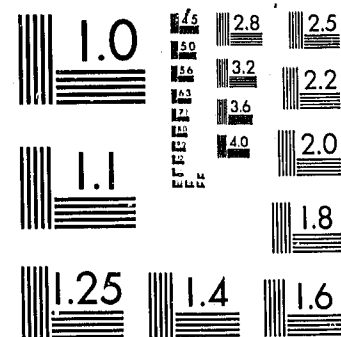


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RECENT NATIONAL TRENDS

IN POLICE SALARIES, BENEFITS,

PERSONNEL AND ISSUES IN

COMMUNITIES OVER 10,000 POPULATION:

A REPORT TO THE DELAWARE

POLICE CHIEFS' COUNCIL

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JULY, 1979

Cooperative Extension Work in Agriculture and Home Economics, Extension Service, University of Delaware and United States Department of Agriculture, Cooperating. Samuel M. Gwinn, Director. Distributed in furtherance of Acts of Congress of May 8 and June 30, 1914. All programs and activities of the Cooperative Extension Service are conducted on a non-discriminatory basis.

INTRODUCTION: This report is a summary of various publications of the International City Management Association.

The inclusion of this material, principally for communities over 10,000 population, presents an overview of police benefits for 1978.

ITEMS:

- MUNICIPAL POLICE ADMINISTRATION
- ISSUES IN POLICE NEGOTIATIONS
- 1978 LABOR ISSUES
- POLICE MANPOWER, COMPENSATION AND EXPENDITURES FOR CITIES OF 10,000 POPULATION AND OVER, 1978
- RECENT DEVELOPMENT IN POLICING
- POLICE BOOK
- POLICE

U.S. Department of Justice
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MUNICIPAL POLICE ADMINISTRATION
INTERNATIONAL CITY MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION

Police Personnel Administration is a management function concerned with the human resources of an organization. No head administrator, whether he is a police chief, a city manager, or other elected executive, can deny responsibility for the human resources of his organization. He must do everything in his power to attract the best candidates and to train, retain, promote, deploy, and discipline when necessary. He can delegate authority to subordinates, but he must keep the final accountability to himself. He must see to it that his agency has the benefits that derive from a well-rounded, comprehensive personnel program.

The following aspects of a comprehensive personnel program are designed to establish and maintain a superior police force:

1. A position classification plan which groups positions into classes sufficiently similar so that the same descriptive title may be given, the same qualifications and tests of fitness may be used to recruit qualified employees, and the same rates of pay may be applied.
2. The preparation and administration of a compensation plan which provides for attractive and equitable salaries and for salary advancement based on satisfactory performance of duties.
3. The recruitment and selection of employees on a competitive merit basis for entrance into the service.
4. An intensive program of recruit and in-service training to equip the new recruit with specific skills and to insure the continuing development of all officers on the force.
5. A program for promotion based on demonstrated merit.
6. An equitable system of evaluating job performance.
7. The regulation of conditions of service, such as vacations, sick leave, transfers, hours of work, and attendance.

8. An effective program of employee relations, including a grievance procedure.
9. The provision of effective machinery for maintaining discipline in the department, which should include recognition for outstanding performance as well as punishment for improper conduct.
10. A sound retirement system that permits the employees to look forward to retirement with full assurance of economic security in their old age.

SALARY ADMINISTRATION

Although there are many elements which determine employee satisfaction, salary is among the most important. Ordinarily pay is determined centrally, either by the personnel agency or by the legislative body on the agency's recommendation. This is done in order to take into account objectively the employer obligation to all its employees, regardless of department. It also provides the jurisdiction's top management with the control necessary to the budgeting process, inasmuch as 85 percent or more of the typical local police department's operating budget goes for salaries.

The pay plan is ordinarily based on the position classification plan. Each classification is assigned to a pay grade, and all positions within the class receive the same pay rate. The relative difficulty and responsibility of each class determines its pay in relation to all other classes.

It is common to provide a pay "band" or range to each class. This permits salary increases without promotion. A new employee usually starts at the bottom step, and is advanced successively through three or four steps until he reaches the maximum of his class. In theory, these within-grade salary advances are intended to recognize greater efficiency as the employee obtains more experience. Many plans permit the withholding of step increases unless the employee's service is satisfactory or better and some plans permit more rapid step increases in cases of meritorious service. The amount of the increase varies; some agencies standardize their increase at 5 percent while others have smaller amounts. There is no one "right" range. Too wide a range has the effect of creating too low an entrance rate, thus discouraging new applicants. Too narrow a range fails to reward longer-service employees.

While the basic pay range is by far the biggest salary problem, there are also related problems which must be considered. With most police officers working in uniforms which are usually more expensive than ordinary clothing, a determination is necessary as to who shall pay for them, the employee or the employer. Practices vary widely. Some cities furnish everything required, and replace it when worn or damaged. Others provide a cash allowance, usually paid annually. In some cities, the allowance ceases if a man is assigned to

plainclothes work. Others argue that there is greater wear and tear on a detective's clothing because he must continue to wear weapon and holster. Whether or not the investigator receives a uniform allowance, it is common practice to replace clothing damaged in a scuffle with prisoners or in other emergency duty.

Paid overtime is also a special pay problem for police. Some cities have no set policy, others provide premium pay for any overtime, regardless of cause, just as would be done with factory employees. Some cities classify overtime according to its cause, such as court appearances, training, or extra duty, and vary their overtime pay accordingly. This distinction arose because some police administrators felt it unwise to have an officer profit from an arrest by getting cash payment while testifying in court. There has been a trend toward more cash payment and less granting of compensatory time off, simply to conserve manhours of police coverage.

