 1990

Rank	White	Black	Hispanic	Total
Patrol	120	18	7	145
Sergeant	17	1	2	20
Lieutenant	5	-	-	5
Captain	3	-	-	3
Total	145	19	9	173

ethnic composition of the Joliet Police Department in 1990. That year, 11 percent of the police department was black and 5 percent was Hispanic. Joliet's population was 22 percent black, and 13 percent Hispanic. In the last 10 years, the Hispanic population has increased 8 percent, from 5 percent in 1980 to 13 percent in 1990.

Hiring

The 1990 staff is largely white and male, but the targeted hiring program is slowly changing the makeup of the department. The length of service of the department is shown in Figure 57. The relatively high percentage of patrol officers with less than four years of experience shows the effect of hiring over the last two years. The concentration of officers with 10–14 and 15–20 years of experience shows that the department has a large group of experienced officers. A lot of that experience is found at the patrol level. Looking at length of service by rank, we can see that most of the promotions to sergeant, lieutenant, and captain were made recently.

Future Directions

In order to meet the demands of increased calls for service and reported crime, the department proposed a strategy of involving the community in creating a safe environment, adopting differential police response, and changing its dominant philosophy to a community- and problem-oriented policing approach. The differential response proposes more self-reporting and mail and phone reporting of incidents. This will free a lot of officers' time for other proactive duties. The community-oriented policing project is currently under way. The goals of community-oriented policing are twofold: to demonstrate the department's commitment to work with the community in solving problems and to bolster community relations. Staff composition that is more reflective of the Joliet community will facilitate the adoption of this approach and will enable the department to work more closely with the community. A team of Joliet officers have been trained in cities where successful programs now operate. This group will form the nucleus for the department's program and will define community-oriented policing and its operation in the Joliet Police Department.[12]

Figure 57
Average number of years of service in current rank
Joliet Police Department, 1990

Rank	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-20	21-24	25-29	Total
Patrol	36	17	31	42	13	1	140
Sergeant	12	3	7	2	-	-	24
Lieutenant	4	-	1	1	-	-	6
Captain	2	-	1	-	-	-	3
Total	54	20	40	45	13	1	173
Percent	30.5%	12.0%	23.0%	26.0%	8.0%	0.5%	

Bethalto Police Department

Bethalto, Illinois, is located in southwestern Illinois' Madison County. Bethalto has a population of approximately 9,000 and is a bedroom community for nearby St. Louis, Missouri. Bethalto has minimal industry and, as a result, has a limited tax base.

Its only light industry is provided by the laboratories of A&L Corp., which converts old fighter planes into drones for military training exercises. The labs employ a maximum of 350 people and recently moved to Bethalto largely because of a generous city tax abatement.

However, Bethalto's tax base may change in the future with the construction of a major highway that could lead to residential and industrial growth. There is also a possibility of annexation of unincorporated areas within the next few years. In addition to bringing the community increased tax revenue, these changes could also put the already understaffed Bethalto Police Department under greater strain. The ratio of patrol officers to citizens is now 1 to more than 1,000.

The Bethalto Police Department employs 10 full-time officers and one part-time officer. One full-time officer is female. All the officers are white, as is nearly the entire community. The officers' average age is 34. The department budget is $580,425; $367,759 goes to salaries.

Police Chief James Reno identified the biggest problems facing his department:[13]

- The lack of tax base to improve service provision. Because of limited resources, the department has no computer for information management and just got connected to LEADS (Law Enforcement Agencies Data System) last year.

- High attrition rate due to resignations. The department cannot offer competitive salaries. (The entry-level base salary for patrol officers is $25,509. Bethalto has lost officers to the Madison County Sheriff's Department, which has a base entry-level salary of $31,000.)

- Lost investment in training when officers resign. The department often trains new officers only to have them resign to take positions with other law enforcement agencies.

In 1987 the department established a pre-employment contract. If officers leave the department within the first year of hire, they must pay 100 percent of the costs of training. If they leave within two to three years they must pay back 100 percent of the department's investment in training with a reduction for each month of employment between the second and third years. If the officer leaves after three years there is no training reimbursement obligation.

The pre-employment contract has come under fire from the department's collective bargaining agent, the United Steel Workers of America. Recently, a grievance was filed dealing with an alleged pre-employment contract violation.

The department would like to extend the probationary period so that the reimbursement on violation of the pre-employment contract would be extended beyond one year. The pre-employment contract and training reimbursement obligation would help to defray some of the cost of training officers who then resign to take positions with other departments.

Salaries

Several factors affect the salaries of police officers, not the least of which is a town's tax base. Small departments like Bethalto have little leverage in their salary ranges, particularly if their tax base has no diversity and is restricted to residential property.

Retirement information

The department has an independent pension plan that has a minimum retirement age of 50 with 20 years of service for full pension coverage. This is comparable to the enhanced pension plan provided by the IMRF to sheriffs' departments in Illinois.

Attrition

From 1985 through 1990, the department lost 12 officers to non-retirement attrition—a high attrition rate for a department with a full strength of around 15. The department actually has a usual operating strength of around 10. Although the department does not suffer from lack of applicants, it operates at less than full strength largely because it has difficulty in retaining officers at the patrol level. The Bethalto turnover rate has been 120 percent in the last five years. Within the patrol ranks, turnover has been closer to 300 percent.

Recruitment, hiring, and promotion

The chief assists with the recruitment and selection process, which is actually administered by the local police and fire commission. The board establishes an eligibility list for two years. Advertisements are placed in the local newspaper when it is time to create a new list.

Chief Reno reported that the department doesn't actively recruit, but that the number of applicants (approximately 20 to 25) is adequate.

"I think that the quality of our recruitment pool has been about the same during my tenure as chief. However, our selection process has changed in recent years. We now have a physical agility test, and the state's standard written exam. Last time around 53 people applied but only 26 actually showed up for the agility test. Out of this number only 12 to 13 people passed. Most people fall out because of the agility test. We also do a background check and a psychological exam. The only thing we don't do is a polygraph test—largely because the findings are inconclusive."

Most of the department's officers come out of the auxiliary force and the police Explorer post. The auxiliary force is staffed by volunteers who are authorized and trained to carry weapons on those occasions when they supplement the regular force (to control special events like the town's annual Labor Day parade and carnival). When necessary, auxiliary officers are used as temporary substitutes for regular officers on the force and on these occasions are paid an hourly wage. The Explorers, high school volunteers, were organized by the department. Unlike auxiliaries, they are not armed or used as substitutes for officers in the department, but do provide extra unpaid staff for special events necessitating crowd control. Particularly auxiliary officers, but also Explorers, have provided the department with a core recruitment pool.

The department doesn't use lateral entry, but promotes from within the department. The chief does not think lateral promotion would be suitable, since the Madison County area would not attract a high number of individuals interested in locating there. He feels that people stay in the area largely because their families are there and they consider it to be home.

The chief is satisfied with the recruitment pool and feels that testing procedures have improved over the years.

Staffing levels

Chief Reno felt that given the city's population, the department is understaffed. However, proportionate to patrol staff, there are enough supervisors. There is one sergeant who is a detective and three patrol sergeants. Two patrol sergeants are responsible for training; both were hired in 1988. They were promoted to sergeant rank after taking the promotion exam. Both officers were younger and had less seniority than a third officer who didn't pass the exam. The department tends to lose most of its patrol officers to resignations. As a result the average age of its officers is very low (early 30s). According to Chief Reno, this puts a strain on the supervisors, since young and unseasoned patrol officers require a lot of supervision.

"Most of our training goes into patrol. I guess if anything we have a gap in training at mid-management levels as a result."

Deployment strategies

The department has 72 miles of roadway to patrol. Since it is understaffed the department does not do proactive policing.

