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Sara Franceen Edel

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“REPRESENTATIVE BUREAUCRACY” IN POLICE HIRING PRACTICES:  
A CASE STUDY OF A DIVERSE POLICE AGENCY

by

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A Dissertation  
Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the

University of North Dakota

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of


Doctor of Philosophy

Grand Forks, North Dakota

August  
2018

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This dissertation, submitted by Sara Franceen Edel in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of North Dakota, has been read by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done and is hereby approved.

  
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Dr. Michael Meyer, Committee Chairperson

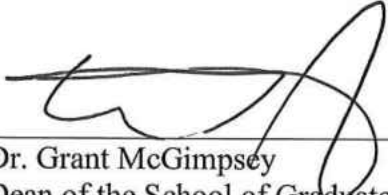
  
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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .....	xv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS .....	xxi
ABSTRACT.....	xxiv
CHAPTER	
I.    INTRODUCTION .....	1
Statement of the Problem .....	4
Benefits of Representative Police Agencies .....	5
Relevant Events .....	9
Multicultural Communities and the Challenges for Law Enforcement.....	12
Purpose of the Study.....	13
Research Question, Seven Sub-questions, and Four Data Sets.....	14
Primary Research Question.....	14
Sub-question #1 .....	14
Sub-question #2 .....	14
Sub-question #3 .....	15
Sub-question #4 .....	15
Sub-question #5 .....	15
Sub-question #6 .....	16

Sub-question #7 .....	16
Significance of the Study .....	16
Interchangeability of Terms .....	17
Diversity.....	17
Representativeness/Diversity/Reflectiveness .....	18
Summary .....	18
Organization of the Chapters.....	18
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE .....	19
Important Social Events and Historical Context at the National Level.....	19
Social Changes.....	20
The Police Recruitment and Hiring Process .....	20
A History of the Issue and Problem/President’s Commissions and Task Forces, and Federal Assessments and Investigations .....	23
The Kerner Commission – Watts Riots .....	23
The Christopher Commission – Rodney King.....	24
U.S. Commission on Civil Rights Reports .....	24
Principles for Promoting Police Integrity .....	24
The President’s Task Force on 21 <sup>st</sup> Century Policing.....	25
The After-action Assessment of the Police Response In Ferguson, Missouri .....	25
Four Models of Policing .....	27
Community-Oriented and Problem-Oriented Policing.....	29

Percentages of Female Police Officers and Police Officers of Color by Type of Agency and Size of Agency .....	31
Status of Females in Policing.....	32
Status of Officers of Color .....	34
The Effects of Changing Demographics within Police Agencies .....	35
The Effects of Representation of African American Police Officers .....	37
Hiring in the Spirit of Service .....	38
Theoretical and Conceptual Framework .....	38
Overview of Representative Bureaucracy Theory .....	39
Passive Representative Bureaucracy.....	41
Factors and Variables that Influence Passive Representation of Female Police Officers and Police Officers of Color .....	42
Economic Factors.....	43
Environmental or Demographic Factors.....	44
Population of Communities of Color.....	44
City Population .....	45
Region in the United States.....	46
Political Factors .....	48
Presence of Females or People of Color in Public Office .....	48
Structure or Type of Government.....	49
Professional Associations .....	50
Institutional or Organizational Factors .....	50



A Formal Administrative Structure to Achieve Social Equity and Representativeness/Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Programs, and Consent Decrees.....	50
Police Chiefs of Color/Top Management of Color.....	54
Agency Size .....	55
Presence and Type of Union or Collective Bargaining Unit .....	55
Autonomous Professional Personnel Bureaus .....	57
African Americans Personnel Directors and Administrators.....	58
Active Representative Bureaucracy .....	58
The Relationship between Passive Representative Bureaucracy and Active Representative Bureaucracy.....	59
Police Performance Outcomes of a Representative Police Force .....	62
Street-level Bureaucrats and Discretion.....	64
Administrative Discretion over Policy Outcomes in the Context of Representative.....	66
Role Acceptance of Administrators .....	68
Public and Police Attitudes .....	69
Attitude Congruence .....	71
Police Attitudes towards the Community .....	72
The Police Subculture .....	72
Leadership at the Local Level to Initiate Change.....	74
How Social Equity Theory Ties into Representative Bureaucracy Theory .....	75

Police Officer Retention and Separation .....	76
Police Officers who Leave for another Law Enforcement Agency .....	80
Females who Leaving Policing .....	80
Length of Service and Separation .....	81
Summary .....	81
III. METHODS .....	82
Theoretical and Conceptual Framework .....	82
Research Design, Philosophical Orientation, and Methodology .....	82
The Case Study as the Research Approach.....	83
Research Questions .....	85
Primary Research Question.....	85
Sub-question #1 .....	85
Sub-question #2 .....	85
Sub-question #3 .....	85
Sub-question #4 .....	86
Sub-question #5 .....	86
Sub-question #6 .....	86
Sub-question #7 .....	86
Data Sources, Data Collection, and Data Analysis .....	86
Description of Semi-structured Interviews .....	88
Interview Schedule.....	88
Data Analysis for Interviews .....	88

Data Analysis Techniques and Strategies .....	90
Triangulation of Data Sources, Methods, and Levels of Analysis .....	90
The Case Selected for Case Study.....	92
Description of Case Agency .....	93
Ethical Issues .....	94
Protection of Participants from Harm .....	94
Voluntary Participation.....	94
Informed Consent.....	94
Confidentiality and Anonymity .....	95
Securing the Data.....	95
Reliability and Validity .....	95
Internal Validity .....	98
Construct Validity.....	98
External Validity.....	98
Authenticity.....	99
Conclusion.....	99
IV. COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA .....	100
Research Questions .....	100
Primary Research Question.....	101
Sub-question #1 .....	101
Sub-question #2 .....	101
Sub-question #3 .....	101
Full-time Police Officer Composition Data .....	101

Full-time Police Officer Applicant Data .....	103
2009 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants.....	107
2010 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants.....	111
2011 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants.....	116
2012 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants.....	122
2013 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants.....	127
2014 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants.....	132
2016 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants.....	137
Summary of Applicants Hired from Postings Open for External and Internal Applicants .....	143
2011 to 2015 Postings for Full-time Police Officer Open Only for Internal Applicants .....	145
Comparison of Applicants Hired from Postings Open for External and Internal Applicants to Postings Open Only for Internal Applicants .....	147
Full-time Police Officers Separation Data .....	148
Conclusion.....	157
V. COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW DATA .....	159
Description of Interview Data .....	159
Sub-question #4 .....	159
Sub-question #5 .....	159

Sub-question #6 .....	159
Sub-question #7 .....	160
Process of Identifying Themes from Analysis of the Interview Data .....	160
Themes for Recruiting, Hiring, and Retention.....	162
The Importance of the Agency being Reflective of its Communities .....	162
The Active Role of the Chief in Diversifying the Agency .....	165
The Impact of Changes in the Hiring Process on Increasing Diversity .....	166
The Influence of Administrative Discretion on Decisions made Regarding Recruiting and Hiring Practices .....	170
The Relationship between the Agency being Responsive to its Communities through a Commitment to Community Policing and Recruiting, Hiring, and Retaining Diversity .....	172
The Impact of External Factors on the Applicant Pool .....	175
The Influence of Organizational Factors on Recruiting, Hiring, and Retention.....	177
The Perception that some Diverse Applicants Hired were not Qualified.....	179
The Positive Influence of Professional Organizations and Associations on Increasing Recruiting, Hiring, and Retention of Female Officers and Officers of Color .....	180
Conclusion.....	181
VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS .....	182

Summary of the Findings .....	182
Contributions of this Study to the Literature .....	188
Discussion and Conclusions for the Composition Data .....	190
Discussion and Conclusions for the Application Data .....	192
Overview of Applicant Data .....	193
The Impact of Changes in the Hiring Process on Increasing Diversity .....	197
The First Change – Moving the Second Interview to Before the Background Investigation .....	197
The Second Change – Addition of Desired Qualifications.....	200
The Third Change – Elimination of the Written Test .....	203
The Fourth Change – Changes in the Background Investigations .....	206
The Impact of the Changes in the Application Process on the Hiring Goals for the Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants.....	208
The 2011 to 2015 Postings for Full-time Police Officer Internal Only Applicants.....	212
The Impact of the Changes in the Application Process on the Hiring Goals for the Postings Open Only to Internal Applicants.....	213
Discussion and Conclusions for Separation Data.....	214
Turnover Rates.....	214
Police Officers who Left for another Law Enforcement Agency (Lateral Moves) .....	220
Female Officers and Officers of Color who Left Policing .....	221
Length of Service and Separation .....	223
Important Factors in Recruiting, Hiring, and Retaining Diversity .....	223

Importance of the Agency being Reflective of its Communities .....	223
The Relationship between the Agency being Responsive to its Communities through a Commitment to Community Engagement and Recruiting, Hiring, and Retaining Diversity.....	224
The Impact of External Factors on the Applicant Pool.....	226
The Influence of Organizational Factors on Recruiting, Hiring, and Retaining Diversity .....	227
The Perception that Some Diverse Applicants Hired were Not Qualified .....	229
The Influence of Administrative Discretion on Decisions made Regarding Recruiting and Hiring Practices.....	231
Influence of Affirmative Action Programs .....	232
The Influence of Structure of Government/Autonomous Personnel Bureaus/Civil Service.....	233
The Influence of Professional Associations.....	234
The Influence of its Union .....	235
The Active Role of Leadership in Diversifying their Agency .....	236
Limitations of this study .....	239
Recommendations for Future Research .....	240
Conclusion.....	241
APPENDIX.....	242
REFERENCES .....	246

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Percent of African American Police Officers, African Americans in Population, and Female Police Officers for the Four Agencies Policing Ferguson, Missouri .....	26
2. Mean Turnover Rates for the 2003 LEMAS Survey and the 2008 CSLLEA Data for Geographic Location, Urban Status, Type of Agency, and Size of Agency .....	79
3. Type of Separation for the 2008 CSLLEA Data by Size of Agencies .....	79
4. Percent of Full-time Police Officers for each Year from 2009 to 2017 by Gender.....	102
5. Percent of Full-time Police Officers of Color for each Year from 2009 to 2017 .....	102
6. Percent of Full-time Police Officers for each Year from 2009 to 2017 by Ethnic Group.....	103
7. Gender of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	108
8. Ethnic Group of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	108
9. Gender of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	109
10. Ethnic Group of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	109
11. Gender of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	110
12. Ethnic Group of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	110
13. Gender of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 3 .....	111
14. Ethnic Group of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 3 .....	111
15. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	112
16. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	112



17. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	113
18. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	113
19. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	114
20. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	114
21. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	115
22. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	115
23. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4 .....	116
24. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4 .....	116
25. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	117
26. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	117
27. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	118
28. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	118
29. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	119
30. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	119
31. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	120
32. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	120
33. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 4 .....	120
34. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 4 .....	121
35. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 5 .....	121
36. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 5 .....	122
37. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	123
38. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	123
39. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	124

40. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	124
41. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	124
42. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	125
43. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	125
44. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	126
45. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4 .....	127
46. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4 .....	127
47. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	128
48. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	128
49. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	129
50. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	129
51. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	130
52. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	130
53. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	131
54. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	131
55. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4 .....	132
56. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4 .....	132
57. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	133
58. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	133
59. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	134
60. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	134
61. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	135
62. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	135

63. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	136
64. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	136
65. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4 .....	137
66. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4 .....	137
67. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	138
68. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.....	138
69. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	139
70. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1 .....	139
71. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	140
72. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2 .....	140
73. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	141
74. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3 .....	141
75. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 4 .....	141
76. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 4 .....	142
77. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 5 .....	143
78. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 5 .....	143
79. Number and Percent of Female and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer from 2009 to 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants.....	144
80. Number and Percent of Full-time Police Officers Hired from 2009 to 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants by Ethnic Group .....	144
81. Gender of 2011 to 2015 Full-time Internal Police Officer Applicants .....	146
82. Ethnic Group of 2011 to 2015 Full-time Internal Police Officer Applicants .....	146
83. Gender of 2011 to 2015 Full-time Internal Police Officer Applicants Hired.....	146

84. Ethnic Group of 2011 to 2015 Full-time Internal Police Officer Applicants Hired .....	147
85. Number and Percent of Female and Person of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by Type of Posting (Open to all Applicants and Internal Only Applicants) .....	148
86. Number of Full-time Police Officer Separations by Turnover Indicator and Total Turnover Rates for each Year from 2010 to 2016 .....	150
87. Number and Average Turnover Rate for the Total Number of Officers who Separated from 2010 to 2016 by Turnover Indicator .....	151
88. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Reason of Separation and Type of Separation .....	152
89. Percent of Reason of Separation from 2010 to mid-2017 using Reaves and Case Agency Categories .....	152
90. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Reason of Separation, Gender, and Ethnic Group .....	154
91. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Five or Less Years of Service and More Than 5 Years of Service .....	155
92. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Years of Service .....	155
93. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Years of Service, Gender, and Ethnic Group .....	155
94. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Years of Service and Type of Separation.....	156
95. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Reason of Separation and Years of Service .....	157
96. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants .....	195
97. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – First Change .....	200

98. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – Second Change .....	202
99. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – Third Change – First Analysis.....	204
100. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – Third Change – Second Analysis .....	206
101. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – Fourth Change .....	207
102. Percent of Underrepresented Groups Applied and Hired for Full-time Police Officer from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants .....	209
103. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Applied and Hired for Full-time Police Officer from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants .....	210
104. Percent of Females, Persons of Color, and Underrepresented Groups Applied and Hired for Full-time Police Officer Internal Only Postings from 2011 through 2015 .....	214
105. Agency Turnover Rates for Officers who Separated from 2010 to 2016 and the 2003 LEMAS Data and 2008 CSLLEA Data (Wareham et al., 2015) by Turnover Indicators .....	216
106. Mean Turnover Rates for the Case Agency, 2003 LEMAS Survey, and the 2008 CSLLEA Data for Geographic Location, Urban Status, Type of Agency, and Size of Agency.....	218
107. Type of Separation for the 2008 CSLLEA Data (Reaves, 2015) and Case Agency .....	220
108. Number and Percent of Agency Turnover Rates and Fyfe and Kane’s (2006) Study by Female and Male Resignations and Involuntary Terminations.....	222

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## ABSTRACT

Diverse police agencies that are reflective of communities they serve are vital to community-oriented and problem-oriented policing, and in repairing fractured relationships by establishing trust and a partnership with communities. Agencies that engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing also attract more female officers and officers of color. The purpose of this study is to describe how one police agency in the Midwest recruits, hires, and retains a representative agency, and to describe what factors are important in this process. It is a descriptive, single case study that uses triangulation of multiple methods, including quantitative and qualitative methods, and multiple data sources. The quantitative methods include composition data from 2009 through 2017, application data from 2009 through 2016, and separation data from 2010 through mid-2017. The one qualitative method, interviews of personnel responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention, provide detailed descriptions from the perspectives of those involved in these practices.

It is evident from the data that representation of females, officers of color, and officers who are fluent in languages other than English, has increased in numbers and percentages for both applications and officers hired. Factors responsible for these increases include the Human Resources Office and command staff prioritizing being reflective of and responsive to the communities it serves, targeting recruitment efforts, setting goals for hiring and composition of female officers and officers of color, and implementing changes in their application process.

This study has implications for this agency, the communities it serves, and other agencies. This agency may use the results of this study to assess the future impact of its recruiting, hiring, and retention practices. This agency may also evaluate the future impact of increasing its diversity on the job performance of officers. Other police agencies who want to be reflective of their communities and engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing, can use this case study as an example. Also discussed are the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

Recent deadly encounters between the police and predominantly African American males have brought race relations between the police and communities, particularly the African American community, to the forefront. These deadly events have occurred in a number of cities across the nation, including Tulsa, Oklahoma; Charlotte, North Carolina; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Baton Rouge, Louisiana; Ferguson, Missouri; Baltimore, Maryland; North Charleston, South Carolina; New York City, New York; Cleveland, Ohio; Chicago, Illinois; and Milwaukee, Wisconsin. These events sparked intense scrutiny and a push to reform policing. Many cities that have had events in which the police were accused of racial bias, misconduct, and use of excessive force involving White officers and people of color, are communities with populations which are growing in the number of residents who are people of color. However, these communities have city leaders, police officers, and police chiefs who are mostly White. Recruiting, selection, and training have become pivotal issues for police agencies due to major shifts in the role and function of policing and external demands for greater accountability, transparency, professionalism and legitimacy (White & Escobar, 2008, p. 119). Recruiting, hiring, and retaining a representative police force is one way to repair fractured relationships and improve the image of police, police-community relations, trust, and the delivery of police services.

Relationships between the police and communities of color, particularly the African American community, have been problematic for law enforcement agencies throughout the United States for several decades. Shusta, Levine, Wong, Olson, and Harris (2011) have highlighted that “in the past 30 years, these struggles have become even more complex and challenging as large numbers of non-English-speaking immigrants, documented and undocumented, have come to America seeking economic, religious, or political freedom” (p. xi). Demands by society in general, community groups and leaders, and professional groups, have pushed for police to be more accountable and engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing in order to build trust and cooperation between the community and police agencies. The community-oriented policing philosophy includes police agencies working with the community to prevent and solve crime and improve quality of life issues, an emphasis on tasks other than crime fighting, increased victim assistance, and increased accountability to the public (J. Greene, 2000; Mastrofski, Worden, & Snipes, 1995; Skolnick & Bayley, 1988). Problem-oriented policing is more focused than community-oriented policing and includes working with the community and other agencies to address the symptoms of problems within the community (J. Greene, 2000). Recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within law enforcement agencies that are reflective of the communities they serve is vital because citizens are more willing to cooperate and be supportive if they perceive the police as legitimate and credible (Shusta et al., 2011, p. xi). This recognizes that “officers come into contact with persons from different cultural or economic backgrounds, socioeconomic classes, religions, and sexual orientations on a daily basis” (Shusta et al., p. 41). Shusta et al. also state that the different groups of people that police interact with bring different perspectives to these interactions, and police agencies with officers from diverse backgrounds are more responsive in providing police

services (p. 41). Ineffective interactions with citizens lead to poor police-community relations, increase tension, and diminish trust and cooperation from the community.

Although diversity is a broad concept that includes gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, culture, language, religion, sexual orientation, age, disability, homelessness, and people with other diverse backgrounds and experiences, this study only addresses gender and race/ethnicity. This research uses the following terms when discussing race and ethnicity: race, ethnicity, ethnic groups, diversity, Whites, African Americans, Blacks, Hispanics, Latinos, American Indians, Native Americans, Alaskan Natives, Asians, Pacific Islanders, non-Whites, people of color, officers of color, communities of color, minorities, and underrepresented groups or populations. This research also uses the terms representative, representativeness, reflective, and diversity interchangeably.

This research is part of a larger discussion in the U.S. on the relationships between race and policing. In order to build trust in fractured relationships and community partnerships, one of the strategies recommended is for agencies to reflect the demographics of the communities they serve. There were a number of agencies and people who wrote reports which supported the recommendation that police agencies should reflect the communities they serve. The notable reports include: *Task Force Report: The Police* (U.S. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967), the *Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders* (U.S. National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, 1968), the *Report of the Independent Commission on the Los Angeles Police Department* (Independent Commission on the Los Angeles Police Department, 1991), *Revisiting "Who is Guarding the Guardians": A Report on Police Practices and Civil Rights in America* (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2000), the *After-action Assessment of the Police Response to the August 2014*

*Demonstrations in Ferguson, Missouri* (Institute for Intergovernmental Research, 2015), and the *Final Report of the President's Task Force on 21<sup>st</sup> Century Policing* (President's Task Force on 21<sup>st</sup> Century Policing, 2015).

### **Statement of the Problem**

Having diverse law enforcement agencies that are representative of the communities they serve is critical as officers with “diverse backgrounds bring a broad range of cultural understanding and language skills to the force” (Matthies, Keller, & Lim, 2012, p. 1). The Kerner Commission established “deep hostility between police and ghetto communities” to be a key cause of “grievance, tensions, and ultimately disorder” during the 1960s (U.S. National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, 1968, p. 299). As a solution, it recommended hiring more minority officers and assigning them in minority neighborhoods (U.S. National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders). Due to the extensive history of negative race relations between the police and minority communities, particularly African American communities, police agencies “have come under increasing pressure from community groups, professional organizations, and their constituents to hire more female and minority police officers” (Raganella & White, 2004, p. 501). Many scholars, reports on disorders and riots, President's Commissions, community leaders and groups, and citizens stress that the police will be viewed as more legitimate, transparent, and more effective in partnering with the community in preventing and controlling crime if police officers reflect the communities they serve (Matthies et al., 2012; President's Task Force on 21<sup>st</sup> Century Policing, 2015; Raganella & White, 2004; Scrivner, 2006). The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (1967) concluded that disparity between the racial composition of police agencies and residents in neighborhoods was related to brutality, unequal treatment of African Americans, and poor

relations between the African American community and the police, leading to civil unrest and riots. Though agencies have made efforts to increase the representation of women and officers of color, including through Affirmative Action and consent decrees, many law enforcement agencies still have not achieved “labor population benchmarks” and do not reflect the demographics in the communities they serve (Matthies et al., 2012; Sklansky, 2006).

“Affirmative Action” is a concept where employers take active steps to improve employment or equal opportunity for women and people of color and to “redress past discrimination” (Dempsey & Forst, 2016, p. 201). The concept of “Equal Opportunity” is different than Affirmation Action and is defined as ensuring “that no discrimination takes place and that everyone has the same opportunity to obtain a job or promotion” (p. 201). Employers can be both an Affirmative Action and an Equal Opportunity employer. A “consent decree” “is an agreement that binds the agency to a particular course of action in regard to hiring and promoting women and minorities in law enforcement” (p. 209).

### **Benefits of Representative Police Agencies**

Having police agencies that are representative of the communities they serve is necessary and timely. Traditionally, law enforcement has been made up of mostly White males from the middle class. Gustafson (2013) stated that the significance of hiring people of color has the potential to destroy stereotypes and increase perceptions of legitimacy by improving interactions between White officers and officers of color, increasing appreciation of other cultures, viewing communities of color more positively, increasing understanding and communication, and closing gaps in social distance leading to more impartiality, fairness, and trustworthiness in the delivery of police services (p. 720).



Female officers and officers of color bring many benefits to a police agency, which includes bringing their culture, language skills, values, and beliefs to those of the diverse communities they serve, leading to a better understanding of those who share similar backgrounds. It also increases understanding and awareness on those from a different background and challenges preconceived notions, prejudice, and racism people hold regarding different groups (Shusta et al., 2011, p. xiii). In Weitzer and Tuch's (2006) national representative survey of U.S. citizens, citizens stated that police departments that are racially diverse "would improve police-community relations by promoting understanding between officers and residents" (p. 141), "curb racially biased practices", improve police behavior, enhance "community confidence in police", change "internal workings of the police department" (p. 142), and have a symbolic effect by promoting equal opportunity and fairness (p. 143).

Agencies with women officers and officers of color are likely to increase awareness of and sensitivity toward diverse cultures and communities among other police officers. This increases effectiveness, trust, and police-community relations. It is also important for women and people of color to see other women and people of color in all positions and ranks within police agencies to serve as role models for those aspiring to be police officers.

The organizational culture is also important to set the proper tone for respecting diversity, including how an agency treats co-workers and the citizens that police officers encounter. To gain the respect and cooperation from the communities they serve, law enforcement agencies must show the communities that they make a sincere effort in recruiting and hiring a diverse agency. It is imperative to treat all officers within the department with respect and dignity. If law enforcement agencies do not have the respect and trust from their female officers and officers of color, agencies cannot expect to gain the respect and trust from the communities they

serve. For example, if an agency discriminates against its officers based on gender and/or race/ethnicity, how can the community entrust that it will be treated fairly and with respect? This sends a strong message. Research shows that having officers from diverse backgrounds increases organizational credibility and has a positive influence on the beliefs, attitudes, stereotypes, biases, and prejudices of other officers. This includes the agency valuing and “understanding the unique characteristics, learning styles, and work attitudes” of the people working within the agency (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 100).

For decades, many people questioned the legitimacy of law enforcement because of its discriminatory practices in recruiting, hiring, retaining, and promoting women and people of color and inability to break down the traditional white male profession (G. Cordner & A. Cordner, 2011; Jordan, Fridell, Faggiani, & Kubu, 2009; Morabito & Shelley, 2015). Law enforcement in America has not fully attained the goal of being representative of the communities they serve. Martin (1994) attributes this to long standing discrimination against women and minorities. Some of the recruiting and hiring practices of police agencies may result in unintentional discrimination, which violates the theory of “adverse impact”. Dempsey and Forst (2016) described the concept of adverse impact from the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) guidelines as “when the selection rate for any gender, race, or ethnic group is less than 80 percent of the selection rate for the group with the highest selection rate” (p. 115). Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act (CRA) that prohibits employment discrimination on the basis of race, color, national origin, sex, and religion diminished this discrimination to some degree (Morabito & Shelley, 2015). Morabito and Shelley add that Executive Order 11246 in 1965 laid the groundwork for Affirmative Action programs to increase diversity in the United States work force.

Over the past several decades, racial and ethnic minorities and women have made progress in being hired in police agencies in the U.S. However, many scholars have noted that this progress has slowed to a halt in many agencies (G. Cordner & A. Cordner, 2011; Morabito & Shelley, 2015; Reaves, 2010; Reaves, 2015). The numbers in the Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) survey collected by the U.S. Department of Justice demonstrate that women police officers and police officers of color are not representative of the general population or general workforce (Morabito & Shelley, 2015; Reaves, 2010; Reaves, 2015).

In their study on the status of women in policing, the National Center for Women and Policing (2002) affirmed that “the continued under-representation of women in policing is a significant contributing factor to the widespread excessive force and corruption scandals plaguing law enforcement today” (p. 3). Research has shown that women police rely less often on physical force and more on their communication skills, and that they are involved less in excessive force complaints, sustained allegations, and civil liability payouts (p. 3).

Through a grant from the U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance, the National Center for Women and Policing (2001) developed a self-assessment guide for law enforcement agencies in recruiting and retaining women. The guide endorses increasing the presence of women in all ranks of police agencies “as a strategy to strengthen community policing, reduce police use of force, enhance police response to domestic violence, and provide balance to the workforce” (p. 1). It also found that research in both the United States and internationally “demonstrates that women police officers use a style of policing that relies less on physical strength, can effectively de-escalate potentially violent confrontations, are less likely to become involved in the use of force, and respond effectively to violence against women” (p. 1).

Recruiting and hiring for a diverse law enforcement agency is not just about social equity or inclusiveness, it is about effectively responding to the changing demographics both within the workforce and within the communities. Having a representative police force brings a wider range of perspectives and experiences that are reflective of the community. Officers of color can assist in making connections with communities of color, educate other officers about their communities, and interpret for their respective communities. The executive director of the Hispanic American Police Command Officer Association, Anthony Chapa, asserted that “one benefit of diversity is to avoid the perception of discrimination” (Sullivan & Gillum, 2014, para. 15). Diversity helps build trust in communities, especially in agencies that have a long history of mistrust.

Many times, police agencies state that they are committed to diversifying their workforce, but, run into obstacles. For example, hiring and promoting females and people of color may be complicated by civil service rules, labor contracts, internal hiring versus outside hiring rules and procedures, and veteran’s preference. Also, candidates of color may be discouraged from pursuing a police career due to the negative relations that police have with communities of color.

### **Relevant Events**

Poor police community relations is not a recent issue in U.S. policing. Since the 1960s, there have been many examples of racial unrest, riots, and civil disobedience, which have been instrumental in moving policing from the professional model to the community policing or service model. These examples include the cities in the Kerner Commission’s *Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders* (1968), Tampa, Cincinnati, Atlanta, Newark, Northern New Jersey, and Detroit; the riots in Los Angeles after Rodney King; and most recently, the riots in Baltimore, and Ferguson. Recruiting women and members of diverse

groups is also not a recent issue for law enforcement in the United States (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 82). The U.S. National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (1968) recommended that in order to address institutional racism by police, more African American or minority officers should be hired and promoted. The Kerner Commission, formed because of the Watts riots, found that there was a significant problem with the lack of African American officers and recommended improving minority hiring and promotion policies and procedures (U.S. National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, 1968; Shusta et al., 2011, p. 82). The Warren Christopher Commission Report on the Los Angeles Police Department that followed the Rodney King riots found bias and racism with the police department (Independent Commission on the Los Angeles Police Department, 1991; Shusta et al., 2011, p. 82). Its recommendations included improving the “hiring and promotion process that would benefit all groups” (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 82).

Many of the more recent events involving the deaths of Blacks in encounters with police have sparked protests by the community, including groups such as Black Lives Matter. Recent federal investigations by the Justice Department following the Ferguson demonstrations found that the police in Ferguson engaged in racially biased policing and profiling, that race influenced enforcement tactics, and that the Ferguson municipal courts operated as a revenue making scheme (Institute for Intergovernmental Research, 2015). The recommendations that came from the assessment included the need to recruit and hire more diversity, the need for training on probable cause to make stops and arrests, and a call for effective and strong police leadership to influence positive interactions with citizens and to improve the police culture. The recommendations also included the effective implementation of community-oriented and problem-oriented policing to build trust, transparency, and accountability. The culture of an

agency, its leadership, and treatment of women and people of color are vital in establishing and keeping good police-community relations.

The United States Commission on Civil Rights delineated in several reports that in order for law enforcement agencies to protect people's civil rights, two actions must be taken: "increase the recruitment and hiring of women and people of color from the communities being served and train officers not only in police work but also in community relations, cultural sensitivity, and the importance of diversity" (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 2000, Chapter 2, p. 1). In 1999, President Clinton and Attorney General Janet Reno invited "police executives, union representatives, academic experts, civil rights and community leaders" to participate in a conference, Strengthening Police-Community Relationships, to "identify police practices that build trust, enhance police accountability, and reduce police misconduct" (U.S. Department of Justice, 2001, p. 1). In their report, *Principles for Promoting Police Integrity*, the participants in the conference and follow-up meetings argued that for the police to reduce crime and be successful in community policing, citizens must trust their police (p. 1). The report also included the importance of recruiting, hiring, and retaining a diverse agency to improve relationships with the community, generate trust, and facilitate citizen support and cooperation (p. 18). The report further stated that "law enforcement agencies should seek to hire and retain a diverse workforce that can bring an array of backgrounds and perspectives to bear on the issues the agencies confront and the choices they make in enforcing the law" (p. 18).