Pay administration has such a heavy and direct impact on the jurisdiction's budget that few police administrators will have a large voice in establishing policy. Nevertheless, the police administrator should be aware of his jurisdiction's policies, and make sure that its policies further the aim of obtaining and retaining qualified personnel.

"ISSUES IN POLICE NEGOTIATIONS"

PUBLIC MANAGEMENT, APRIL 1977

(ICMA)

Basic Police Issues are:

- base rates of pay and cost of living provisions;
- shift differential pay;
- longevity pay;
- overtime pay;
- call-in or call-back pay;
- pay for work performed out of job classification;
- paid meal periods;
- court time pay;
- uniform replacement and cleaning allowances;
- allowances for equipment and hardware;
- creation of new or increased coverage of existing insurance programs;
- education bonus pay and cost reimbursement;
- increased pension benefits and severance pay;
- reimbursement for unused sick leave;
- vacation time off;

- holiday time off (or pay, if worked);
- sick leave accrual;
- funeral leave;
- personal or business time off,
- time off to attend school;
- time off for union business;
- leaves of absence for political reasons;
- time off to negotiate with management;
- shortening of work day/work week;
- disability time off with full pay;
- minimum manning requirements; and
- restrictions on duties performed or assigned.

1978 LABOR ISSUES

THE MUNICIPAL YEARBOOK - 1979

(IMCA)

Although public sector collective bargaining has been generally accepted in most states, it is interesting to note that a superior court in Connecticut ruled that the arbitration section of the state law mandating compulsory binding arbitration for municipal collective bargaining was unconstitutional because of improper delegation of authority to politically unaccountable persons, lack of sufficient standards, and inadequate judicial review. The state and the unions have appealed the decision.

Pennsylvania established a commission to conduct a study of public sector labor-management relations to be used in evaluating state collective bargaining laws.

Hawaii joins the many states that have adopted compulsory arbitration as the procedure for resolving labor relations disputes. An alternative to the binding arbitration approach to conflict resolution was enacted by the Wisconsin legislature. The law gives municipal employees the limited right to strike and creates procedures for the resolution of bargaining impasses.

A California appellate court held that a public agency may seek damages against a union following an illegal strike.

Unemployment compensation continues to be extended by many states to cover municipal personnel. This is the case in Oklahoma, where municipalities are required to give workers compensation but have been given the option of purchasing coverage for both employees and elected officials from the state insurance fund or of self-insuring. Pennsylvania has also extended such coverage to municipal personnel but specifically excludes legislative bodies, the judiciary, and other elected officials.

Pensions and disability provisions have been included in state enactments during the past year. Montana municipalities are required to pay an injured police officer's full wages during the period of disability, or for one year, whichever ends first. The Idaho's legislature increased the city's share of the firefighters' retirement fund by 1% and the firefighters' share by 2.5%. Other benefits were reduced, and monies were appropriated for an actuarial study of the program. Similarly, the Colorado legislature enacted a law aimed at reform of the police and fire pensions that includes an actuarial study of pension funds, establishment of minimum funding, and the creation of a legislative police and fire pension reform commission to develop benefits legislation. The law increased the state contribution to local police and fire pension funds by \$2 million. Florida also has acted to establish an actuarially sound basis for its retirement system, which covers participating municipalities.

Some states continue to retain strong powers in employee relations. The Hawaii Supreme Court ruled that political subdivisions may not adopt charter powers regarding personnel procedures that conflict with state laws. Essentially the same conclusion was reached by the Nebraska Supreme Court, which determined that the state had in fact preempted the field of labor law.

Other state actions relating to specific personnel matters included striking down a Georgia municipality's six months' residence requirement for police officers and firefighters, establishment of mandatory standards in Missouri for the selection and training of police officers together with a mechanism for funding such training, and a decision of the common wealth court in Pennsylvania ordering reinstatement of seven white male applicants, displaced in an affirmative action favoring minorities and women, to a fire department eligibility list. A California Supreme Court decision validated a physical agility test requiring city police applicants to scale a six foot wall.

"POLICE MANPOWER, COMPENSATION
AND EXPENDITURES FOR CITIES OF
10,000 POPULATION AND OVER, 1978"
- THE MUNICIPAL YEARBOOK, 1979

(ICMA)

This article examines manpower, compensation, and expenditures for police in United States municipalities 10,000 and over in population. (In this report the terms cities and municipalities are used interchangeably and reflect cities, villages, towns, townships and boroughs.)

Data are based on responses to a mail survey conducted in January 1978 by the International City Management Association (ICMA), as well as on responses to similar surveys done in previous years.

Police work is among the most visible and most important of all municipal services. It is also the most labor intensive with 89% of the typical police budget devoted to salaries and fringe benefits.

Personnel are perhaps the most critical resource of police service. While many factors affect a city's ability to attract and retain competent employees - salaries and benefits are among the most important. Recently many cities are placing greater emphasis on the total compensation concept - the total monetary value of salary and fringe benefits. Cities must offer salaries and benefits that are competitive with other occupations in order to retain and attract high caliber personnel.

As is the case with other employees including municipal, police officers have increasingly turned to employee organizations and unions to acquire salary and fringe benefits.

Hours of Work:

Police personnel work on average is 40 hours per week.