Shifts change weekly. The department's contract with the city of Bethalto stipulates that officers must work 168 hours per month—7 days on and 2 off, 7 on and 3 off, 7 on and 2 off. The chief reports that he has had some complaints about this shift arrangement from the officers, but, given the 168-hour contract stipulation, it was the only schedule that was practical. One officer is assigned per patrol car each shift. (In the course of a ride-along, the officer driving mentioned that the shift rotation was a "killer" and that it created some job dissatisfaction among the officers. He did not blame the department administration for the rotation but rather the contract with the city, which was impossible to implement in anything but a weekly shift rotation.)

Training of new recruits

Recruits are sent to the Belleville Area College Training Center and the State Police Academy. Costs for tuition and room and board per recruit for 10 weeks of training for these two programs are as follows:

- Belleville Area College Training Center $850 (commuter—tuition only)

- Illinois State Police Academy $665 (tuition) plus $1,565 (room and board)

The chief feels that officer in-service training programs in Illinois are effective. He sends his officers to as many training programs as he can. However, his high turnover rate means that the department loses the cost of training new recruits and the cost of additional in-service training.

Types of incidents the department handles

The department handles 7,000-8,000 incidents per year. Almost all are routine law enforcement work. Most major incidents involve theft and burglary (commercial and residence). Drug-related incidents are increasing.

Future directions

Chief Reno suggested that future directions will depend a lot on the highway project and the coming election on annexation, since both of these factors could improve the town's tax base. The improved highway system could attract more residents to Bethalto who might work in St. Louis and Alton but prefer the small-town atmosphere that Bethalto provides. Annexation of additional areas would increase the department's service area. If either or both of these possibilities become reality, the department would have to expand to meet increased need for service.

Long-range plans also include acquisition of a computer system that could be used for administrative functions. The chief has been attempting to persuade the city council and mayor that such a system is essential to improve departmental operation.

Madison County Sheriff's Department

Madison County is located in southwestern Illinois, 30 miles north of St. Louis. The county encompasses 750 square miles and includes Bethalto. The eastern two-thirds of the county is rural. Most of the industrial activity and population is in the western one-third of the county. Industries include a box board plant, glassworks, refineries, a steel fabrication plant, and a chemical plant. The county has a population of 250,000. Most of the people in the western part of the county live in unincorporated areas outside of the jurisdiction of a municipal police department.

The Madison County Sheriff's Department operates the county jail, serves civil and criminal documents (17,000 annually), administers warrant operations for all felony violations, and provides basic police services to unincorporated areas. The department is semi-automated. For example, process warrants are indexed and tracked by computer. There is an automated indexing system for police operations. The department's annual budget in 1989 was $3,270,894.

Staffing policies

In October 1990, there were 67 sworn officers employed in police work by the department: 64 men and 3 women. Four officers are black and the rest are white. Officers' average age was 38. Authorized strength has stayed the same since 1971. There have been replacements but no expansions of the force. Staff planning is incremental and not long-range.

Attrition

Lieutenant Peter Baetz reported that the department has a good employment longevity track record. He attributes this to the salary levels negotiated by the employees' collective bargaining agent, the International Union of Operating Engineers.

"Our attrition rates aren't a problem, largely because our base pay ($30,000 to $31,000) is ranked the highest in the southern Illinois law enforcement community. Rank and file and supervisors are covered by the same union contract. So there are across-the-board salary increases."

According to Lieutenant Baetz, county budgetary cutbacks may have a detrimental effect on compensation packages which could increase attrition within the next three years.

Recruitment and promotion

The department does not recruit specific groups. The three-member county merit board commission, assisted by the sheriff, is responsible for recruitment and promotion testing. It also hears officer disciplinary cases. The merit commission board is appointed by the county board upon recommendation of the sheriff.

The recruitment process involves qualification testing every two years on a pass/fail basis. This is advertised in local newspapers throughout the county. The test is in two parts: the first is written, the second is a test for physical agility. The

merit commission board establishes a qualified applicants' list and the sheriff must hire from this list.

The department has no difficulty attracting applicants. There are a minimum of 50 and a maximum of 150 applications every year.

The department uses traditional hiring and promotion processes. Every two years a list is drawn up with the names of officers eligible for promotion and a written test is administered. The results of the test and recommendations for or against promotion are submitted by the sheriff to the merit commission board for approval. There is no lateral entry of officers from other sheriffs' departments. However, there are a number of police officers hired into the sheriff's department at entry level from police departments within the county.

Training

Basic training is conducted at Belleville Area College Training Center, the Police Training Institute at the University of Illinois, and the Illinois State Police Academy. Costs for training at Belleville Area College Training Center and at the Illinois State Police Academy are the same as for Bethalto Police Department officers (see pages 104–105). Costs at the Police Training Institute are $920 for tuition and $1,550 for room and board. In-service training is sponsored by the Illinois Local Governmental Law Enforcement Officers Training Board through the Southwestern Illinois Law Enforcement Commission, Mobile Team Unit 15.

Retirement

The department's pension fund is administered by the Illinois Municipal Retirement Fund (IMRF). The IMRF offers a step program. Officers can retire with 47 percent of base pay at age 50 with 20 years of service. After age 50, this percentage increases each year until 32 years of service, when it reaches a maximum of 79 percent of base pay. The IMRF also offers an enhanced pension at age 50. Officers pay an additional 2 percent of their earnings into the enhanced pension plans. Full pension is payable at age 50 with 20 years of service. Under this plan, the full pension formula is based on the yearly average of the highest 48-month pay rate over the last 10 years of service. This percentage is higher if the years of service are more than 20. With the enhanced plan the pension payment is higher up to age 62, when Social Security payments begin, and is then reduced.

In addition, the county pays into Social Security for sheriffs' officers. In contrast, police officers in larger cities do not get Social Security payments (interview with IMRF representative). The high entry-level salary (approximately $30,000 yearly) and enhanced pension plan, in combination with Social Security payments, are incentives for police officers to take positions with the department.

Deployment

The police work conducted by the sheriff's department is primarily patrol work. Patrols are deployed in traditional ways. Since it provides protection to widespread unincorporated areas this is done by patrol car. Deployment is primarily directed to the high-population and high-crime areas in the western part of the county. The county's proximity to East St. Louis, in neighboring St. Clair County, has created some problems for deployment. Despite 87 Illinois State Police assigned to assist the East St. Louis Police Department, officials report criminal activity is moving from East St. Louis into Madison County.

The county board has suggested an enhanced 911 program for the sheriff's department. The program would make the department the public service answering point for emergency help outside of the county's municipalities. However, the sheriff and command staff are reluctant to adopt the suggestion, since this would increase the department's telecommunication work with no increase in the department's operating budget.

Future directions

In the future, the correctional responsibilities of the Madison County Sheriff's Department will consume a larger share of the department's resources at the expense of police work. This is inevitable, in light of the growth rate in the county's average daily jail population from 100 to 130 in the past two years.

Cooperation in interagency law enforcement

The choice of the Madison County Sheriff's Department and the Bethalto Police Department as case studies was made to assess the relationship between a county and a municipal law enforcement agency. The county's Metro Program is a cooperative program to share resources among municipal police departments and the Madison County Sheriff's Department. The Metro Program is of particular interest, given the financial limitations of small departments like the Bethalto

Police Department. The program is most beneficial to smaller police departments, since it pools staff skills and investigatory resources that would otherwise not be available to them. The Metro Program has not appreciably added to the sheriff's department's expenditures, since it uses existing equipment and personnel taken off normal duties. The program is also somewhat proactive in planning strategies to counter certain types of criminal activity. It has been used most often to deal with drug trafficking and homicide cases. The Metro Program is staffed by patrol officers and detectives from police departments throughout the county, as well as officers from the sheriff's department. It is administered by the sheriff's department with direction provided by a board of participating municipal police department chiefs.