Other recent events are examples of African American male involvement with the police in the U.S. where the public has called for the resignation of the police chief and city officials. For example, the Chicago Police Superintendent was terminated, and the Baltimore Police Chief and the Ferguson Police Chief stepped down because of fractured trust in the police and police

leadership due to racial profiling, aggressive street tactics, and excessive force against people of color. This underscores the importance of leadership qualities and attributes in shaping accountable and responsive law enforcement agencies and gaining the trust from the communities they serve. This also emphasizes the need for leadership at the local level to initiate change and bring qualified women and people of color into law enforcement agencies by examining their application process to ensure that it is related to the tasks officers perform on a daily basis.

### **Multicultural Communities and the Challenges for Law Enforcement**

Demographic changes in the make-up of communities have impacted “the composition of the law enforcement workforce and the people with whom officers make contact” (Shusta et al., 2011, p. xiv). Police agencies must be responsive to the changing make-up within their agencies and in the communities in which they serve. Population changes that result in increased diversity call for officers who can work with different populations of people (Shusta et al., p. 100). The nature of policing has changed, requiring a broader variety of tasks and a more complex set of skills (p. 100). These skills include communicating with the public, co-workers, and people in other agencies; oral and written communication skills; the ability to solve problems; understanding of people from different cultures and backgrounds; the ability to use technology; and the ability to adapt to change. The adoption of a community-oriented policing model calls for police agencies to be more representative and responsive to the communities they serve (p. 100). The relationship between the community-oriented policing approach and the complexities of police work, as well as the relationship between a representative police force and community-oriented policing, are important. It is also important to understand how a representative police force impacts police performance. This is consistent with the philosophy of community-oriented

policing, specifically, how community-oriented policing can increase public trust and cooperation, and can decrease complaints, excessive use of force, aggressive tactics, biased policing, and racial profiling. Strained relationships between the community and police have been long documented. The importance of recruiting and hiring female officers and officers of color that are reflective of the make-up of the communities in which the police serve is more applicable today because of the evolving demographics throughout cities in the United States.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this research is to describe how one police agency in the Midwest recruits, hires, and retains diversity within the agency that is representative of the communities it serves. This study is a descriptive, single case study using triangulation of multiple methods, both quantitative and qualitative, and multiple data sources.

The main theoretical and conceptual framework draws from representative bureaucracy theory. The theory of social equity and the concepts of racial and gender equity also apply to hiring for diversity within police agencies and to the quality of service delivered to the public. In addition to the goal of equality and equal opportunity for the position of police officer, it is important to emphasize the importance of recruiting and hiring the most qualified candidates to be police officers. Hiring more female officers and officers of color is not in opposition to enhancing the applicant pool. Hiring the most competent and qualified candidates to meet the complexities of policing and the challenges of policing a multicultural society, is consistent with having a representative police agency to engage in community policing.

Training for police officers in diversity and cultural awareness is not enough. In addition, it is important to examine why people may not consider law enforcement as a career possibility and to reach out to potential candidates starting in middle school. While this study



acknowledges additional efforts to increase diverse representation in law enforcement need to be made, it contributes to these efforts by addressing recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within law enforcement agencies. There is a need to diversify police agencies and improve police services to all segments of the community.

Chapter II lays out a logical theoretical and conceptual framework and identifies what variables from the literature are relevant and applicable for describing how the agency selected for the case study recruits, hires, and retains diversity within its agency. This helps to refine theory and concepts, and to contextualize police agency recruitment and hiring for diversity.

### **Research Question, Seven Sub-questions, and Four Data Sets**

This study investigates one primary research question and seven sub-questions to identify and explore factors important in recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity in the organization.

#### **Primary Research Question**

How does one law enforcement agency in the Midwest recruit, hire, and retain full-time police officers that are representative of the communities it serves?

#### **Sub-question #1**

What is the gender and racial/ethnic composition of officers?

The first set of data, composition data, is analyzed to address this sub-question and consists of the percentages of full-time police officers for all ranks for each year from 2009 to 2017 by gender and ethnic group.

#### **Sub-question #2**

What is the gender and racial/ethnic composition of applicants for each step of the application process?

The second set of data, applicant data, is analyzed to address this sub-question and consists of the frequencies and percentages of all applicants who applied for full-time police officer from 2009 to 2016 by each stage of the hiring process, gender, and ethnic group. There was a total of 13 job postings, seven postings open to all applicants (external and internal applicants) and six postings open to only internal employees.

### **Sub-question #3**

What are the turnover rates, reasons for separation, length of service, gender, and race/ethnicity for officers who separated?

The third set of data, separation data, is analyzed to address this sub-question and consists of the frequencies and percentages of all full-time police officers who separated from the agency from 2010 to mid-2017, by turnover rates, reason for separation, length of service, gender, and ethnic group.

### **Sub-question #4**

What practices are used by the agency for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity?

The applicant data and interview data are analyzed to address this sub-question. The interview data consists of semi-structured interviews with persons responsible for implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices at the case agency.

### **Sub-question #5**

What factors are important for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within the agency?

The applicant data, separation data, and interview data are analyzed to address this sub-question.

### **Sub-question #6**

What characteristics are important in leadership for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within the agency?

The interview data are analyzed to address this sub-question.

### **Sub-question #7**

What modifications in the traditional recruiting, selection, and hiring processes are needed to recruit and hire for a diverse police agency?

The applicant data and interview data are analyzed to address this sub-question.

### **Significance of the Study**

This research is intended to fill gaps identified in the review of literature relating to recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity in law enforcement agencies. This study examines the various practices, factors, and variables of one police agency that recruits, hires, and retains diversity that is reflective of the communities it serves and makes several contributions to the literature. This study examines full-time police officer composition data over a nine-year period from 2009 to 2017 and application data over an eight-year period from 2009 through 2016. This includes examining data before and after a change in command staff in 2012 to assess the impact of the changes in recruiting and hiring practices. In addition, this study examines each step in the application process to determine if certain steps in the application process result in different passing rates for particular gender and/or ethnic groups.

The separation data from 2010 through mid-2017 provides information over an eight-year period and is also more current than the most recent 2008 data found in prior literature, which includes different and/or additional factors that may influence police officer separation from 2008 to mid-2017. This study also contributes to existing research by addressing factors that

may affect early separation of female officers and officers of color. This study benefits from collection and triangulation of four data sets and by conducting qualitative in-depth interviews to capture the perspectives of those responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices in the context of a law enforcement agency. The interviews provided validation to the three quantitative data sets. The interviews also add detailed descriptions and explanations of the steps in the application process, information regarding the changes implemented in the application process, and factors perceived to influence recruitment, hiring, and retention. The interviews also provide richness in detail and capture the complexity and a combination of factors involved. This study also contributes to the literature by increasing our understanding of representative bureaucracy by extending and offering new insights to the theory, concepts, and prior literature, and contextualizing what factors influence recruiting, hiring, and retaining representative police officers.

### **Interchangeability of Terms**

#### **Diversity**

Although diversity broadly includes gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, culture, languages, religion, sexual orientation, age, disability, homelessness, and people with other diverse backgrounds and experiences, this study only addresses gender and race/ethnicity. This research will use the following terms when discussing race and ethnicity: race, ethnicity, ethnic groups, diversity, Whites, African Americans, Blacks, Hispanics, Latinos, American Indians, Native Americans, Alaskan Natives, Asians, Pacific Islanders, non-Whites, people of color, officers of color, communities of color, minorities, and underrepresented groups or populations.

## **Representativeness/Diversity/Reflectiveness**

This study will use the terms representative, diversity, and reflective, interchangeably.

### **Summary**

This chapter has laid out the statement of the problem, the background leading up to the problem, why it is a significant problem, the benefits of having law enforcement agencies that are representative of the people they serve, the purpose of the study, and the research questions and four data sets of the study.

### **Organization of the Chapters**

Chapter II outlines important social events, historical content, and issues that lay the foundation for this research. The chapter discusses the status of female police officers and officers of color in the U.S. and the benefits of a diverse police agency. The chapter also defines and describes the theoretical and conceptual framework that guides the study, representative bureaucracy theory and social equity theory. The chapter also identifies factors and variables from prior research that influence passive representation for female police officers and police officers of color and describes how passive representation is translated into active representation in terms of police performance outcomes, public and co-worker attitudes, and the police subculture. Lastly, the chapter discusses police officer separation.

Chapter III explains and describes the methodology for this study. Chapter IV presents the analysis of the three quantitative data collection methods used for this mixed methods case study. Chapter V then presents the analysis of the qualitative interviews. Finally, Chapter VI presents discussion, conclusions, and implications of the results from the four data sets, contributions of this study to the literature, comparisons of the results of this study to prior research, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This chapter discusses important social events, historical content, and issues that lay the foundation for this research. This chapter also discusses community-oriented policing, the status of female police officers and officers of color in the U.S., and the benefits of a diverse police agency. This chapter then defines and describes the theoretical and conceptual framework that guides this study, including representative bureaucracy theory, passive representation and active representation, and social equity theory. Discussed next are the factors and variables from prior research that influence passive representation for female police officers and police officers of color. This chapter then describes the factors and variables from prior research that translate passive representation into active representation in terms of the impact of passive representation on police performance outcomes, public and co-worker attitudes, and the police subculture. Discussed last is police officer separation.

#### **Important Social Events and Historical Context at the National Level**

“Many police reformers have recommended increased employment of minority and female officers, not as an end in itself, but as a means to general police reform” (Walker, 1985, p. 563). Literature regarding policing in the 1960s identified the police subculture as a source of many of the problems in policing. Many reformers asserted that minority officers “would be less prejudiced, more sensitive to minority group citizens, would serve to sensitize white officers, and by their very presence undermine the public image of the department as an all-white institution”

(p. 563). Some reformers asserted that women officers would improve police-community relations by not being as aggressive, not fulfilling the “macho” image of the police, and their ability to “defuse volatile situations and provoke less hostility than men” (p. 563).

### **Social Changes**

External demands by “community or special interest groups within the community can pressure law enforcement agencies to diversify their workforce” (Schuck, 2014, p. 59). A current example of a group that affects police agencies is Black Lives Matter, who has protested the actions of law enforcement officers regarding deaths of Black men involving the police, and demanded more discipline against officers, including firing officers. Other examples of external pressure are consent decrees, court orders, settlements, and lawsuits regarding discriminatory hiring and promotion practices in police agencies (p. 59). A study by the National Center for Women and Policing (2003b) found that consent decrees and court-orders lead to greater representation for women (pp. 59-60). Schuck (2014) also found in her study of over 4,000 law enforcement agencies that consent decrees were associated with more female officer representation (p. 66). Consent decrees are settlements reached by parties involved in lawsuits and are one example of external pressure to increase diversity.

### **The Police Recruitment and Hiring Process**

Several authorities, including Shusta et al. (2011) and Dempsey and Forst (2016), have cited major shifts in law enforcement employment trends in the past couple of decades resulting in many agencies having difficulty in recruiting qualified police candidates due to shifting economic factors, as well as social and demographic changes. Koper (2004), in the report *Hiring and Keeping Police Officers*, and Dempsey and Forst (2016) offered the following possible explanations for the lack of qualified candidates: the good economy that attracts candidates into

the private sector, increased education requirements, the higher attrition rate due to the retirement of baby boomers, the deployment of candidates in Iraq and Afghanistan, and the homeland security industry enticing candidates away from law enforcement. Dempsey and Forst (2016) also noted that the recession that began around 2008 helped recruitment efforts in policing but budget cuts also left police jobs vacant.

Police agencies set selection standards and qualifications for police officer positions, which are influenced by the minimum selection standards set by their state's regulatory board, their union contract, the rules and regulations of their Human Resources office, and the rules and regulations set by their Civil Service Commissions. Standards for law enforcement applicants set by federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies screen for age, education, drug use, criminal history, and physical and mental fitness requirements. The selection process includes written aptitude tests, personal interviews, physical agility tests, background checks, credit checks, physical agility tests, psychological evaluations, and in some states polygraph tests (Shusta et al., 2011; Dempsey & Forst, 2016). Civil service regulations govern the selection of police officers in many states, with the size of municipalities dictating whether civil service is required or optional (Dempsey & Forst, 2013; Stevens, 2018). Stevens (2018) described civil service regulations as "the rules and regulations that govern classified employment linked to specific occupations . . . , such as police officers. Rules have the force and effect of law. Regulations implement the rules issued by an official commission. U.S. state and local governments often have competitive civil service systems" (p. 226). Civil service regulations were instituted to "ensure that personnel decisions would be based on objective criteria as opposed to favoritism, biases, and political influence" and "limits the power of police command in the hiring, promotion, and firing processes" (p. 226).



Traditional recruitment and hiring practices use models that emphasize the law enforcement aspect and not the service aspect of policing. Many of these standards were challenged due to their lack of relating to the performance of the tasks performed by police officers, resulting in changes to the standards (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 84). Dempsey and Forst (2016) stressed that “a crucial element of the police selection process is that each step be defensible in court and have validity to the job performance of a police officer” (p. 115). Police agencies need to assess whether all of their hiring requirements are predictive of key job outcomes and do not unnecessarily disqualify applicants from protected groups at a disproportionate rate.

The hiring process needs to be modified to meet the changing demands and role of policing, and to incorporate innovations in recruiting and hiring candidates suited to be police officers. Dempsey and Forst (2016) noted that “in recent decades these standards have changed to allow a greater number of females and minorities to become police officers, but they are still more stringent than standards in most other professions” (p. 107). It is important to note that this does not equate to lowering the standards, instead, the standards need to change to reflect the skills and qualifications necessary to perform the tasks police perform on a daily basis. During the past several decades, the tasks that police officers perform have expanded to include a broad variety of tasks and the skills necessary to provide services in a pluralistic society and engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing. Recruiting candidates with a variety of diverse backgrounds and skills increases the pool of qualified and competent candidates for police officers beyond the traditional pool of candidates (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 89).

## **A History of the Issue and Problem / President's Commissions and Task Forces, and Federal Assessments and Investigations**

Since the 1960s, there have been many examples of racial unrest, riots, and civil disobedience that have been instrumental in moving policing from the professional model to the community policing or service, model. Recruiting women and members of diverse groups is not a recent issue for law enforcement in the United States (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 82). Several national Commissions have recommended increasing the employment of minority and female police officers (U.S. National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, 1968; U.S. National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973; U.S. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967). Walker (1985) emphasized that almost every national report on the police since the mid-1940s (U.S. National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorder, 1968; U.S. National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973; U.S. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967) and Bloch and Anderson's (1974) research has overtly recommended hiring more women officers.

**The Kerner Commission – Watts riots.** The President's Crime Commission Report in 1967 recommended that to address institutional racism by police, more African American or officers of color should be hired and promoted (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 8; U.S. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1968). The report on the Watts riots by the Kerner Commission concluded that the lack of African American officers was a significant problem and recommended improving minority hiring and promotion policies and procedures (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 82; U.S. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967). The U.S. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and

Administration of Justice (1967) identified that hiring African American officers was a critical step in improving relationships between the police and minority communities, which would lead to better control of urban crime.

**The Christopher Commission – Rodney King.** The Warner Christopher Commission Report on the Los Angeles Police Department following the “Rodney King riots” found bias and racism within the Department (Independent Commission on the Los Angeles Police Department, 1991; Shusta et al., 2011, p. 82). Its recommendations included improving the “hiring and promotion process that would benefit all groups” (Shusta et al., 2011, p. 82). The Rodney King civil rights case in Los Angeles urged many people to re-evaluate the causes of urban social unrest and poor police-community relations and reaffirmed that a main cause of the social unrest was the lack of representation of women and minorities in local police agencies (Kim & Mengistu, 1994; Independent Commission on the Los Angeles Police Department, 1991).

**U.S. Commission on Civil Rights Reports.** The United States Commission on Civil Rights (2000) delineated in several of its reports that in order for law enforcement agencies to protect people’s civil rights, two actions must be taken: “increase the recruitment and hiring of women and people of color from the communities being served and train officers not only in police work but also in community relations, cultural sensitivity, and the importance of diversity” (2000, Chapter 2, p. 1). This again illustrated a connection between community-oriented and problem-oriented policing and attracting qualified people to perform community service tasks and safeguard people’s rights.

**Principles for Promoting Police Integrity.** President Clinton and Attorney General Janet Reno invited “police executives, union representatives, academic experts, civil rights and community leaders” to attend a conference, “Strengthening Police-Community Relationships” to

“identify police practices that build trust, enhance police accountability, and reduce police misconduct” (U.S. Department of Justice, 2001, p. 1). The results of the conference and follow-up meetings were a report, *Principles for Promoting Police Integrity*. The report argued that to reduce crime and be successful in community policing, citizens must trust their police (p. 1). The report also asserted the importance of recruiting, hiring, and retaining a diverse agency, improving relationships with the community, generating trust, and facilitating citizen support and cooperation (p. 18). The report further stated that “law enforcement agencies should seek to hire and retain a diverse workforce that can bring an array of backgrounds and perspectives to bear on the issues the agencies confront and the choices they make in enforcing the law” (p. 18).

**The President’s Task Force on 21<sup>st</sup> Century Policing.** *The Final Report of the President’s Task Force on 21<sup>st</sup> Century Policing* was created to identify best practices in reducing crime and improving trust between the police and the communities they serve (President’s Task Force on 21<sup>st</sup> Century Policing, 2015). The task force asserted that trust “is essential in a democracy. Trust is key to the stability of our communities, the integrity of our criminal justice system, and the safe and effective delivery of police services” (p. 1). The task force identified six main pillars with building trust and legitimacy as the first pillar. It also emphasized that law enforcement agencies should endeavor to develop a broad range of diversity within their agencies to increase understanding and effectively deal with communities (p. 2).

**The After-action Assessment of the Police Response in Ferguson, Missouri.** *The After-action Assessment of the Police Response to the August 2014 Demonstrations in Ferguson, Missouri* (Institute for Intergovernmental Research, 2015) found that the protests in Ferguson were motivated by police brutality in the four main agencies who responded: the Ferguson Police Department, the St. Louis County Police Department, the St. Louis Metropolitan Police

Department, and the Missouri State Highway Patrol. The report also concluded that the percentage of African American officers in the Ferguson Police Department, the St. Louis County Police Department, and the Missouri State Highway Patrol were not reflective of the percentage of African Americans in the population (Institute for Intergovernmental Research). Table 1 shows that the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department had the highest percentage of African American officers (33.4%), which was about 15 times that of the Missouri State Highway Patrol (2.6%), over four times that of the Ferguson Police Department (7.4%), and over three times that of the St. Louis County Police Department (10.2%) (Institute for Intergovernmental Research). Regarding female officers, Table 1 shows that the Ferguson Police Department had 5.6% female officers and the Missouri State Highway Patrol had 5.1% female officers (Institute for Intergovernmental Research). Both of these agencies were less than half of the national average of 12% percent for female officers in the U.S (Langton, 2010; Reaves, 2015). However, St. Louis County Police Department had 13.1% female officers and St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department had 15.9% female officers, which are both above the national average of 12% female officers (Institute for Intergovernmental Research, 2015, pp. 138-139).

Table 1. Percent of African American Police Officers, African Americans in Population, and Female Police Officers for the Four Agencies Policing Ferguson, Missouri.

Agency	% African American Officers	% African Americans in Population	% Female Officers
Ferguson Police Department	7.4%	67.4%	5.6%
St. Louis County Police Department	10.2%	23.7%	13.1%
St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department	33.4%	49.2%	15.9%
Missouri State Highway Patrol	2.6%	Includes areas in other three agencies	5.1%

The results of the Department of Justice report concluded that officers had historically used excessive force on African Americans at a much higher and disproportionate rate than on Whites; that officers had displayed a pattern of racial bias and profiling, and unconstitutional policing; that officers did not know the basic probable cause standards for making stops and arrests; that city and police leadership compelled officers to write citations; and that the local courts targeted African Americans to feed Ferguson's budget (Institute for Intergovernmental Research, 2015). The 26 recommendations in the report from the Justice Department included giving raises to officers to attract and retain qualified people, implementing a strong system of community policing, and establishing new hiring practices to recruit minority officers (Institute for Intergovernmental Research). The report also recommended a consent decree calling for major reforms, including improving training, leadership, and the culture to generate community policing and build trust in police-community relationships (Institute for Intergovernmental Research).

#### **Four Models of Policing**

J. Greene (2000) has discussed four different models of contemporary policing: traditional policing, community policing, problem-oriented policing, and zero-tolerance policing (pp. 299-320) and noted that the growth of community policing and problem-oriented policing are vital in increasing "the effectiveness of police efforts in communities and as means of reforming police organizations" (p. 299). He denotes that there is some overlap of the elements in these models. The first model, traditional policing, resulted from the goal of early reform to disentangle the police from politics, which focused on reactive law enforcement or crime fighting and crime control, rather than on order maintenance or provision of general services (pp. 310-311). J. Greene also noted that in this model, line officers have a great deal of discretion,

are not closely supervised, and use “aggressive street tactics coupled with broad application of the criminal law” (p. 310). Values that accompany traditional policing include secrecy, skepticism, cynicism, and dislike for the public in general (p. 310). Measures of success include arrest and crime rates, particularly with serious Part I crimes: homicide, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson (p. 310).

Skolnick and Bayley’s (1988) stated “that community policing is a coherent concept grounded on the notion that, together, police and public are more effective and more humane co-producers of safety and public order than are the police alone” (p. 1). Skolnick and Bayley also described the core elements of community policing as including “community-based crime prevention, reorientation of patrol to stress nonemergency service, increased accountability to the public, decentralization of command, and sometimes, civilianization” (p. 1). J. Greene (2000) also discussed that community policing expanded to include “public safety, crime, fear of crime, and community quality of life” (p. 312). Mastrofski et al. (1995) observed the following on community policing:

“Community building” focuses on crime prevention, victim assistance, and building greater rapport with racial minorities. The police strengthen citizens’ capacity and resolve to resist crime and recover from it. This requires positive relationships with those “invested” in the neighborhood. Crime prevention and victim assistance do not involve law enforcement directly. To the extent that a community policing program concentrates on community building, it de-emphasizes law enforcement activities, an object of some criticism. (pp. 540-541)

This emphasizes that the police must work with the community and other public and private agencies regarding “quality-of-life issues” (J. Greene, 2000, p. 313). It also stresses “making

police agencies less bureaucratic, specialized, and hierarchical”, and more decentralized” (p. 314). Measures of success include calls for service, reduction in fear, use of public places, community contacts, community health, community volunteerism, new businesses starting up, home ownership increases, safer neighborhoods, and surveying citizens regarding their perceptions on safety and the police (pp. 311 & 314).

Problem-oriented policing is more focused than community policing and is problem specific that addresses the symptoms of crime rather than the underlying causes of crime. J. Greene (2000) describes this as the police being more analytic in their interventions to “address persistent community crime, disorder, and fear problems” (p. 315). One model police agencies use in problem-oriented policing is the SARA model: scan, analyze, respond, and assess. Measures of success for problem-oriented policing include the goal of absence, reduction, or the problem moving to another geographic location (pp. 311 & 316).

The last model of policing that J. Greene (2000) described is zero-tolerance policing. This is a variation of problem-oriented policing, and became well-known with Chief William Bratton, New York City Police, when its officers used aggressive street tactics to address disorder, neighborhood decay, and little problems before they became big problems. The model is also associated with Wilson and Kelling’s (1982) “Broken Windows” thesis. Measures of success include counting stops of vehicles and pedestrians, arrests, and location-specific reductions in targeted activity (pp. 311 & 320).

### **Community-Oriented and Problem-Oriented Policing**

As the police role, function, and tasks have evolved, a police officer’s skill set required to successfully fulfill the role of police officer has expanded. This includes the skills necessary to meet the changing demographics of the communities. Findings from research show that



community-oriented and problem-oriented policing have had some impact on crime. However, they have a larger impact “on the quality of interaction between the police and the public” (J. Greene, 2000, p. 299). J. Greene notes that in agencies that practice community-oriented or problem-oriented policing, police officers perceive their roles and job tasks as changing for the better, and that job satisfaction is improving. J. Greene also noted that the broad label of community policing began in the mid-1980s and “emphasizes greater interaction with the community in resolving persistent neighborhood crime and disorder problems” (p. 308).

The policies and practices of a law enforcement agency in general, including an agency that practices a community-oriented style of policing, can greatly impact the representation of more female officers and officers of color in police departments (Schuck, 2014, p. 58). Wilson and Kelling (1982) defined community policing as a philosophy where police agencies and the community work together in solving problems, and empowering and engaging the community to work with the police. Schuck (2014) states that “one of the central tenets during the community-policing era has been the pursuit of workforce diversity” (p. 58). This is important because officers of color can help their community work with the police, serve as an interpreter in languages other than English to improve communication between diverse communities and police, and help in improving their agency’s credibility. This also has a positive impact on the community because it shows that the agency is committed to equality and access within the agency and for residents (p. 58). She also found in her study of over 4,000 agencies that law enforcement agencies who are committed to and practice community policing have higher levels of female officer representation (pp. 54 & 59).

The Department of Justice’s “Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) defines three major components of community policing: (1) collaborative police-community

partnerships; (2) support from agency management, structure, personnel, and information systems; and (3) a problem-solving process that develops and rigorously evaluates effective responses” (Reaves, 2015, p. 8). The Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) survey started collecting data in 1987 on “community policing personnel, activities, and policies in response to Department of Justice (DOJ) funding programs that were impacting local law enforcement agencies” (p. 8). The 2013 LEMAS survey found that about 70% of local police departments and 90% of departments serving 25,000 or more residents had a mission statement that included community-oriented policing (p. 8). In summary, there is a strong connection between community-oriented and problem-oriented policing and recruiting, hiring, and retaining qualified officers, including women officers and officers of color, who can perform the increased complexity of skills needed for policing and policing reforms.

#### **Percentages of Female Police Officers and Police Officers of Color by Type of Agency and Size of Agency**

This section reviews the status of female police officers and police officers of color and their progress toward equal employment opportunity in the United States. The changing external environment and internal culture of police agencies influence the employment of diverse police officers (Walker, 1985, p. 556). Also, there are great differences in the numbers and percentages of female officers and officers of color between agencies. Morabito and Shelley (2015) note that there is great disparity in the representation of female officers and officers of color across police agencies, ranging from agencies having no women officers or officers of color to agencies that are representative of the communities which they serve (p. 331). In their study on factors that contribute to representation of diverse law enforcement officers using the 1987 LEMAS survey data, Kim and Mengistu (1994) found that White males continued to possess disproportionately

more sworn positions in most of the police agencies in their study (p. 161). Steel and Lovrich (1987) have attributed the increases in the number of female officers to the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, which was an amendment to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Many cities have documented racial and gender disparities in city hiring, the majority of police officers are White males.

### **Status of Females in Policing**

Although the percentage of women in policing has increased since the mid-1970s, the rates of increase have slowed down. Martin (1993) stated that for agencies in large cities, the representation of female officers increased from 4.6% to 12.6% between 1980 and 1990. The National Center for Women and Policing (2002) (NCWP) conducted a study on women in large, small, and rural agencies in the U.S. (p. 2). Overall, their research demonstrated that the number of women sworn officers is small and the increase that was observed in earlier years has “stalled or even reversed” (p. 2). For all sworn law enforcement officers in the U.S. in 2001, women comprised 11.2%, which was significantly less than women in the labor force at 46.5% (p. 2). The NCWP reported in 2001 that women comprised 12.7% of total officers in large agencies (100 or more officers), compared to 9% in 1990 (p. 2). In 2001, for small and rural agencies (less than 100 officers), women comprised 8.1% of total sworn officers (p. 2). In 2001, within large agencies, sworn women comprised 7.3% of top command positions, 9.6% of supervisory positions, and 13.5% of line operation positions (p. 4). It is interesting to note in 2001, that 55.9% of the large agencies surveyed reported no women in top command positions and 97.4% of small and rural agencies had no women in top command positions (p. 4). For state agencies in 2001, 5.9% of the officers were women, for municipal agencies, 14.2% were women, and for county agencies, 13.9% were women (p. 4). The NCWP also noted that one possible explanation

for the stall or decline in women representation was the decrease in the number of consent decrees requiring the hiring and promotion of women and minorities (p. 5). Among the agencies surveyed, eight consent decrees expired between 1999 and 2002, and only six consent decrees were executed in the 1990s, with two consent decrees executed since 1995 (p. 5).

Langton (2010), writing on the status and trends of female sworn officers in federal, state, and local agencies from 1987 to 2008, examined data on Federal Law Enforcement Officers (FLEO) from the Bureau of Justice Statistics' Census and the 2008 LEMAS surveys (p. 1). In 2008, the Office of Inspectors General had the highest percentage, 25%, of female sworn law enforcement officers (p. 1). Among other federal law enforcement agencies, large agencies (more than 500 sworn officers) had 21% women, medium sized agencies (100 to 500 officers) had 9% women, and small agencies (less than 100 officers) had 10% women (p. 1). In 2008, 19% of Federal Bureau of Investigations agents were women (p. 1).

For local police agencies, the percent of female officers grew from 7.6% in 1987 to almost 12% in 2007 (Langton, 2010, p. 3). For sheriff's offices, the percent of female officers decreased from a high of 15.6% in 1997 to 11.2% in 2007 (p. 3). Langton attributed this sharp decrease while other types of agencies increased to the 2007 survey excluding sheriff's offices that did not perform law enforcement functions. It is important to note that women who work in sheriff's offices may be assigned to the jail, therefore, they are not performing typical patrol duties. In large (more than 100 officers) local police agencies in 2007, women made up approximately 15% of sworn officers (p. 2). In local police agencies with 2,000 or more officers, women made up an average of 18% of total sworn officers. In large sheriff's offices, women made up approximately 13% of total sworn officers (p. 3). In small local agencies (1 to 10 officers), women made up 6% of total sworn officers (p. 3). In small sheriff's offices, women

made up 4% of total sworn officers (p. 3), and for state police agencies, the percent of female officers grew from 3.8% in 1987 to 6.5% in 2007 (p. 3).