Table 1. FULL-TIME PAID POLICE PERSONNEL¹ IN COMMUNITIES OVER 10,000 POPULATION, 1978

Classification	Police Department		
	No. of cities reporting	Mean	Per 1,000 population
Total, all cities	1,443	130	2.57
Population group			
Over 1,000,000	4	10,212	4.55
500,000 - 1,000,000	12	2,166	3.24
250,000 - 499,999	26	930	2.66
100,000 - 249,999	73	319	2.26
50,000 - 99,999	165	142	2.05
25,000 - 49,999	354	69	1.97
10,000 - 24,999	809	32	2.01
Geographic region			
Northeast	336	93	2.67
North Central	452	131	2.58
South	377	137	2.68
West	278	166	2.40
Geographic division			
New England	131	63	2.18
Mid-Atlantic	205	112	2.90
East North Central	300	156	2.80
West North Central	152	82	1.98
South Atlantic	173	168	3.15
East South Central	59	104	2.46
West South Central	145	113	2.18
Mountain	63	162	2.49
Pacific Coast	215	167	2.38
Metro status			
Central	245	521	3.00
Suburban	800	55	1.95
Independent	398	42	2.08
Form of government			
Mayor-Council	498	205	3.05
Council-Manager	833	94	2.18
Commission	54	104	2.16
Town Meeting	41	32	1.89
Rep. town meeting	17	59	2.02

¹Includes uniformed and nonuniformed personnel.

Source: Municipal Yearbook - 1979.

Notes: The average number of full-time paid police department employees for all reporting municipalities is 130. The number of employees per 1,000 population is 2.57.

- The average size of the force is directly related to city size. The number of employees per 1,000 population is also related to city size with one exception: the number of employees per 1,000 population in cities 10,000 to 24,999 is slightly higher than in cities 25,000 to 49,999.

Central cities and those with the mayor-council form of government have both a considerably larger average police force and more employees per 1,000 population than do other municipalities within their respective classifications. Northeastern municipalities have the smallest average force but the second largest number of employees per 1,000 population of all the geographic regions.

Table 2. POLICE OFFICERS' ANNUAL BASE SALARIES IN COMMUNITIES OVER 10,000 POPULATION, JANUARY, 1978.

Classification	Minimum Salary				Maximum Salary				No. of years to reach maximum			
	No. of cities reporting	Mean	First quartile	Median	Third quartile	No. of cities reporting	Mean	First quartile	Median	Third quartile	No. of cities reporting	Mean
Total, all cities . . .	1,437	\$11,472	\$ 9,799	\$11,436	\$13,032	1,424	\$14,026	\$12,000	\$13,876	\$16,078	1,276	4
Population Group												
Over 1,000,000	4	14,920	13,908	14,921	15,115	4	18,428	15,769	18,792	19,271	4	3
500,000 - 1,000,000 . . .	12	12,787	10,823	13,092	13,799	12	16,144	14,928	15,890	16,619	12	7
250,000 - 499,999 . . .	26	12,581	10,575	12,707	13,975	26	15,788	13,319	15,589	17,814	25	5
100,000 - 249,999 . . .	73	12,175	10,062	11,892	13,291	73	15,071	12,719	13,998	16,634	67	5
50,000 - 99,999 . . .	165	12,298	10,848	12,144	13,758	165	15,054	12,690	15,123	17,295	155	4
25,000 - 49,999 . . .	352	11,868	10,082	12,001	13,500	351	14,633	12,578	14,807	16,800	323	4
10,000 - 24,999 . . .	805	10,994	9,466	10,894	12,399	793	13,336	11,332	13,176	15,319	690	4

Source: Municipal Yearbook - 1979

Notes: The average annual entrance salary for full-time paid police officers for all reporting cities is \$11,472. The overall average maximum salary is \$14,026 - 22.3% higher than the entrance salary. An average of four years of service is required to reach the maximum salary.

Both average entrance salaries and average maximum salaries are positively related to city size. The only exception is for cities 50,000 to 99,999 where the average entrance salary is \$123 greater than that for cities 100,000 to 249,999.

Among geographic regions, entrance salaries have a range of \$19,869, from a low of \$5,902 in the South to a high of \$25,771 in the West (not shown in table). Maximum salaries have a range of \$22,802, from a low of \$6,360 in the South to a high of \$29,162 in the West. The southern and the western geographic regions also report the lowest and highest average entrance salaries and average maximum salaries, respectively.

By form of government, council-manager cities pay the highest average entrance salaries and average maximum salaries and representative town meeting municipalities the next highest.

Table 3. TRENDS IN POLICE OFFICERS' SALARIES IN COMMUNITIES OVER 10,000 POPULATION, 1973-1978.

Classification	No. of cities included	Jan. 1 1973	Jan. 1 1974	% Increase from 1973	Jan. 1 1975	% Increase from 1974	Jan. 1 1976	% Increase from 1975
Minimum Avg. Salary (Total all Cities)	655	\$ 8,361	\$ 8,898	6.4	\$ 9,666	8.6	\$10,373	7.3
Maximum Avg. Salary (Total all Cities)	642	10,035	10,771	7.3	11,736	9.0	12,681	8.1

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Classification	Jan. 1 1977	% Increase from 1976	Jan. 1 1978	% Increase from 1977	% Increase Jan. '73 to Jan. '78
Minimum Avg. Salary (Total all Cities)	\$11,046	6.5	\$11,690	5.8	39.8
Maximum Avg. Salary (Total all Cities)	13,513	6.6	14,432	6.8	43.8

Source: Municipal Yearbook - 1979

Notes: The greatest increase in average entrance and maximum salaries for the three services over the six year period 1973 to 1978 was from 1 January 1974 to 1 January 1975.

Over the period 1973 to 1978, average salaries increased by 39.8% for police minimum salaries.

Table 4. EXPENDITURES FOR SALARIES AND WAGES (CIVILIAN AND UNIFORMED)¹
OF POLICE IN COMMUNITIES OVER 10,000 POPULATION, 1978.