Appendix A

GUIDE TO THE QUALITY OF AVAILABLE DATA ON THE ILLINOIS OFFICER CORPS

To assess the staffing needs of Illinois law enforcement agencies, it is necessary to have data on officers' career histories, such as date of hire, age at hire, rank at hire, change in education, change in rank, and date and reason for leaving the department. Data quality is compromised by inconsistent updating of these variables. Planners must assess the quality of data on officers' career histories to judge their ability to estimate hiring needs on the basis of estimated attrition. The guide which follows includes a data quality assessment of the databases on officers' career histories maintained by the Illinois Local Governmental Law Enforcement Officers Training Board (known as the Police Training Board [PTB]) and the Illinois State Police. It also describes a simple method for estimating retirement attrition.

PTB data quality assessment

Because of the data quality problems in the PTB database, particularly those relevant to rank, educational level, and termination, Authority researchers were unable to track officers throughout the entire career continuum. See Appendix B for a discussion of how the methodology for the present study was revised to accommodate the data quality problems.

Upon assessment of the PTB database, it was found that not all data elements essential to tracking officer career paths were available and that much of the data necessary to the present research project were not updated.

Problems were found with the following aggregate-level data elements:

- Distribution of rank within department
- Resignations
- Terminations

Problems were also found with these individual-level (officer career history) elements:

- Current rank
- Current education level

PTB database

PTB collects data on Illinois law enforcement personnel in a twice-yearly census (January 31 and July 31), using an instrument called Form F, at both the aggregate and individual level.

Parts I and II of Form F are used for cumulative data.

Part I collects agency head count by employment status (full- or part-time) by authorized and actual strength and by rank. For the purposes of identifying current department manpower levels, census data for actual and authorized strength by status as collected are sufficient.

Although collected, rank-by-status data at the aggregate level are *not* captured in the PTB database. These important data would document growth of departments and changes in the distribution of rank. Distribution by department can be produced for the *current year only* by summing data at the individual level. However, rank data at the individual level would have to be updated for each officer. For the present study, rank data for individuals were updated by project staff for agencies selected in the random sample.

Part II of Form F collects aggregate (agency) attrition data. Current data on terminations, retirements, and resignations would have been useful for the present study, but law enforcement agencies are *not* required by PTB to report terminations as they occur, although many do. The absolute number of terminations reported by an agency on the census form is a "trigger" to data users to review the roster at the individual level; in other words, comparisons between roster and on-line information can be made by data users and discrepancies identified. If an officer does not appear on the current roster, it is assumed that he or she has been terminated. The "termination date" is the date that the current roster is filed. Termination dates are accurate within six months. Departments of 10 or fewer officers are more lax about reporting terminations than larger departments.

The "absolute" number of terminations, as reported on the form, is not entered in the database nor is it computed from data at the individual level. Gross statistics on termination are tabulated manually. Individual officers who are identified as terminated are removed from active status in the database (a logic

flag is set on the active status variable). "Termination date" is stored in the employment history field of the individual officer.

The database underwent major software maintenance and enhancements in 1985 and 1986. Those changes involved creating linkages between employer and appointee information. One change involved the partial elimination of manual data entry on officers who had left their departments through attrition, resignations, terminations, and retirement prior to 1986.

With the updated software, if a data entry operator indicates that an officer was terminated, the system automatically updates the record, specifically transferring current information to the employment history fields and writing a termination date in the record. During the course of the research performed for this study, a decision was made by PTB staff establishing a "cutoff point" in the existing data. If an officer was not active in a law enforcement agency in 1986, the data were put in an inactive subset. The inactive set was excluded from the planned enhancements. This involved expunging the records of officers in the inactive subset. Since the absence of these records made it impossible to include them in the department trend or career mobility analysis, in the present study these analyses were limited to a 1986-to-1989 time frame.

Checks on the termination field revealed a high percentage rate of error for large (50 of more officers) departments. A random sample of currently active Chicago-area suburban police (drawn for the career mobility analysis) showed that 23 percent of these officers were no longer employed by the department. Some left as long ago as 1984. In addition, considerable lag time was discovered between termination and the time that the officer's record was updated. Furthermore, when the record is updated, actual termination date is not used, but, rather, the date that the changes are made. For example, a file on a Joliet police officer who left after two days of service has a termination date two years after he left the department. Seventeen other Joliet officers who left between 1986 and 1988 have termination dates of 1990. In all cases, the officers' length of service is overstated.

Since data for resigned and retired officers are reported as a single total, there is no precise way to separate the two categories. If pension-eligible officers who have left their departments, as well as mandatory age retirements, are subtracted from the total, the remainder could provide a rough estimate of resignations. Unfortunately, mandatory and eligible retirement ages vary by community. This would be difficult to incorporate in human resources planning analyses. For an approximate measure of retirements and non-retirement terminations in the

present study, a surrogate variable was created, which included appointment date and age at hire. Next, the retirement formula of 50 years of age with 20 years of service, used by the Illinois Municipal Retirement Fund and some of the larger departments' independent pension plans (for example, Joliet's), was applied to distinguish pension-eligible from non-pension-eligible officers. Such calculations can be done manually for departments that do not have automated management information systems.

Because of the limitations of the PTB database, analysis for the present study was expanded to include Joliet, Chicago, and ISP data. Chicago data are not drawn from the PTB database since the department has submitted its own data for this study. Data from the Joliet Police Department (not extracted form the PTB database) have been used to construct a more complete picture of that department. ISP was also a separate data source. A data quality assessment of ISP data is included in a later section of this appendix.

A list of data available and accurate in the PTB database reveals how the database currently limits effective statewide human resources planning for law enforcement:

Database updated	**Database not updated**
Date of birth	Rank
Social Security number (or other unique identifier)—optional	Position
	Salary
	Degree(s) held
Sex	Current education level
Race	
Employer	
City of employer	
County of employer	
Appointment date	
Education level at time of hire	
Major	
Status	
Employment history	

Data for rank, position, degree(s) held, and salary are valid only at the time of appointment. (The only exception is for chiefs and sheriffs, whose data are always current.) Changes in rank at the individual level are submitted by employing agencies but are not updated in the database. Since changes in rank provide a

measure of mobility, the inability to track it is a major loss. While position, degree(s) held, and salary data are desirable, they are of lesser importance. The Authority research team automated current rank data for officers in the career mobility sample. These data were collected with the June 1990 PTB census.

Current education level was added to the June 1990 census form. At the time of the present study, PTB did not plan to automate these data. This is a critical variable because it helps track changes in officer education over time, and so provides information on educational trends in the law enforcement population. It also provides a look at the changing composition of the corps and is critical to the career mobility analysis. The research team automated data on officers' current educational level that were collected with the 1990 PTB census for use in the present study. It should be noted that information on officers' education is limited to "educational level at time of hire" for all officers and to current educational level for officers active as of the 1990 census. In addition, since education data collected on the census form are reported only for active officers, that information is not available for retirees or others on non-active status.

Methodological revisions resulting from PTB database data quality issues

Without critical information on the number of officers who had left through attrition, resignations, dismissals, and retirements prior to 1986, the present study could not include pre-1986 staffing levels, limiting the department trend analysis and the career mobility analysis to 1986–1989.

Since the only information on rank and educational level for active officers is rank and educational level at hire, it was impossible to construct, as was originally planned, career life-cycle tables, representing changes in a career continuum, for the Illinois officer corps. Instead, career mobility patterns were identified for a sample of active officers. Change in education and rank was restricted to a comparison of educational level and rank "at hire" to current rank and educational level. Current information on rank and education was collected with the 1990 PTB census and added to the career history information for the random sample of officers drawn from the PTB database. Specific information on the sampling framework is reported in Appendix B.