The LEMAS survey data for 2013 found approximately 12% of officers in local police departments in the U.S. were female compared to 8% in 1987 (Reaves, 2015; Stevens, 2018). In 2013, the percentage of female officers (17%) in jurisdictions with 250,000 or more residents was more than twice that (7%) in jurisdictions with fewer than 25,000 residents (Reaves, 2015, p. 4). In 2013, the LEMAS survey collected data on female supervisors and managers for the first time and reported that 9.5% of first-line supervisors were female (p. 5). For departments serving 250,000 or more residents, 15% of first-line supervisors were females, compared to departments serving less than 50,000 residents, 6% of first-line supervisors were females (p. 5). It is interesting to note that about 3% of local police chiefs were female with 7% in departments serving 250,000 or more residents (p. 5).

### **Status of Officers of Color**

Walker and Katz (2002) described the increase in African American and Hispanic representation in policing in the U.S. African Americans accounted for only 3.6% of all sworn officers in the mid-1960s, 6% in 1973, 7.6% in 1982, and 10% in 1997 (pp. 402-403). Hispanics accounted for 4.8% of all sworn officers in 1988, 6.2% in 1993, and 7% in 1997 (p. 403). Reaves and Goldberg (1999) reported that by 1997, African Americans comprised 10% of local full-time sworn officers and 7% of state police officers (p. xiii). In large cities, Black representation increased from 18.4% in 1990 to 20.1% in 2000 (Reaves & Hickman, 2002, p. 3). H. Greene (2003) stated that there is “an unprecedented number of African Americans serving in leadership positions in local agencies” and “there are also more African American female police officers than White female police officers in some urban agencies” (p. 208). Despite the

progress made in increasing the number of African American police officers, H. Greene also noted that “the ratio of black officer to black citizens continued to be low in large cities” and that Blacks were underrepresented in federal agencies, 11.7% in 2000 (p. 208). African American representation had increased to 11.7% in 2000 and to almost 12% by 2007 (H. Greene).

In local police departments, the LEMAS survey found that officers of color comprised 27% of police officers in 2013 compared to 14.6% in 1987 (Reaves, 2015). For African American officers, the survey found 12% in 2013 compared to 9% in 1987 (p. 5). For Hispanic/Latino officers, the survey found 11.6% in 2013 compared to 4.5% in 1987 (p. 6). For the “Other” category in race/ethnicity, the survey found 3% in 2013 compared to .8% in 1987 (p. 6). The LEMAS survey was consistent with other studies in finding that “departments serving larger jurisdictions were more diverse than departments serving smaller jurisdictions” (p. 6).

### **The Effects of Changing Demographics within Police Agencies**

Establishing that the makeup of police agencies has changed over the past few decades, Sklansky (2006) examined the effects of the changes in police demographics using three categories (p. 1211). The first category comprised “competency effects”, which are the different set of abilities that women officers and officers of color possess (Sklansky). Since the 1960s, there has been an emphasis on diversifying police agencies because officers of color have been linked to a different set of skills than those of White officers. A benchmark report by President Johnson’s Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (1967), *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*, found that all-White police agencies could not “deal successfully with people whose ways of thought and action are unfamiliar” and that “lack of understanding of the problems and behaviors of minority groups is common to most police departments and is a serious deterrent to effective police work in the often turbulent

neighborhoods where these groups are segregated” (p. 107). Sklansky (2006) delineated these special competencies as “greater *understanding* of minority communities, and greater *credibility* in minority communities” (p. 1224).

Regarding female officers, it has been observed that women are equally capable in performing patrol duties, and in some instances, women may have better skills. This includes, less use of excessive force, are better at “defusing and de-escalating potential violent confrontations”, are better at gaining trust and cooperation, and are more successful in responding to domestic violence calls (National Center for Women and Policing, 2003a, p. 204; Sklansky, 2006, p. 1227).

The second category identified by Sklansky (2006) is “community effects”, which are how diverse representation in police agencies affects the relations they have with the community (pp. 1211-1212). Sklansky denotes that diversity within its ranks can improve credibility of the entire agency (p. 1228). This also had been noted decades previously in President Johnson’s Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (1967), which stated that “a major, and most urgent step in the direction of improving police-community relations is recruiting more, many more, policemen from minority groups” (p. 107), and that “every section of the community has a right to expect that its aspirations and problems, its hopes and fears, are fully reflected in the police” (p. 107).

The third category identified by Sklansky (2006) is “organizational effects”, which are how a diverse police agency affects the internal dynamics of the agency, including the subculture. Sklansky remarked that “the demographic transformation of American law enforcement has done much to break down the police subculture, by weakening both the occupational solidarity and the social insularity of the police” (p. 1212). He also noted that

police effectiveness had not deteriorated because of diversity within police agencies (p. 1212). Sklansky argued that of the three categories of effects, the most notable effect of increasing the representation of women officers and officers of color is on the “internal dynamics of police departments”, which he further divides into three categories: “one-on-one interactions, rival trade groups, and social fragmentation” (p. 1230). Regarding one-on-one interactions, Sklansky stated that officers of color and female officers can change the attitudes and behavior of other officers they interact with on a daily basis (p. 1230). Regarding rival groups, Sklansky asserted that diverse officers can “compete for membership with the longstanding police benevolent associations, which generally serve today not only as social and fraternal organizations but also as collective bargaining agents and lobbying groups” (p. 1230). Regarding social fragmentation, Sklansky argued that this is the most important of the three categories, which he delineates as “the decline of the monolithic police subculture” (p. 1231).

### **The Effects of Representation of African American Police Officers**

African American representation in police agencies has symbolic value and practical outcomes (H. Greene, 2003). African American police chiefs have symbolic value because of the potential in increased political power and African American officers have symbolic value for African American citizens. From a practical standpoint, African American officers have been found to improve relationships between the police and African American community, have less police brutality, and increase recruitment of officers of color (p. 207). H. Greene also points out that it is a difficult task to determine the specific effect of African American police on policing because there are numerous local, state, and federal agencies, different types of agencies, and different jurisdictions (p. 207). The impact of African American officers also varies by the individual officer, neighborhood, community, and region (p. 207).



## **Hiring in the Spirit of Service**

Sam Walker (2015), a renowned police scholar, historian, and civil rights expert, has argued that increased diversity in police agencies is one of the key qualities of a successful police agency. However, Jordan et al. (2009) found in their study, using a national survey of law enforcement officers, that only one in five law enforcement agencies implemented targeted recruitment strategies for women and people of color (p. 333). An excellent example of one of the newer useful tools for recruiting that demonstrates a major shift in recruitment philosophy is the federally funded project called Hiring in the Spirit of Service (HSS) (Scrivner, 2006; Shusta et al., 2011, p. 95). HSS stresses that the main change is to recruit applicants who are not drawn to law enforcement because of the crime fighter or tough cop image, or the aggressive, male-dominated and predominantly White culture that emphasizes physical strength. Instead, who needs to be recruited are people drawn to the career because they are service minded (Scrivner, 2006; Shusta et al., 2011, pp. 95 & 101). This includes people who can solve problems and possess interpersonal and service-oriented skills, and who accept diversity within the workplace and in the community. Also emphasized by HSS is for agencies to find creative ways to revise hiring practices for police officers to be consistent with the community or service policing model (Scrivner, 2006; Shusta et al., 2011, pp. 96-97).

## **Theoretical and Conceptual Framework**

There are many factors that contribute to why some agencies achieve diversity and other agencies do not. Jordan et al. (2009) assert that "... in addition to the macro-level factors gaining widespread attention, agency- and jurisdictional-level variables play an important role in the ability to recruit and hire qualified female and minority personnel" for sworn positions (p. 333).

## **Overview of Representative Bureaucracy Theory**

The theory of representative bureaucracy has evolved since its inception in the 1940s. Groeneveld and Van de Walle (2010) argue “that representative bureaucracy is a multidimensional and changing concept” (p. 239). This section will define and describe the theory of representative bureaucracy, define the two types of representative bureaucracy that are included in the literature: passive and active representation, and include the history and research on representative bureaucracy up to the present that is relevant to this study.

According to the theory, representative bureaucracy states that public agencies can be more responsive to the public if the people who work in them are reflective of the demographic characteristics of the public they serve (Selden, 1997; Stein, 1986; Sowa & Selden, 2003). Meier, Wrinkle, and Polinard (1999) stated “representative bureaucracy suggests that if a bureaucracy is broadly representative of the public it serves, then it is more likely to make decisions that benefit that public” (p. 1026). Bradbury and Kellough (2008) added that “the theory of representative bureaucracy suggests that diversity within the public workforce, especially in terms of characteristics such as race and ethnicity, will help to ensure that the interests of diverse groups are represented in policy formulation and implementation processes” (p. 697). The theory was also reflected in the Civil Reform Act of 1978 where it reaffirmed the commitment to Affirmative Action and postulated that the civil service should reflect workforce diversity and that reducing veterans’ preference would positively influence the recruitment of women and minorities (Ingraham, 1995, pp. 45, 73, & 81).

A history of the theory of representative bureaucracy is provided by Sowa and Selden (2003). They discuss that the theory originally concentrated on benefits of passive representation in a public workforce that is reflective of the characteristics of the people they serve. Sowa and

Selden state that the theory first appeared in academic literature with the work of Kingsley in 1944 that applied to the British Civil Service with the emphasis “on social class as one of the most important demographic variables” (p. 701). Levitan (1946), in applying the theory in the U.S., argued that a public workforce that has similar composition to society would bring more acceptance by the public to actions of a public agency. Sowa and Selden (2003) stated that Long (1952) expanded the theory to emphasize “the symbolic importance of a representative bureaucracy to legitimate policy to the citizenry” (p. 701). Sowa and Selden (2003) further stated that the theory was refined by Krislov (1974) and Krislov and Rosenblom (1981) that “focused on aspects of individual socialization, maintaining that the demographic backgrounds of individuals – including such characteristics of race, ethnicity, and gender – provide an early socialization experience that leads to the creation of certain values and beliefs” (p. 701). Representation would allow “citizens to feel a connection with government, to see their needs and desires reflected in the actions of government, actions that would reflect these similarly held values and beliefs” (p. 701). Long (1952) stated “it is of critical importance that the bureaucracy be both representative and democratic in composition and ethos” (p. 813). Applying Long’s (1952) and Kellough’s (1990) work to their study, Sowa and Selden (2003) added that representative bureaucracy would provide the public “with a symbol of equal access to the power of government and would fulfill the deficiencies these scholars believe were left by Congress and other political executives” (p. 701).

Representative bureaucracy consists of both passive representation and active representation. Though it is important to have symbolic or passive representation, scholars and researchers started to address how this can be transformed into active representation, which is defined as the benefits from a representative workforce (Sowa & Selden, 2003, p. 701). Meier et

al. (1999) describe how the theory of representative bureaucracy started out as a simple view of bureaucratic motivation and evolved to how individual values influence their decisions in different organizations (p. 1026). Thus, as Meier and Nicholson-Crotty (2006) have asserted, representative bureaucracy is “not just the composition of the bureaucracy but also the repercussions that representation has for policy making and policy implementation” (p. 850).

The present study uses representative bureaucracy theory to examine factors that influence passive representation of women and people of color in a Midwest police agency. Kennedy (2014), Morabito and Shelley (2015), and Selden (1997) argue that representative bureaucracy is imperative for equity in access to power, expertise in bureaucracies, a representation for different group interests, and the efficient use of resources. Kennedy (2014) asserts that representation is crucial in legitimizing the power of bureaucracies because it assures multiple perspectives go into decision making and policy implementation.

**Passive representative bureaucracy.** Mosher (1968) described *passive representativeness* as “the source of origin of individuals and the degree to which, collectively, they mirror the total society” (p. 12). This includes statistical measures of locality of origin (rural, urban, or suburban), family social class, race, and religion (p. 12). Selden, Brudney, and Kellough (1998) defined *passive representation* as “the representation of certain groups, particularly racial and ethnic minorities, in the public work force” (p. 717). Passive representation also includes the degree to which a bureaucracy reflects the demographics of the general population (Dolan, 2000). The existence of diversity regarding demographic characteristics, or passive representation, is an “indicator of the organization’s commitment to equal opportunity and access to power and can promote the legitimacy of public bureaucracies” (Meier & Nicholson-Crotty, 2006, p. 851). This implies that passive representation has symbolic

value for “citizens to feel empowered and connected to the government” (Schuck, 2014, p. 55). The next section will include the factors and variables that influence passive representation for female police officers and police officers of color.

### **Factors and Variables that Influence Passive Representation of Female Police Officers and Police Officers of Color**

Following is a discussion of the different variables that research starting in the 1970s identified as influencing passive representation of female law enforcement officers and officers of color, including external and internal variables, and an expansion of additional categories. In determining what factors are relevant in mostly municipal governments, Selden (1997) established that scholars examined over 50 variables in four categories: demographic, political, organizational, and economic (p. 51). It is important to note that the explanatory variables found to be important in the literature to influence passive representation on police departments are dynamic and change over time due to the changes in demographics of city populations, and political, social and economic changes. These factors also have independent, interacting, and joint effects on representation of people of color and women in U.S. police agencies. This includes dynamic and reciprocal relationships between factors and “between police agencies and the social context in which such organizations operate” (Schuck, 2014, p 56). Some scholars have placed factors that are correlated with female representation in policing into two broad categories: environmental and institutional (Schuck, 2014; Warner, Steel, & Lovrich, 1989; Zhao, Herbst, & Lovrich, 2001).

The increase of female representation in U.S. police agencies has led to organizational changes within police agencies. Zhao et al. (2001) notes that trends in American policing “emphasize elements of outreach, victim assistance, police partnership in the community, and the

philosophy of community oriented policing” (p. 244). Research by Bloch and Anderson (1974) and Steel and Lovrich (1987) have established that female officers are equally competent as male officers in traditional law enforcement, order maintenance, and service tasks and functions. The NCWP (2002) found female officers are preferred in some situations for duties that call for empathy and sensitivity rather than a threat to use physical force. The NCWP also noted that female police officers are less involved in serious misconduct and perpetual misconduct and received fewer citizen complaints. Morabito and Shelley (2015) found in their research, and highlighted in other studies, that the factors that predict female representation are not the same factors that predict representation of officers of color.

### **Economic Factors**

Organizational growth and fiscal well-being have been cited by scholars to influence hiring and promotional opportunities (Eisinger, 1982; Warner et al., 1989). Zhao and Lovrich (1998) suggest that police officer jobs may now attract more candidates of color because many blue-collar jobs in manufacturing have vanished in many cities in the U.S. since the 1960s (p. 276).

Unemployment rates are one indicator of how the U.S. economy is doing. During a recession, unemployment rates are higher and during a good economy, unemployment rates are lower. Dempsey and Forst (2016) stated that in a good economy, there are fewer candidates for police officer jobs because police agencies “have to compete with the private sector for employees” (p. 113). In a poor economy, there are more police officer candidates because of the limited opportunities in the private sector. The following are the unemployment rates from the Labor Force Statistics for December of each year from 2009 to 2017: 9.9% in 2009, 9.3% in 2010, 8.5% in 2011, 7.9% in 2012, 6.7% in 2013, 5.6% in 2014, 5.0% in 2015, 4.7% in 2016,

and 4.1% in 2017 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2018). There was a recession starting around 2008, which resulted in fewer jobs and higher unemployment rates overall. The unemployment rate decreased to the lowest rate since the early 2000s with the 4.1% in 2017 (U.S. Department of Labor). This means that even though there are more jobs overall, there are fewer police applicants because police agencies are competing with the private sector.

Stein (1986) demonstrated that unemployment rates significantly impair representation of people of color in municipal employment. Kim and Mengistu (1994) found in their study using 1987 LEMAS survey data that unemployment rates had a negative effect on Blacks and Hispanics, however, unemployment rates significantly increased female employment in police agencies.

### **Environmental or Demographic Factors**

Factors cited in the research under environmental factors are the pressures put on police departments stemming from the external environment. These pressures include broader social and political dynamics and changes that push police agencies to hire more women and people of color in traditionally white male dominated professions (Zhao et al., 2001).

**Population of communities of color.** Selden (1997) affirmed that demographic characteristics of cities affect the characteristics of city employees (p. 52). Selden concludes that “the size of the minority population is expected to be a major determinant of the racial composition of the local government work force” (p. 52). There have been numerous studies that support this hypothesis (Goode & Baldwin, 2005; Hochstedler, Regoli, & Poole, 1984; Lewis, 1989; Selden, 1997; Stein, 1986). In their study on the factors that contribute to representation of women law enforcement officers and law enforcement officers of color using the 1987 LEMAS survey data, Kim and Mengistu (1994) found that the size of the local minority

population is the single most significant explanatory variable for minority and female police officer representation (p. 174). They found that Black and Hispanic representation in policing is highly correlated with their presence in the community (pp. 161 & 174). Zhao and Lovrich's (1998) primary finding was that "the percentage of African American population is the strongest and most important contributor to the prediction of hiring rates of African American police officers" (p. 274). The increase in African American representation in city populations has also been found by other scholars to lead to higher numbers and percentages of African American police officers (Lewis, 1989; Walker, 1985).

Zhao and Lovrich (1998) offer reasons why more African Americans in the population may lead to more African American police officers. One reason is that there are more African American candidates applying for police officer positions (p. 268). Having a larger African American population can lead to more political power to elect African American mayors and/or city council members, influence personnel policies and equitable hiring and promotional practices, and hire more Black police chiefs and Black officers (Zhao & Lovrich, 1998; Walker, 1985). Zhao, He, and Lovrich (2005) conducted research to identify the key explanatory variables in predicting African American and Latino police officer representation in the U.S. using 281 police agencies in 47 states in 1993 and 1996. They found that the population of communities of color was one of the most important predictors in the employment of African American and Latino police officers in the U.S. (pp. 377 & 384). However, there have also been cases where there was a Black police chief and/or mayor where Black political power had not translated into Black police officer employment (Walker, 1985, p. 560).

**City population.** In studies in municipal employment, scholars have noted that city size is an essential predictor of female and people of color work force demographics (Eisinger, 1982;



Kim & Mengistu, 1994; Mladenka, 1991; Selden, 1997; Stein, 1986). Schuck (2014) identified that “two of the strongest predictors of female representation in law enforcement are the population of the jurisdiction served by the agency and the racial and ethnic diversity of the community” (p. 57). According to Schuck (2014), studies over the past 30 years “have consistently shown that female officers are more likely to be employed in agencies that serve large metropolitan jurisdictions rather than smaller municipalities or rural area” (p. 57).

Warner et al. (1989) emphasized that larger cities are more likely to have more educated and civic minded persons who are supportive of Affirmative Action programs. However, Kim and Mengistu (1994) found that size of the total population is positively correlated with employment of police officers of color, but it is negatively correlated with female officer employment (p. 173).

Larger cities traditionally have more employment opportunities and have diverse groups that make up the city population (Stein, 1986; Warner et al., 1989). In their study of 281 U.S. police agencies in 47 states in 1993 and 1996, Zhao et al. (2005) found the size of the city population, percentage of African American population, and the presence of a female mayor were positively associated with female officer representation.

**Region in the United States.** Region in the U.S. is also related to economic factors. Selden (1997) and Stein (1986) contend that region of the U.S. is associated with representation of female police officers and police officers of color. Stein intimates up to the mid-1980s, that economies in the Sun Belt region (the South and West) were flourishing while economies in the Rust Belt region (Northeast or Midwest) were depressed. However, Riccucci (1986) argued that a long history of discrimination in employment in the South may counteract the effects of the thriving economy. Research conducted by Steel and Lovrich (1987) found that police agencies

in the West and South had the highest rate of increase in utilizing women in policing from 1978 to 1981, which they suggested was due to better economic conditions in the “Sun Belt” region. Riccucci (1986) found that discriminatory private-sector employment practices in the South have impeded the employment progress of women in the South.

Slack (1987) found that African American city managers and police chiefs in the South were more likely than White city managers and police chiefs to hire African American officers. Steel and Lovrich (1987) found that police agencies in the South had higher increases of female officer employment, and that female representation in Northeast and North Central cities was much lower.

In their study of factors that contribute to representation of women law enforcement officers and law enforcement officers of color, using the 1987 LEMAS survey data, Kim and Mengistu (1994) found that Blacks are more represented in Southern police agencies. They also found that Hispanics are more employed in the Southern and Western regions, and women are better represented in Northwest U.S. agencies (p. 161).

Morabito and Shelley (2015), in their study of 1,478 police jurisdictions using data from the 2003 LEMAS surveys, the 2000 U.S. Census, and the 2003 Uniform Crime Reports (UCRs), explored factors that relate to representative bureaucracy theory as its framework. They found that police agencies in the Northeast are not as likely to have higher proportions of women officers (p. 341). For officers of color, they found that police agencies in the South were more likely to have higher proportions of officers of color and the agencies in the West are least likely (p. 344), and that police agencies in the South and West were more likely to have higher proportions of African American officers (p. 345).

## **Political Factors**

The following are various political factors found in the literature that influence representation of female officers and officers of color.

**Presence of females or people of color in public office.** Many sources have cited the presence of females in elective public offices in city governments to be important, for example, female mayors and city council members (Eisinger, 1982; Warner et al., 1989). Females in elected positions can directly and indirectly impact higher rates of female officers. The positive effects of female representation in public office can directly affect females being hired “through immediate oversight of hiring practices which promote the employment of women” and indirectly “by influencing general attitudes about women working in previously male-dominated municipal occupations” (Warner et al., 1989, p. 566). Gustafson (2013) found in his sample of 181 municipal police agencies in the U.S. that the presence of people of color in political office was one of the most significant factors in affecting diversity among line officers.

Kelly (1998) notes that the literature emphasizes the difference women and people of color in legislatures and public bureaucracies make for their respective groups (p. 204). She also highlights the role of elected and appointed leaders in advocating “multiracial, multiethnic, and gender diversity” (p. 204). According to Kelly, when women and people of color are in positions to make decisions, “more women and minorities are hired, their concerns are more likely to be addressed, their material well-being rises, and their sense of the fairness and justice of the political entity improves” (p. 204). However, Warner et al. (1989) did not find that having a female mayor in the 281 cities in the United States included in their study from 1984 to 1987 increased utilization of women as police officers (p. 574).

Stein (1986) found that people elected to public office are more likely to serve the interests of the people who elected them. Eisinger (1982) suggested that a mayor of color will lead to more people of color hired in municipal jobs. The mayor may also have discretionary power in influencing local police agencies' practices and policies regarding personnel, including recruitment and establishing qualification standards and minimum acceptable test scores, which have been shown to be relevant to hiring people of color (Zhao & Lovrich, 1998, p. 270).

Zhao et al. (2005) found in their study that having a Latino mayor was correlated with increased employment of people of color (pp. 377 & 384). Lewis (1989) found that the presence of a Black mayor was one of the strongest predictors in increasing the percentage of Black officers in his study of large police departments in the United States.

Warner et al. (1989) found in their study that "women on city councils does indeed play a major independent role in estimating the level of utilization of women as police officers" (p. 574). They concluded that "more benefits are available for women in the labor force when other women are in political decision-making positions" (p. 576). This argument can also apply to people of color in the workforce when people of color are in political decision-making positions, specifically a chief law enforcement officer of color. Several studies have found that representation on city councils by people of color is significant for increasing employment for people of color (Mladenka, 1991; Selden, 1997) and that having a mayor of color increases employment opportunities for communities of color (Eisinger, 1982; Lewis, 1989; Mladenka, 1991; Selden, 1997).

**Structure or type of government.** Stein (1986) found in her research using survey data from 134 large U.S. cities that the nature of a city's government influences employment of people of color, by itself, and combined with autonomy of its personnel bureau, and the presence

of a mayor of color or city council members of color. Stein also asserts that the form of government may influence compliance with Affirmative Action programs for public leaders and administrators who support Affirmative Action.

**Professional associations.** African American police officers acknowledged that they need to organize to shape change (H. Greene, 2003, p. 212). In 1972, the National Black Police Association (NBPA) was started to pull together African American police associations with the goal of improving police agencies and relationships between communities of color and the police (p. 212). In 1976, the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE) was formed to bring Black police executives together to address crime in urban areas (p. 212). Today, “these organizations address numerous issues confronting officers and black citizens, including brutality, crime, discrimination, police-community relations, and recruitment” and influence local and national policies, practices and programs (p. 212). NOBLE has also initiated efforts in increasing recruitment of people of color and promoting career fairs (p. 214).

### **Institutional or Organizational Factors**

Institutional factors include “policies, procedures, and opportunities that are internal to the agency” (Schuck, 2014, p. 56). Warner et al. (1989) also found that the attitudes of hiring agents have been found to influence equal opportunity employment. This also highlights the role of leadership to the commitment and practices of a diverse police agency. The following are institutional or organizational factors cited in the literature that influence representation of female officers and officers of color.

**A formal administrative structure to achieve social equity and representativeness / Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity programs, and consent decrees.** Affirmative Action programs may consist of hiring quotas or targets/goals in hiring. Today, it is more

common for police agencies to have targets and goals in hiring instead of quotas. Hochstedler et al. (1984) “found that a hiring quota was the single most important variable in explaining employment patterns” (p. 561) and stated that “the absence of a hiring quota generally spells affirmative action failure” (p. 561). Walker’s (1985) data found that progress in hiring Black officers was significant in agencies that had court-ordered quotas for minorities. Walker stated that progress in Affirmative Action may be influenced by the “quality of leadership in police departments and/or other elected or appointed public officials” if the political power translates into a commitment to Affirmative Action (p. 562). Walker has noted that commitment to affirmative action is not necessarily connected to the race or gender of leadership as White male leaders may be committed to Affirmative Action and female leaders or leaders of color may not be committed to equal employment opportunity (p. 562). Lewis (1989) found in his study of Blacks in city police organizations that the case of Affirmative Action consent decrees in 1985 was one of the most powerful variables for increasing Black percentages among sworn officers (p. 257).

Warner et al. (1989) discuss that even though women have made progress since the passage of the Equal Employment Opportunity Acts of 1972, which extended the prohibition of discriminatory personnel practices by state and local governments in the 1964 Civil Rights Act, “less progress has been seen in municipal police departments” (p. 562). Based on their survey of 281 United States cities from 1984 to 1987, they found that utilization of women as police officers is due to a combination of economic conditions, the percentage of women in public office at the local level, including mayors and city council members, and “explicit administrative mechanisms established for hiring women” (p. 562). Their research suggests “that progress

towards social equity for women in such male-dominated occupations as policing is highly dependent upon a formal administrative structure established to achieve this goal” (p. 562). Warner et al. found “that change occurs only with a formal affirmative action plan or a court-enforced program” (p. 576). Their research supports “much of the research on employment opportunity in the public sector” by Hochstedler et al. (1984) and Stein (1986) (p. 577). Warner et al. (1989) concluded that “formal affirmative action programs are essential for the eventual accomplishment of a representative bureaucracy in the United States” (p. 577).

The Equal Employment Opportunity Act (EEOA) of 1972 required local governmental agencies that receive federal funding to be placed under federal civil rights laws and administrative orders requiring Affirmative Action (Kim & Mengistu, 1994, p. 164). Though women have made progress, law enforcement agencies are still mostly white and male-dominated (p. 164). Selden (1997) noted that Affirmative Action programs that resulted from the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 also supported representative bureaucracy. According to Zhao and Lovrich (1998), several scholars have found that African American representation in police agencies in the U.S. has slowly increased since early efforts to encourage social equity (p. 268). One of the key elements of affirmative action programs is for agencies to specify “goals and timetables keyed to pools of qualified applicants” (p. 269). Zhao et al. (2001), in agreeing with Martin (1991), stated that one of the most significant factors that influence female representation in police agencies, especially in urban agencies, has been Affirmative Action policies and programs. Zhao et al. also found that the presence of a formal Affirmative Action program had a large impact of female representation in their study of 281 police agencies in the U.S.

Zhao et al. (2005) found in their study of officers of color in the 1990s “that the presence of neither a formal Affirmative Action program nor informal Affirmative Action program predicted the rate of employment” for African American or Latino officers (p. 384). They cited a significant decrease in the number of formal Affirmative Action programs between 1996 and 2000 and the number of informal programs remained about the same throughout the 1990s (p. 384). They offered two reasons for the decrease in formal Affirmative Action programs. The first reason may be that after about three decades, many police departments increased their numbers of officers of color (p. 384). The second reason for the decrease in formal Affirmative Action programs is that there have been challenges through union grievances and lawsuits to Affirmative Action Programs across the U.S. (p. 384).

Conservative presidents, such as Ronald Reagan, have significantly reduced federal enforcement of EEOA on the federal level (Warner et al., 1989, p. 565). Individual states have followed suit in striking down Affirmative Action efforts in college admissions and employment. Selden (1997) warns that abolishing Affirmation Action programs could decrease the numbers of women and people of color working in public agencies (p. 141). She further states that if agencies get rid of Affirmative Action programs and policies, recruitment, hiring, and promotion of women and people of color will not be a high priority and impede future progress (p. 142). Selden asserts that increasing women and people of color in management positions will positively affect the decisions regarding interests of women and people of color within their agencies.

Zhao et al. (2005) observed in their study of key variables in employment of African American and Latino police officers in the U.S. throughout the 1990s, “that the hiring of one ethnic group did not exclude the hiring of another group or white female officers” (p. 384). This



an important finding because some people have argued that hiring people of color and women is a “zero-sum game”, which means hiring one group comes at the detriment of another group.

**Police chiefs of color/Top management of color.** Eisenberg, Kent, and Wall (1973) found in a study of 493 county and municipal police agencies that 84 percent of the participants identified the chief of police as “most frequently designated as having the major responsibilities for establishing personnel policies for sworn police personnel” (p. 13). Zhao and Lovrich (1998) found in their study that the second significant variable in predicting representation of African American officers in U.S. municipal police agencies is “the presence of an African American police chief” (p. 274). They also suggest this is because the police chief has “significant power in the hiring procedure” (p. 274). Zhao and Lovrich, however, add that any changes in personnel policies are due to several factors, including political, organizational and legal factors (p. 267).

Zhao et al. (2005) found in their longitudinal panel study in the 1990s that having an African American or Latino police chief was correlated with an increase in employment of police officers of color in the U.S. (pp. 377 & 384). Lewis (1989) found that Black police chiefs were one of the strongest predictors in increasing the percentage of Black officers in his study of large police departments in the United States. Gustafson (2013) found in his sample of 181 municipal police agencies in the U.S. that the presence of people of color in police leadership positions was one of the most significant factors in affecting diversity in line officers.