Classification	No. of cities reporting	Police Department	
		Total (000)	Per capita
Total, all cities	1,426	\$3,276,392	\$45.08
Population Group			
Over 1,000,000	4		
500,000 - 1,000,000	12	755,112	84.11
250,000 - 499,999	26	753,606	94.07
100,000 - 249,999	73	373,148	41.04
50,000 - 99,999	161	347,395	33.79
25,000 - 49,999	352	342,280	30.62
10,000 - 24,999	798	354,936	28.89
		349,915	27.22
Geographic Region			
Northeast	324		
North Central	448	483,393	42.49
South	375	1,313,022	57.35
West	279	675,928	35.21
		804,049	41.84
Geographic Division			
New England	125		
Mid-Atlantic	199	123,146	33.52
East North Central	298	360,247	46.77
West North Central	150	1,140,196	68.38
South Atlantic ²	172	172,826	27.80
East South Central	59	403,879	43.90
West South Central	144	71,729	28.89
Mountain	63	200,320	26.66
Pacific Coast	216	147,785	36.06
		656,264	43.41
Metro Status			
Central	242		
Suburban	788	2,389,225	56.32
Independent	396	691,318	31.11
		195,849	24.37
Form of Government			
Mayor-Council	489		
Council-Manager	829	2,010,250	60.69
Commission	53	1,149,436	32.09
Town Meeting	39	78,828	30.35
Rep. Town Meeting	16	19,967	30.46
		17,911	37.06

Table 4 (continued)

¹Includes regular, temporary, full-time, and part-time personnel. The gross amount, including longevity pay, hazard pay, holiday pay, etc., without deduction of withholding for income tax or employee contributions for social security or retirement coverage, was requested.

²South Atlantic is: Delaware, Maryland, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, DC and West Virginia.

Source: Municipal Yearbook - 1979.

Notes: Total per capita expenditures for salaries and wages for police personnel are \$45.08 and are directly related to city size with one exception - cities 500,000 to 1,000,000 show the highest per capita figure of all population classes. Of total police department expenditures, 72.3% go for salaries and wages.

Geographically, cities in the North Central region (only in the East North Central division) report the highest per capita expenditure.

Table 5. TOTAL MUNICIPAL CONTRIBUTIONS FOR SOCIAL SECURITY AND STATE AND CITY ADMINISTERED EMPLOYEE RETIREMENT SYSTEMS (civilian and uniformed) FOR POLICE IN COMMUNITIES OVER 10,000 POPULATION, 1978.

Classification	No. of cities reporting	Police Department	
		Total (000)	Per capita
Total, all cities	1,331	\$619,774	\$ 8,888
Population Group			
Over 1,000,000	4	216,159	24.08
500,000 - 1,000,000	12	107,074	13.37
250,000 - 499,999	26	81,895	9.01
100,000 - 249,999	72	62,228	6.15
50,000 - 99,999	149	53,500	5.19
25,000 - 49,999	328	52,601	4.61
10,000 - 24,999	740	46,317	3.89

Source: Municipal Yearbook - 1979

Notes: Per capita expenditures for retirement systems are \$8.88 for all reporting cities and are directly related to city size.

Municipal contributions for employee benefits to retirement systems represent 13.7% of total police department expenditures.

The highest percentage (64.9%) of retirement expenditures is for contributions to city administered employee retirement systems (not shown in table). State administered systems receive 28.9% of the money expended, and 6.2% of the retirement funds goes to the federal social security system.

Table 6. TOTAL MUNICIPAL CONTRIBUTIONS FOR HEALTH, HOSPITAL, DISABILITY, AND LIFE INSURANCE PROGRAMS (civilian and uniformed) FOR POLICE IN COMMUNITIES OVER 10,000 POPULATION, 1978.

Classification	Police Department		
	No. of cities reporting	Total (000)	Per capita
Total, all cities	1,319	\$134,504	\$2.02
Population Group			
Over 1,000,000	3	30,275	5.15
500,000 - 1,000,000	12	18,846	2.35
250,000 - 499,999	26	17,133	1.88
100,000 - 249,999	71	15,571	1.56
50,000 - 99,999	150	17,403	1.67
25,000 - 49,999	322	17,625	1.57
10,000 - 24,999	735	17,651	1.49

Source: Municipal Yearbook - 1979.

Notes: Total municipal expenditures for health, hospital, or disability, and life insurance programs are \$2.02 per capita for police personnel and are generally related to city size.

Expenditures for insurance programs represent 3% of total police expenditures.

Of the total monies expended for insurance, contributions to health, hospital, or disability programs received the majority (92.5%) of the funds.

Cities over 1,000,000, those in the Northeast (only in the Mid-Atlantic division), central cities, and those with the mayor-council form of government make the highest per capita contributions to insurance programs within their respective classifications.

Table 7. TOTAL POLICE PERSONNEL EXPENDITURES (civilian and uniformed)¹ IN COMMUNITIES OVER 10,000 POPULATION, 1978.

Classification	Police Department		
	No. of cities reporting	Total (000)	Per capita
Total, all cities	1,449	\$4,029,746	\$54.95
Population Group			
Over 1,000,000	4	1,001,546	111.56
500,000 - 1,000,000	12	879,526	109.79
250,000 - 499,999	26	472,176	51.93
100,000 - 249,999	73	425,194	41.36
50,000 - 99,999	166	413,183	36.03
25,000 - 49,999	355	424,238	34.19
10,000 - 24,999	813	413,883	31.59
Geographic Region			
Northeast	336	587,368	50.12
North Central	454	1,564,105	67.73
South	377	838,766	43.62
West	282	1,039,507	53.86
Geographic Division			
New England	131	143,042	37.91
Mid-Atlantic	205	444,326	55.92
East North Central	301	1,351,482	80.58
West North Central	153	212,623	33.63
South Atlantic	173	522,846	56.76
East South Central	59	89,785	36.16
West South Central	145	226,135	30.01
Mountain	64	171,959	41.72
Pacific Coast	218	867,548	57.16
Metro Status			
Central	245	2,969,126	69.79
Suburban	805	829,210	36.52
Independent	399	231,410	28.61
Form of Government			
Mayor-Council	500	2,493,968	74.41
Council-Manager	837	1,391,465	38.62
Commission	54	101,983	39.11
Town Meeting	41	21,998	32.03
Rep. Town Meeting	17	20,332	40.78

¹Total personnel expenditures include salaries and wages for all department personnel.