Illinois State Police data

The databases maintained by the Illinois State Police provide a detailed and comprehensive picture of department staffing trends and officer career mobility patterns. Variables such as attrition information and change in rank are available for Illinois State Police officers. An inventory of data elements available in the ISP databases follows.

Departure file

The departure file contains the following data on officers who have left ISP:

End date
Start date
Date of birth
Age at departure
Years of service
Rank at departure
Reason for departure

The file contains data since fiscal year 1978. Sex and race information is not available with these data, making it impossible to conduct gender- or race-based analysis.

Active file

The active file contains the following data:

Race
Sex
Date of birth
Rank
Seniority date
Adjustment to seniority date
Last promotion date
Promotion date adjusted
County code
County name
District code
Hire date

2nd level rank date
3rd level rank date
4th level rank date
5th level rank date
6th level rank date
Monthly salary

Education level is not captured in the ISP databases. The minimum educational level for entry was raised in 1989 to two years of college.

Estimating retirement attrition

The following example of estimating retirement attrition is based on data available in the Illinois State Police database. It is provided as a prototype for departments interested in estimating short-term resignations.

In addition to the most rudimentary information on officers—age at hire and years of service—administrators must be cognizant of changes in the pension options available to their officers, changes in the local job market, and the consequences of internal departmental change such as management reorganization.

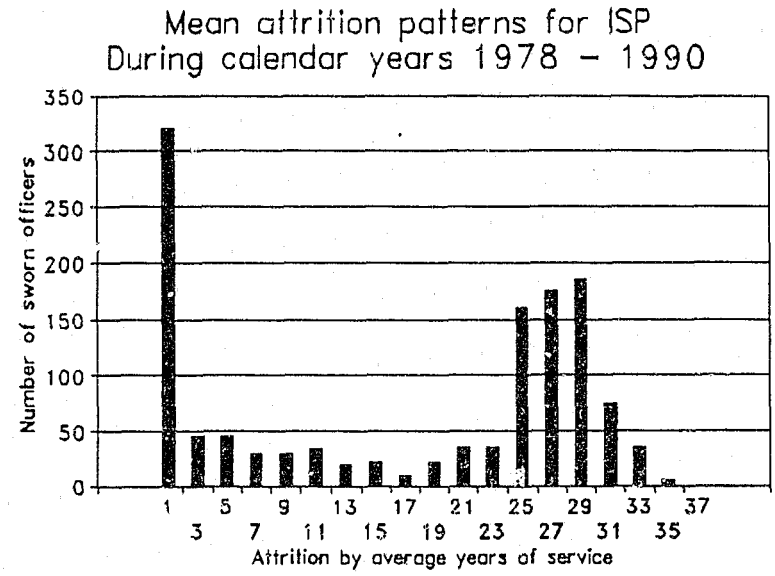
Effective short- and long-term manpower planning depends on the ability to estimate the numbers of officers that will be lost through attrition.

Figure 58 shows attrition patterns by years of service over a 13-year period (1978–1990) for officers employed by the Illinois State Police. Attrition is highest at the beginning of officers' careers, due to dismissals and resignations. It tapers off with increased years of service through mid-career and increases again when officers accrue enough service to be eligible for retirement pensions.

It is easiest to estimate attrition figures to some point in the future for those officers who reach pension eligibility during the time frame in question. The number of officers leaving a department before reaching pension eligibility will be more difficult to predict due to variance associated with internal factors such as changes in disciplinary policy in the case of dismissals and to external factors such as unemployment levels. In the latter case, the limited options available in tight job markets will act as an inducement for officers to remain in current positions.

Law enforcement administrators should decide how important increased precision is to their planning efforts. Improving estimation precision involves greater complexity in estimation method. Sophisticated computer projection tech-

Figure 58


Mean attrition patterns for ISP
During calendar years 1978 - 1990
Number of sworn officers
350
300
250
200
150
100
50
0
1 5 9 13 17 21 25 29 33 37
3 7 11 15 19 23 27 31 35
Attrition by average years of service

niques such as survival analysis are based on statistical probability and provide greater precision than simpler but cruder forms of estimation.[14] However, even the most extensively tested survival models do not guarantee exact precision. In addition, the level of analysis required makes such models impractical as human resource planning tools for most law enforcement agencies.

Law enforcement administrators can determine gross attrition estimates that may be less precise but, nonetheless, can be adequate measures of future human resource needs. This is particularly the case for retirement attrition which, although dependent upon changes in pension policies, has less variability associated with external factors, such as unemployment rates, than non-retirement attrition.

Prior to the provision of an Early Retirement Incentive Plan for a nine-month period in fiscal year 1992, ISP allowed its officers to retire either at age 55 with 20 years of service or at age 50 with 25 years of service (see Appendix C). In 1981 the Research and Development Bureau of the Illinois State Police calculated retirement estimations from 1981 to 1989 for officers reaching the mandatory retirement age of 60 and those entering pension eligibility with a minimum of 25 years of service at age 50. This type of calculation requires minimal information routinely maintained by departments on their sworn officer corps: *age at hire* and *years of service*. This type of estimation is appealing because of its simplicity; however, it does not reduce the uncertainty presented by pension-eligible officers who, at any time during the 10 years before reaching the mandatory retirement age of 60, may opt to leave the department. Are officers more likely to retire soon after reaching eligibility at age 50 with 25 years of service, or are they more likely to stay on until they reach the mandatory retirement age of 60? Analysis of ISP data revealed that between 1981 and 1989, a majority of officers (approximately 70 percent each year) retired in the two to four years before reaching 60.

This tendency for ISP officers to retire before reaching mandatory age is evident in Figure 60, which compares retirements estimated by the ISP in 1980 and actual retirements for the years 1981 to 1989. It should be noted that higher numbers of officers actually retired than were estimated in 1984 and 1986 (Figures 59 and 60). This is in part attributable to the baseline (1980) number of eligible officers that were not "rolled over" into the following years of "pension eligibles." Those 81 officers were instead included in the projections of "mandatory" retirements for the years that they reached age 60. Some of the 1980 "eligibles" retired before 60, thereby raising the number of actual retirements above those projected.

Figure 59

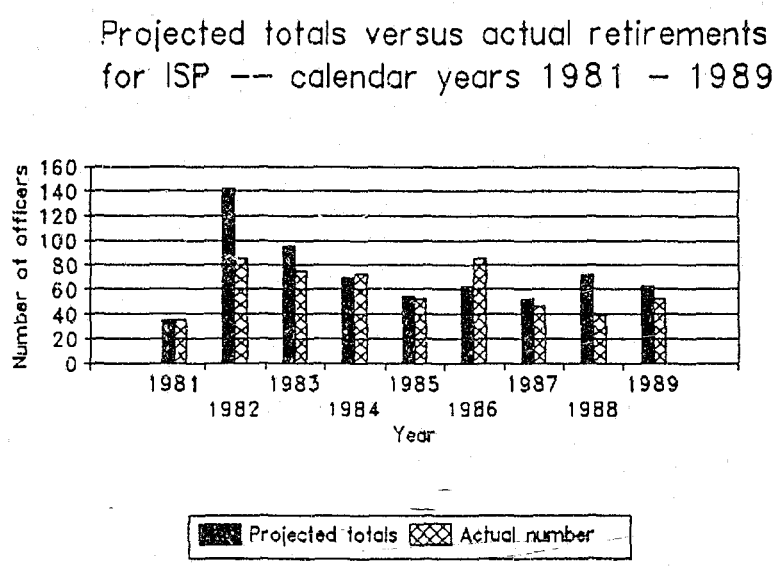
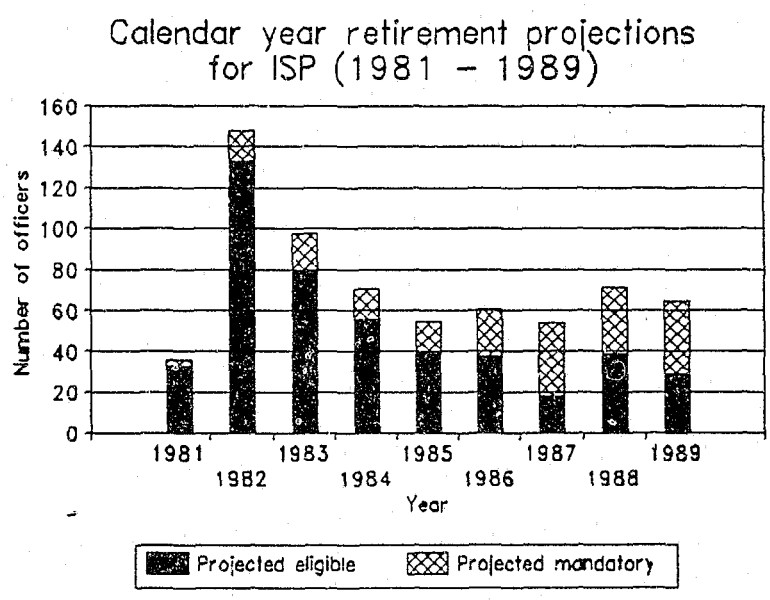