H. Greene (2003) asserts that African American police chiefs can influence policing more than African Americans at the officer rank because they have the power to set priorities within their agencies, as well as have an impact on policy (p. 212). This includes restricting the use of force, recruiting officers of color, and practicing community-oriented policing (p. 212). Many Black police chiefs, and Blacks in administrative and command positions, espouse community-

oriented policing “because it provides an opportunity to remove the historical barriers between police and the black community” (p. 212).

In addition to the police chief being important, the administration under the chief is important in diversifying police agencies. Van der Lippe, Graumans, and Sevenhuijsen (2004) studied police force gender policies in four European countries and found that “the role of top management is important when it comes to getting gender policies to be effective” (p. 398). They stated that in Sweden, the top managers are instrumental in “breaking down the barriers which women encounter” (p. 398). They also noted “in Sweden and the Netherlands, senior managements are very supportive and have stated publicly that they wish women to join the league of decisionmakers in the respective police force” (p. 398).

**Agency size.** Warner et al. (1989) also found that hiring women policer officers was not increased by an increase in the number of total officer positions. However, for officers of color in police agencies, growth in the police department is positively associated with employment opportunities for officers of color (p. 574). Morabito and Shelley (2015), in their study of 1,478 police jurisdictions of differing size and composition using data from the 2003 LEMAS surveys, the 2000 U.S. Census, and the 2003 UCRs, explored the factors that relate to using representative theory as its framework. They also found that for females, officers of color, and African Americans, agency size was positively associated with increased representation of all three groups (pp. 341, 344 & 345).

**Presence and type of union or collective bargaining unit.** Walker (1985) has noted that police unions opposed ways to improve police-community relations and have represented White officers who challenged Affirmative Action programs and plans in courts. Warner et al. (1989) have also cited several large police unions and associations that have filed grievances and

lawsuits against Affirmative Action, including the Fraternal Order of Police and the International Association of Police Chiefs. However, Riccucci (1986) found that of the 74 cities in her study, the presence of a union had a limited effect on female employment within municipal police departments. Walker (1985) emphasizes that police unions are dynamic and change as their social and economic environment, and the demographic composition of an agency changes. Kim and Mengistu (1994) found in their study that collective bargaining did not significantly influence female and Asian police office employment and that police unions did not promote hiring Black police officers, but did Hispanic officers (p. 171).

Walker (1985) has asserted that police unions have represented the interests of White officers. Walker (1985) and Warner et al. (1989) assert that unions have openly opposed Affirmative Action programs. Schuck (2014) discussed the mixed results of empirical research regarding union influence on passive representation. Warner et al. (1989) did not find a correlation between collective bargaining and female representation in their study of 281 metropolitan police departments. Using a more diverse and larger sample of agencies, Sass and Troyer (1999) found less female representation with unionization in the early 1980s, but not for the late 1980s and early 1990s. Schuck (2014) hypothesized in her study of over 400 agencies that “law enforcement organizations with a collective bargaining unit will have lower levels of female representation than those that do not have a collective bargaining unit” (p. 59). She found that “collective bargaining had a direct negative impact on gender diversity” (p. 68). Kellough (1990) examined the employment of people of color and women in federal agencies and found a strong positive relationship, rather than the negative relationship he hypothesized between unions and the employment of women, Blacks, and Hispanics at the federal level (p. 562). As an explanation for this finding, Kellough suggested that public employee unions are not a hindrance

to employment of females and people of color at the federal level as found at the municipal level. He further elaborated that federal unions “have a much more limited scope of collective bargaining and must represent employees on issues other than wages and benefits” and are less oppositional toward Affirmative Action and equal employment opportunity than municipal employee unions (p. 562).

Walker (2008) reiterated that “police unions are widely recognized as having a major influence on American policing, with respect to day-to-day management, disciplinary procedures, and police-community relations, especially with minority communities and the African American community specifically” (p. 95). Walker highlighted that many police experts perceive that police unions had, and continue to have, an enormous negative influence on police-community relations (p. 105). Morabito and Shelley (2015) found that the presence of collective bargaining was significantly and positively associated with increased female representation, but not for officers of color (pp. 341, 345 & 345).

**Autonomous professional personnel bureaus.** Stein (1986) stated “the growth of autonomous, professionalized urban bureaus was made possible by the weakening or elimination of a politically based local executive during the Progressive reform period” (p. 696). She describes the civil service with its aim of substituting political hiring with selection by merit (p. 696). However, she also noted that the restrictive qualifications that define the merit principle “prevent many minority applicants from obtaining positions with local government” (p. 697). Stein found in her study that professional autonomous bureaus were resistant to direction from the outside and the presence of a civil service commission had a significant negative relationship on employment of people of color in large city work forces (p. 702).

**African American personnel directors and administrators.** Meier and Bohte (2001) argued that representative bureaucracy theory asserts that African American personnel directors and administrators may exercise their discretion in making decisions based on their values, attitudes, and beliefs that are formed from their racial socialization. Goode and Baldwin (2005) found in their study of new predictors of African American representation in city government, that the presence of African American personnel directors and administrators was correlated with African American representation in municipal government (pp. 29 & 40). They concluded that those involved in the internal environment of personnel are “generally more predictive of African American representation in city government than variables in the external environments of municipalities” (p. 29).

**Active representative bureaucracy.** Mosher’s (1968) defined the term *active representation* as “wherein an individual (or administrator) is expected to press for the interests and desires of those whom he is presumed to represent, whether they be the whole people or some segment of the people” (pp. 11-12). Selden et al. (1998) defined *active representation* as “how minority employment or ‘passive’ representation is translated into the ‘active’ representation of minority interests in the decisions of public agencies” (p. 717).

It was assumed that public agencies can transform passive representation into active representation to achieve representative outcomes (Sowa & Selden, 2003, p. 701). Selden (1997) and Kennedy (2014) stated that a bureaucracy that is diverse will promote public policy that is more responsive and that will represent all interests in the formulation and implementation of policy.

Kennedy (2014) identified three components necessary to have active representative bureaucracy. The first is that bureaucrats must have discretion (p. 406). Second, policy

decisions must have direct relevance to passively represented groups (p. 406). Third, bureaucrats must be linked to a specific policy output (p. 406). The system in place with Human Resources, for example, needs to be compatible with recruiting qualified candidates of diverse backgrounds.

### **The Relationship between Passive Representative Bureaucracy and Active Representative Bureaucracy**

Research has shown a relationship between passive and active representation, but there is a debate as to the nature of the relationship (Meier & Smith, 1994). The debate includes what kinds of decisions to include and “how does the bureaucratic work environment facilitate or constrain the link between passive representation and active representation?” (Hindera & Young, 1998, p. 656). Hindera and Young extended this theory to test whether “the proportion of a particular group in a public bureaucracy (passive representation) is related to enhanced agency outputs of group members in the general population (active representation)” (p. 656). The dependent variable was measured as the proportion of charges filed on behalf of Black complainants (p. 664). The independent variable was the percentages of investigative Black and White staff making the decisions. They found that Black passive representation is related to active representation in that Black staff filed higher numbers of EEOC charges on behalf of Black complainants (p. 665). Hindera and Young found that for active representation to take place, there must be “some minimal level of political support from within the organization” (p. 662).

Passive representation leads to increases in perceptions of the legitimacy of police actions. The need for research to identify the process on how passive representation may lead to active representation, including how the employment of women and people of color in government, political offices, and police leadership positions, increases passive and active

representation, is well documented in the literature. The findings of Hindera and Young (1998) also suggest that the relationship between passive and active representation “is fundamentally different for each type of bureaucratic environment” (p. 655).

Meier and Nicholson-Crotty (2006) argue that active representation “focuses almost exclusively on how [active] representation affects policy making and implementation” and “assumes that shared values arising from passive representation will produce actions that are more beneficial to the clients in question” (p. 851). An example of how passive representation can be translated into active representation is that females and communities of color who see police officers that have similar demographic characteristics to them, may be more likely to contact police, report a crime, be a witness, and cooperate with police. Another way in which passive representation can be turned into active representation is that female officers and officers of color can influence the attitudes and behaviors of other police officers (p. 853). This will benefit the workplace and interactions between the public and the police. This demonstrates that indirect contact can have benefits (p. 853).

Recent research (Grissom, J. Nicholson-Crotty, & S. Nicholson-Crotty, 2009) on representative bureaucracy theory has paid attention to the circumstances and situations that moderate the relationship between the race or gender of public bureaucrats and the active representation of group interests. Meier and Bohte (2001) have demonstrated that structural characteristics of an organization, the political and social context outside of the organization, and the views and opinions of individual bureaucrats, can augment or inhibit bureaucratic representation. Grissom et al. (2009) found in their study using a representative sample of more than 3,000 public schools, that in the South, “region of residence is an important moderator of active representation because it helps to determine the salience of race as an issue and the degree

of identification with racial group interest” (p. 911). Their results implied that Black teachers in the South generate larger benefits for Black students compared with other regions in the United States (p. 911).

Mosher (1968) describes how passive representation can have symbolic affects:

While passive representation is no guarantor of democratic decision-making, it carries some independent and symbolic values that are significant for a democratic society. A broadly representative public service, especially at the level of leadership, suggest an *open service* in which access is available to most people, whatever their station in life, and in which there is *equality of opportunity*. ... The importance of passive representativeness often resides less in the behaviors of public employees than in the fact that the employees who are there are there at all. Negatively, its significance rests on the absence, or conspicuous underrepresentation, of certain categories of people, suggesting or reflecting barriers to their entry or advancement. (pp. 13-14)

Lim (2006) further expounded on how bureaucrats of color can create substantive benefits through direct sources by their own behavior, or through indirect sources, which are the changes they encourage in the behavior of others (p. 195). Saltzstein (1979) and Selden (1997) have examined the direct construction of substantive benefits for the social group of bureaucrats of color. Saltzstein (1979) argues that “the theory of representative bureaucracy requires that bureaucratic policy making be responsive to the interests of represented groups which necessarily implies a link between passive representation and values, values and behavior, and behavior and policy” (p. 470). Lim (2006) interprets this as meaning bureaucrats who share a demographic background, experience similar socialization, attitudes, values, and beliefs with other people who share their social background, will act in ways that enhances substantive



benefits for their social group (p. 195). Walker (1985) stated that there are three main areas of research for the potential impact (active representation) of people of color and females (passive representation) in law enforcement agencies: police performance, public attitudes, and the police subculture (p. 563).

### **Police Performance Outcomes of a Representative Police Force**

The first area of research on the active representation of women police officers and police officers of color identified by Walker (1985) is their influence on police performance. Meier et al.'s (1999) research found that teachers of color benefit students of color and do not disadvantage White students. They concluded "that representative bureaucracies are more effective than their nonrepresentative counterparts" (p. 1025). They also stated "that discriminatory personnel policies result in less able employees, which, in turn, detrimentally affects agency performance" (p. 1037). Although this research is outside policing, these results are applicable to law enforcement because a representative agency will improve the delivery of police services to all segments of the community.

In one of the first studies following the integration of women into patrol duties, Bloch and Anderson (1974) found that there were not any significant differences between the behavior of female and male officers. Walker (1985) raises valid concerns regarding studies of police performance for officers of color in stating that many studies did not include officer race as an independent variable and many behaviors had not been adequately studied, except for use of deadly force. This is still applicable today, what constitutes good police performance is of much debate, particularly regarding what are good performance indicators to evaluate officers who practice community-oriented policing.

Meier and Nicholson-Crotty (2006) found in their study of 60 urban areas over an eight year period that the percentage of women police officers in a department was “positively associated” with the number of sexual assault reports and the number of arrests for sexual assaults (pp. 850, 856 & 857). They also have highlighted the importance from their study “that passive representation affects the actions of other bureaucrats and clients” (p. 858).

The first studies to apply representative bureaucracy theory to traffic stops were at the aggregate level (Mason, 2013; Wilkins & Williams, 2008, 2009). Wilkins and Williams (2008), in examining the relationship between passive and active representation, found in their study using 2000 data from the San Diego Police Department, that as the percentage of African American police officers increased, so did racial profiling in traffic stops (p. 654). They concluded that organizational socialization can impede the relationship between passive and active representation (p. 654). Using the same data as above, Wilkins and Williams (2009) also found that the presence of Latino officers increased racial disparity in traffic stops (p. 775). Gilliard-Matthews, Kowalski, and Lundman (2008) using data from citizens in the United States to examine police-citizen contacts, found that minority drivers were significantly more likely to be given a ticket by white officers than by African American officers.

Sun and Payne (2004) in an analysis of 3,130 separate encounters between the police and suspects in Indianapolis and St. Petersburg, found that in predominantly African American neighborhoods, African American officers were more apt to show supportive activities than White officers. However, they also found that African American officers were more coercive in their reaction to interpersonal conflicts. Sun and Payne detected that “decisions to perform traditional law enforcement functions (e.g., using force, arresting, and maintaining order) seem to be congruent with the “blue cop” identity whereas decisions to perform supportive activities

are congruent with identities that show concern about their community” (pp. 535-536). They use the metaphor of “blue cop” for Black police who were influenced by the police traditional socialization process.

Legewie and Fagan (2016), using a dataset from 2013 to 2015, hypothesized that a police force that is representative of the population it serves will reduce group threat and conflict, thereby decreasing the number of officer-involved killings of African Americans. Their findings identified an “interaction between group threat and proportional representation of minority groups in police departments” (p. 1). They explained that “group threat is not simply driven by population shares and in-migration of out-group members as suggested by previous studies” (p. 31). Instead, Legewie and Fagan found that “the number and rate of officer involved killings of African-Americans is substantially higher in cities with a high level of ethno-racial polarization where two equal-sized groups face each [other]” (p. 31). They explained that diversity within a police agency might not by itself decrease the number of officer-involved shootings, however, minority representation “mitigates different dimensions of threat” (p. 32). Their study makes a significant contribution to research because it is an example of how passive representation, a diverse police agency, can impact active representation, a benefit to the African American community. In addition, this study also identifies mitigating factors relating to group threat, thus, decreasing the strained relationship between the police and African Americans (pp. 32-33). This is an example on how representation affects police performance. These findings may be extended to include other communities of color.

**Street-level bureaucrats and discretion.** Many scholars, including Dempsey and Forst (2013), have emphasized that “the use of discretion is one of the major challenges facing U.S. police today” (p. 73). They also noted that the most critical decisions in the criminal justice

system “take place on the streets”, thus “the police officer, generally the first decision maker in the U.S. criminal justice system, is often the most important” (p. 73). The amount of discretion police officers use in the performance of their daily tasks is much greater at the bottom of the police organizational hierarchy (p. 39).

Lipsky (1980) described street-level bureaucrats, which include the police, as workers in agencies who “interact with and have wide discretion over the dispensation of benefits or the allocation of public sanctions” (p. xi) and as “public service workers who interact directly with citizens in the course of their jobs, and who have substantial discretion in the execution of their work” (p. 3). Meier and Nicholson-Crotty (2006) also described police officers as an example of “street-level bureaucrats” because police officers interact with the public and exercise much discretion in the performance of their duties. In applying Lipsky’s (1980) work to their study on the relationship between women police officers and sexual assault reports and arrests, Meier & Nicholson-Crotty (2006) stated “because street-level bureaucrats exercise discretion, their attitudes, values, and predispositions are important in understanding policy implementation” (p. 851). This emphasizes the relationship between a bureaucrat’s personal characteristics and policy issues that affect individuals who share those characteristics, which is a form of representative bureaucracy and assumes that “shared values from passive representation will produce actions that are more beneficial to the clients in question” (p. 851). This highlights the importance of representation of women and people of color in law enforcement because law enforcement has been traditionally a White male dominated profession. Representative bureaucracy theory suggests that the representation of female and officers of color (passive representation) impacts police agencies and the communities they serve (active representation).

**Administrative discretion over policy outcomes in the context of representative bureaucracy.** One of the key concepts in studies on the theory of representative bureaucracy is administrative discretion (Sowa & Selden, 2003; Dolan, 2000). It is important to understand the role and impact of administrator discretion on policy making and implementation in recruitment, hiring, and retaining female and officers of color. Also important is the impact of discretion on officers at the street-level who make decisions and exercise discretion on a daily basis that affect females and communities of color. Selden et al. (1998) emphasized that for administrators to influence policy outcomes, public administrators must have “a significant amount of discretion in the decision-making process” that impacts representative groups (p. 728). Among decisions that impact the interests of representative groups are decisions regarding the hiring of a representative police force and decisions that affect the delivery of police services to women and people of color within the community.

Sowa and Selden (2003) found in their study of discretion in making loan-eligibility decisions for the Farmer’s Home Administration that “administrators who perceive themselves as having more administrative discretion produce outcomes that are more responsive to the interests of minorities than those of their colleagues” and had a significant impact on the rural housing loans granted to minorities (pp. 701 & 706). They sought to expand the theory of representative bureaucracy to “an unexplored aspect of the theory: the impact of administrative discretion on active representation” (p. 701).

One of the important ways of how passive representation can be transformed into active representation are the benefits from a representative workforce. Active representation acknowledges discretion on the part of administrators to produce outcomes that are more representative and equitable to the people being represented (Sowa & Selden, 2003, p. 701).

Also important are particular attributes of administrators, such as race, ethnicity, and gender, that affect early socialization experiences, that then influence the values and attitudes of administrators (p. 701). For passive representation to result in active representation, it is important that values and attitudes influence actions and that administrators use “their discretion to foster improved equity for those who have been underrepresented in the implementation of public programs” (p. 701).

Dolan (2000) also asserted that public administrators affect public policy through their administrative discretion (p. 513). She studied the influence of female members in the Senior Executive Service (SES), who contributed to making decisions on national policy while working with the president’s political appointees. Dolan hypothesized, using representative bureaucracy theory, that because of different life experiences for women, women in the SES would make dissimilar decisions compared with their male equals (p. 513). She suggested that a woman’s life experiences shape her attitudes and values, which then influences her decisions. She found that women in the federal SES act as active representatives. She also concluded that the relationship between passive and active representation may vary by organizational setting and is more likely to happen in agencies that advocate for women’s issues.

Meier and Bohte (2001) using a sample of six hundred school districts in Texas to analyze the role of discretion in the relationship between passive and active representation asserted that active representation is increased in organizations that provide more discretion to their employees. Using span of control as their measure of organizational structure, they found that the performance of students of color increased in organizational structures that generated more discretion by teachers of color. They hypothesized that the more people a person supervises, the more discretion they allow to the subordinates they supervise because they do not

have enough time to closely supervise everyone (p. 457). This applies to the amount of discretion given to police officers, especially at the street level.

**Role acceptance of administrators.** Sowa and Selden (2003) found in their study on discretion in making loan-eligibility decisions in the Farmer's Home Administration that "administrators who perceive themselves as possessing significant discretion and who assume the role of minority representative in their agencies are more likely to enact policy outcomes that favor minority interests" (p. 700). Sowa and Selden defined work roles as a "particular set of behaviors expected" by a particular job or position (p. 704) and described *traditional role acceptance* as including the concepts of merit and neutral competence to achieve efficiency and economy, and the focus on complying with standard operating procedures rather than outcomes favoring minority interests (pp. 704-705). Selden (1997) introduced the concept of minority role representative in representative bureaucracy literature as bureaucrats willing to view themselves as advocates for, or representative of, minority interests and Sowa and Selden (2003) described *minority representative role acceptance* as administrators who perceive they have a responsibility to serve minority communities (p. 704). Sowa and Selden found that supervisors who perceived their role as a minority representative granted more loans to minorities, thus they are more likely to make decisions that advance minority interests (p. 706). It is suggested that those who assume a minority representative role will emphasize improving access to groups that have been traditionally underrepresented in the policy process (p. 705). They concluded that discretion is one mechanism that strengthens the relationship between passive and active representation. It is important to note that Whites can also advocate for the interests of people of color.

Selden et al. (1998) conducted research regarding whether the Farmer's Home Administrators granted loans to minority applicants differently than to White applicants. They were interested in how passive representation translates into active representation by proposing a "crucial intermediary concept in this process" ... "of a minority representative role perception by public administrators" (p. 717). The most significant finding in their study was "that minority status, as hypothesized, exerts a strong influence on adherence to the minority representative role", which is "crucial to the theory of representative bureaucracy", because "race and ethnicity appear to influence the attitudes and role perceptions of government employees regarding minority representation" (p. 732). Kennedy (2014) emphasizes that few scholars have analyzed how bureaucrats view their representative role (p. 214). Kennedy also suggested that qualitative analysis may offer a more insightful and contextual understanding of representative bureaucracy (p. 414).

### **Public and Police Attitudes**

The second area of research identified by Walker (1985) is the impact of women officers and officers of color on public attitudes towards the police. Walker stressed from surveys of citizens "that black citizens are less satisfied with urban public services than are white citizens" (p. 564). There has not been much research on whether progress in people of color or female employment in police agencies improves the image of a police department.

Theobald and Haider-Markel (2008) found in a study using individual level data from a national police-citizen contact survey that symbolic representation occurred and that the perceptions of citizens regarding the legitimacy of police actions were shaped by the interaction of citizen race and officer race. They also found that Black citizens were more likely to perceive the actions of Black officers as legitimate and that Whites were more likely to perceive the



actions of White officers as legitimate (p. 409). They defined the concept of symbolic representation as being different than active representation. While active representation is where the representative acts on behalf of represented groups, symbolic representation “works cognitively on the audience of those who belong to a group that is being represented” (p. 410). In symbolic representation, “attitudes and outcomes can change without any purposeful actions taken by the representatives other than holding a government office or position” (p. 410).

Research has found that race shapes citizens perceptions of fairness and whether police actions are legitimate (Theobald & Haider-Markel, 2008). Sigelman, Welch, Bledsoe, and Combs (1997) found that 90% of African Americans perceived that the police are not fair to African Americans and that 60% of Whites perceive that the police are not fair to African Americans. Hurwitz and Peffley (2005) found that when police actions involve African Americans, African Americans were more likely to perceive police actions as unfair and were more suspicious of those actions involving African American citizens. They also found that Whites were more likely to support the police when there were concerns of discrimination regarding interactions between the police and Black citizens. Theobald and Haider-Markel (2008) emphasize that if increased Black representation affects Black’s attitudes about police actions, then this has crucial implications for policy making and the community (p. 414). Mansbridge (1999) added that if descriptive or passive representation increases trust, increased perceptions of inclusion may produce citizens perceptions that the actions of the state and their institutions were more legitimate.

Cochran and Warren (2012) found in their research analyzing data from the 2005 Bureau of Justice Statistic’s Police Public Contact Survey (PPCS), which is a supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), that officer race was relevant in influencing citizen’s

assessments of police encounters in traffic stops, especially for Black citizens. They found that Black males and females were more apt to negatively evaluate police behavior when a White officer initiated the traffic stop (p. 219). However, when citizens were stopped by officers of color, they found no citizen-race or ethnicity effects and the citizens were more likely to perceive the stop as legitimate (p. 219). Cochran and Warren concluded that this important finding supports increasing the number of officers of color to improve relationships between citizens and police officers and decrease the perceptions of racial profiling. Other research regarding citizen attitudes towards the police show that people living in impoverished and severely disadvantaged communities and neighborhoods are not satisfied nor have a positive perception of the police, regardless of the racial demographics of the police agency (Brunson & Gau, 2015; Weitzer, Tuch, & Skogan, 2008).

**Attitude congruence.** Hinderer (1993) describes attitude congruence as group attitudes leading to predictable behavior (p. 100). Bradbury and Kellough (2008) surveyed public administrators who have authority to make decisions and citizens in Athens, Georgia to examine their attitudes regarding the responsibilities of local government administrators to promote the concerns and issues of the African American community (p. 697). They predicted that public administrators of color “will have similar attitudes to minority citizens on issues of critical import and relevance to those citizens, and those attitudes, in turn, will influence policy decisions” (p. 697). They found that African American administrators are more likely than White administrators to adopt an African American representative role. Their most significant finding was that African American administrators who had similar attitudes to African American citizens was “a significant predictor of the adoption of an African-American representative administrator role, overwhelming the influence of other variables including race” (p. 697). They

also found that African American citizens and administrators are more likely than White citizens and administrators to support actions that benefit the interests of the African American community. Selden (1997) and Bradbury and Kellough (2008) point out that even though bureaucrats of color were a significant predictor of the minority representative role, White bureaucrats can also take the role of a minority representative.

**Police attitudes towards the community.** In addition to attitudes citizens have of the police, there has been research on attitudes police have towards the community. Lasley, Larson, Kelso, and Brown (2011) examined the longitudinal changes in police officer attitudes towards the community using the framework of representative bureaucracy theory. Their sample was made up of 405 male Caucasian, African American, and Latino/Hispanic patrol officers who started working for the Los Angeles Police Department between 1985 and 1991 under Affirmative Action hiring (Lasley et al.). They surveyed the same officers at two points in time, in 1992 and in 2007 (Lasley et al.). The results over the 15 years of the study found that “African-American and Latino officers significantly increased their desire to engage in active representation or ‘partnerships’ with the community” (p. 474). They also found a similar effect on White officers in 2007, who in 1992, indicated they had lower desires for community interaction than officers of color in 1992 (Lasley et al.). They suggested that White officers “may have changed their attitudes towards police-community interaction as a result of prolonged exposure to the influences of ethnic diversity with the LAPD organization” (p. 482).

### **The Police Subculture**

The third area of research identified by Walker (1985) is the impact women police officers and police officers of color have on the police subculture. The concept of a police subculture began in the 1960s with renowned studies that described the police subculture as

causing many of the problems between the police and communities of color (Crank, 2004; Niederhofer, 1969; Skolnick, 1994; Westley, 1970). Walker (1985) describes “a police subculture in which minorities and women are seriously underrepresented and in which the attitudes and behavior of police officers reflect a dominant white male group” (p. 556).

Traditionally, police officers were White males from the working class and White lower middle class, who were conservative, authoritarian and racially prejudiced (p. 563).

The subculture underscored solidarity of the group, antagonism toward the public, a “we versus them” attitude, secrecy, and the “code of silence” towards misconduct and brutality (Walker, 1985, p. 103) and was “characterized by clannishness, secrecy, and isolation from those not in the group” (Dempsey & Forst, 2013, p. 82). Dempsey and Forst (2013) stated that studies have shown that police officers protect one another from outsiders. They describe the “blue wall of silence” as “a figurative protective barrier erected by the police in which officers protect one another from outsiders, often even refusing to aid police superiors or other law enforcement officials in investigating wrongdoing of other officers” (p. 83). Many scholars, including Walker, have noted that the concept of police subculture needs to be reevaluated because it has morphed from a monolithic concept into a complex, multi-dimensional concept and is more refined than the original concept (Walker, 2008, p. 104). This includes breaking down the secrecy and blue wall of silence because of the current climate of increased scrutiny of police conduct. This calls for officers to not only come forward, but to also intervene when other officers use excessive force or engage in misconduct or brutality.

Diversifying police agencies can change some of the aspects of the police culture. One of the categories of the effects of the changing demographics within police agencies is organizational effects, which is how diversity in a police agency affects the internal dynamics of

that agency, including the subculture (Sklansky, 2006, p. 1212). Sklansky asserts “that the demographic transformation of American law enforcement has done much to break down the police subculture, by weakening both the occupational solidarity and the social insularity of the police” (p. 1212). Lasley et al. (2011) identified one example of how racial and ethnic diversity can impact police culture. They concluded in their study on the longitudinal changes in police officer attitudes towards the community that the “attitude change among all LAPD officers in 2007 – and particularly among Caucasian officers – may have been due, in part, to LAPD’s traditional policing culture having been transformed through ethnic diversification into a representative bureaucracy” (p. 490).

### **Leadership at the Local Level to Initiate Change**

Shusta et al. (2011) identified the chief law enforcement officer as a key component in whether their agency is effective and successful in meeting the challenge of policing in a pluralistic society and building good relationships with the community (pp. 72 & 73). Shusta et al. also emphasized the following components of effective leadership in a pluralistic workforce and society:

- Demonstrating commitment to policing a diverse society. This includes developing policies from all levels of the agency and community that show a commitment to diversity in the workplace and in providing police services.
- Developing strategic, implementation, and transition management plans.
- Managing organizational change.
- Developing police-community partnerships.
- Providing new leadership models. This includes being innovative by transforming workplaces from the status quo to appropriate environments, renewing organization

and becoming role models by transmitting intellectual excitement and vision about their work, and helping personnel to manage change by restructuring their mindsets and values (pp. 73-76).

### **How Social Equity Theory Ties into Representative Bureaucracy Theory**

As stated by Selden et al. (1998), representative bureaucracy “operates to promote equity” where “efforts are made to ensure that minority interests are not ignored in circumstances where those interests need to be heard and might otherwise be disregarded” (p. 739). A work force that is reflective of the community conveys economic benefits and symbolic significance to communities of color. Warner et al. (1989) stated the desired impact of the Title VII Civil Rights Act of 1972 that extends the CRA of 1964, which prohibits discrimination in personnel practices by state and local governments, is moving towards social equity and the start of representative bureaucracy (p. 562). They further state that social equity is one of many competing values in hiring decisions in the public sector (pp. 562-563). Other values to consider are “merit, timely appointment, or cost-effectiveness” (p. 563). Which value is emphasized heavily depends on the current social, political and economic climates that influence hiring decisions (p. 563). For example, Warner et al. note that during the Reagan presidency Affirmative Action programs were severely reduced.

Passive representative bureaucracy can send a message of “commitment to equal opportunity and access to power and can promote the legitimacy of public bureaucracies” (Meier & Nicholson-Crotty, 2006, p. 851). Active representation on the part of women police officers and police officers of color can improve equal opportunity and access to police services and protection to women and people of color.

## **Police Officer Retention and Separation**

Reaves (2012) summarized statistics on the retention of local law enforcement officers in the 2008 Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) report of the CSLLEA (Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies), which includes types and reasons of separations. Overall, about 7.4% of all state and local officers separated from agencies in 2008 (Reaves, 2012; Stevens, 2018). “On average, large agencies have a lower turnover rate (5 percent) than do small agencies (7 percent)” (p. 234). Stevens (2018) added that “this attrition rate appears to have remained stable since the 1960s” (p. 234).