Table 7. (continued)

Source: Municipal Yearbook - 1979.

Notes: Total personnel expenditures in all reporting cities are \$54.95 per capita and are directly related to city size.

Expenditures for salaries and wages and employee fringe benefits represent 89% of total police department expenditures. Of total personnel expenditures, salaries and wages consume 81.3%, retirement systems receive 15.4%, and insurance programs receive the remaining 3.3%.

Geographically, municipalities in the North Central region (only in the East North Central division) have the highest per capita figures.

Central cities and those with the mayor-council form of government have the highest per capita figures in their classifications.

"RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN POLICING"

MUNICIPAL YEARBOOK - 1979

John F. Heaphy
Police Foundation

In policing, as in other services, the year 1978 was marked by a growing awareness of cost control issues. In the face of increasing costs and limited resources, local police forces were forced to concern themselves with improving productivity, particularly in the area of patrol. A second major issue during 1978 was police use of deadly force; this was the subject of much discussion and study - both internally and externally.

PRODUCTIVITY AND COST CONTROL

State and local governments are challenged to provide more effective police services at a time when the growing desire for public safety is surpassed only by the increase in police costs... (The) fiscal facts of life have forced many communities to recognize that the demand for more police services cannot be met simply by expanding the police force. Rather, police departments must learn to use more effectively the personnel and other resources currently available to them.

This was the judgment of a blue ribbon Advisory Group on Productivity in Law Enforcement five years ago. Today even that statement underestimates the problem, for it does not take into account the current trend not just toward budget freezes but also toward budget cuts - which means that an increasing number of police departments must find ways of maintaining established service levels with less money. California's Proposition 13 is of course the most visible and dramatic manifestation of the cost control mandate being given to local government, but it is far from being the only one. Police administrators across the country are struggling to maintain adequate police services in the face of budget decreases or to hold the line against increased costs.

The changed circumstances under which police services must operate have brought about an increased interest in maximizing efficiency and have generated considerable analysis of police practices, costs, and effectiveness. One study of felony arrests in a major city, conducted by the Institute for Law and Social Research, found that 70% of all arrests for serious crimes did not result in convictions; of the arrests that did result in convictions, half were made by only 15% of police officers. The study cited similar results in other large cities and clearly indicated that police departments would do well to emphasize quality rather than quantity in arrest performance.

Another major study examined costs and administrative practices among 50 of the nation's larger jurisdictions and found wide variations, including the following:

1. Median per capita costs of policing ranged from \$43 to \$83.
2. The median percentage of personnel assigned to the patrol function was 55%; the range was from 41% to 86%.
3. The median percentage of sworn personnel at the rank of sergeant ranged from a low of 4% to a high of 27%.
4. The number of sworn officers per 1,000 population ranged from 1.4 to 5.7.

The report notes that although the data are not definitive they should encourage discussion of the relative costs and benefits of various organizational approaches.

The costs of policing continue to rise. Police salaries across the nation increased almost 100% between 1967 and 1977. A Police Foundation study covering a variety of cities reports that in 1977 the median salary of a police patrol officer with 10 to 15 years' experience ranged from \$14,000 to \$16,200; the range for police sergeants was from \$14,700 to \$22,900.

UNIONIZATION AND POLICE JOB ACTIONS

Critical to productivity and cost control in law enforcement is the role of organized labor. In September 1978 Police Magazine reported U.S. Bureau of the Census statistics indicating that almost 55% of the 463,000 persons employed by local or county police departments belong to some union or local association. In the same issue Police reports that "at least 10,000 police officers across the country are members of Teamsters locals. Teamsters officials estimate that they bargain on behalf of 15,000 police in about 225 municipalities." A Police Foundation survey of changes in American policing indicates that the percentage of police departments having a police union doubled in the ten years between 1967 and 1977 - from 20% to 40%. More than half of the reporting departments indicate that the power of the unions has grown significantly over this ten year period.

The Police Executive Research Forum recently completed a study of 98 police collective bargaining agreements. Among the more significant findings of the study were the following:

1. Of the contract studied, 75% contained some type of "management rights" clause. Nine percent of these rights clauses were described by the researchers as "strongest", 25% were described as "specific", 29% as "general", 20% as a simple "residual rights" clauses, and 9% as a "manager's nightmare."
2. Twenty-six percent of the contracts contained a police officers' "bill of rights", describing the rights of officers under departmental investigation.
3. Seventy-five percent of the contracts prescribed binding third party arbitration for final-step resolution of grievances; only 10% vested final-step resolution authority in the police chief or city manager.

The U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics reported knowing of 44 police strikes in 1977; data show that cities of all sizes were equally affected. In 1978 police job actions continued to plague citizens and city administrators across the nation. The most dramatic recent case occurred in Memphis, where 1,100 police officers were on strike for a week. The issue was not primarily money, and the strikers eventually settled for a pay increase equal to the city's original offer. The strike was seen as a statement by the police opposing the city's attitudes towards organized labor in general and toward contract negotiation procedures in particular. Police in Cleveland also staged a walkout that was not related to wage demands. In a New York City action, however, the issue was indeed economics.