Figure 60



While it is interesting to see how "close the call" was for estimating retirements nine years into the future, it is as important to understand fluctuations in terms of changes in policy and departmental procedure.

The ability to accurately estimate retirement in the short term is obvious in the 100 percent accuracy of the 1981 retirements. Thirty-two pension-eligible and two mandatory retirements were estimated for that year, and there were 34 actual retirements. The difficulty in precisely estimating the number of officers that will leave when they are pension-eligible but not yet at mandatory retirement age is obvious for the years 1983–1985. Figure 61 shows the percentage of officers aged 50 with 25 years of service who chose to retire between 1981 and 1990. Relatively high percentages of officers between the ages of 50 and 53 chose to retire during 1983–1985. A change in pension policy explains the discrepancy between estimated and actual retirements in 1986. In 1985, the pension plan was altered so that sick days incurred could be used toward years of employment. This allowed more officers to qualify for retirement than were estimated in 1980.

From 1982 to 1983, the percentage of younger officers who chose to retire between the ages of 50 to 53 more than doubled. This increase can be explained by the conditions required for early retirement—age 50 with 25 years of service. ISP hired a large number of troopers in 1957, thus in 1982 a larger number of officers met the required 25 years of service for early retirement. Their decision may also have been influenced by a prolonged period of organizational restructuring which took place in the late 1970s and early 1980s.

The 43-percent high in retirement of younger officers (50–53) in 1985 is attributable to the 1985 change in pension policy described above. From 1985 to 1989, the percentage of officers choosing to leave at the younger ages of 50 to 53 steadily decreased from 43 percent to 10 percent. Extending this analysis to 1990 revealed that 36 percent of officers in that age cohort chose to retire. This sudden reversal in a three-year pattern of fewer officers leaving soon after reaching eligibility may be attributable to the gubernatorial election and the then-anticipated appointment of a new Illinois State Police director. It is likely that retirement would be an appealing option when weighed against the unknowns associated with a new executive staff.

Figure 61
Percentage of officers choosing to retire
between the ages of 50 and 53

Year	Total number of officers	Number of officers choosing to retire	%
1981	34	6	18
1982	86	15	17
1983	74	30	40
1984	72	22	31
1985	53	23	43
1986	85	21	25
1987	46	10	22
1988	39	6	15
1989	53	5	10
1990	39	14	36

Summary

As demonstrated by Figure 58 (above), attrition is tied to years of service. It is a particular concern for departments with a high percentage of officers at either end of a seniority range. Although it is more difficult to estimate non-retirement attrition, a review of department records can provide a history of such attrition and its fluctuations based on changes in department recruitment policy and procedure. While this can involve the entire array of personnel policies, some of the most relevant are recruitment, screening, hiring, discipline, promotion, and employee benefits. Since retirement attrition involves fewer variables, its future impact on staffing levels is more easily assessed.

Fairly accurate short-term (1–5 year) estimates can be made with rudimentary information by simply calculating the time at which officers will meet the age and years of service conditions of their pension funds. Accuracy will be increased if the number of remaining officers who are under the mandatory retirement age are added to the pension-eligible numbers for following years. Accuracy can also be increased by reviewing the effect of department policy and procedure and such external influences as competing local labor markets.

Appendix B

METHODOLOGY

The Illinois Local Governmental Law Enforcement Officers Training Board (known as the Police Training Board [PTB]) was the major source of data for the analysis of departmental trends and career mobility patterns. Data on law enforcement personnel are collected through a twice-yearly survey of police departments and sheriffs' departments that has been conducted since 1976. Additional data for this study were provided by the Chicago Police Department and the Illinois State Police. Since the PTB database is the only statewide, longitudinal information available on the characteristics of the officer corps, an assessment was made to determine if the data contained in the system were accurate and complete.

The following data elements were extracted from the database for analyses of departmental trends and officer career mobility:

Agency information:

- Agency type: police or sheriff's department
- Departments' regional location: Chicago-area suburbs or the rest of the state
- Department size: number of sworn officers

Information on sworn officers:

- Date of appointment
- Age
- Ethnic/racial status
- Gender
- Rank at hire
- Education at hire

- Years in the department

Appendix A describes problems of inconsistent and inaccurate updating of information on active officers' rank and education, as well as the dates and reasons for terminations. A random sample of "currently active" Cook County sheriff's police officers, drawn for the career mobility pattern analysis, found that 23 percent of those officers were no longer employed by the county.

Department trend analysis

PTB data for all active officers and for officers terminated between 1986 and 1990 employed by departments that gave complete responses to the July 1990 PTB census were used to study changes in age distribution and demographic composition for police departments and sheriffs' departments. In lieu of having an actual termination date, information on all officers leaving their departments between 1986 to 1990 was used for purposes of comparison with active officers and recruits hired in 1990. Data were analyzed for 8,983 active and 1,959 terminated municipal and sheriffs' police officers. This research excluded police and sheriffs' dispatchers and correctional officers employed by sheriffs' departments. Only those census forms returned with complete information were included in the analysis. Response rates for the July 1990 PTB census were as follows:

	Completed Census Returned	Total Sent
Police Departments	50 percent (433)	868
Sheriffs' Departments	60 percent (60)	101

Since the PTB database did not have current information on officers' educational levels, data from the July 1990 PTB census included the current education level of a random sample of 529 municipal police officers and 493 sheriffs' police officers at a 95-percent level of confidence.

Differences in the current composition of departments and estimated losses to retirement were distinguished by region—Chicago-area suburbs and the rest of Illinois—and by department size. The department size variable was created by separating departments into four groups distinguished by the number of sworn officers employed: 1–10 officers; 11–25 officers; 26–49 officers; and 50+ officers. Estimates for the numbers of retiring officers up to 1996 were based on appointment date and age at hire.

To assess changes in the composition of the corps and to identify characteristics associated with retention, demographic information was compared for officers in the following groups:

- New hires since 1986
- Retirement-eligible officers who left their departments between 1986 and 1990
- Non-retirement-eligible officers who left their departments between 1986 and 1990

The analysis of trends for the Illinois State Police (N=1,200) and the Chicago Police Department (N= 12,401) were conducted for the total force for both agencies and focused on:

- Department composition
- Comparison of the characteristics of officers who have retired and officers hired in 1990
- Estimated retirements

Data provided by the ISP also allowed for analysis of both non-retirement and retirement attrition in rank and for analysis of trends in cadet washout rates.