Wareham, Smith, and Lambert (2015) using both the 2003 LEMAS survey and the 2008 CSLLEA data for their study, found that “the total turnover rate was 10.8% for both 2003 and 2008” (p. 345). Wareham et al. also found that attrition rates for police officers were higher in smaller agencies, southern regions, and rural areas (p. 345). Their results showed higher separation rates, 10.8%, than Reave’s BJS report of 7.4%. Wareham et al. explained that this was due to Reave’s report not presenting “separation rates across geographic regions, states, urbanity, or types of agencies (i.e., municipal vs. sheriff)” (p. 348). Wareham et al. used weighted samples “to adjust the sample to the population of law enforcement agencies with fewer than 100 officers based on the nature of an agency and the population size of its jurisdiction” (p. 349).

Wareham et al. (2015) calculated their turnover rates by dividing the total number of full-time sworn officers for each turnover indicator by the number of full-time sworn officers and multiplied that number by 100 to get percentages of turnover (p. 350). The rates are aggregate rates of turnover and do not include reasons for officers who resigned, including officers who left for another law enforcement position (p. 365).

Wareham et al. (2015) used Price's (1977) definition of turnover in their study: a "permanent ending of employment" which "does not include absenteeism, long-term leave, layoffs, transfers, promotions, or demotions" (p. 350). Wareham et al. used the three broad categories of "why employees leave an organization": "voluntary, involuntary, and retirements". Wareham et al. defined voluntary turnover as when someone quits, but not including retirement. Involuntary turnover was defined as when "the turnover is not a willing decision by the employee" and most of the time, it "is initiated by the employing organization" with examples including termination, death, and disability (p. 350). Retirement was defined as when the employee voluntarily retires from the agency (p. 350).

Wareham et al.'s study (2015) asked participating police agencies to report the number of police officers lost within the following six sub-categories: "resignations, dismissals, medical/disability retirements, non-medical retirements, probationary rejections, and other separations (e.g., death)" (p. 350). They used the following four measures of police turnover for their study: resignations (voluntary turnover), retirements (non-medical retirements), voluntary separations (resignations and non-medical retirements), and total turnover (all categories of separation, including dismissal, probationary rejections, medical/disability retirements, and deaths) (pp. 350-351). Their results showed that the average turnover rates for the 2003 LEMAS sample were 7.79% for resignations, .92% for retirements, which combined is 8.71% for voluntary separations, and 10.82% for total turnover (p. 352). This means that 2.11% of the officers were terminated by involuntary separation, which included dismissals, probation rejections, medical disabilities, medical retirements, and death. For the 2008 CSLLEA sample, the results showed 7.31% for resignations, .90% for retirements, which combined is 8.21% for voluntary separations, and 10.76% for total turnover (p. 352). This means that 2.55% of the



officers were terminated by involuntary separation, which included dismissals, probation rejections, medical disabilities, medical retirements, and death. For the Midwest region, they found “resignations and voluntary separations were statistically lower in 2008 than 2003, but retirements were statistically higher” (p. 353). The findings from Wareham et al.’s study found that geographic location, type of agency, and size of agency influenced different kinds of turnover (p. 365). Urban agencies reported lower levels of resignations, voluntary separations, and total turnover than rural and suburban agencies” (p. 365). Smaller agencies had “higher rates of resignations, voluntary separation, and total turnover, as well as lower rates of retirements” (p. 365).

Table 2 summarizes the data from Wareham et al.’s (2015) study on the mean turnover rate (the number of officers who separated, divided by the total number of officers, and multiplied by 100) for the Midwest region and U.S. Division where the case agency is located, urban status (includes rural, suburban, and metro agencies), type of agency (includes municipal, county, and state agencies), and size of agency (includes medium agencies (50-99 officers) and large agencies (100-200 officers)) for the 2003 LEMAS survey data and the 2008 CSLLEA data. Wareham et al.’s definition of medium and large agencies is included. As the data in the table presents, there is a wide range of mean turnover rates which are dependent on geographic location, urban status, type of agency, and size of agency.

Table 2. Mean Turnover Rates for the 2003 LEMAS Survey and the 2008 CSLLEA Data for Geographic Location, Urban Status, Type of Agency, and Size of Agency.

Type of Turnover	Midwest Region and U.S. Division of Case Agency	Rural, Suburban, and Metro Agencies	Municipal, County, and State Agencies	Medium (50-99 Officers) and Large (100-299 Officers) Agencies
2003 LEMAS				
Resignations	6.1 to 9.4	4.8 to 10.6	2.2 to 8.5	2.9 to 3.1
Retirements	.3 to .9	.7 to 1.3	.9 to 2.8	1.3 to 1.8
Involuntary Separation	1.1 to 1.4	1.4 to 2.7	.9 to 2.2	1.3 to 1.4
Total Turnover	7.5 to 11.5	7.6 to 14.1	5.9 to 11.6	5.5 to 6.3
2008 CSLLEA				
Resignations	3.0 to 7.8	4.0 to 9.8	1.8 to 7.5	3.2 to 3.5
Retirements	.5 to 1.0	.8 to 1.2	.8 to 2.1	1.2 to 1.6
Involuntary Separation	.5 to 2.1	1.8 to 3.6	.9 to 2.7	1.4 to 1.5
Total Turnover	4.1 to 10.6	6.9 to 14.2	4.9 to 11.1	6.2 to 6.4

This data was compiled from data in Wareham et al.'s study (2015).

Using the same 2008 CSLLEA data as Wareham et al. (2015), Reaves (2012), in the BJS report of the 2008 CSLLEA data, calculated the percentage of those who separated by type of separation. The percentages for each category represent the percentage of the total number of separations, rather than the percentage of the number of officers used in Wareham et al.'s study. Reaves calculations of officer separations in 2008 included 54% for resignations, 23% for non-medical retirements, 10% for dismissals, 5% for probationary rejections, and 5% for medical or disability retirements, and 4% for other, which includes disability and death (Reaves, 2012; Stevens, 2018, p. 6). Table 3 shows officer separation from the 2008 CSLLEA, by type of separation and two of the categories for size of agencies.

Table 3. Type of Separation for the 2008 CSLLEA Data by Size of Agencies.

Type of Separation	Agencies of All Sizes	100-499 Officers	25-99 Officers
Resignation	54%	51%	58%
Non-medical retirement	23%	26%	18%
Dismissal	10%	9%	11%

Table 3. cont.

Type of Separation	Agencies of All Sizes	100-499 Officers	25-99 Officers
Probationary rejection	5%	6%	5%
Medical/disability retirement	5%	5%	5%
Other – Disability and death	4%	4%	3%

This data was compiled from data in Reaves (2012) report (p. 7). Total percentages for first two columns total 101% due to rounding.

### **Police Officers who Leave for another Law Enforcement Agency**

Stevens (2018) examined the separation data from Reaves’ (2012) report that used the 2008 CSLLEA data. Stevens found that for officers who left the agency for another law enforcement position, about 45% left from small agencies and about 24% left from large agencies (p. 234).

### **Females who Leave Policing**

Regarding females leaving policing, Fyfe and Kane (2006) examined attrition rates for female officers in the U.S. and found that female officers leave policing at higher rates than do male officers. They found that female officers were more likely to resign voluntarily than male officers (4.3 percent versus 3.0 percent, respectively) and that female officers were terminated involuntarily more often than their male counterparts (1.2 percent versus 0.6 percent, respectively).

Martin (1994) concluded that the higher rate of women leaving law enforcement was due to women experiencing a “more hostile work environment” than do males (p. 398). Stevens (2018) added that “female officers who are single parents are also confronted with different problems than males in the workplace and are treated differently than male officers by their commanders as well” (p. 235). Stevens also reports that “minorities resign at higher rates than do white male officers” (p. 235).

## **Length of Service and Separation**

Regarding the relationship between length of service and attrition, Koper, Maguire, and Moore (2002) found that two-thirds of the officers who leave both large and small agencies have 5 or less years of service (p. 47). Stevens (2018) also added that “officers with intermediate lengths of service (i.e., 6 to 14 years of service) are the least likely to leave both large and small agencies” (pp. 235-236).

### **Summary**

This chapter discussed the historical background of recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within law enforcement and relevant issues relating to this study. Also discussed were the status of female police officers and officers of color in the U.S. and the benefits of a diverse agency. This chapter also discussed the theoretical and conceptual framework that applies to this study and the factors and variables that are examined. Discussed last was police officer separation.

The next chapter discusses the methodology for this study. This includes the purpose of the study, the research questions, and theoretical and conceptual framework. The next chapter discusses the research design, philosophical orientation, and methodology, why the case study is an appropriate approach, and triangulation of data sources and methods. The chapter then discusses the agency (case) selected for the case study; ethical issues; data sources, collection, and analysis; and reliability, validity, and authenticity.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODS**

The purpose of this study is to describe how one Midwest law enforcement agency recruits, hires, and retains full-time officers that are representative of the communities it serves. This descriptive, single case study uses triangulation of multiple methods, including quantitative and qualitative methods, and multiple data sources through a logical theoretical and conceptual framework. This study also identifies applicable variables in describing how the agency recruits, hires, and retains diversity within the agency.

#### **Theoretical and Conceptual Framework**

The main theory for this study is representative bureaucracy as described in the Review of Literature chapter. Also, social equity theory is applicable because one of the elements that representative bureaucracy promotes is social equity, thus this theory is a part of representative bureaucracy theory. Theory is used beforehand to guide data collection of relevant concepts and variables, to construct questions in the interview guide, and interpret the data. Theory is also used to explain what accounts for the findings from the data and the validity of the relationship between theory and the data (Bachman & Schutt, 2014, p. 37).

#### **Research Design, Philosophical Orientation, and Methodology**

This research is a single descriptive and interpretive case study approach using both quantitative and qualitative methods. This study draws on data from three quantitative data sets, agency composition data, application data, and separation data; as well as semi-structured

interviews of personnel responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices for the agency.

### **The Case Study as the Research Approach**

This research uses elements of Yin's (2009) case study methods for the philosophy, design, data collection, and data analysis. "Each method has peculiar advantages and disadvantages, depending upon three conditions: the type of research question, the control the investigator has over actual behavioral events, and the focus on contemporary as opposed to historical data" (p. 2). Yin further states that case studies are an appropriate method "when (a) how" or "why" questions is being posed, (b) the investigator has little control over events, and (c) the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon with a real life context" (p. 2). Yin also underscores that case studies address the need to "understand complex social phenomena" (p. 4). Yin (2009) includes two parts to his "technical definition of case studies":

1. A case study is an empirical inquiry that
  - investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when
  - the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.
2. The case study inquiry
  - copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result
  - relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result
  - benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis. (p. 18)

The phenomenon under study in this research meets the criteria of understanding complex social phenomena and where the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context can be blurred. This research describes what is observed and interpreted from the data. Three different quantitative data sets provide information on the composition of the agency, applicants, the application process, and officers who separated from the agency. One qualitative method, semi-structured interviews, provides information on recruiting, hiring, and separation from the perspectives of key personnel involved in the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices for the agency selected as the case. An advantage of the one-on-one interview method is a more detailed and nuanced picture of the complexity and interaction of several variables involved in recruiting, hiring, and retention of diverse officers. Explanations and descriptions developed inductively from qualitative research are richer but based on fewer cases, and for this research, only one case. This researcher cannot assume that the people interviewed in this setting and context are similar to other people, settings and agencies. The semi-structured interviews allow the persons interviewed to tell their stories and view of reality from their perspective (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 545). This helps the researcher better understand their actions and to describe and interpret the data sets. In addition, the semi-structured interviews provide data that extend and contribute to existing knowledge regarding recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within the law enforcement ranks.

According to Berg and Lune (2012), descriptive case studies are where a descriptive theory provides the overall framework to be used before research questions and the case are formulated (p. 338). The literature review identifies relevant factors to this study, so they can be compared to the findings and interpretations of the data. Case studies may also be defined by their purpose. Della Porta and Keating (2008) identified four main types of case studies, each

representing a different purpose: descriptive, interpretive, hypothesis-generating and refining, and theory evaluating (pp. 227-228). This research uses their definition of an interpretive case study in addition to the descriptive nature of the case study. Della Porta and Keating defined an interpretive case study as employing “theoretical frameworks to provide an explanation of particular cases, which can lead as well to an evaluation and refinement of theories” (p. 227). This research uses theoretical and conceptual frameworks to guide data collection, what concepts and variables to look for, how the research questions should be framed, and how the case should be interpreted.

### **Research Questions**

Presented below are the primary research question and seven sub-questions for this study previously presented in Chapter I.

#### **Primary Research Question**

How does one law enforcement agency in the Midwest recruit, hire, and retain full-time police officers that are representative of the communities it serves?

#### **Sub-question #1**

What is the gender and racial/ethnic composition of officers?

#### **Sub-question #2**

What is the gender and racial/ethnic composition of applicants for each step of the application process?

#### **Sub-question #3**

What are the turnover rates, reasons for separation, length of service, gender, and race/ethnicity of officers who separated?



**Sub-question #4**

What practices are used by the agency for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity?

**Sub-question #5**

What factors are important for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within the agency?

**Sub-question #6**

What characteristics are important in leadership for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within the agency?

**Sub-question #7**

What modifications in the traditional recruiting, selection, and hiring processes are needed to recruit and hire for a diverse police agency?

**Data Sources, Data Collection, and Data Analysis**

There is a total of four data sets, three quantitative data sets and one qualitative data set. The first data set, composition data, examines the percentages (passive representation) of officers of all ranks for each year from 2009 through 2017 by gender and the five categories of race/ethnicity used by the case agency:

- White
- Black / African American
- Hispanic / Latino
- Asian / Pacific Islander
- American Indian / Alaskan Native.

The second data set, applicant data, examines frequencies and percentages of the passing rates for each group of applicants in each step of the application process from 2009 through 2016

by gender and race/ethnicity. There was a total of 13 job postings, seven job postings open to all applicants (external and internal applicants) and six job postings open to only internal employees. The steps in the hiring process include a written application with supplemental questions, a minimum and desired qualifications review, a written test, an interview, a second interview, a background investigation, a physical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological examination. There are differences in the steps in the application process for the different job postings as described in Chapter IV, Data Analysis. For example, one posting had the minimum and desired qualifications as separate steps, and the remaining postings had them combined as one step; some postings included a written test, and some postings did not; and some postings had the background investigation, physical examination, drug screen, psychological examinations, and second interview as separate steps, and some postings included these steps with the hiring step.

The third data set, separation data, examines turnover rates, reason for separation, and the length of service for gender and race/ethnicity for full-time police officers of all ranks who separated from the agency from 2010 through mid-2017. This data is compared to the separation rates in Wareham et al.'s (2015) study on police officer turnover using the 2003 LEMAS survey data and the 2008 CSLLEA data. This data is also compared to Reaves' (2012) separation rates using the 2008 CSLLEA data.

The fourth data set consists of interviews of personnel responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices for the case agency. Analysis of this data examines factors that influence the case agency's recruiting, hiring, and separation policies and practices from the perceptions of those involved in these practices. The semi-structured

interviews seek to provide context for the composition, application, and separation data identified above.

### **Description of Semi-structured Interviews**

The semi-structured interview consists of a number of predetermined questions covering the topics, concepts, and variables delineated in sub-questions #4-7, as well as additional questions, depending on responses from the individuals interviewed. This allows the interview to capture the subject's perspective, described in their own words, and how participants attach meaning to the phenomenon of recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity in law enforcement. The order, number, and content of the questions vary for each interview, as the interviewer adapts to the progression and flow of the interview.

**Interview schedule.** The names of interview respondents are not identified in the recordings, transcripts, or dissertation, instead, each respondent is assigned a number. The researcher has questions to begin and guide the discussion. It is important to capture the subject's own words to describe the processes of recruiting, hiring and retention. Additional questions are asked to clarify responses, check for understanding, encourage subjects to elaborate on their responses, to follow up on responses, or to explore an unexpected topic. The interview guide is Appendix A.

**Data analysis for interviews.** For the interviews, this researcher uses the process of content analysis to analyze the interview data suggested by Yin (2009) and Berg and Lune (2012). Berg and Lune stated that the process is to "carefully and minutely read the document line by line and word by word to determine the concepts and categories that fit the data" (p. 369). Concepts are developed, which lead to further thinking about the data and answers to the

questions, which lead to more questions about “conditions, strategies, interactions, and consequences of the data” (p. 368).

The following summarizes the various stages involved in qualitative analysis that are used in this research:

- Identify the research questions(s).
- Determine analytic categories (develop sociological constructs by sorting themes or categories of various chunks of data).
- Read through the data and establish grounded categories (open and axial coding).
- Determine systematic (objective) criteria of selection for sorting data chunks into analytic and grounded categories.
- Begin sorting the data into the various categories (revise categories or selection criteria).
- Count the number of entries in each category for descriptive statistics and to allow for the demonstration of magnitude.
- Review textual materials as sorted into various categories seeking patterns.
- Consider the patterns in light of relevant literature and/or theory.
- Offer an explanation and analysis for your findings.
- Relate analysis to the extant literature of the subject. (Berg & Lune, 2012, p. 373)

“The first formal analytical step is documentation” (Bachman & Schutt, 2014, p. 263).

Documentation helps keep track of all the data collected and helps in developing an outline for the process of analysis and ongoing conceptualization on the data (p. 263). “Identifying and refining important concepts is a key part of the iterative process of qualitative research” (p. 263).

It is important to read the notes and transcriptions from the interviews to note important statements and ways to code the data, list concepts reflected, diagram relationships among concepts, and then refine concepts throughout data collection and analysis (Bachman & Schutt, 2014, p. 262). Once patterns are found in the data, these are compared to previous research and existing theory to look for similarities and differences (Berg & Lune, 2012; Yin, 2009).

Themes are presented that emerge from the interviews, and descriptions and explanations are developed inductively and are authentic because people say it in their own words (Bachman & Schutt, 2014). The researcher identifies emerging patterns for the codes and code combinations (Yin, 2009). It is important to code and interpret the content in the data that addresses the research questions for this study. Codes and categories are derived from identified relevant theory, identified concepts and variables, and the data itself.

### **Data Analysis Techniques and Strategies**

Baxter and Jack (2008) and Yin (2009) emphasized that to increase confidence in the findings, it is important during analysis in any case study to ensure that the research questions are addressed and are within the scope of the study, and to explore alternate explanations and rival propositions for a phenomenon. Yin (2009) also describes pattern matching as an appropriate strategy for descriptive case studies if the “predicted pattern of specific variables is defined prior to data collection” (p. 137). If the patterns are similar, the internal validity in the case study is increased (Yin).

### **Triangulation of Data Sources, Methods, and Levels of Analysis**

There are many factors that influence recruiting, hiring, and retaining diverse law enforcement officers. Because of the “richness of the phenomenon and the extensiveness of the real-life context”, “multiple sources of evidence” should be used so data will “converge in a

triangulating fashion” (Yin, 2009, p. 2). Bachman and Schutt (2014) define triangulation as using multiple methods to examine one research question and/or using two or more different measures for the same variable. Triangulation can be used to strengthen reliability and measurement validity, resulting in more confidence in the validity of each method if similar results are obtained with the other methods (p. 85). Triangulation is defined by Denzin (1970) as the use of a mix of multiple methodologies, data sources, investigators, and theories in the examination of the same phenomena and that “each method has implied a triangulated perspective” (p. 297). Denzin also recommends that researchers should analyze their “problem from as many different methodological perspectives as possible” (p. 297). He defines research methods “as lines of action” where “each research method reveals peculiar elements of symbolic reality” (p. 298). Berg and Lune (2012) further state that “each method, thus, reveals slightly different facets of the same symbolic reality. Every method is a different line of sight directed toward the same point, observing particular aspects of the social and symbolic reality” (p. 6). Berg and Lune further state that “by combining several lines of sight, researchers can obtain a better, more substantive picture of reality; a richer, more complete array of symbols and theoretical concepts; and a means of verifying many of these elements” (p. 6). They refer to the multiple lines of sight as triangulation (p. 6). This research uses triangulation of multiple data sources and multiple methods to address the research questions and variables to increase reliability and validity. This is consistent with Berg and Lune’s statement that the most important aspect of triangulation is not just in combining different types of data, “but the attempt to relate them so as to counteract the threats to validity identified in each” (p. 6).

Many researchers define the case selected as the unit of analysis (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2009). The unit of analysis for this single case study is an agency that is recognized for

recruiting and hiring females police officers and police officers of color. Four data sources, previously discussed, are drawn upon. The first data source is at the organizational level, analyzing percentages of full-time officers by gender and race/ethnicity. The second data source is at the group level, analyzing groups of applicants for the position of police officer. This is a descriptive analysis of data, including all steps in the application process and the numbers (frequencies) and percentages of officers who successfully pass each step of the application process by gender and race/ethnicity. The third data source is also at the group level, analyzing full-time police officers who have separated from the agency, to include turnover rates, reason of separation, length of service, gender and race/ethnicity. The fourth data source is at the individual level, analyzing semi-structured interviews of personnel responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices for the agency.

### **The Case Selected for Case Study**

The methods employed for this research benefit from a purposive selection of the case. Two other police agencies were approached but did not allow access to their data. To examine the variables and factors that influence recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within law enforcement agencies, the case selected for this research is an agency recognized for intentionally recruiting and hiring female police officers and police officers of color. Random selection is rarely used to select subjects for the interviews. Rather, careful and purposive selection should be used (Bachman & Schutt, 2014, p. 255). To identify and describe what factors, practices, and characteristics lead to recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity, the individuals selected to be interviewed are personnel within the case agency who are responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices.

## **Description of Case Agency**

The agency requested non-disclosure of any identifying details, so, to protect the anonymity of this agency and the individuals interviewed, details that can identify this agency are omitted. Also, the agency did not permit this researcher to survey current officers about their experiences and perceptions on recruiting, hiring, and retention.

The case agency is a large agency in a metropolitan area that serves a population of about 175,000 people. Data from the U.S. Census Bureau were used to calculate the percentages for the demographic make-up of the population that the case agency serves for the five categories of ethnic groups used in the application, composition, and separation data. There were 79% White, 5% Hispanic / Latino, 8% Black / African American, 6% Asian / Pacific Islander, and 0.6% American Indian / Native Alaskan (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). The remaining percentages were represented by the “Other” category or by “two or more races”.

This agency is committed to fostering a diverse department by increasing the representation of female officers, officers of color, and officers who are fluent in languages other than English. They are also committed to engaging in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing by establishing relationships and partnerships between officers and citizens, which emphasizes protecting their communities and improving the quality of life in their neighborhoods. This study examines how community-oriented and problem-oriented policing impact this agency’s recruitment, hiring, and retention of diverse officers.

The hiring process is influenced by the state regulatory board’s minimum selection standards and the Human Resources Office rules and regulations. Recruitment efforts by the agency and the Human Resources Office included providing job postings to several professional and diverse agencies, associations, and organizations; post-secondary institutions; and veterans



organizations. The Human Resources Office is both an Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Employer that aims for their work force to be reflective of their communities and ensures that their job postings are inclusive.

### **Ethical Issues**

This researcher obtained approval from the University of North Dakota's (UND) Institutional Review Board (IRB) for this study, following procedures on the protection of human subjects.

### **Protection of Participants from Harm**

For the data on police officer composition, application, and separation, there are not any foreseeable harms or risks from analyzing the data because there were no individual identifiers included in the data provided. Their employment status was and will not be affected by the data collected for the study. For the individuals interviewed, there are no known risks to those who were interviewed. The benefits from this study include providing data that helps other agencies to recruit, hire, and retain diversity.

### **Voluntary Participation**

Permission was obtained from the agency and its Human Resources Office for the data on police officer composition data, applicant's progression through the selection process, and the separation data. No personal identifiable information was given to the researcher. Permission from the agency was also obtained for the interviews.

### **Informed Consent**

For the interviews, each person interviewed was given an informed consent form stating the purpose of the research, risks and benefits, and that their participation is voluntary. Each

person interviewed signed the consent form agreeing to participate in the interview and whether they agreed to digitally have their interview recorded.

### **Confidentiality and Anonymity**

The data on the composition of the agency, applicants for the position of police officer, and separation were given to this researcher without any information to identify individual applicants, assuring anonymity. To protect the identity of participants and the agency, interview participants and the agency are not identified by name. All information that identifies the agency and individuals is omitted.

### **Securing the Data**

The data regarding the steps in the hiring process for police officers is stored on a password protected laptop. All hard copies of research data and documents, and interview transcripts, are locked in a file drawer. Consent forms from the people interviewed are locked in a separate file drawer. The interviews were recorded on a digital recorder and transcribed by a professional transcriptionist who met the approval of the UND's IRB. The company hired signed a confidentiality/disclosure agreement that was approved by the UND IRB. The digitally recorded interviews were deleted after transcripts were produced. The transcriptions of the interviews are stored in password protected files on the computer and hard copies of the interview transcripts are secured in a locked file drawer. All data and consent forms will be destroyed and/or deleted after the required length of retention has expired.

### **Reliability and Validity**

The triangulation of several data sources and methods increases the reliability and validity of the data. Reliability is defined as when measures give consistent scores on different occasions or under similar research conditions (Bachman & Schutt, 2014, p. 88; Lanier &

Briggs, 2014, p. 83). Yin (2009) defines reliability as demonstrating that the study's methods and operations can be repeated with the same results (p. 40). Reliability is also concerned with replicating the data, which includes whether another researcher using similar or the same methods, can make similar observation (Shaffir & Stebbins, 2003, p. 8). Yin (2009) suggests to document all of the procedures by using a case study protocol and a case study database to increase reliability, this research uses both to reduce bias and errors in the study.

Validity is concerned with obtaining an accurate or true picture of the phenomenon under study (Bachmann & Schutt, 2014; Hagan, 2012; Shaffir & Stebbins, 2003). Using multiple data sources, methods, and levels of analysis has the advantage of utilizing the strengths of one method or measurement to address the weaknesses and threats to reliability or validity of another method or measurement (Hagan, 2012). This is consistent with Denzin's (1970), Yin's (2009), and Berg and Lune's (2012) converging lines of inquiry to address the same research question or area of interest. This increases the confidence in the validity of the measures and the findings.

Berg and Lune (2012) state that a serious problem in asking interview questions is that the intentions of the questions may not be communicated accurately to the subject (p. 123). This could affect the validity of the responses if the concepts and variables are not measured as intended. To decrease this potential threat to validity, the interview schedule was pilot, or pre-tested, by key informants who are knowledgeable about the subject matter. They reviewed the interview schedule for the wording of questions, terminology used, understanding or misunderstanding of the content, and intent of the questions. The pre-test also allowed several practice interviews to determine whether the interview is effective in obtaining the information, concepts and variables intended (p. 127).

The main threats to validity for this research are reactivity of the researcher's presence in the interviews and researcher bias. Bachman and Schutt (2014) define a reactive effect as "the changes in individual or group behavior that are due to being observed or otherwise studied" (p. 242). For the three data sets: composition data, application data, and separation data, reactivity was not a problem because all three data sets are unobtrusive methods of existing data collected and are used for other purposes not influenced by this researcher. Hagan (2012) defined unobtrusive measures as "nonreactive methods of gathering data" where subjects are not aware that they are subjects of research (p. 239). If subjects are not aware that they are being researched, then reactivity cannot be a threat to validity. Therefore, if the findings from the data and the interviews are similar, then any reactivity from the researcher interviewing the subjects cannot be responsible for influencing the findings. This is what Hagan refers to as methods being used as a variable or rival causal factor (p. 286). Hagan also stated that an obstacle with case studies is possible bias on the part of the researcher (p. 233). This researcher is aware of her role as the interviewer and how this may bias the data or affect reactivity. This researcher is also aware of how perceiving and interpreting the data may be influenced by her personal and professional experiences and viewpoints, so as not to bias the data and findings.

One way to increase validity and ensure that the data collected from the interviews is an accurate reflection of those interviewed, is to ask clarifying questions (extra and probing questions) that get at the same issue but are asked differently. This researcher also had the interview respondents review a transcript of their interviews to ensure that their responses are an accurate reflection of their interviews, and to check for any errors. This also serves as a form of "member validation" (Shaffir & Stebbins, 2003, p. 10).

## **Internal Validity**

As stated by Yin (2009), internal validity applies to explanatory and causal studies, and does not apply to a descriptive or exploratory case study. Thus, the threats to internal validity for experiments, quasi-experiments, and non-experiments do not apply to this research. However, Yin states that one of the most desirable analytic techniques, pattern matching, is still applicable for descriptive case studies, “as long as the predicted pattern of specific variables is defined prior to data collection” (p. 137). If the patterns are similar, the internal validity in the case study is increased.

## **Construct Validity**

Measurement validity can be established through construct validity. This means that the measures used in the study are actually measuring the concepts and variables of interest and that a measure is related to other measures from a theory (Bachman & Schutt, 2014, p. 87; Lanier & Briggs, 2014, p. 104). Yin admits that construct validity “is especially challenging in case study research” (p. 41). This underscores the necessity to carefully operationalize the concepts and measures to be used in this study. Yin (2009) suggest three tactics to increase construct validity when conducting case studies:

1. Use multiple sources of evidence
2. Establish chain of evidence
3. Have key informants review draft case study report. (pp. 41-42)

This research uses these three tactics to increase construct validity.

## **External Validity**

Because this research uses a single case study, the findings cannot be generalized beyond the selected case agency. However, future research can be conducted on other types of law

enforcement agencies, in different geographic locations, and in different sized agencies to examine the influence and interaction of different variables that predict success in recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity. Future research can increase external validity by comparing their findings to the findings of this study. It is the hope that this study contributes to and refines the theories of representative bureaucracy and social equity. The findings of this case study may be used by other police agencies as an example on how to recruit, hire and retain diversity.

### **Authenticity**

Bachman and Schutt (2014) discuss that authenticity should be a proposed standard used in qualitative research, where the focus is on the various subjective interpretations and perspectives of how the participants view their social world (p. 43).

### **Conclusion**

This chapter presented the purpose of the study, theoretical and conceptual framework, and the research design, philosophical orientation, and methodology. This chapter also discussed why the case study is an appropriate approach for this study, the research questions, and data sources, collection, and analysis. This chapter also discussed triangulation of data sources, methods, and levels of analysis, the agency selected for the case study, and described the case agency. Discussed last were ethical issues, and reliability, validity, and authenticity.