FIREARMS POLICY

Although 91% of reporting departments have a written firearm policy, only 58% have "developed and enunciated policy guidelines for the exercise of law enforcement discretion." The Police Foundation study cited earlier also showed considerable variation in the rate at which police used firearms in 50 different jurisdictions. The percentage of incidents per 100 sworn police officers in which the officer discharged a firearm ranged from 0% to 10.14%. No city size trends or regional differences were noted.

On the basis of an extensive review of the literature on police use of deadly force and survey of seven major cities, a recent report concluded that there is a clear national trend in police departments toward enacting written policies governing the use of force; at the same time many departments appear to be avoiding policies that are more restrictive than state law for fear of increasing their vulnerability to civil suits. The report documents further the great jurisdictional variation in the rate of shootings by police. It recommends that written use-of-force policies be based not simply on the seriousness of the original offense but also on the dangerousness of the suspect in a given confrontation.

POLICE BOOK

PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

APRIL, 1977, ICMA

Many of the local independent police associations belong to the International Conference of Police Associations. This is an umbrella type of association which functions as a professional service organization providing information, training, and lobbying services to its member organizations. The ICMA was reported in 1976 to have 175 member associations representing over 200,000 police officers.

One of the oldest police organizations is the Fraternal Order of Police (FOP) established in 1915. The FOP considers itself a professional association. It is a loose confederation of local lodges which are autonomous units that engage in all phases of collective bargaining including work stoppages. In 1976 more than 1,000 local lodges in over forty-four states representing over 150,000 members were affiliated with the FOP. The FOP is particularly strong in the South and the North Central states.

The International Brotherhood of Police Officers (IBPO), formed in 1964, is affiliated with The National Association of Government Employees. It was estimated in 1976 that the IBPO has over 280 chapters representing 37,000 members. Most of its chapters are in New England. The IBPO considers itself a police union and is interested in civil service reforms in police departments and in becoming the bargaining agent for police officers.

A number of police employee organizations are affiliated with organized labor. One AFL-CIO affiliate is the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME), which was reported, in the mid-1970s, to have 100 local chapters representing over 20,000 police officers. AFSCME is particularly strong in the East and Midwest. The Union has experienced limited success in expanding its police membership because of its liberal orientation, past suspensions of striking police locals, and the industrial nature of the union. Jerry Wurf, AFSCME's president, has advocated the use of compulsory binding arbitration as a means of avoiding police strikes. Another AFL-CIO affiliate organizing police officers is The Service Employees International Union which in 1972 established the National Union of Police Officers as a separate and autonomous affiliate. The National Union of Police Officers was first established in 1969 by John Cassese, former president of the New York Policemen's Benevolent Association. He had intended the union to be a national police union and requested a charter from the AFL-CIO, which was denied. Membership in The National Union of Police Officers has declined from 10,000 in 1969 to 3,000 in 1975.

The International Brotherhood of Teamsters has organized a strong drive to unionize police officers in the Midwest and West. In the mid-1970s the Teamsters were reportedly negotiating for 200 law enforcement units of various sizes. According to the Teamster headquarters, the actual number of police personnel covered is not known, because organizing is decentralized and police are grouped together in locals with other municipal employees. Teamster police locals are found in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, California, Virginia, South Dakota, and Connecticut. The Teamsters have been promoting their services as bargaining agents for nonunionized police forces in California. Police organizations in San Diego and eleven other California cities have signed representation contracts with the Teamsters, paying fees as high as \$190,000. The Teamster drive to organize police officers has received some opposition from police officers because of the union's alleged ties to organized crime.

-- excerpt from new volume in ICMA's Municipal Management Series (Green Books), Local Government Police Management, scheduled for publication, May 20, 1977.

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NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION
ON CRIMINAL JUSTICE STANDARDS & GOALS
1973

POLICE SALARIES

While an adequate salary will not necessarily guarantee an individual's job satisfaction, it will invariably serve to prevent salary-related expressions of discontent. Frederick Herzberg, in the Motivation to Work described salary as one of the "hygiene factors" which "serve primarily to prevent job

dissatisfaction, while having little effect on positive job attitudes." In Work and the Nature of Man, Herzberg expounds on his "motivation-hygiene theory" by stating that, "As an affector of job attitudes, salary has more potency as a job dissatisfier than as a job satisfier." Thus, an inadequate salary may result in various forms of unacceptable employee behavior. Such behavior may range from inattention to duty to "sick-ins" to outright corruption.

Every police agency should employ the most qualified personnel available. Competition in today's labor market is keen, however, and will become more so in the future. Unless the police service can compete successfully, the most qualified candidates for police positions will go to other employers.

A police agency must compete not only with neighboring police agencies for qualified candidates, but with other employers within the criminal justice system, other government services, business, industry, the trades, and the military. All are seeking capable, educated, and ambitious young men. Despite stiff competition, the manpower is available if the police service is willing to enter the competition.

One of the undeniable prerequisites for successful recruitment is a competitive salary. Police agencies must meet or exceed the salaries offered by other employers seeking individuals with similar qualifications. Although a competitive salary cannot in itself insure success in recruitment, the lack of such a salary may well assure failure.

What then is an equitable, entry-level salary for a police officer? Can a minimum salary be fixed that will assure that all agencies are adequately manned? Claude R. Soble, professor of law at the University of Cincinnati and former editor in chief of the Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, stated in the January 1970 issue of Police Times that "no trained police officer worthy of the name should be paid less than \$10,000 a year." New York City's Commissioner of Police, Patrick V. Murphy, while serving as Washington DC Public Safety Director, also advocated the \$10,000 starting salary for police: "If we want to have true professional policemen, we must pay the bill." In 1967, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice recommended a starting salary between \$7,000 and \$10,000, with a maximum exceeding \$15,000.