Career mobility pattern analysis

The Authority's research team originally planned to include career life-cycle tables for police officers and sheriffs' deputies. These tables would present information on career paths at various milestones in officers' careers from entry to the corps to resignation, dismissal, or retirement. However, the limitations of the PTB database made it difficult to track officers through their careers.

Instead the career mobility analysis includes an assessment of the relationship between aging dynamics and career mobility patterns, specifically the effect of the corps's age distribution upon the opportunity for promotion, and on decisions to remain or to retire from the corps. The analysis also assessed the relationship of other demographic variables, such as gender, race and ethnicity, and educational level, to the opportunity for promotion. A random, stratified sample of 743

municipal and 620 sheriffs' police officers active in 1986 was drawn from the PTB database at a 95-percent level of confidence and with a sampling error rate of plus or minus 5 percent. The sample was stratified by agency type and region:

Police departments	Total force in 1989	Sample
Cook and collar counties except Chicago	7,781	377
Rest of Illinois	5,229	366
Sheriffs' departments		
Cook, DuPage, and McHenry counties	842	302
Rest of Illinois	1,914	318
Combined total sample N = 1,363		

In order to identify changes in rank and education, this information was collected from the July 1989 PTB census of Illinois law enforcement agencies and added to the data for officers included in the sample.

Data and methodology necessary for officer career mobility analysis

The extent to which the career patterns of Illinois law enforcement officers can be understood by analyzing aggregate data is limited by the existence of key variables associated with career milestones such as recruitment, promotion, and in-service educational change. The PTB database was the source of most of the data used to identify officer career mobility patterns in the present study. The database, however, does not allow for tracking officer career progression. For instance, there is no updating of change in rank or educational level throughout an officer's career. As a result, officers' current rank and years of education were added to the information drawn in the career pattern sample so that rank and education at hire could be compared to current rank and education. The PTB database provided the following information:

- Current age and age at hire
- Years of service
- Gender and racial/ethnic background
- Years of education at hire
- Rank at hire

Additional information relevant to career mobility was gathered through panel discussions with the Chicago Police Department command staff and through case study interviews at the Joliet Police Department, Bethalto Police Department, and the Madison County Sheriff's Department. These discussions clarified the relative importance of education, training, job experience, and performance as well as commitment to the department and the profession in promotion decisions.

The sample does not include sheriffs, who, as elected officials, are not part of the promotional rank structure, nor does it include corrections officers employed by county sheriffs' departments.

Data provided by the Illinois State Police included the following information used for the officer career pattern analysis:

- Rank
- Current age
- Years of service

Rank categorization

To simplify comparisons by rank, rank structures of police and sheriffs' departments were recategorized in accordance with common job function:

Function:	**Rank:**
Patrol	Patrol
Supervisor	Sergeants, corporals
Management	Lieutenants, captains, majors
Detective	
Commander	Commanders; assistant-, deputy-, and under-chiefs or sheriffs
Executive	Chiefs

The rank structure of the Illinois State Police's Division of State Troopers (DST) lends itself to the function categorization used for local and county law enforcement officers and so allows for comparability in this analysis. Since the Division of Criminal Investigation's structure is unique, ranking officers at various levels within the title of special agent, DCI was not included in the officer career pattern analysis. In addition, as an appointed position which is not within

ISP's promotional continuum, the position of director was also excluded from the analysis. However, DCI attrition information provides insight to the relationship between promotion and attrition.

Department case studies

To view the aging phenomenon over a career continuum, from recruitment through hiring, training, and promotion to mid-career attrition or retirement, the present study went beyond the use of current age and related demographic statistics. Four law enforcement agencies were chosen as case study sites. These choices were made on the basis of regional location and department size. They included a large sheriff's department (67 officers) in southwestern Illinois, the Madison County Sheriff's Department; one small police department (1-10 sworn officers) in Madison County, the Bethalto Police Department; one large police department (50+ officers) in a collar county of Chicago, the Joliet Police Department; and the largest police department in Illinois, the Chicago Police Department. The Madison County and Bethalto departments were chosen to enable the Authority to study the relationship between a county law enforcement agency and a municipal law enforcement agency in that county. On-site visits were conducted for all case studies. Case study information was clarified in telephone interviews when necessary.

Administrators' survey

A survey of law enforcement administrators was conducted in conjunction with the July 1990 PTB census. All sheriffs' departments and police departments in Illinois that receive PTB census forms were sent a survey instrument containing items on a wide array of administrative and personnel policies and related issues, including recruitment, screening, promotion, retention, retirement and benefits, and secondary employment.

The 1990 PTB administrators' survey return rates were as follows:

	Surveys Returned	Total Sent
Police Departments	65 percent (567)	868
Sheriffs' Departments	74 percent (75)	101

Survey results were analyzed with particular attention to those items that were theoretically or intuitively related to findings in the department trends, career mobility, and case studies analyses.

Survey items were primarily multiple choice and dealt with a wide array of administrative policy: attrition, recruitment, hiring, promotion, in-service education, employee benefits. On the basis of statewide findings, items were selected for comparison by department size. Police and sheriffs' departments were grouped according to the number of sworn officers actively employed in 1989: 1 officer, 2–10, 11–25, 26–49, and 50 or more officers.

Appendix C

FEDERAL AND STATE LEGISLATION AFFECTING DEPARTMENT HIRING AND RETIREMENT POLICIES

Retirement

The federal Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) of 1967 expanded the employment opportunity protection originally provided by the 1964 Civil Rights Act and created new obligations for employers in the equal treatment of persons over 40.

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act

The ADEA prohibits discrimination on the basis of age (29 U.S.C. sec. 621-634). In 1974, the statute's protections, which originally applied only to private employees, were extended to state and local government employees. But under the ADEA, it is not unlawful for an employer to take any action otherwise prohibited by the act "where age is a bona fide occupational qualification reasonably necessary to the normal operation of the particular business..." (29 U.S.C. sec. 623(f)(1)). This has been most relevant to cases involving the mandatory retirement of public employees. However, it is also applicable to mandatory age at entry (*Employment Discrimination*, 1986).

In 1978, the U.S. Congress exempted public safety personnel (employees in police departments, fire departments, and correctional institutions) from ADEA provisions, so that age could be used to make mandatory retirement decisions without having to prove that it was a bona fide occupational qualification. Congress authorized the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to examine the feasibility of replacing age with other criteria for mandatory retirement in public safety departments. In 1990, the EEOC awarded a contract to Pennsylvania State University to identify tests measuring mental and physical ability required for successful job performance and to make recommendations as to whether the exemption for public safety should be made permanent or eliminated. Although age restrictions for hiring at the entry level were not included in the exemption, the work done by the Penn State research team will have implications for departments that use physical fitness tests in hiring and have entry-level maximum age restrictions. The Penn State research findings will not be

made available to the public until after recommendations have been given to Congress on December 31, 1991.

The Early Retirement Incentive Plan

On July 24, 1991, Public Act 87-14 was passed, providing state employees with an Early Retirement Incentive option (ERI) available over a six month period. As state employees, Illinois State Police Officers who had reached the age of 50 or had 30 years of service by December 31, 1991, are eligible for the ERI. Those eligible can establish up to five years of additional service credit and age by making contributions for one-half of the service required for retirement eligibility. Eligibility for full retirement payments for ISP are based on age 50 with 25 years of service or age 55 with 20 years service. Once having met the minimum age or years of service required by the legislation, these eligibility requirements may be met after adding a five year age and service enhancement of the ERI. Eligible ISP officers who enrolled in the program could retire from August 1, 1991 through January 1, 1992. To insure the public health and safety, the Director of the ISP was allowed to extend the retirement date for the Illinois State Police to May 1, 1992. This increased the time that the ERI program was available to ISP's officers to nine months (information obtained from the office of the State Retirement Systems on January 10, 1992). Increased retirement attrition within the Illinois State Police officer corps during fiscal year 1992 is a direct and immediate result of the ERI plan.