The next chapter, chapter IV, presents the results of the three quantitative data collection methods and Chapter V presents the results of the qualitative interview data.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA**

This chapter presents the results of three quantitative data sets used for this mixed methods case study. The first set of data analyzed is composition data, consisting of the percentages of full-time police officers for all ranks by gender and race/ethnicity for each year from 2009 through 2017. The second set of data analyzed is applicant data, consisting of the frequencies and percentages of applicants for full-time police officers from 2009 through 2016, for each step in the application process by gender and race/ethnicity. The third set of data analyzed is separation data, consisting of agency turnover rates, reason for separation, length of service, gender, and race/ethnicity for all full-time police officers for all ranks who separated from 2010 through mid-2017. The results of the analysis for the fourth and last set of data, qualitative semi-structured interviews, are presented in Chapter V, Collection and Analysis of Interviews. The interviews consist of the perceptions from personnel responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices of full-time police officers at the case agency.

#### **Research Questions**

This study has one primary research question and seven sub-questions to address the main research question. The data presented in this chapter address sub-questions #1 through #3.

## **Primary Research Question**

How does one law enforcement agency in the Midwest recruit, hire, and retain full-time police officers that are representative of the communities it serves?

### **Sub-question #1**

What is the gender and racial/ethnic composition of officers?

### **Sub-question #2**

What is the gender and racial/ethnic composition of applicants for each step of the application process?

### **Sub-question #3**

What are the turnover rates, reasons for separation, length of service, gender, and race/ethnicity for officers who separated?

## **Full-time Police Officer Composition Data**

The composition data includes all full-time police officers of all ranks for each year from 2009 through 2017 by the percentages for gender and the five categories of race/ethnicity used by the case agency. All of the tables in this chapter use the label “Ethnic Group” for race/ethnicity because that is the label used by the case agency. The following are the five ethnic groups:

- White
- Hispanic / Latino
- Black / African American
- Asian / Pacific Islander
- American Indian / Alaskan Native



As observed in table 4, in 2009, 3.7% of the officers were female, and the percentage increased over four and one-half times to 17.0% in 2017.

Table 4. Percent of Full-time Police Officers for each Year from 2009 to 2017 by Gender.

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Male	96.3%	92.5%	90.8%	90.6%	89.4%	88.2%	86.7%	83.5%	83.0%
Female	3.7%	7.5%	9.2%	9.4%	10.6%	11.8%	13.3%	16.5%	17.0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 5 presents the percentages of officers of color for each year from 2009 to 2017. In 2009, there were 13.0% of officers of color, and the percentage increased over two times to 29.5% in 2017. In 2009, there were 13.0% officers of color, in 2010 the percentage increased to 13.5%, in 2011 and 2012, the percentages decreased, and from 2013 to 2017, the percentages increased each year to 29.5% in 2017.

Table 5. Percent of Full-time Police Officers of Color for each Year from 2009 to 2017.

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Officers of Color	13.0%	13.5%	10.8%	9.4%	10.6%	20.0%	25.6%	29.3%	29.5%

Table 6 presents the percent of full-time officers for all ranks by ethnic group for each year from 2009 to 2017. The highest percentage of a non-White group was Black / African American with 14.7% in 2016. This group also had the highest percentages in 2013 (tied with Hispanic / Latino), 2014, 2015, 2016, and 2017, with 4.55%, 11.8%, 14.5%, 14.7% and 14.3% respectively. All non-White groups except American Indian / Alaskan Native were represented in each year. Notable are the increases in the representation of Black / African American officers and Asian / Pacific Islander officers. Comparing the percentages between 2009 and 2017 for Black / African American officers, there was an increase of 286% from 3.7% to 14.3%. Comparing the percentages between 2009 to 2017 for Asian / Pacific Islander officers, there was an increase of 381% from 1.85% to 8.9%

Table 6. Percent of Full-time Police Officers for each Year from 2009 to 2017 by Ethnic Group.

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
White	87.0%	86.5%	89.2%	90.6%	89.4%	80.0%	74.4%	70.7%	70.5%
Hispanic / Latino	5.6%	6.0%	4.6%	4.7%	4.55%	5.9%	6.7%	7.3%	5.4%
Black / African American	3.7%	4.5%	3.1%	3.1%	4.55%	11.8%	14.5%	14.7%	14.3%
Asian / Pacific Islander	1.85%	1.5%	1.55%	1.6%	1.5%	2.3%	3.3%	6.4%	8.9%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	1.85%	1.5%	1.55%	0%	0%	0%	1.1%	.9%	.9%
Total Full-time Officers	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

#### **Full-time Police Officer Applicant Data**

The case agency has a policy on recruitment and selection, which includes using recruitment and selection strategies to target qualified and diverse candidates; working with community groups, local colleges and universities, and the military. The policy also includes not discriminating in their recruiting and screening processes and reaching out to people who have integrity and who are ethical and service-minded. The Human Resources Office has a formal Affirmative Action plan and is an Equal Opportunity Employer that aims for its work force to be reflective of their communities and ensures that their job postings are inclusive.

The minimum qualifications for all of the full-time police officer postings begins with meeting minimum selection standards for a police officer as required by the state regulatory board and possessing a valid driver's license with a good or an acceptable driving record. The required minimum selection standards for police officers by the state regulatory board include being a citizen of the U.S., completing a detailed written application, and passing an oral

interview to assess communication skills necessary to perform the tasks of a police officer. The minimum selection standards also include passing a thorough background investigation, not having any felony convictions, and not having any convictions of specified offenses, such as assault, domestic assault, crimes against a vulnerable adult, narcotics or controlled substance, and theft. Finally, the minimum selection standards include passing a psychological evaluation with an oral interview by a licensed psychologist, and passing a job related medical examination to ensure that applicants are free from any physical or mental condition that will affect the performance of police officer duties. First aid certification is a requirement by the state regulatory board for police officers and it is listed as a minimum qualification in some postings and as a desired qualification in other postings. The minimum qualifications are specified in each posting described in this chapter.

Desired qualifications varied for the seven job postings open to external and internal applicants. These include variations of the following: having a college degree, prior police experience, prior experience in non-paid non-sworn police related positions, prior security experience, relevant volunteer experience, fluency in languages other than English, and experience working with diverse populations. The desired qualifications are specified in each posting described in this chapter.

As part of the detailed written application completed by applicants, supplemental questions were included to address the minimum and desired qualifications. The purpose of the supplemental questions was to evaluate applicant's qualifications, skills, and experiences for eligibility. The supplemental questions were reviewed to determine who passed the qualifications review. Applicants were instructed that if they responded "yes" to a question, they were to answer the narrative response question that followed. Supplemental questions

varied by the different postings. All seven postings open to both internal and external applicants asked applicants whether they were eligible to be licensed under the state regulatory board, had a state driver's license and an acceptable or a good driving record, had first aid certification, and had prior police experience. Five of the postings, in 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016, in addition to the questions asked in previous applications, asked whether applicants had relevant volunteer experience and a degree from an accredited university or college. Three postings, 2013, 2014, and 2016, in addition to the questions asked in previous applications, asked applicants whether they had fluency in languages other than English. Two postings, in 2014 and 2016, in addition to the questions asked in previous applications, asked applicants whether they had relevant work experience, non-paid non-sworn experience, and experience working with diverse populations. The last posting, in 2016, in addition to the questions asked in previous applications, asked applicants why they wanted to work for this agency.

Steps in the application process for the seven job postings open to both internal and external applicants included variations of the following: a written application, including supplemental questions to address minimum and desired qualifications; a minimum and desired qualifications review; a written test; an interview; a second interview; a background investigation; a medical examination; a drug screen; and a psychological evaluation. The following are examples of variations in the steps in the application process: one posting separated the minimum qualifications review and desired qualifications review, and the remaining postings combined them into the qualifications review; some job postings included a written test, and other postings did not include a written test; some postings had the second interview after the background investigation, and other postings had the second interview before the background investigation; and some postings had the second interview, background

investigation, and the medical exam, drug screen and psychological evaluation as one step, and other postings had them as separate steps. The steps in the selection process are specified for each posting described in this chapter.

Supplemental questions were reviewed to determine whether applicants met the minimum and desired qualifications. In the application data that follows, applicants who did not pass the minimum qualifications were applicants who did not meet the minimum qualifications for the posting. Applicants who met the minimum requirements step but did not advance onto the next step, were eliminated after reviewing the supplemental questions for desired qualifications.

The application process included a written test for the job postings in 2011, 2012, and 2013. The written test given to applicants was timed and law enforcement specific. The application process did not include a written test for the job postings in 2009, 2010, 2014, and 2016.

For all postings, the first interview consisted of a panel of at least three people within the agency drawn from all ranks. In addition, some interview panels included a person from outside the case agency. Questions in the interview focused on life experiences and were not law enforcement specific questions. For the job postings in 2009, 2010, and 2011, there was a second interview conducted after the background investigation. For the job postings in 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016, the second interview was moved from after the background investigation to before the background investigation and was conducted by a member of senior command within the case agency.

After the applicant passed the previous steps and was considered for hiring, a conditional job offer was given contingent upon the applicant passing the medical examination, drug screen,

and psychological evaluation, which were all contracted outside the agency. The medical examination was given by a licensed physician to check that the applicant could perform the duties of a police officer and the applicant was given a drug screen. For the psychological evaluation, the applicant completed a written psychological test and was interviewed by a licensed psychologist. If the applicant passed these last steps, a final job offer was given.

As part of the application process, applicants were asked to self-identify their gender, male or female, and one of the following groups of race/ethnicity utilized by the case agency:

- White
- Hispanic / Latino
- Black / African American
- Asian / Pacific Islander
- American Indian / Alaskan Native

Providing gender and racial/ethnic identification was voluntary, therefore, applicants could leave either or both gender and ethnic group blank, which are marked as *missing* in the tables throughout the analysis of the applicant data. The applicant data for all steps in the application process includes the gender and race/ethnicity that applicants identified in their application form. As previously stated, although the five categories include both race and ethnicity, the tables will use the label, “Ethnic Group”, because that is the label used by the case agency.

### **2009 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants**

Minimum requirements in the 2009 job announcement were meeting the state regulatory board’s eligibility requirements for a police officer, a valid driver’s license with a good driving record, and first aid certification. The only desired qualification was prior police experience.

The steps in the selection process for the 2009 posting included the following: step 1, minimum and desired qualifications review; step 2, an interview; and step 3, the hiring step, which included a background investigation, a second interview, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation.

There were 401 applications received for the 2009 posting. Table 7 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 401 applicants, 345 (86.0%) were male and 52 (13.0%) were female. Four applicants omitted gender. Table 8 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 401 applicants, 314 (78.3%) were White and 82 (20.5%) were applicants of color. Five applicants omitted ethnic group.

Table 7. Gender of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 345	86.0%
Female	n = 52	13.0%
Missing	n = 4	1.0%
Total	n = 401	100.0%

Table 8. Ethnic Group of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 314	78.3%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 16	4.0%
Black / African American	n = 34	8.5%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 29	7.2%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 3	0.8%
Missing	n = 5	1.2%
Total	n = 401	100.0%

Of the 401 applicants entering step 1 of the application process, minimum and desired qualifications review, 57 applicants did not meet the minimum qualifications, 272 applicants did not advance onto step 2 after review of the supplemental questions for desired qualifications, and 72 applicants passed the qualifications review and advanced onto step 2, an interview. Table 9

presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 72 applicants who passed step 1, 64 (88.9%) were male and 7 (9.7%) were female. One applicant omitted gender. In this step, female applicants decreased 25% compared to 13% who applied. Table 10 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the ethnic groups. Of the 72 applicants who passed step 1, 60 (83.3%) were White and 10 (13.9%) were applicants of color. Two applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color decreased 32% compared to 20.5% who applied.

Table 9. Gender of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 64	88.9%
Female	n = 7	9.7%
Missing	n = 1	1.4%
Total	n = 72	100.0%

Table 10. Ethnic Group of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 60	83.3%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 3	4.2%
Black / African American	n = 4	5.5%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 2	2.8%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	1.4%
Missing	n = 2	2.8%
Total	n = 72	100.0%

Of the 72 applicants entering step 2 of the application process, an interview; 7 applicants did not advance onto step 3 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the interview, or did not pass the interview; 1 applicant withdrew from the application process; and 64 applicants passed the interview and advanced onto step 3, the hiring step. Table 11 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 64 applicants who passed step 2, 56 (87.5%) were male and 7 (10.9%) were female. One applicant omitted gender. In this step, female applicants increased 12% compared to 9.7% of females in the previous step.



Table 12 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the ethnic groups. Of the 64 applicants who passed step 2, 52 (81.3%) were White and 10 (15.6%) were applicants of color. Two applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color increased 12% compared to 13.9% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 11. Gender of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 56	87.5%
Female	n = 7	10.9%
Missing	n = 1	1.6%
Total	n = 64	100.0%

Table 12. Ethnic Group of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 52	81.3%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 3	4.7%
Black / African American	n = 4	6.3%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 2	3.1%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	1.5%
Missing	n = 2	3.1%
Total	n = 64	100.0%

Step 3 of the application process, the hiring step, included a background investigation, a second interview, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation. Of the 64 applicants entering the hiring step, 49 applicants did not get hired and remained inactive when the list expired. For the applicants who passed the background investigation and a second interview, and were considered for a full-time police officer position, a conditional job offer was given, contingent upon passing the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. A final job offer was given to the applicants who passed the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Fifteen applicants were hired. Table 13 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 15 applicants hired, 9 (60.0%) were male and 5

(33.3%) were female. One applicant omitted gender. In this step, female applicants increased over three times compared to 10.9% of females in the previous step. In addition, the 33.3% of female applicants hired was about two and one-half times higher than the 13% who applied. Table 14 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 15 applicants hired, 11 (73.3%) of the applicants were White and 2 (13.4%) were applicants of color. Two applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color decreased 14% compared to 15.6% applicants of color in the previous step. In addition, the 13.4% applicants of color hired was 35% lower than the 20.5% who applied.

Table 13. Gender of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 3.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 9	60.0%
Female	n = 5	33.3%
Missing	n = 1	6.7%
Total	n = 15	100.0%

Table 14. Ethnic Group of 2009 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 3.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 11	73.3%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 1	6.7%
Black / African American	n = 1	6.7%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 0	0.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 2	13.3%
Total	n = 15	100.0%

### **2010 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants**

As was the case in the 2009 posting, the minimum requirements in the 2010 job announcement were meeting the state regulatory board’s eligibility requirements for a police officer, a valid driver’s license with a good driving record, and first aid certification. As was the case in the 2009 posting, the only desired qualification was prior police experience.

The steps in the selection process for the 2010 posting included the following: step 1, minimum qualifications review; step 2, desired qualifications review; step 3, an interview; and step 4, the hiring step, which included a background investigation, a second interview, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation.

There were 489 applications received for the 2010 posting. Table 15 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 489 applicants, 426 (87.1%) were male and 56 (11.5%) were female. Seven applicants omitted gender. Table 16 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 489 applicants, 402 (82.2%) were White and 82 (16.8%) were applicants of color. Five applicants omitted ethnic group.

Table 15. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 426	87.1%
Female	n = 56	11.5%
Missing	n = 7	1.4%
Total	n = 489	100.0%

Table 16. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 402	82.2%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 20	4.1%
Black / African American	n = 30	6.2%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 28	5.7%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 4	0.8%
Missing	n = 5	1.0%
Total	n = 489	100.0%

Of the 489 applicants entering step 1 of the application process, minimum qualifications review, 194 applicants did not meet the minimum qualifications, and 295 applicants passed the minimum qualifications review and advanced onto step 2, the desired qualifications review.

Table 17 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 295 applicants who passed

step 1, 262 (88.8%) were male and 30 (10.2%) were female. Three applicants omitted gender. In this step, female applicants decreased 11% compared to 11.5% who applied. Table 18 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 295 applicants who passed step 1, 247 (83.7%) were White and 46 (15.6%) were applicants of color. Two applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color decreased 7% compared to 16.8% who applied.

Table 17. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 262	88.8%
Female	n = 30	10.2%
Missing	n = 3	1.0%
Total	n = 295	100.0%

Table 18. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 247	83.7%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 12	4.0%
Black / African American	n = 17	5.8%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 15	5.1%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 2	0.7%
Missing	n = 2	0.7%
Total	n = 295	100.0%

Of the 295 applicants entering step 2 of the application process, the desired qualifications review, 257 applicants did not advance onto step 3 after review of the supplemental questions for desired qualifications, and 38 applicants passed the desired qualifications and advanced onto step 3, an interview. Table 19 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 38 applicants who passed step 2, 35 (92.1%) were male and 3 (7.9%) were female. In this step, female applicants decreased 23% compared to 10.2% of females in the previous step. Table 20 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 38 applicants

who passed step 2, 36 (94.7%) were White and 2 (5.3%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color decreased 66% compared to 15.6% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 19. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 35	92.1%
Female	n = 3	7.9%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 38	100.0%

Table 20. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 36	94.7%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 2	5.3%
Black / African American	n = 0	0.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 0	0.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 38	100.0%

Of the 38 applicants entering step 3 of the application process, an interview, 7 applicants did not advance onto step 4 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the interview, or did not pass the interview; 9 applicants withdrew from the application process; and 22 applicants passed the interview and advanced onto step 4, the hiring step. Table 21 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 22 applicants who passed step 3, 20 (90.9%) were male and 2 (9.1%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 15% compared to 7.9% of females in the previous step. Table 22 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 22 applicants who passed step 3, 20 (90.9%) were White and 2 (9.1%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color increased 72% compared to 5.3% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 21. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 20	90.9%
Female	n = 2	9.1%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 22	100.0%

Table 22. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 20	90.9%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 2	9.1%
Black / African American	n = 0	0.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 0	0.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 22	100.0%

Step 4 of the application process, the hiring step, included a background investigation, a second interview, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation. Of the 22 applicants entering the hiring step, 17 applicants did not get hired and remained inactive when the list expired. Of the applicants who passed the background investigation and second interview and were considered for a full-time police officer position, a conditional job offer was given, contingent upon passing the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. A final job offer was given to the applicants who passed the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Five applicants were hired. Table 23 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 5 applicants hired, all 5 (100%) were male. In this step, all 9.1% of females from the previous step were eliminated. In addition, there were 11.5% of females who applied, however, none were hired. Table 24 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 5 applicants hired, 4 (80.0%) of the applicants were White and 1 (20.0%) was an applicant of color. In this step, applicants of color increased

120%, compared to 9.1% of applicants of color in the previous step. In addition, the 20% of applicants of color hired was 19% higher than the 16.8% who applied.

Table 23. Gender of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 5	100.0%
Female	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 5	100.0%

Table 24. Ethnic Group of 2010 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 4	80.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 1	20.0%
Black / African American	n = 0	0.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 0	0.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 5	100.0%

### **2011 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants**

As was the case in the 2009 and 2010 postings, minimum requirements in the 2011 job announcement were meeting the state regulatory board’s eligibility requirements for a police officer, a valid driver’s license with a good driving record, and first aid certification. In addition to having prior police experience as a desired qualification, the 2011 posting added having a college degree and relevant volunteer experience as desired qualifications.

The steps in the selection process for the 2011 posting included the following: step 1, minimum and desired qualifications review; step 2, a written test; step 3, an interview; step 4, the background step; and step 5, the hiring step, which included a second interview, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation.

There were 428 applications received for the 2011 posting. Table 25 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 428 applicants, 379 (88.6%) were male and 46 (10.7%) were female. Three applicants omitted gender. Table 26 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 428 applicants, 353 (82.5%) were White and 71 (16.5%) were applicants of color. Four applicants omitted ethnic group.

Table 25. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 379	88.6%
Female	n = 46	10.7%
Missing	n = 3	0.7%
Total	n = 428	100.0%

Table 26. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 353	82.5%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 19	4.4%
Black / African American	n = 25	5.8%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 20	4.7%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 7	1.6%
Missing	n = 4	1.0%
Total	n = 428	100.0%

Of the 428 applicants entering step 1 of the application process, minimum and desired qualifications review, 53 applicants did not advance onto step 2 after review of the supplemental questions for minimum and desired qualifications, and 375 applicants passed the qualifications review and advanced onto step 2, a written test. Table 27 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 375 applicants who passed step 1, 330 (88.0%) were male and 43 (11.5%) were female. Two applicants omitted gender. In this step, female applicants increased 7% compared to 10.7% who applied. Table 28 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 375 applicants who passed step 1, 315 (84.0%) were White and 57



(15.2%) were applicants of color. Three applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color decreased 8% compared to 16.5% who applied.

Table 27. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 330	88.0%
Female	n = 43	11.5%
Missing	n = 2	0.5%
Total	n = 375	100.0%

Table 28. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 315	84.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 15	4.0%
Black / African American	n = 18	4.8%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 17	4.5%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 7	1.9%
Missing	n = 3	0.8%
Total	n = 375	100.0%

Of the 375 applicants entering step 2 of the application process, the written test, 165 applicants did not participate in this step, 156 applicants did not pass the written test, and 54 passed the written test and advanced onto step 3, an interview. Table 29 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 54 applicants who passed step 2, 44 (81.5%) were male and 10 (18.5%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 61% compared to 11.5% of females in the previous step. Table 30 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 54 applicants who passed step 2, 50 (92.6%) were White and 4 (7.4%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color decreased 51% compared to 15.2% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 29. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 44	81.5%
Female	n = 10	18.5%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 54	100.0%

Table 30. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 50	92.6%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 1	1.8%
Black / African American	n = 0	0.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 0	0.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 3	5.6%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 54	100.0%

Of the 54 applicants entering step 3 of the application process, an interview, 36 applicants did not advance onto step 4 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the interview, or did not pass the interview; and 18 applicants passed the interview and advanced onto step 4, the background check. Table 31 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 18 applicants who passed step 3, 16 (88.9%) were male and 2 (11.1%) were female. In this step, female applicants decreased 40% compared to 18.5% of females in the previous step. Table 32 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 18 applicants who passed step 3, 17 (94.4%) were White and 1 (5.6%) was an applicant of color. In this step, applicants of color decreased 24% compared to 7.4% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 31. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 16	88.9%
Female	n = 2	11.1%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 18	100.0%

Table 32. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 17	94.4%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 0	0.0%
Black / African American	n = 0	0.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 0	0.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	5.6%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 18	100.0%

Of the 18 applicants entering step 4 of the application process, the background check, 9 applicants did not participate in this step, 3 applicants withdrew from the application process, and 6 applicants passed the background check and advanced onto step 5, the hiring step. Table 33 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 6 applicants who passed step 4, 5 (83.3%) were male and 1 (16.7%) was female. In this step, female applicants increased 50% compared to 11.1% of females in the previous step. Table 34 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. All 6 (100.0%) of the applicants who passed step 4 were White. In this step, all 5.6% of applicants of color in the last step were eliminated.

Table 33. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 4.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 5	83.3%
Female	n = 1	16.7%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 6	100.0%

Table 34. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 4.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 6	100.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 0	0.0%
Black / African American	n = 0	0.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 0	0.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 6	100.0%

Step 5 of the application process, the hiring step, included a second interview, a medical examination, a drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Of the 6 applicants entering the hiring step, 1 applicant did not get hired and remained inactive when the list expired. Of the 6 applicants who passed the second interview and were considered for a full-time police officer position, a conditional job offer was given, contingent upon passing the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. A final job offer was given to the applicants who passed the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Five applicants were hired. Table 35 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 5 applicants hired, 4 (80.0%) were male and 1 (20.0%) was female. In this step, female applicants increased 20% compared to 16.7% in the previous step. In addition, the 20% of females hired was higher than the 10.7% of females who applied. Table 36 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. All 5 (100.0%) of the applicants hired were White. In addition, there were 16.5% applicants of color who applied, however, none were hired.

Table 35. Gender of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 5.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 4	80.0%
Female	n = 1	20.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 5	100.0%

Table 36. Ethnic Group of 2011 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 5.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 5	100.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 0	0.0%
Black / African American	n = 0	0.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 0	0.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 5	100.0%

### **2012 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants**

As was the case in the 2009, 2010, and 2011 postings, minimum requirements in the 2012 job announcement were meeting the state regulatory board’s eligibility requirements for a police officer, a valid driver’s license with a good driving record, and first aid certification. Desired qualifications were the same as the 2011 posting, having a degree, prior police experience, and relevant volunteer experience.

The steps in the selection process for the 2012 posting included the following: step 1, minimum and desired qualifications review; step 2, a written test; step 3, an interview; and step 4, the hiring step, which included a second interview, a background investigation, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation.

There were 511 applications received for the 2012 posting. Table 37 presents the frequency (n) for gender. Of the 511 applicants, 458 (89.6%) were male and 51 (10.0%) were female. Two applicants omitted gender. Table 38 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 511 applicants, 404 (79.0%) were White and 101 (19.8%) were applicants of color. Six applicants omitted ethnic group.

Table 37. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 458	89.6%
Female	n = 51	10.0%
Missing	n = 2	0.4%
Total	n = 511	100.0%

Table 38. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 404	79.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 20	3.9%
Black / African American	n = 51	10.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 23	4.5%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 7	1.4%
Missing	n = 6	1.2%
Total	n = 511	100.0%

Of the 511 applicants entering step 1 of the application process, the minimum and desired qualifications review, 72 applicants did not advance onto step 2 after review of the supplemental questions for minimum and desired qualifications, and 439 applicants passed the qualifications review and advanced onto step 2, the written test. Table 39 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 439 applicants who passed step 1, 391 (89.1%) were male and 47 (10.7%) were female. One applicant omitted gender. In this step, female applicants increased 7% compared to 10% who applied. Table 40 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 439 applicants who passed step 1, 355 (80.9%) were White and 79 (18.0%) were applicants of color. Five applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color decreased 9% compared to 19.8% who applied.

Table 39. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 391	89.1%
Female	n = 47	10.7%
Missing	n = 1	0.2%
Total	n = 439	100.0%

Table 40. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 355	80.9%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 16	3.6%
Black / African American	n = 35	8.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 21	4.8%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 7	1.6%
Missing	n = 5	1.1%
Total	n = 439	100.0%

Of the 439 applicants entering step 2 of the application process, the written test, 193 did not pass this step, and 246 passed the written test and advanced onto step 3, an interview. Table 41 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 246 applicants who passed step 2, 216 (87.8%) were male and 29 (11.8%) were female. One applicant omitted gender. In this step, female applicants increased 10% compared to 10.7% of females in the previous step. Table 42 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 246 applicants who passed step 2, 198 (80.5%) were White and 46 (18.7%) were applicants of color. Two applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color decreased 6% compared to 19.8% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 41. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 216	87.8%
Female	n = 29	11.8%
Missing	n = 1	0.4%
Total	n = 246	100.0%

Table 42. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 198	80.5%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 9	3.6%
Black / African American	n = 24	9.8%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 10	4.1%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 3	1.2%
Missing	n = 2	0.8%
Total	n = 246	100.0%

Of the 246 applicants entering step 3 of the application process, an interview, 125 applicants did not advance onto step 3 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the interview, or did not pass the interview; and 121 passed the interview and advanced onto step 4, the hiring step. Table 43 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 121 applicants who passed step 3, 110 (90.9%) were male and 11 (9.1%) was a female. In this step, female applicants decreased 23% compared to 11.8% of females in the previous step. Table 44 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 121 applicants who passed step 3, 96 (79.3%) were White and 25 (20.7%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color increased 11% compared to 18.7% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 43. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 110	90.9%
Female	n = 11	9.1%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 121	100.0%



Table 44. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 96	79.3%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 5	4.1%
Black / African American	n = 17	14.1%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 2	1.7%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	0.8%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 121	100.0%

Step 4 of the application process, the hiring step, included a second interview, a background investigation, a medical examination, a drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Of the 121 applicants entering the hiring step, 87 applicants were given the second interview but were not hired and remained inactive when the list expired; 4 applicants did not pass the background investigation, did not pass the medical examination, did not pass the drug screening, or did not pass the psychological evaluation; and 3 applicants withdrew from the application process. Of the applicants who passed the second interview and the background investigation and were considered for a full-time police officer position, a conditional job offer was given, contingent upon passing the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. A final job offer was given to the applicants who passed the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Twenty-seven applicants were hired. Table 45 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 27 applicants hired, 23 (85.2%) were male and 4 (14.8%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 63% compared to 9.1% of females in the previous step. In addition, the 14.8% of females hired was 48% higher than the 10% who applied. Table 46 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 27 applicants hired, 16 (59.3%) were White and 11 (40.7%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color increased 97% compared to 20.7% of applicants in the previous step. In

addition, the 40.7% of applicants of color hired was a little more than twice the 19.8% who applied.

Table 45. Gender of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 23	85.2%
Female	n = 4	14.8%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 27	100.0%

Table 46. Ethnic Group of 2012 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 16	59.3%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 3	11.1%
Black / African American	n = 7	25.9%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 1	3.7%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 27	100.0%

### **2013 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants**

As was the case in the 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012 postings, minimum requirements in the 2013 job announcement were meeting the state regulatory board’s eligibility requirements for a police officer and a valid driver’s license with a good driving record. However, first aid certification was moved from a minimum qualification to a desired qualification. In addition to the same desired qualifications in the 2009, 2010, 2011 and 2012 postings, having a degree, prior police experience, and relevant volunteer experience; fluency in languages other than English was added as a desired qualification.

The steps in the selection process for the 2013 posting included the following: step 1, minimum and desired qualifications review; step 2, a written test; step 3, an interview; and step

4, the hiring step, which included a second interview, background investigation, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation.

There were 640 applications received for the 2013 posting. Table 47 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 640 applicants, 565 (88.3%) were male and 74 (11.6%) were female. One applicant omitted gender. Table 48 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 640 applicants, 471 (73.6%) were White and 165 (25.8%) were applicants of color. Four applicants omitted ethnic group.

Table 47. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 565	88.3%
Female	n = 74	11.6%
Missing	n = 1	.1%
Total	n = 640	100.0%

Table 48. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 471	73.6%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 33	5.2%
Black / African American	n = 67	10.5%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 54	8.4%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 11	1.7%
Missing	n = 4	0.6%
Total	n = 640	100.0%

Of the 640 applicants entering step 1 of the application process, minimum and desired qualifications review, 253 applicants did not advance onto step 2 after review of the supplemental questions for minimum and desired qualifications, and 387 applicants passed this step and advanced onto step 2, the written test. Table 49 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 387 applicants who passed step 1, 348 (89.9%) were male and 39 (10.1%) were female. In this step, female applicants decreased 13% compared to 11.6% who applied.

Table 50 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 387 applicants who passed step 1, 264 (68.2%) were White and 121 (31.3%) were applicants of color. Two applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color increased 21% compared to 25.8% who applied.