Some experts, however, disapprove of so high a nationwide minimum police salary. They argue that nationwide elevation of police salaries is Utopian, naive, and generally impractical. They point out that economic conditions, particularly local government budgets, vary widely throughout the country and that police salaries must reflect these local variances.

A workable compromise is for each State to establish a minimum salary for police and encourage every agency to adopt it. By considering the particular nature of each of its economic and political areas, each State can devise a workable entry-level salary for all police within its jurisdiction. Each police agency, according to its needs and resources, may then choose to exceed the State minimum. Thus, each agency retains autonomy and flexibility in establishing its salary structure above the State minimum.

In any event, the entry-level salary for each agency should be predicated upon those factors that are relevant to that particular agency. Moreover, in any salary determination, each agency should consider its employment standards. If educational requirements are high or specific expertise is desired, then salaries must necessarily be high to attract qualified applicants. Similarly, the size and functions of the agency itself must be evaluated. A small agency engaged primarily in traffic activities may have personnel recruitment and retention problems entirely different from a large, highly specialized metropolitan agency. Salaries must be adjusted accordingly.

Economic conditions within the jurisdiction are also a factor in salary determinations. A police agency cannot justify salaries that far exceed those offered by all other employers in the community. Conversely, an inflated economy requires that police salaries be at a level competitive with those offered by other local employers.

Finally, the law of supply and demand governs police salaries. A shortage of immediately available qualified applicants may compel the agency to establish higher salaries in addition to expanding its recruitment effort.

STATE MINIMUM SALARY

Unless local police agencies comply with the State minimum entry-level salary, it will become nothing more than a meaningless guideline for local governments. An agency already meeting or exceeding the standard should adjust its salary structure annually, according to need, while still complying with the State minimum.

In determining a minimum salary for its police agencies, a State should first consider the employment criteria for entry into the police service. In States with uniformly stringent selection standards for police officers, minimum salaries should be established based on the caliber of the police officer being employed. In States where the quality of officers varies among agencies, a minimum should be set that can be met realistically by every agency but that does not encourage mediocrity in agencies with low salary scales.

The budgetary constraints of agencies within the State, as well as the economic climate of the State itself, may govern the minimum salary. An unusually high minimum salary may be beyond the capabilities of some smaller agencies. However, a high minimum may be necessary to raise the level of service substantially.

As an incentive for local agencies to meet the State minimum entry-level salary, States should partially reimburse any agency that complies with the minimum. By 1978, States should provide such agencies with 25 percent of total employee salary costs. To discourage agencies from using only sworn personnel, reimbursement should be based on salaries of both sworn and civilian employees. When the State is given a measure of control over local police operations or policies, the State should pay a portion of the cost.

In 1971, the Florida Police Standards Board established a foundation to supplement police salaries with State funds. A minimum salary of \$5,400 per year had been set for police officers in all agencies that met State standards. Agencies that already paid entry-level salaries of \$6,000 or more were afforded 6 percent increases. Agency participation is voluntary, and the Board determines the amount to be awarded to each. Legislation was also adopted allowing the State to pay local agencies salary incentives for officers obtaining college credits. However, due to inadequate funding, this program is presently quite limited in scope.

The State of Kentucky offers a monetary supplement to local agencies in order to raise the educational and training standards of officers. Funds are distributed through the State Law Enforcement Foundation Program Fund. To become eligible for funding, an agency must pay a minimum annual salary of \$4,350, require a high school degree for sworn status, and require all officers to complete a basic training course of at least 240 hours each calendar year. Eligible agencies are entitled to receive 15 percent of each qualified officer's annual salary, to be paid to each officer in addition to his salary. The fund will also pay 50 percent of any salary increase paid an officer solely because of college credits earned. Disbursements are limited to \$500 per year for each officer.

HEALTH INSURANCE

A comprehensive health care program relieves the employee of some of the anxieties associated with raising a family, especially concern about what may happen to his family if he becomes ill or cannot pay for needed medical attention for his family. This assurance allows the employee to concentrate to a greater degree on his work.

Police agencies across the United States have recognized the validity of making health care programs available to officers and their families. Ninety-seven percent of the respondents to the Kansas City, Mo., Police Department's 1971 General Administrative Survey of Municipal Police Departments said they had a health care program for their officers. Most departments favored a one-package program of major medical benefits at minimum cost because a group-negotiated plan generally offers more benefits at lower cost.

An inadequate health care program causes employee resentment toward the police agency that offers it. Employees compare their health care programs with those offered by other agencies. Naturally they are displeased if their program fails to measure up to others.

Particularized Health Care Program

A health care program tailored to the needs of the officers and their families should be negotiated with an insurance company. The availability of hospitals, clinics, doctors, and other medical services should be considered as well as the predominant residential pattern of the officers; employees should not have to travel long distances to specified hospitals or doctors.

Hospital insurance, usually obtained through employment plans, paid for about 60 percent of the Nation's private hospital bill in 1969. Health care plans should cover completely all services available in a hospital: individual surgery and related services; the hospital room; emergency care; nursing care; and continuing medical care for pulmonary tuberculosis, mental disorders, drug addiction, alcoholism, and childbirth. These services are by far the most expensive and most financially disastrous to the uninsured individual.

As medical knowledge becomes more advanced and as medicine's tools become more sophisticated, it becomes more difficult for any institution but hospitals and major clinics to acquire the necessary diagnostic and therapeutic skills and machines. There is an increasing need to hospitalize patients for diagnosis and therapy. Failure of medical plans to include coverage for such needs as radiation, inhalation, physical therapy, and expensive diagnostic treatment in hospitals could cause great financial difficulty to an officer and his family. While the possibility that the officer or his family will need these services is statistically very low, the odds are high that if the need occurs he will be unable to obtain them without insurance assistance.