The Illinois Human Rights Act

On the state level, the Illinois Human Rights Act further refines limitations relevant to age and retirement policies. The Illinois Human Rights Act of 1980 (Ill. Rev.Stat., ch.68, par.1-103) exceeds the requirements of the ADEA in providing protection against age discrimination and has affected retirement practices. Amendments to the legislation (PA 85-949, 1987, and PA 87-348, 1991) exempt police and fire departments from compliance until December 31, 1993. Until then, those agencies are permitted to enforce a mandatory retirement age below age 70, subject to the following qualifications:

- The age of retirement must have been enacted prior to March 3, 1983.

- The retirement must follow a bona fide retirement plan.
- Collective bargaining agreements signed prior to June 30, 1986, that terminate after January 1, 1987, will be honored.

The Illinois General Assembly has mandated that research be carried out to determine the justification of the exemption for police officers and fire fighters. Such research has not been initiated. Given this, the Penn State recommendations will be of particular interest to law enforcement administrators in the state.

Meetings with Chicago Police Department personnel suggest that the Illinois Human Rights Act has significant impact on large departments. Until 1990, most patrol officers were protected by a union agreement and were allowed to work until age 70. Under a new agreement and city ordinance, all CPD officers are subject to a mandatory retirement age of 63. It is questionable whether this mandatory retirement age will be maintained if the exemption is removed at the end of 1993.

Hiring

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) affects not only retirement policies but also department hiring policies. Although law enforcement agencies generally use 35 as the maximum age for entry-level positions, they are subject to litigation on the basis of age discrimination by individuals over 35 applying for entry-level employment. If the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission recommends that police departments should no longer be exempt from using mandatory retirement ages without having to prove that age is a bona fide occupational requirement, maximum age requirements for entry-level positions would be more difficult for department to implement and may make departments more vulnerable to litigation.

The Americans with Disabilities Act

In addition to the limitations imposed by the ADEA, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) also expands the equal employment opportunity protection originally provided by the 1964 Civil Rights Act for persons with disabilities.

The ADA is the most current federal legislation affecting departmental hiring practices. It particularly affects the ability of departments to screen applicants through psychological and drug testing.

Title I of the ADA becomes effective for state and local government agencies with 25 or more employees in July 1992 and for agencies with 15 to 24 employees in July 1994. Significant provisions of Title I of the act include the following:

- Prohibits discrimination against otherwise qualified disabled applicants if the applicant can perform the "essential functions" of the job.

- Requires employers to make "reasonable accommodations" for the benefit of workers with disabilities, including restructuring of job requirements and work space configurations, when those modifications can be made without undue hardship.

- Prohibits pre-employment medical inquiries, medical exams, and psychological testing, except when a job offer is contingent on successful completion of a post-offer medical or psychological exam or unless such examination or inquiry is shown to be job-related but consistent with business necessity.

- Provides no hiring protection for current drug users but does protect participants and graduates of drug abuse programs who are not current users.

- Permits pre-employment tests to detect current drug use.

Some law enforcement administrators have opposed Title I, saying it fails to define current drug use and precludes medical or psychological exams until after a conditional offer of employment. In response to this opposition, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission addressed some of the law enforcement community's concerns in the final ADA regulations:

- In regard to testing for physical agility, final ADA regulations allow for tests to be given at any point in the application or employment process as long as employers can demonstrate that they are job-related and consistent with business necessity.

- In addition, the commission restated the regulation on illegal drug use so that an employer, such as a law enforcement agency, may also be able to impose a qualification standard that excludes individuals with a

history of illegal drug use if the employer can show that the standard is job-related and consistent with business necessity (Vaughn, December 1991).

"The law may effectively require a police department to hire an otherwise qualified applicant who claims to be 'rehabilitated' unless the department can *disprove* the claim....The act appears to significantly and adversely affect current law enforcement employment standards, particularly with respect to pre-employment medical, psychological, and polygraph testing, as well as consideration of drug use history" (Litchford, 1991).

ENDNOTES

1. *Target: 1999 A Preliminary Look at the Composition of the Illinois Labor Force in the Year 2000* (Springfield, Ill.: Illinois Department of Employment Security, Bureau of Program and Planning, 1987):23.

2. Johnston, William B., and Arnold H. Packer, *Workforce 2000, Work and Workers for the 21st Century* (Indianapolis: The Hudson Institute, 1987).

3. Johnston and Packer, 1989.

4. Throughout this report, findings for the Chicago Police Department are presented separately. Findings from statewide analysis and Cook and collar counties (including DuPage, Kane, Lake, McHenry, Will, and suburban Cook) do not include Chicago Police Department data.

The Police Training Board data base does not accurately distinguish active officers in Cook County from those who had left their departments between 1986 and 1990. As a result, only those Cook County officers reported in the 1990 Police Training Board Census for whom employment was verified were included in the analysis.

5. Sheriffs' departments in the collar counties of Kane, Lake, and Will did not respond to the survey.

6. ISP's retirement formula for sworn employees permits the earliest, full participation in the retirement system at age 50 with 25 years of service, or age 55 with 20 years service.

Years of Service	Entitlement Percent
20	47.50
25	61.25
26	64.00
27	66.75
28	69.50
29	72.25
30	75.00

The entitlement percent is figured on an average of the employee's highest salary for 48 consecutive months of the last 10 years of employment or "last day out" salary, whichever is higher. The maximum entitlement is 75 percent.

7. Taken from a telephone interview conducted with Illinois State Police administrative staff, January 10, 1992. Since at that time the Illinois State Police were still documenting the number of retirements under the ERI program, these numbers, which were submitted by telephone, are subject to change.

8. Information on the cancellation of cadet training classes for fiscal year 1992 was taken from a telephone interview conducted with Illinois police administrative staff.

9. Taken from a telephone interview conducted with Illinois State Police administrative staff.

10.In January 1992 a study of the Chicago Police Department command structure conducted by the consulting firm of Booz, Hamilton and Allen was underway. Information from the consultants' study had not been released in time for inclusion in this report.

11. The CPD job titles of patrol officer, sergeant, lieutenant, captain, district commander, and detective were chosen for the promotional pattern analysis of women and minorities because these job titles included a large enough number of officers for measurements of central tendency. The three female commanders (a job title distinct from district commanders) were included in the data under three separate and discrete job titles. Information on the two women in the department in the position of director were not included in the data provided by the CPD computer systems staff.

12. The Authority's Drug Information and Analysis Center has recently provided $220,000 in federal Anti-Drug Abuse Act funds to the University of Illinois at Chicago to assess the value and impact of the community-oriented policing programs in Joliet and Aurora. The results of the evaluation should be available in early 1993.

13. Interviews with former Chief James Reno were conducted in the fall and early winter of 1990. Chief Reno has since left the department and has been replaced by Chief Anthony Sammis.

14. Survival analysis is a technique first used in the health sciences to predict the survival rate of cancer patients in various treatment programs. It is analogous to monitoring a light bulb operating on full electrical current to determine the length of time it takes to burn out. In the example of retirement attrition, the full duration of officers careers would be studied to identify the points at which officers leave law enforcement. This information would then be used in a model to predict future officer attrition. One such model developed for the Canadian Police College in the late 1980s makes adjustments for department growth and estimates not only attrition but recruitment figures six years into the future (McGinnis, 1989).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Arkin, Herbert. 1984. *Handbook of Sampling for Auditing and Accounting.* McGraw Hill: New York.

Baker, Wayne. 1989. "Suburban Police Post Help Wanted Signs." *Chicago Tribune* October 10.