Table 49. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 348	89.9%
Female	n = 39	10.1%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 387	100.0%

Table 50. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 264	68.2%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 23	6.0%
Black / African American	n = 46	11.9%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 45	11.6%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 7	1.8%
Missing	n = 2	0.5%
Total	n = 387	100.0%

Of the 387 applicants entering step 2 of the application process, the written test, 15 applicants did not pass this step, 190 applicants withdrew from the application process, and 182 passed the written test and advanced onto step 3, an interview. Table 51 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 182 applicants who passed step 2, 158 (86.8%) were male and 24 (13.2%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 31% compared to 10.1% of females in the previous step. Table 52 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 182 applicants who passed step 2, 120 (66.0%) were White and 61 (33.4%) were applicants of color. One applicant omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color increased 7% compared to 31.3% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 51. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 158	86.8%
Female	n = 24	13.2%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 182	100.0%

Table 52. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 120	66.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 12	6.6%
Black / African American	n = 17	9.3%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 27	14.8%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 5	2.7%
Missing	n = 1	0.6%
Total	n = 182	100.0%

Of the 182 applicants going entering step 3 of the application process, an interview, 55 applicants did not advance onto step 4 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the interview, or did not pass the interview; 10 applicants withdrew from the application process; and 117 applicants passed the interview and advanced onto step 4, the hiring step. Table 53 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 117 applicants who passed step 3, 99 (84.6%) were male and 18 (15.4%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 17% compared to 13.2% of females in the previous step. Table 54 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 117 applicants who passed step 3, 74 (63.2%) were White and 43 (36.8%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color increased 10% compared to 33.4% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 53. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 99	84.6%
Female	n = 18	15.4%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 117	100.0%

Table 54. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 74	63.2%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 10	8.5%
Black / African American	n = 12	10.3%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 18	15.4%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 3	2.6%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 117	100.0%

Step 4 of the application process, the hiring step, included a second interview, a background investigation, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological exam. Of the 117 applicants entering the hiring step, 100 applicants were given the second interview but were not hired and remained inactive when the list expired, 2 applicants failed the background check, 1 applicant withdrew from the application process, and 1 applicant declined the job offer. For the applicants who passed the second interview and the background investigation and were considered for a full-time police officer position, a conditional job offer was given, contingent upon passing the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. A final job offer was given to the applicants who passed the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Thirteen applicants were hired. Table 55 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 13 applicants hired, 10 (76.9%) were male and 3 (23.1%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 50% compared to 15.4% of females in the previous step. In addition, the 23.1% of females hired was more than twice the 11.6% who

applied. Table 56 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 13 applicants hired, 7 (53.8%) were White and 6 (46.2%) were applicants of color.

Applicants of color increased 26% compared to 36.8% of applicants of color in the previous step.

In addition, the 46.2% applicants of color hired was almost twice that of the 25.8% who applied.

Table 55. Gender of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 10	76.9%
Female	n = 3	23.1%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 13	100.0%

Table 56. Ethnic Group of 2013 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 7	53.8%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 1	7.7%
Black / African American	n = 3	23.1%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 1	7.7%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	7.7%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 13	100.0%

### **2014 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants**

As was the case in the 2013 posting, minimum requirements in the 2014 job announcement were meeting the state regulatory board’s eligibility requirements for a police officer and a valid driver’s license with an acceptable driving record. In addition to the same desired qualifications from the 2013 posting, having first aid certification, a degree, prior police experience, relevant volunteer experience, and fluency in languages other than English; prior experience in non-paid non-sworn police related positions, prior security experience, and experience working with diverse populations were added as desired qualifications.

The steps in the selection process for the 2014 posting included the following: step 1, minimum and desired qualifications review; step 2, an interview; step 3, a second interview; and step 4, the hiring step, which included a background investigation, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation.

There were 516 applications received for the 2014 posting. Table 57 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 516 applicants, 432 (83.7%) were male and 81 (15.7%) were female. Three applicants omitted gender. Table 58 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups and missing cases. Of the 516 applicants, 375 (72.7%) were White and 133 (25.8%) were applicants of color. Eight applicants omitted ethnic group.

Table 57. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 432	83.7%
Female	n = 81	15.7%
Missing	n = 3	0.6%
Total	n = 516	100.0%

Table 58. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 375	72.7%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 39	7.6%
Black / African American	n = 50	9.7%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 40	7.8%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 4	0.7%
Missing	n = 8	1.5%
Total	n = 516	100.0%

Of the 516 applicants entering step 1 of the application process, the minimum and desired qualifications review, 27 applicants did not meet the minimum qualifications, 297 applicants met the minimum qualifications but did not advance onto step 2 after review of the supplemental questions for desired qualifications, and 192 applicants passed the qualifications review and



advanced onto step 2, an interview. Table 59 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 192 applicants who passed step 1, 164 (85.4%) were male and 27 (14.1%) were female. One applicant omitted gender. In this step, female applicants decreased 10% compared to 15.7% who applied. Table 60 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 192 applicants who passed step 1, 109 (56.8%) were White and 79 (41.2%) were applicants of color. Four applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color increased 60% compared to 25.8% who applied.

Table 59. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 164	85.4%
Female	n = 27	14.1%
Missing	n = 1	0.5%
Total	n = 192	100.0%

Table 60. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 109	56.8%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 23	12.0%
Black / African American	n = 23	12.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 31	16.2%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 2	1.0%
Missing	n = 4	2.0%
Total	n = 192	100.0%

Of the 192 applicants entering step 2 of the application process, an interview, 107 applicants did not advance onto step 3 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the interview, or did not pass the interview; 2 applicants withdrew from the application process, and 83 applicants passed the interview and advanced onto step 3, the second interview. Table 61 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 83 applicants who passed step 2, 70 (84.3%) were male and 13 (15.7%) were female. In this step,

female applicants increased 11% compared to 14.1% of females in the previous step. Table 62 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 83 applicants who passed step 2, 48 (57.8%) were White and 34 (41.0%) were applicants of color. One applicant omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color were about the same percentage compared to 41.2% of applicants in the previous step.

Table 61. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 70	84.3%
Female	n = 13	15.7%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 83	100.0%

Table 62. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 48	57.8%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 5	6.0%
Black / African American	n = 11	13.3%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 16	19.3%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 2	2.4%
Missing	n = 1	1.2%
Total	n = 83	100.0%

Of the 83 applicants entering step 3 of the application process, a second interview, 33 applicants did not advance onto step 4 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the second interview, or did not pass the second interview; 1 applicant withdrew from the application process, and 49 passed the second interview and advanced onto step 4, the hiring step. Table 63 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 49 applicants who passed step 3, 40 (81.6%) were male and 9 (18.4%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 17% compared to 15.7% of females in the previous step. Table 64 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 49 applicants

who passed step 3, 23 (46.9%) were White and 25 (51.0%) were applicants of color. One applicant omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color increased 24% compared to 41.0% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 63. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 40	81.6%
Female	n = 9	18.4%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 49	100.0%

Table 64. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 23	46.9%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 3	6.1%
Black / African American	n = 7	14.3%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 13	26.5%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 2	4.1%
Missing	n = 1	2.1%
Total	n = 49	100.0%

Step 4 of the application process, the hiring step, included a background investigation, a medical examination, a drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Of the 49 applicants entering the hiring step, 24 applicants were not hired and remained inactive when the list expired, 4 applicants withdrew from the application process, and 1 applicant declined the job offer. Of the applicants who passed the background investigation and were considered for a full-time police officer position, a conditional job offer was given, contingent upon passing the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. A final job offer was given to the applicants who passed the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation, and 20 applicants were hired. Table 65 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 20 applicants hired, 16 (80.0%) were male and 4 (20.0%) were female. In this step, female

applicants increased 9% compared to 18.4% of females in the previous step. In addition, the 20% of females hired was higher than the 15.7% who applied. Table 66 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 20 applicants hired, 9 (45.0%) were White and 11 (55.0%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color increased 8% compared to 51% of applicants of color in the previous step. In addition, the 55% of applicants of color hired was more than twice than the 25.8% who applied.

Table 65. Gender of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 16	80.0%
Female	n = 4	20.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 20	100.0%

Table 66. Ethnic Group of 2014 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 4.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 9	45.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 2	10.0%
Black / African American	n = 4	20.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 3	15.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 2	10.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 20	100.0%

### **2016 Posting for Full-time Police Officer External and Internal Applicants**

As was the case in the 2014 and 2015 posting, minimum qualifications in the 2016 job announcement were meeting the state regulatory board’s eligibility requirements for a police officer and a valid driver’s license with an acceptable driving record. The desired qualifications were the same as in the 2014 posting, having first aid certification, a degree, prior police experience, prior experience in non-paid non-sworn police related positions, fluency in languages other than English, and experience working with diverse populations.

The steps in the selection process for the 2016 posting included the following: step 1, minimum and desired qualifications review; step 2, an interview; step 3, a second interview; step 4, a background investigation; and step 5, the hiring step, which included a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation.

There were 317 applications received for the 2016 posting. Table 67 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 317 applicants, 268 (84.6%) were male and 46 (14.5%) were female. Three applicants omitted gender. Table 68 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 317 applicants, 200 (63.1%) were White and 108 (34.1%) were applicants of color. Nine applicants omitted ethnic group.

Table 67. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 268	84.6%
Female	n = 46	14.5%
Missing	n = 3	0.9%
Total	n = 317	100.0%

Table 68. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 200	63.1%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 18	5.7%
Black / African American	n = 45	14.2%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 40	12.6%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 5	1.6%
Missing	n = 9	2.8%
Total	n = 317	100.0%

Of the 317 applicants entering step 1 of the application process, the minimum and desired qualifications review, 27 applicants did not meet the minimum qualifications, 184 did not advance onto step 2 after review of the supplemental questions for desired qualifications, and 106 applicants passed this step and advanced onto step 2, an interview. Table 69 presents the

frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 106 applicants who passed step 1, 95 (89.6%) were male and 11 (10.4%) were female. In this step, female applicants decreased 28% compared to 14.5% who applied. Table 70 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 106 applicants who passed step 1, 49 (46.2%) were White and 55 (51.9%) were applicants of color. Two applicants omitted ethnic group. In this step, applicants of color increased 52% compared to 34.1% who applied.

Table 69. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 95	89.6%
Female	n = 11	10.4%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 106	100.0%

Table 70. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 1.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 49	46.2%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 7	6.6%
Black / African American	n = 19	17.9%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 28	26.4%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	1.0%
Missing	n = 2	1.9%
Total	n = 106	100.0%

Of the 106 applicants entering step 2 of the application process, an interview, 61 applicants did not advance onto step 3 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the interview, or did not pass the interview; and 45 applicants passed the interview and advanced onto step 3, the second interview. Table 71 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 45 applicants who passed step 2, 40 (88.9%) were male and 5 (11.1%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 7% compared to 10.4% of females in the previous step. Table 72 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five

ethnic groups. Of the 45 applicants who passed step 2, 20 (44.4%) were White and 24 (53.4%) were applicants of color. One applicant omitted ethnic group. Applicants of color increased 3% compared to 51.9% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 71. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 40	88.9%
Female	n = 5	11.1%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 45	100.0%

Table 72. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 2.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 20	44.4%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 2	4.5%
Black / African American	n = 10	22.2%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 11	24.5%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	2.2%
Missing	n = 1	2.2%
Total	n = 45	100.0%

Of the 45 applicants entering step 3 of the application process, the second interview, 17 did not advance onto step 4 because they did not respond to the agency contacting them, did not show up for the interview, or did not pass the interview; 2 applicants withdrew from the application process; and 26 passed the second interview and advanced onto step 4, the hiring step. Table 73 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 26 applicants who passed step 3, 24 (92.3%) were male and 2 (7.7%) were female. In this step, female applicants decreased 31% compared to 11.1% of females in the previous step. Table 74 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 26 applicants who passed step 3, 10 (38.6%) were White and 16 (61.4%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color increased 15% compared to 53.4% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 73. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 24	92.3%
Female	n = 2	7.7%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 26	100.0%

Table 74. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 3.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 10	38.6%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 1	3.8%
Black / African American	n = 7	26.9%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 7	26.9%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	3.8%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 26	100.0%

Of the 26 applicants entering step 4 of the application process, the background investigation, 4 applicants did not pass the background investigation, 2 applicants withdrew from the application process, and 20 passed the background investigation and advanced onto step 5, the hiring step. Table 75 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 20 applicants who passed step 4, 18 (90.0%) were male and 2 (10.0%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 30% compared to 7.7% of females in the previous step. Table 76 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 20 applicants who passed step 4, 7 (35.0%) were White and 13 (65.0%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color increased 6% compared to 61.4% of applicants of color in the previous step.

Table 75. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 4.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 18	90.0%
Female	n = 2	10.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 20	100.0%



Table 76. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Passing Step 4.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 7	35.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 1	5.0%
Black / African American	n = 5	25.0%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 7	35.0%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 20	100.0%

Step 5 of the application process, the hiring step, included a medical examination, a drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Of the 20 applicants entering the hiring step, 2 applicants were not hired and remained inactive when the list expired; 2 applicants did not pass the medical examination, did not pass the drug screen, or did not pass the psychological evaluation; and 1 applicant withdrew from the application process. For the applicants who passed the previous steps and were considered for a full-time police officer position, a conditional job offer was given, contingent upon passing the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. A final job offer was given to the applicants who passed the medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. Fifteen applicants were hired. Table 77 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 15 applicants hired, 13 (86.7%) were male and 2 (13.3%) were female. In this step, female applicants increased 33% compared to 10% of females in the previous step. In addition, the 13.3% of females hired was less than the 14.5% who applied. Table 78 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 15 applicants hired, 6 (40.0%) were White and 9 (60.0%) were applicants of color. In this step, applicants of color decreased 5% compared to the 65% of applicants of color in the previous step. In addition, the 60% of applicants of color hired was 76% higher than the 34.1% who applied.

Table 77. Gender of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 5.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 13	86.7%
Female	n = 2	13.3%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 15	100.0%

Table 78. Ethnic Group of 2016 Full-time Police Officer Applicants Hired – Step 5.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 6	40.0%
Hispanic / Latino	n = 0	0.0%
Black / African American	n = 4	26.7%
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 5	33.3%
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0%
Missing	n = 0	0.0%
Total	n = 15	100.0%

### **Summary of Applicants Hired from Postings Open for External and Internal Applicants**

Table 79 summarizes the frequencies (n) and percentages of female applicants and applicants of color hired for full-time police officer from the 2009 through 2016 postings open to external and internal applicants presented in the previous tables. The highest number and percentage of females hired was in the 2009 posting, with 5 and 33.3%. The lowest number and percentage of females hired was in the 2010 posting, with none hired. The highest numbers of applicants of color hired, were in both the 2012 and 2014 postings, with 11 hired. The highest percentage of applicants of color hired was in the 2016 posting, with 60.0%. The lowest number and percentage of applicants of color hired was in the 2011 posting, with none hired.

Table 79. Number and Percent of Female and Applicants of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer from 2009 to 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants.

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Female Applicants	n= 5 33.3 %	n= 0 0.0 %	n= 1 20.0 %	n= 4 14.8 %	n= 3 23.1 %	n= 4 20.0 %	N/A	n= 2 13.3 %
Applicants of Color	n= 2 13.4 %	n= 1 20.0 %	n= 0 0.0 %	n=11 40.7 %	n=6 46.2 %	n=11 55.0 %	N/A	n= 9 60.0 %

N/A – There was not a posting open to all applicants in 2015.

Table 80 presents the applicants of color by the frequency (n) and percentage of applicants hired for each of the five ethnic groups for full-time police officer from the 2009 to 2016 postings for external and internal applicants. At least 1 Hispanic / Latino was hired in five of the seven years, at least 1 Black / African American was hired in five of the seven years, at least 1 Asian / Pacific Islander was hired in four of the seven years, and at least 1 American Indian / Alaskan Native was hired in two of the seven years. The highest number of the four non-White groups was for Blacks / African Americans, with 7 in the 2012 posting. The highest percentage of the four non-White groups was for Asians / Pacific Islanders, with 33.3% in the 2016 posting.

Table 80. Number and Percent of Full-time Police Officers Hired from 2009 to 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants by Ethnic Group.

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
White	n = 11 73.3 %	n = 4 80.0 %	n = 5 100 %	n = 16 59.3 %	n = 7 53.8 %	n = 9 45.0 %	N/A	n = 6 40.0 %
Hispanic / Latino	n = 1 6.7 %	n = 1 20.0 %	----- -----	n = 3 11.1 %	n = 1 7.7 %	n = 2 10.0 %	N/A	----- -----
Black / African American	n = 1 6.7 %	----- -----	----- -----	n = 7 25.9 %	n = 3 23.1 %	n = 4 20.0 %	N/A	n = 4 26.7 %
Asian / Pacific Islander	----- -----	----- -----	----- -----	n = 1 3.7 %	n = 1 7.7 %	n = 3 15.0 %	N/A	n = 5 33.3 %
American Indian Alaskan Native	----- -----	----- -----	----- -----	----- -----	n = 1 7.7 %	n = 2 10.0 %	N/A	----- -----
Missing	n = 2 13.3%	----- -----	----- -----	----- -----	----- -----	----- -----	N/A	----- -----
Total Hired	n = 15 100 %	n = 5 100 %	n = 5 100 %	n = 27 100 %	n = 13 100 %	n = 20 100 %	N/A	n = 15 100 %

N/A – There was not a posting open to all applicants in 2015.

## **2011 to 2015 Postings for Full-time Police Officer Open Only for Internal Applicants**

There were six postings from 2011 to 2015 for the position of full-time police officer open only to internal employees. Minimum qualifications for the six postings included meeting the state regulatory board's eligibility requirements for a police officer, a valid driver's license with a good or an acceptable driving record, and current employment by the agency in a different position. Desired qualifications varied for the six postings. All six postings included prior police experience. Five postings included a degree and relevant volunteer experience. One posting included prior experience in non-paid non-sworn police related positions, previous security experience, fluency in languages other than English, and experience working with diverse populations. Three postings had first aid certification as a minimum qualification and three postings had it as a desired qualification.

The steps in the application process for all six internal only postings included a minimum and desired qualifications review, an interview, a background check, a medical examination, a drug screen, and a psychological evaluation. Three of the six internal only postings had a written test and three postings did not have a written test. There was only one posting that had the second interview after the background investigation. The other five postings had the second interview before the background investigation.

All six postings for the internal only postings are grouped together in reporting the frequencies and percentages by gender and ethnic group due to the low number of applicants for each posting. There were 39 applications received for all six internal postings. Table 81 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 39 applicants, 34 (87.2%) were male and 5 (12.8%) were female. Table 82 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five

ethnic groups. Of the 39 applicants, 24 (61.5%) were White and 15 (38.5%) were applicants of color.

Table 81. Gender of 2011 to 2015 Full-time Internal Police Officer Applicants.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 34	87.2 %
Female	n = 5	12.8 %
Missing	n = 0	0.0 %
Total	n = 39	100.0 %

Table 82. Ethnic Group of 2011 to 2015 Full-time Internal Police Officer Applicants.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 24	61.5 %
Hispanic / Latino	n = 1	2.6 %
Black / African American	n = 5	12.8 %
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 8	20.5 %
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 1	2.6 %
Missing	n = 0	0.0 %
Total	n = 39	100.0 %

There were 14 applicants hired from the six postings for internal employees only. Table 83 presents the frequency (n) and percent for gender. Of the 14 applicants hired, 10 (71.4%) were male and 4 (28.6%) were female. Females who were hired, 28.6%, were more than two times higher than females who applied, 12.8%. Table 84 presents the frequency (n) and percent for each of the five ethnic groups. Of the 14 applicants hired, 12 (85.7%) were White and 2 (14.3%) were applicants of color. Applicants who were hired, 14.3%, were 37% less than applicants of color who applied, 38.5%.

Table 83. Gender of 2011 to 2015 Full-time Internal Police Officer Applicants Hired.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	n = 10	71.4 %
Female	n = 4	28.6 %
Missing	n = 0	0.0 %
Total	n = 14	100.0 %

Table 84. Ethnic Group of 2011 to 2015 Full-time Internal Police Officer Applicants Hired.

Ethnic Group	Frequency	Percent
White	n = 12	85.7 %
Hispanic / Latino	n = 0	0.0 %
Black / African American	n = 1	7.15 %
Asian / Pacific Islander	n = 1	7.15 %
American Indian / Alaskan Native	n = 0	0.0 %
Missing	n = 0	0.0 %
Total	n = 14	100.0 %

**Comparison of Applicants Hired from Postings Open for External and Internal Applicants to Postings Open Only for Internal Applicants**

Table 85 compares the percentages of female applicants and applicants of color hired for postings open for external and internal applicants, to the postings open for only internal applicants. For the postings open for all applicants, 19 (19.0%) of the applicants hired were female, and for the postings open only for internal employees, 4 (28.6%) of the applicants hired were female. The percentage of females hired from the postings open only for internal applicants was 1.5 times higher than the percentage of females hired from the postings open for both external and internal applicants. Of the postings open to all applicants, 40 (40.0%) of the applicants hired were applicants of color, and of the postings open only to internal employees, 2 (14.3%) of the applicants hired were applicants of color. The percentage of applicants of color hired from postings open only for internal applicants was almost one-third lower than the percentage of applicants of color hired from postings open for both external and internal applicants.

Table 85. Number and Percent of Female Applicants and Applicants of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by Type of Posting (Open to all Applicants and Internal Only Applicants).

Type of Posting	Posting Open to All Applicants (External and Internal Applicants) from 2009 to 2016	Posting Open to Internal Applicants Only from 2011 to 2015
Female Applicants	n = 19 19.0 %	n = 4 28.6 %
Applicants of Color	n = 40 40.0 %	n = 2 14.3 %

### Full-time Police Officer Separation Data

There are three broad categories of separation used by the case agency: *Resignation*, *Termination*, and *Retirement*. These three categories parallel to the three broad categories cited in Chapter II: Voluntary Separation, Involuntary Separation, and Retirement. Resignations are divided into two reasons: *General Resignation* and *Resignation – Other Position*. The definition of a general resignation includes an officer who left the case agency or law enforcement for personal reasons, or who left for a position not in law enforcement. Resignation – other position is defined as an officer who left the case agency for another law enforcement agency.

Termination is divided into three reasons: *Failed Probation*, *Medically Disqualified*, and *Misconduct*. All full-time officers are given a probationary period from their date of hire as a full-time officer. The one-year probationary period includes academy training, field training, and the officer assigned to work a patrol area. The agency’s academy is currently 10 weeks of training that provides officers with a solid base to perform their jobs. The classroom and skills training include firearms, use of force, scenarios, active shooter, cultural awareness, community outreach, and agency expectations. Once an officer passes their academy training, they go through four phases of field training, concluding with being shadowed by a field training officer. The field training program takes about 14 weeks. Any of the phases in the officer’s field training

program may be extended as deemed necessary. After passing the field training program, the officer is assigned to work a patrol area. Failed probation is defined as an officer who is terminated before their probationary period has expired. This includes an officer not passing the academy; an officer passing the academy, but not successfully completing the field training; or an officer passing both the academy and the field training but is terminated during the time the officer is on their own before their probation period expires.

Medically disqualified is defined as an officer who can no longer perform the job of police officer and who does not qualify for a pension disability. Misconduct is defined as an officer who is terminated due to a violation of department policy. Retirement is divided into two reasons: *Retirement – Normal* and *Retirement – Disability*. Normal retirement is defined as an officer who retires under their pension. Disability retirement is defined as an officer who has a disability that qualifies under the pension.

As discussed in chapter II, Review of Literature, Wareham et al. (2015) calculated the turnover rates by dividing the number of full-time sworn officers for each turnover indicator by the total number of full-time sworn officers, and then multiplying that number by 100 to get turnover rates in percentages (p. 350). The four turnover indicators used by Wareham et al. are voluntary turnover (general resignations and resignations – other law enforcement position) retirement (non-medical retirements), involuntary turnover (medical/disability retirements, probationary rejections, dismissals, and medical disabilities not covered by their pension), and total turnover rate (the three previous categories added together).

The agency turnover rates were calculated using the same method as Wareham et al. (2015) used in their study. Table 86 presents the number of full-time officers who separated from the agency and the turnover rates for each year that separation data was available for the



entire year, from 2010 through 2016. Officers who separated in 2017 are not included in the agency turnover rates because the 2017 data only includes officers who separated from the agency through May of 2017. The lowest turnover rate is 1.54% for 2010, and the highest turnover rate is 12.50% for 2011.

Table 86. Number of Full-time Police Officer Separations by Turnover Indicator and Total Turnover Rates for each Year from 2010 to 2016.

Turnover Indicator	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Resignations	0	2	1	2	5	6	5
Retirements	0	5	3	2	3	0	0
Involuntary Separations	1	1	0	2	1	7	3
Total Number of Officers	1	8	4	6	9	13	8
Total Turnover Rate	1.54%	12.50%	6.06%	7.06%	10.00%	11.93%	7.14%

The average turnover rate for 49 officers who separated from 2010 through 2016 is 8.29%. Table 87 presents the total number of separations and average turnover rates, broken down into the four categories of turnover indicators used by Wareham et al.'s (2015) study. The turnover rate for the 21 resignations is 3.55% and includes the case agency's general resignations and resignations for another law enforcement position. The turnover rate for the 13 retirements is 2.20% and includes non-medical retirements. The turnover rate for the 15 involuntary separations is 2.54% and includes medical/disability retirements, dismissals due to misconduct, probationary rejections, and medical/disability terminations not covered by their pension. The turnover rates presented in Tables 86 and 87 are compared to Wareham et al.'s results in chapter VI.

Table 87. Number and Average Turnover Rate for the Total Number of Officers who Separated from 2010 to 2016 by Turnover Indicator.

Turnover Indicator	Frequency	Turnover Rate
Resignations	21	3.55%
Retirements	13	2.20%
Involuntary Separations	15	2.54%
Total Turnover	49	8.29%

The remaining separation data includes the 53 full-time officers for all ranks who separated from the case agency from January 2010 through May of 2017. Table 88 presents the officers who separated under the three broad categories of separation. Of the 53 officers who separated from the agency, 23 (43.4%) resigned (voluntary separation), 14 (26.4%) were terminated (involuntary separation), and 16 (30.2%) retired. Tables 88 also presents the breakdown of the specific reasons under each of the broad categories of separation. Of the 23 officers who resigned voluntarily, 4 (7.5%) were for general resignations, which means they resigned from the agency or law enforcement for personal reasons or left for a position not in law enforcement. The remaining 19 officers (35.9%) left for another law enforcement position. Of the 14 officers who were terminated involuntarily, 8 (15.0%) failed probation, 3 (5.7%) were medically disqualified, and 3 (5.7%) were dismissed for misconduct. Of the 8 officers who failed probation, 6 officers did not pass their FTO training and 2 officers passed their FTO training but were terminated before their probation expired due to performance or conduct issues. Of the 16 who retired, 13 (24.5%) left with normal retirement and 3 (5.7%) left with a disability retirement.

Table 88. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from 2010 to mid-2017 by Reason of Separation and Type of Separation.

Type of Separation	Resignations (Voluntary Separation)	Terminations (Involuntary Separation)	Retirements	Total Number Separated	Total Percent Separated
General Resignation	n= 4	----	----	n= 4	7.5%
Resignation - Other Position	n=19	----	----	n=19	35.9%
Failed Probation	----	n= 8	----	n= 8	15.0%
Medically Disqualified	----	n= 3	----	n= 3	5.7%
Misconduct	----	n= 3	----	n= 3	5.7%
Retirement - Normal	----	----	n=13	n=13	24.5%
Retirement - Disability	----	----	n= 3	n= 3	5.7%
Total Separated	n=23 43.4%	n=14 26.4%	n=16 30.2%	n=53 100.0%	n=53 100%

Table 89 presents the agency data and the six categories that Reaves used in his 2012 BJS Report of the 2008 CSLLEA data. The highest percentage of separations was for general resignations and resignations for another law enforcement position, with 43.4%. The second highest percentage of separations was for normal retirements, with 24.5%. The third highest percentage of separations was for termination for failed probation, with 15.0%. Last are termination for misconduct, termination for a medical / disability not covered by retirement, and a disability retirement, with 5.7% for each of these three categories. The agency percentages for categories of separation are compared to Reaves' (2012) results in chapter VI.

Table 89. Percent of Reason of Separation from 2010 to mid-2017 using Reaves' (2012) and Case Agency Categories.

Reave's (2012) Categories in 2008 CSLLEA data	Agency Categories for 2010 to 2017 data	Percent of Total Turnover
Resignation	General Resignation and Resignation - Other Position	43.4%
Non-medical Retirement	Retirements - Normal	24.5%
Dismissal	Termination - Misconduct	5.7%

Table 89. cont.

Reave's (2012) Categories in 2008 CSLLEA data	Agency Categories for 2010 to 2017 data	Percent of Total Turnover
Probation Rejection	Termination - Failed Probation	15.0%
Medical/Disability Retirement	Retirement - Disability	5.7%
Other Separation	Termination - Medical / Disability not covered by Pension	5.7%
Total of All Separations	Total of All Separations	100.0%

Table 90 presents the officers who separated from 2010 to 2017 by reason of separation, with a breakdown for gender and ethnic group for the 53 officers. Of the 4 officers who left with a general resignation, 1 was male and 3 (75.0%) were female, and 3 officers were White and 1 (25.0%) was an officer of color. Of the 19 officers who left for another law enforcement position, 18 were male and 1 (5.3%) was female, and 15 were White and 4 (21.1%) were officers of color. Of the 8 officers who were terminated because they failed probation, 6 were male and 2 (25.0%) were female, and 4 were White and 4 (50.0%) were officers of color. Of the 3 officers who were terminated because of a medical disqualification, all 3 were male and all 3 were White. Of the 3 officers who were terminated for misconduct, all 3 were male and all 3 were officers of color. Of the 13 officers who retired under a normal retirement, all 13 were male, and 11 were White and 2 (15.4%) were officers of color. Of the 3 officers who retired under a disability retirement, all 3 were male, and 1 was White and 2 (66.7%) were officers of color.

Table 90. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Reason of Separation, Gender, and Ethnic Group.