Dental care is the largest unmet health need among Americans and should be included in comprehensive programs. Most major insurance companies have dental plans associated with their medical service plans. Many companies offer major medical dental plans with fairly large deductibles so that routine care remains the patient's worry, but major items of care are paid for.

Vision care plans became an accepted part of health care coverage in 1965. Vision care is essential because imperfect eyesight is one of the most prevalent physical problems.

Federal and State safety standards generally require that police officers who need eyeglasses wear specially treated eyeglasses that can withstand high impact and shock without breaking. Such requirements have increased the price of officers' eyeglasses and should be considered in an officers' insurance needs.

Drugs are also an increasingly important and expensive factor in medical care. The Federal Government's Task Force on Prescription Drugs in 1968 called for medicare plan coverage of prescribed drugs. It has become generally recognized that any comprehensive health care should cover prescriptions.

Supplementing pensions and health care are benefits designed to replace earnings when the employee cannot work. California, Rhode Island, New York, and New Jersey passed Temporary Disability Benefit Laws prior to 1969. In 1969, Hawaii and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico passed Temporary Disability Laws. These laws require employers and employees to contribute to an insurance program providing a percentage of earnings to an employee disabled by sickness or accident. Disability insurance for police officers should be offered as part of the total insurance package. An injured or ill officer who is worried about his lack of income is hardly in the proper frame of mind for recuperation. In addition, he may return to work before full recovery, creating a safety hazard for himself, his fellow officers, and the public.

According to the 1971 Kansas City survey of 41 municipal police agencies, about 44 percent of the agencies surveyed paid for all of the officers' health care program. Some 61 percent paid more than half the cost. This indicates a progressive trend in the police service toward providing health care programs to employees at little or no cost to the employee.

STATE RETIREMENT

Retirement systems for police throughout the Nation vary; some agencies provide none at all while others offer liberal benefits. Most stipulate a minimum and a maximum age for retirement from service. Some require length of service only without consideration of age; others require a combination of age and length of service. The diversity of plans hampers transferability, mobility, or lateral entry among agencies.

Standardization of municipal, county, and State law enforcement retirement systems is vitally necessary to further police professionalism.

The fear of losing accrued pension credits is among the most serious impediments to professional flexibility in the police service. This flexibility is vital to the enhancement of police professionalism across the Nation. It can be accomplished through standardization of municipal, county, and State law enforcement systems. However, to facilitate lateral entry, a national system is far more desirable, and it is recommended that

the Department of Justice initiate and direct a study to determine the feasibility of a national police retirement system.

Retirement systems are subject to various abuses. One of the most serious lies in the distribution of disability pensions. Certainly, those rightly entitled to such compensation should promptly receive their pension. However, due to the lack of safeguards in some disability retirement systems, unscrupulous employees are tempted to feign a job-connected injury and collect more on a disability pension than an individual retiring under normal conditions. The process for sorting out the sincere applicants from the deceitful must have inherent safeguards against fraud and must be efficiently administered by authorities having no personal interest in pension decisions.

As a general rule, retirement systems that permit retirement after 20 years of service, regardless of age, tend to discourage from continued service officers who might otherwise wish to remain with the police agency. The value of these employees' training and experience is likely to be lost because they are encouraged to collect their service pension and increase their previous income as police officers by 25 and perhaps 50 percent by offering their experience and training to another employer. Ironically, that "other" employer is often a different agency of the same government entity they served as police officers.

On the other hand, agencies that require police officers to serve more than 30 years or to attain 55 or 60 years of age before they can retire often are enforcing the continued service of employees who should, for many reasons, be retired. Promotions in these agencies come more slowly than in agencies encouraging earlier retirement, and a greater number of employees are merely biding their time. The character of police agencies with such retirement plans tends to be static rather than dynamic, and highly resistant to change.

These are generalized observations: particular conditions may dictate age or period of service requirements. For example, the work and living conditions of police officers serving an isolated, relatively crime-free rural community may warrant a higher retirement age and a longer period of service than would be warranted in an urban jurisdiction.

Voluntary Membership

Membership in the standardized State system should be voluntary on the part of local agencies. This would assure that strong vested interests in local systems are protected. Inducements such as sharing retirement costs should be an integral part of the State retirement system to attract maximum participation by the State's law enforcement agencies.

Traditionally, the burden of funding local police pension systems has been borne solely by the individual officer and police agency. Police retirement systems should be actuarially sound. The State, the agency, and the officer should each contribute one-third to a pension system funded over a period of time sufficient to pay all liabilities: current service, past service, and unfunded.

The standardized pension system should be multilevel; i.e., providing classes or types of plans. This would allow local agencies to join the system with minimal disruption of their existing plans.

Diverse and Equitable System

In recognition of the wide variations between urban and rural working conditions, provision should be made in State plans for flexibility; a multilevel benefit structure should accommodate widely contrasting retirement needs within a single plan.

Living and working conditions for law enforcement officers in urban crime centers contrast sharply with those for officers in peaceful rural areas. The early retirement ages that are called for in congested cities suffering from crime, drug addiction, race problems, pollution, and a magnitude of other social ills may be unjustified in smaller population centers, particularly in rural areas. In addition, the high pension costs that go hand-in-hand with early retirement on full pension cannot be borne by most rural populations.

Retirement Age

Most major police retirement systems require a minimum of 25 years of service before normal retirement, and age 60 for mandatory retirement. Incorporating this prevailing standard into plans would insure that expertise in law enforcement is retained and retirement at the peak experience years avoided. The Public Employees Retirement System in California adheres to these standards. Approximately 350 public agencies employing safety members subscribe to this system, which includes 20 of the State's 58 counties.

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