Berg, Ivar. 1970. *Education and Jobs: The Great Training Robbery.* New York: Praeger.

Blueprint for the Future: Final Report of Trends and Issues for the 1990s. 1991. Chicago: Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority.

Brown, Lee. 1989. *Community Policing: A Practical Guide for Police Officials, Perspectives on Policing*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice.

———. 1991. "Responding to a Changing Environment." *The Police Chief* March.

Byrne, Dennis. 1989. "Are Cops' Ages Linked to Brutality Charges?" *Chicago Sun-Times*, September 21.

Carter, David, Allen Sapp, and Darrell Stephens. 1989. *The State of Police Education: Direction for the 21st Century*, Washington D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum.

Carter, David, and Allen Sapp. 1990. "The Evolution of Higher Education in Law Enforcement: Preliminary Findings from a National Study." *Journal of Criminal Justice Education* March.

Census of Local Law Enforcement Personnel. July 1989. Springfield, Ill.: Illinois Local Governmental Law Enforcement Officers Training Board.

Childers, James M. 1991. "Plateauing in Law Enforcement." *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin* June.

Clark, Jacob R. 1990. "Brown Steers NYPD Toward New Footing." *Law Enforcement News* December.

Collins, Randall. 1979. *The Credential Society: An Historical Sociology of Education and Satisfaction.* New York: Academic Press.

Delattre, E.J. 1989. "Character and Cops." *Ethics in Policing*. Washington, D.C: American Enterprise Institute.

Dunham, Roger G., Lisa Lewis, and Geoffrey Alpert. 1989. "Law Enforcement: Testing the Police for Drugs." In *Critical Issues in Policing*, edited by Roger Dunham and Geoffrey Alpert. (Prospect Heights, Ill.: Waveland Press).

Employment Discrimination. 1986. Chicago: Illinois Institute for Continuing Legal Education.

Eskridge, Chris. 1989. "College and the Police: A Review of the Issues." In *Police and Policing*, edited by Dennis J. Kenney. New York: Praeger.

Finke, Doug. 1991. "State Agencies Bracing for Early Retirement Crunch." *Springfield State Journal-Register* October 6: 1.

Five Year Plan 1990–1995. 1990. Springfield, Ill.: Illinois Department of Commerce and Community Affairs, Governor's Office of Planning.

Fletcher, Connie. 1991 *What Cops Know*. New York: Villard Books.

Galvin, Ralph, and Bruce Sokolove. 1989. "A Strategic Planning Approach to Law Enforcement." *The Police Chief* November.

Goldstein, Herman. 1977. *Policing a Free Society*. Cambridge, Mass.: Ballinger Publishing Co.

Hogan, R., and W. Kurtines. 1975. "Personological Correlates of Police Effectiveness." *Journal of Psychology* 91: 289-295.

Hudzik, John, Tim Bynum, Jack Greene, Gary Cordner, Kenneth Christian, and Stephen Edwards. 1981. *Criminal Justice Manpower Planning: An Overview.* East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University Manpower Planning Development Project.

Hyams, Michael. 1991. "Recruitment, Selection and Retention: A Matter of Commitment." *The Police Chief* September.

"Is the Police Corps Proposal Just What the Doctor Ordered or Bad Medicine?" 1989. *Crime Control Digest* November 27.

Illinois Population Trends 1980 to 2025. 1990. Springfield, Ill.: State of Illinois Bureau of the Budget.

Johnston, William B., and Arnold H. Packer. 1987. *Workforce 2000, Work and Workers for the 21st Century.* Indianapolis: The Hudson Institute.

Langworthy, R. 1989. "Criminal Justice Education: A National Assessment." *The Justice Professional* Fall.

Litchford, Jody M. 1991. "The Americans with Disabilities Act." *The Police Chief* January.

Lockard, James. 1989. "Making Recruit Training Responsive to Agency Needs: A Model Approach." *The Police Chief* November.

Lucadamo, John. 1991. "Small Towns Try to Hold Young Cops." *Chicago Tribune* July 12, s. 2 p. 5.

MacConnell, R. Monte. 1991. "Negligent Hiring and Retention: A Cause for Concern." *The Police Chief* July.

Maghan, Jesse. 1988. *The 21st Century Cop: Police Recruit Perceptions as a Function of Occupational Socialization.* New York: New York University Press.

"Major Departments Remain Understaffed." 1989.*Crime Control Digest* September 4.

McGinnis, James H. 1989. "Predicting Police Force Attrition, Promotion and Demographic Change." *Canadian Police College Journal 13*, no.2.

McKie, Craig. 1991. "Policing and the Demographic Transition." *Canadian Journal of Criminology* July–October.

Ortiz, Lou. 1991. "City Accused of Treating Latino Cops Like Grunts." *Chicago Sun-Times* November 10, p. 5.

A Profile of Municipal Police Departments in Vermont. 1989. Montpelier, Vt.: The Vermont Criminal Justice Center.

Reaves, Brian 1989. "Police Departments in Large Cities." Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Recktenwald, William. 1991a. "Martin to Add 100 Cops." *Chicago Tribune* April 30, p. 1.

———. 1991b "Chicago Police Force Short by 737 Officers." *Chicago Tribune* January 9, p. 1.

Report of the Independent Commission on the Los Angeles Police Department. 1991. Los Angeles.

Skolnick, Jerome H., and David H. Bayley. 1986. *The New Blue Line, Police Innovation in Six American Cities*. New York: Free Press.

———. 1988. *Community Policing: Issues and Priorities Around the World*, Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice.

Smith, A.B., B. Locke, and W. Walker. 1967. "Authoritarianism in College Now College Oriented Police." *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science* 58, no.1.

Special Retirement Policy for Federal Law Enforcement Personnel Needs Reevaluation: 1977. Washington D.C.: Report to the House Committee on Post Office and Civil Service, United States Comptroller General.

Speilman, Fran, and Ray Long. 1991. "70% Seeking New Cop Jobs are Minorities." *Chicago Sun-Times* March 27: 3.

Speilman, Fran. 1991. "37,300 Apply for 600 Police Jobs." *Chicago Sun-Times* April 2.

Strecher, V.G. 1988. "Stimuli of Police Education: Wickersham and LBJ's Commission." *The Justice Professional* Fall.

Strong, James. 1987. "Police Retirement Age Lowered." *Chicago Tribune* December 31.

Tafoya, William. 1990. "The Future of Policing." *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin* January.

Target: 1999 A Preliminary Look at the Composition of the Illinois Labor Force in the Year 2000. 1987. Springfield, Ill.: Illinois Department of Employment Security, Bureau of Program and Planning.

Toffler, Alvin, and Heidi Toffler. 1990. "The Future of Law Enforcement: Dangerous and Different." *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin* January.

Topp, B., and C. Kardash. 1986. "Personality, Achievement, and Attrition." *Journal of Police Science and Administration,* September: 332–334.

Vaughn, Roland C. III. 1991. "IACP's Response to the Americans with Disabilities Act." *The Police Chief* December: 6.

Von Maanen, John. 1989. "Becoming an American Police Sergeant." In *Critical Issues in Policing,* edited by Roger G. Dunham and Geoffrey Alpert. Prospect Heights, Ill.: Waveland Press.

Wadman, Robert C., and Robert K. Olson. 1990. *Community Wellness: A New Theory of Policing*. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum.

Wright, E.J. 1989. *The Aging Work Force: How will California Police Departments Cope with Staffing Requirements by the Year 2002?* Santa Clara, Calif.: California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training and Santa Clara Police Department.

ILLINOIS
CRIMINAL JUSTICE
INFORMATION AUTHORITY

120 South Riverside Plaza Chicago, Illinois 60606 (312) 793-8550