Type of Separation	Total Separated	Gender	Ethnic Group
General Resignation	n= 4 7.5%	1 Male 3 Female	3 White 1 Asian / Pacific Islander
Resignation - Other Position	n=19 35.9%	18 Male 1 Female	15 White 1 Hispanic / Latino 1 Black / African American 1 Asian / Pacific Islander 1 American Indian / Alaskan Native
Failed Probation	n=8 15.0%	6 Male 2 Female	4 White 3 Black / African American 1 Hispanic / Latino
Medically Disqualified	n=3 5.7%	3 Male	3 White
Misconduct	n=3 5.7%	3 Male	1 Hispanic / Latino 1 Black / African American 1 American Indian / Alaskan Native
Retirement - Normal	n=13 24.5%	13 Male	11 White 1 Hispanic / Latino 1 American Indian / Alaskan Native
Retirement - Disability	n=3 5.7%	3 Male	1 White 1 Hispanic / Latino 1 Black / African American
Total	53 100.0%	53	53

Table 91 presents the number and percentage of full-time officers who separated with 5 or less years of service and more than 5 years of service. There were 32 (60.4%) officers with 5 or less years of service and 21 (39.6%) officers with more than 5 years of service. Table 92 presents the number and percentage of full-time officers who separated from the agency by years of service. Almost one-third of the officers, 17 (32.1%), had less than 1 year of service, 10 (18.9%) of the officers had 1-3 years of service, 5 (9.4%) of the officers had 3-5 years of service, and 21 (39.6%) officers had more than 5 years of service.

Table 91. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Five or Less Years of Service and More Than 5 Years of Service.

Years of Service	Frequency	Percent
5 or less years	32	60.4%
More than 5 years	21	39.6%

Table 92. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Years of Service.

Years of Service	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 year	17	32.1%
1-3 years	10	18.9%
3-5 years	5	9.4%
More than 5 years	21	39.6%
Total	53	100.0%

Table 93 presents the years of service before separation, with a breakdown of the number for gender and ethnic group for the 53 officers. Of the 17 officers who separated with less than 1 year of service, 13 were male and 4 (23.5%) were female, and 10 were White and 7 (41.2%) were officers of color. Of the 10 officers who separated with 1-3 years of service, all 10 were male, and 6 were White and 4 (40.0%) were officers of color. Of the 5 officers who separated with 3-5 years of service, 4 were male and 1 (20.0%) was female, and all 5 were White. Of the 21 officers who separated with more than 5 years of service, 20 were male and 1 (4.8%) was female, and 16 were White and 5 (23.8%) were officers of color.

Table 93. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Years of Service, Gender, and Ethnic Group.

Years of Service	Total Number	Gender	Ethnic Group
Less than 1 year	n=17 32.1%	13 Male 4 Female	10 White 1 Hispanic / Latino 3 Black / African American 2 Asian / Pacific Islander 1 American Indian / Alaskan Native

Table 93. cont.

Years of Service	Total Number	Gender	Ethnic Group
1-3 years	n=10 18.9%	10 Male	6 White 1 Hispanic / Latino 2 Black / African American 1 American Indian / Alaskan Native
3-5 years	n= 5 9.4%	4 Male 1 Female	5 White
More than 5 years	n=21 39.6%	20 Male 1 Female	16 White 3 Hispanic / Latino 1 Black / African American 1 American Indian / Alaskan Native
Total	n=53	n=53	n=53

Table 94 presents the number of officers who left the agency by years of service and the three broad types of separation: Resignation (Voluntary separation), Termination (Involuntary separation), and Retirement. Of the 17 officers who separated with less than 1 year of service, 7 (41.2%) resigned and 10 (58.8%) were terminated. Of the 10 officers who separated with 1-3 years of service, 8 (80.0%) resigned and 2 (20.0%) were terminated. Of the 5 officers who separated with 3-5 years of service, all 5 (100.0%) resigned. For the 21 officers who separated with more than 5 years of service, 3 (14.3%) resigned, 2 (9.5%) were terminated, and 16 (76.2%) retired.

Table 94. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Years of Service and Type of Separation.

Years of Service	Resignations	Terminations	Retirements	Total Separated
Less than 1 year	7	10	0	17
1-3 years	8	2	0	10
3-5 years	5	0	0	5
More than 5 years	3	2	16	21
Total	23	14	16	53

Table 95 presents the 53 officers who left the agency by the specific reason of separation and years of service. Of the 17 officers who separated with less than 1 year of service, 3 (17.6%)

resigned under a general resignation, 4 (23.5%) left for another law enforcement agency, 8 (47.1%) failed probation, and 2 (11.8%) were medically disqualified. Of the 10 officers who separated with 1-3 years of service, 8 (80.0%) left for another law enforcement position, and 2 (20.0%) were terminated because of misconduct. Of the 5 officers who separated with 3-5 years of service, all 5 resigned for another law enforcement position. Of the 21 officers who separated with more than 5 years of service, 1 (4.75%) resigned under a general resignation, 2 (9.5%) left for another law enforcement agency, 1 (4.75%) was medically disqualified, 1 (4.75%) was terminated because of misconduct, 13 (62.0%) retired under a normal retirement, and 3 (14.25%) retired on a disability retirement.

Table 95. Full-time Police Officers who Separated from the Agency from 2010 to mid-2017 by Reason of Separation and Years of Service.

Type of Separation	<1 year	1-3 years	3-5 Years	>5 years	Total
General Resignation	3	0	0	1	4
Resignation - Other Position	4	8	5	2	19
Failed Probation	8	0	0	0	8
Medically Disqualified	2	0	0	1	3
Misconduct	0	2	0	1	3
Retirement - Normal	0	0	0	13	13
Retirement - Disability	0	0	0	3	3
Total	17	10	5	21	53

### Conclusion

This chapter presented the data analysis for the composition, applicant, and separation data. It is evident from the results of the applicant and composition data presented that representation of females and officers of color has increased both in frequencies and percentages for those who applied and those who were hired. This chapter also presented the results from the separation data, including turnover rates, reasons for separation, length of service before separation, and gender and race/ethnicity of officers who separated. The results of the agency's



separation data are compared to Wareham et al.'s (2015) turnover rates and Reaves' (2012) separation rates in Chapter VI. Chapter V discusses the analysis of the interviews. The last chapter, Chapter VI, presents the discussions and conclusions for the four data sets.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW DATA**

This chapter presents the findings from the semi-structured interviews in this mixed methods case study. It discusses recruiting, hiring, and retention from the perspectives of seven agency personnel responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices at the case agency. Agency administration identified key personnel to be interviewed. This chapter identifies and discusses themes in the responses from the seven respondents interviewed.

#### **Description of Interview Data**

In conjunction with the results from the three data sets presented in Chapter IV, the interview data results are used to answer research sub-questions #1-4, previously presented in Chapter I and III.

##### **Sub-question #4**

What practices are used by the agency for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity?

##### **Sub-question #5**

What factors are important for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within the agency?

##### **Sub-question #6**

What characteristics are important in leadership for recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity within the agency?

### **Sub-question #7**

What modifications in the traditional recruiting, selection, and hiring processes are needed to recruit and hire for a diverse police agency?

This researcher used the interview guide in Appendix A to obtain the respondent's own words to describe the processes of recruiting, hiring, and retention. Additional questions were asked to clarify responses, check for understanding, encourage subjects to elaborate on their responses, follow up on responses, or explore an unexpected topic.

This researcher started each interview with the following introduction:

The purpose of this research is to describe how your agency recruits, hires, and retains diversity for your full-time police officers. I would like to ask you about this and your role in hiring, recruiting, and retention processes. The first part of the interview will ask you questions about recruiting and hiring and the second part of the interview will ask you questions about retention.

Prior literature on representative bureaucracy presented in Chapter II was used to construct the interview questions. There was a total of nine main questions and three sub-questions on recruiting and hiring, five questions on separation and retention, and one closing question (See Appendix A).

#### **Process of Identifying Themes from Analysis of the Interview Data**

It is evident from the interview data that this agency prioritizes being reflective of its communities and engaging in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing. Respondents in the interviews indicated that the increases in the representation of female officer and officers of color within their agency were a result of a combination of different factors. These factors include the Human Resources Office having a formal Affirmative Action plan and being an

Equal Opportunity Employer; the command staff setting hiring goals, targeting its recruiting efforts, and implementing changes in the application process; and the chief taking an active role in recruiting and hiring practices. At least five of the seven respondents needed to have discussed an element of a category or theme in their responses in order to be considered a theme. After analyzing the data, nine themes were found to meet the criteria. As indicated below, one theme was in response to an interview question directly asking about the theme, four themes were influenced by the interview questions, and four themes emerged from the interview data.

The following theme was in response to an interview question asking directly about the theme and was also present in response to other interview questions:

- The importance of the agency being reflective of its communities

The following four themes were influenced by the interview questions:

- The active role of the chief in diversifying the agency
- The impact of external factors on the applicant pool
- The influence of organizational factors on recruiting, hiring, and retention
- The positive influence of professional organizations and associations on increasing recruiting, hiring, and retention of female officers and officers of color

The following four themes emerged from the interview data:

- The impact of changes in the hiring process on increasing diversity
- The influence of administrative discretion on decisions made regarding recruiting and hiring practices
- The relationship between the agency being responsive to its communities through a commitment to community policing and recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity

- The perception that some diverse applicants hired were not qualified

Five of the seven respondents discussed one theme, the perception that some diverse applicants were not qualified, and all seven respondents discussed at least one element of the other eight themes. Elements included both positive and negative perceptions. Some of these themes were also represented in more than one question. Each theme and associated question(s) from the interview are discussed below. Some of these themes are related to other themes which are also noted below.

### **Themes for Recruiting, Hiring, and Retention**

**The importance of the agency being reflective of its communities.** This theme, the importance of the agency being reflective of its communities, was in response to an interview question directly asking about this theme and also appeared in response to several other interview questions. In response to the question, “Do you think it is important for your agency to reflect community characteristics? Why or why not?”, all respondents stated it is important for their agency to reflect female officers and officers of color. In response to why it is important to be representative of the communities they serve, two of the responses illustrated the impact of incidents involving the police and communities of color, “I don’t think you cannot be in this day and age”, and “of course, look at all the trends now, the agencies that are having critical incidents that aren’t reflective of their community obviously are paying more of a price for that”.

Two respondents raised the concern that it is not possible to send an officer of color to all calls involving a member of his/her community. Another respondent also brought this to attention, stating that people “who have this mindset miss the point because if a white officer answers the call from a person of color, that person of color knows that their community is represented within their agency”. This respondent added that one reason why recruiting for

diversity is important is that “we get more credibility from that community because it shows we are serious and committed to hiring officers from their community” and “that gets all of us credibility when we have to have the hard conversations”. Another respondent stated that “if protecting the community is our fundamental measure as cops”, this cannot be accomplished if officers are not culturally and demographically reflective of the people they serve. This respondent also added that they have had great success across many levels of diversity which reinforces that they are more effective in delivering police services. Another respondent affirmed their success by stating that the focus on recruiting has resulted in success in reflecting their community.

All respondents stated that there are benefits of increased support, trust, and credibility from the communities as a result of officers getting out into the community. Respondents stated that this not only earns trust and cooperation, but also educates the public on the agency’s role and function. One respondent elaborated “it’s a way to build community trust when you’re reflective of who you serve, they go hand in hand”, and added that “over the course of the next five, 10, and 15 years, that diversity is going to continue up through the ranks”. Another respondent stated “... to be able to police the community you live in, you have to understand, and having a diverse department helps with that, because you’re learning, I may not be from this community, but there may be somebody that I work with who is and can help explain traditions or cultural things that I don’t understand”.

The importance of the agency being reflective of its communities was also evident in the responses to “Has your agency identified goals in achieving diversity?”, “What are these goals?”, and “What is your agency doing to achieve these goals?” One respondent discussed the difficulty in what measure to use as a goal for the agency to be more reflective of the

community, stating that it is difficult to achieve a reflection of the population, which is 50% for women, because all agencies are having difficulty recruiting women. Instead, one goal for the agency set by the command staff is 50% from underrepresented populations. In addition to underrepresented groups including officers of color, women are also included because women are underrepresented in law enforcement. Another respondent added that another goal they aim for is to hire the same percentage of female officers and applicants of color that applied. Another respondent stated that their Human Resources Office sets hiring goals that includes examining “the demographic make-up and they tell you whether or not you have an identified need” and further explained that it is based on the demographic make-up of the available hiring pool and available work force of surrounding areas, which is a different standard than trying to represent percentages in the community. Another respondent added that “I don’t think we’ve gone far enough. I think we’re taking baby steps to try and figure this out. We’ve had some success, we’ve had more success than many other agencies have had, we’re at least double what most other agencies are in terms of underrepresented populations”.

In response to the question “What groups do you target in recruiting?”, all respondents stated that their agency targets recruitment for specific groups. Examples provided included Native Americans, Blacks and African Americans, Asians, Latinos and Hispanics, females, and people who are fluent in languages other than English. Most of the respondents stated that they need to make a concentrated effort to recruit more females. One respondent stated that “one of the ways to recruit female officers is to promote female officers, so that people outside the department see that there are opportunities here”. Another respondent stated that they have recruited for females in different ethnic groups and added that they reach out to diverse

communities and women, so prospective applicants understand what law enforcement officers do.

The recruiting brochures were also changed. One respondent described how the first brochure showed a white male on the front and later brochures included different races/ethnicities and both males and females. This respondent added that “changing the visuals of what to hand out . . . . in terms of what our recruiting literature looks like” sends a message that we want to hire the best people for the job.

**The active role of the chief in diversifying the agency.** This theme, the active role the chief takes in diversifying the agency, particularly in recruiting and hiring, was identified by all respondents to the different questions in the interview. When asked one question, “Identify people or positions that are important in terms of recruiting and hiring diversity among your agency’s full-time officers.” and “Why are they important?”, all seven respondents identified the chief as important or the most important person or position. Five respondents indicated that the reason their agency is diverse is because of the chief. One respondent stated that the chief has allocated resources to the recruitment team to go to events and travel, marketing, and allows flexibility in adjusting work schedules for officers to attend recruitment fairs and events. The same respondent stated that the “chief is huge and instrumental in making recruiting more engaging” and that the chief “had a major impact in increasing their diversity from about 5% to well over 35%”. Three other respondents indicated a similar increase in the composition of their agency due to the chief. Other examples include responses from four other respondents stating that hiring diversity is a priority with the chief; that the chief “sets the tone for recruiting and hiring and this chief is very active in the hiring process”; that the chief is “most important in setting our diversity goals”; and “the chief does not believe in the hiring process to be delegated



down the ladder”. As stated in the previous theme, the command staff set the goal of achieving 50% of underrepresented populations in hiring and agency composition. Three other respondents discussed that the percentage of female applicants and applicants of color have increased in the past few years and believed they have met the goal of 50% female applicants and applicants of color hired in the past few years.

Other persons or positions identified as important are the command staff; the Human Resources Office; the hiring managers, which includes an administrator who is in charge of the hiring process, liaisons with the Human Resources Office, and coordinates the steps in the application process, the academy training and field training; and other individuals who are involved in recruiting, the interview panel, and background investigations. Three respondents added that the people responsible for recruiting and hiring reflect the guidance and direction from the command staff.

This theme also became evident in the seven respondents’ description of their agency’s recruiting and hiring process, goals in diversifying their agency, what their agency is doing to achieve these goals, the steps in their application process, and organizational factors that impact recruitment, hiring, and retention. One respondent summarized this as “the chief has made diversity a priority here, and I think the chief has accomplished it”. In addition, all respondents stated that the changes in the application process occurred after the change in command staff in 2012, and since that time, the chief has been instrumental in implementing these changes in the selection process.

**The impact of changes in the hiring process on increasing diversity.** This theme, the impact of changes in the hiring process on increasing diversity, emerged from the interview data and was mentioned by all respondents to at least one of the interview questions. All respondents

stated that the changes in the application process have resulted in increasing the numbers of female officers and officers of color within their agency. One respondent added that they have not gone below 50% of underrepresented applicants (female applicants and applicants of color) hired for the job postings since these changes were made. In response to the question, “What are the steps in your selection process?”, the steps and changes in the application process identified and described by all seven respondents are consistent with the steps in the application data presented in chapter IV.

The changes in the application process are presented in the order they appear in the application process. The first change noted by three respondents was adding to the list of desired qualifications. Examples provided include fluency in languages other than English and experience working with diverse communities.

All respondents noted in their interviews that the written test was eliminated from the application process. Three respondents stated that they found the written test eliminated a good number of applicants of color. One respondent added “Did the people that passed first on the written test perform better than the people that passed 10<sup>th</sup> on the written test? Nobody can show any correlation between actual performance and where you ranked on the written test”.

This respondent expounded on why the written test was eliminated from the application process,

The written test does not tell us much about your skill set, but we spend our day talking to people. We initially made it pass/fail. 80% of the diversity that was in the initial application process was eliminated during the written test. We then moved them onto the next test which was a much better test where you’re going to find good police performance, and that’s the oral panel ... if you can talk to a panel of strangers, then you probably can talk to a group of strangers.

Another respondent stated

I think it is better now than in the past ... because of [eliminating] the written test, I don't believe we were getting the candidates we were looking for because there were certain groups of people that didn't score as high, so the decision was made to stop with the written test, and just do a larger pool of the first interview, now we're able to get a better pool of candidates who we're looking for.

Four respondents agreed that the interview was a better predictor of police performance than the written test. Three respondents expressed concerns that even though the written test is not the best predictor of police performance, the written test assessed cognitive abilities and the aptitude to learn, and they did not know of a different test to assess these.

After the written test was eliminated, applicants proceed from the qualifications review to the first interview, where they are scored pass/fail instead of ranked by score, as was previously done. Another change discussed by the respondents included diversifying the interview panel because of the perception that diverse candidates were lost in the first interview. This is illustrated by one respondent stating that they were told that panel members had to be subject matter experts and replied that "the subject matter they're experts on is being in the community". This respondent added that they are "still working on this but we now have people of color and broader diversity on the community side and officer side too".

All respondents discussed three changes made to the background process after 2012, and one respondent described the backgrounds as an interesting challenge. Five respondents indicated that every agency is competing for good candidates and applicants accept the first job offer. One respondent explained "sometimes it's a matter of who can get through the hiring process the fastest to make the job offer first". One respondent stated that "historically, we

would do the background and then if someone were to get a pass on the background, then they'd do a final interview". The first change made regarding the background was moving the second interview from after the background investigation to before the background investigation. Several respondents noted that switching the background and second interview is different than what they have done and what other agencies remain doing. This reduced the number of background investigations, which also reduced the time it took to make a conditional offer to candidates. Although moving the second interview to before the background investigation added more interviews with the command staff, one respondent noted "tell me what else we were doing that was more important than hiring, if we hire the right officers, then our job becomes easier". This respondent added that if they hire a problem, then administration "ends up with Internal Affairs, discipline, and a grievance, arbitration and termination hearings. It's a pay me now or pay me after thing" and "we want to spend the time on the front end and then pay it forward".

Also, another factor discussed by all respondents is that the list to determine who advances on from the second interview to the background can change. Terms used to describe this change were "the list starts over" and the "scores are reset at 0". One respondent stated that the reason why the list can change is "because what the interview panel looks for is will this person likely be a good cop in a very general sense" and "what the second interview looks for is will this person be a good cop here ... they're different sets of criteria". This respondent also identified the five questions asked in the second interview, which include the applicants background growing up and interacting with people, volunteer experience, their definition of community policing and how they have applied it or will apply it at this agency, an example where they had to make an ethical decision, and their experience working with diverse communities. After the second interview, the command staff and the hiring manager then

determine who to background, then after backgrounds, they review the list to determine who to make conditional offers of employment.

The second change in the background process was having officers within the agency conduct the background investigations. Previously, backgrounds were conducted from retired officers from outside the agency, which one respondent described as “thorough, but eliminated candidates who were recruited”. Three respondents also stated that this provided opportunities to help retain officers.

The process before the third change was that the backgrounder could eliminate applicants in the background process. This was changed to making recommendations, and if a recommendation is made not to hire, the backgrounder is required to state why not. This change allowed the command staff and hiring manager to make the decision whether or not to hire an applicant instead of the backgrounder making that decision. Several respondents supported this change, adding that if people make a mistake and grow from that mistake, they should not be automatically eliminated. Only one respondent specifically mentioned the psychological evaluation, stating it was problematic because the specific profile of an ideal cop does not include “refugee populations” and that refugees are one group the agency targets in recruiting.

**The influence of administrative discretion on decisions made regarding recruiting and hiring practices.** It is important to understand what factors contributed to the chief taking an active role in recruiting and hiring practices and in implementing changes in the application process that resulted in the increases in female officers and officers of color. How the chief obtains and uses this discretion to increase their agency’s diversity is a key variable. This theme, the influence of administrative discretion on decisions made regarding recruiting and hiring practices, emerged from the responses of all respondents to various questions. These include the

responses to the question on the human resources structure, the descriptions of the steps and changes to the steps in the application process, identifying the important people and positions important in recruiting, hiring, and retaining a diverse agency, identifying goals in achieving diversity, and what the agency is doing to achieve these goals.

Besides the minimum selection standards for police officers set by the state regulatory board, all respondents discussed that their Human Resources Office sets the standards, rules, and regulations for hiring practices at the agency and that the chief makes decisions regarding recruiting and hiring. A significant factor that emerged from the interview data was that their agency is not under civil service rules and regulations and this strongly contributed to the chief making changes in the application process that resulted in the increase of female officers and officers of color. In response to the question, “What type of human resource structure or system do you have for your recruiting and hiring? Please describe this structure”, all respondents stated that their Human Resources Office was not similar to most other police agencies, especially for most large agencies. Five respondents specifically stated that their Human Resource Office was not under civil service rules and regulations, one respondent stated public service, and one respondent stated it was not like a traditional police human resources office. Three respondents clarified the influence of civil service versus their structure on hiring diverse applicants, stating that with civil service, there are rankings and an eligibility list created where candidates are selected in the order they are ranked which makes it harder to hire female officers and officers of color. Respondents described that instead of having civil service which uses a ranked order, their agency establishes a pool of candidates, so candidates do not have to be taken in order and this allows for more flexibility in hiring female officers and officers of color.

Five respondents indicated that the structure of the Human Resources Office gives the chief discretion, authority, and flexibility in making decisions on hiring practices, specifically, in implementing changes in the application process that resulted in hiring more female officers and officers of color. One respondent stated that their Human Resources Office “allowed us to do things that are a little bit outside the norm as long as it doesn’t put any particular candidate or class of candidates at a disadvantage” and “as long as we can articulate the reasons why we do things, why this candidate scored higher. For example, they speak a second or third language, we are on solid ground, and our agency doesn’t challenge us on that”. One respondent also stated that “they’ll allow us to filter those applications when you are trying to reduce the number of applicants, so we have some say in those supplemental questions”. Their Human Resources Office has a formal Affirmative Action plan and is an Equal Opportunity Employer. In addition, one respondent stated that their Human Resources Office would be more active in recruiting, but that their agency “adopted that role internally to be more active in the recruiting piece”.

Another factor that provided administrative discretion in making decisions regarding hiring practices was identified by four respondents who stated that their union contract influences promotional practices, however, their union does not influence hiring practices, thus the chief directly influences the steps in the application process.

**The relationship between the agency being responsive to its communities through a commitment to community policing and recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity.** All respondents indicated that it is important for their agency to be responsive to its communities through community policing. This theme, the relationship between being responsive to its communities through a commitment to community policing and recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity, emerged in the responses of five respondents. Interview data indicated that there was a

reciprocal relationship between community policing and recruiting, hiring, and retaining female officers, officers of color, and officers who are fluent in a language other than English. It was evident from four of the respondents that community engagement has helped their recruiting efforts, stating that with this chief “recruitment has been a big push, ... for us to be able to go out to more places and recruit more”, “we do a lot of recruiting ... going to community events”, “we go out and visit with the community, so they can see us, know what we’re about, and in itself, that’s even a recruitment tactic, even though we don’t have our boards and signs up”, and that “one of the big things is the ability to be able to participate in that stuff off and on duty”. One respondent added that the chief is “huge on community engagement and being out there in the community” which has helped increase the diversity within their department. Another respondent stated that the “chief is really active in all these communities” and “that’s been huge for us and that isn’t just about recruiting, that’s about making sure that we’re responsible to the communities that we serve. But it does help with the recruiting piece too”. The same respondent provided the example of where a Latino officer helped the agency develop a recruiting brochure in Spanish and stated that this “shows you’re serious about reaching out to their community” and that this is “one tiny thing to show that we’ve taken one little extra step to show you we want you to be part of our organization”. One respondent stated that there is a necessity to be active in the community due to a “lack of cultural and linguistic diversity”.

The influence of community policing on recruiting and hiring was also evident in the descriptions provided by respondents for the desired qualities, skills, and traits that applicants should possess, which are also consistent with the traits and skills necessary for officers to engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing. In response to the questions, “What qualities, skills, abilities, and traits are you looking for in the people who apply for full-



time police officer at your agency?”, all seven respondents indicated that personal character and traits were as important or more important than technical knowledge and skills, such as laws, firearms, defensive tactics, because they can teach specific skills in the academy training. This was illustrated by the traits and skills respondents stated that applicants should possess to successfully perform as police officers at their agency: honesty, integrity, good character, being innovative, having a community service mindset, being a good communicator, having a clean background, problem solving, moral courage, physical courage, ability to stand up to stress, willingness to learn, and being trainable and coachable. Three other respondents added, “anyone can become a police officer, and get trained, but it takes a passion, a calling, to be able to be in a field of service and protect and serve”, “we can take smart people and people with integrity and train the skills to be a good cop but it’s hard to train integrity, character, and community service mindset”, and we want people “who truly want to help out people that are out there to make somebody else’s day better”. It was interesting that one respondent pointed out that community policing increases recruitment and retention because their agency is doing much more community engagement than they use to and this attracts and retains officers who want to engage in community policing.

All the respondents stated communication skills were important or most important in skills that their officers should possess. Respondents provided examples to illustrate this, including the necessity for applicants to effectively speak to other people in general, calm people who are upset or suicidal, read body language, speak languages other than English, and “communicate on a variety of different levels, face-to-face, good body language, but also have high levels of linguistics and cultural competency”. This also illustrates the connection between

the skills necessary to perform community-oriented and problem-oriented policing and recruiting and hiring officers with diverse backgrounds.

In addition to the influence of community policing on recruitment and hiring diverse officers, recruitment also influences community policing. Two respondents illustrate how recruiting efforts increase community policing by educating communities about their role and function by stating “getting out there ... and educating people overall who we are as an agency and what we do, community engagement” and “recruitment is sometimes more than just getting officers, but it’s also educating the public in what we do and how we function... so you have to realize that recruitment is a lot more than just hiring and firing and retaining people”. One respondent provided an example where recruiting efforts also help to build relationships with their communities, stating that the networking and relationships that they have built by attending schools, job fairs, and community events are important for others to see officers in a positive light.

**The impact of external factors on the applicant pool.** This theme, the impact of external factors on the applicant pool, was influenced by the question, “What factors impact your agency’s recruitment and hiring practices achieving diversity?”. All respondents discussed at least two events or factors external to the agency that they perceived as responsible for the decrease in the number of applicants for their agency and for law enforcement agencies in general, including the negative portrayal of police by the news, social media, and protest groups, such as Black Lives Matter. One respondent stated that high profile cases have “a very tough effect in our ability to recruit”. Two other respondents stated that the negative perception of law enforcement has hindered the number of applicants.

Five respondents illustrated how the applicant pool for police officers is down for their agency and elsewhere in the United States. One respondent stated that the reduction in the applicant pool has “gotten worse in the last year”. One of these respondents added that “the hiring pool is not as deep as it was just a few years ago” and another respondent added that for all agencies, the quality of candidates has decreased. For female applicants, one respondent stated that it was “tough to recruit women everywhere”. Another respondent commented on the different generation of people going into law enforcement as contributing to fewer applicants.

As stated previously, respondents identified that the time it takes to get applicants through the application process can result in applicants taking the first offer. One respondent described this as the most important factor in recruiting candidates by stating “we get them into the background phase, we then realize that they’re being backgrounded at multiple agencies at the same time, so it becomes a factor that they’ll take the first job that they get offered,” and if your process is not quick enough you will lose them to another agency. It was interesting that this respondent perceived this to be a social factor rather than an organizational or internal factor, because other agencies that also wish to be reflective of their communities are competing with their agency.

Discussed next are external factors that influence separation and retention. In response to the two questions, “For the full-time officers that have separated from your agency, do you know the reasons why they have left? Please tell me about these reasons.”, all respondents perceived that there are a variety of reasons officers have left their agency. All respondents stated that officers have left for more opportunities at other agencies, for example, more opportunities for promotion or work in specialty units. One respondent was “sometimes baffled by the reason why people leave” and gave the example where officers who stated they are leaving because

there is not a lot of opportunity here but left for agencies with less opportunity and less pay. This respondent added that “some people are just moving because they can, I think it’s a bit generational”. Other reasons provided by respondents included for family or personal reasons, for example, to be closer to home and deciding they do not want to do this job after being hired. One factor that negatively affects officer retention was identified by several respondents stating that some of their officers were recruited by other agencies, with two respondents using the term “poaching” to describe what they perceived to be other agencies taking their officers.

### **The influence of organizational factors on recruiting, hiring, and retention.**

Elements of the theme, the influence of organization factors on recruiting, hiring, and retention, was influenced by the interview questions and was discussed by all respondents throughout the interviews. All respondents stated in their interviews that their agency has great pay, benefits, overtime, and pension and these were factors for increasing recruiting, hiring, and retention. Mentors within the agency were mentioned by two respondents, with one respondent stating, “mentors in the organization become a part of what keeps people here” and another respondent stating that is important to retain officers because they are needed to mentor other officers.

In response to the question, “What else do you think your agency can do to attract diverse qualified candidates?”, one respondent suggested signing bonuses that some other agencies have. Another respondent suggested having a full-time person committed to coordinating recruiting and community engagement activities. One respondent expounded further, “There is still stuff we could do, such as a Facebook page so millennials know about our jobs”.

Another organizational factor, their union, was discussed in the interviews. In response to the question, “Does your union support or hinder recruiting and hiring female officers and officers of color?”, all seven respondents stated that their union supports recruiting and hiring

female officers and officers of color. Respondents indicated that their union has worked hard for good pay, benefits, and contracts to attract candidates and that their union has a good working relationship with management.

In response to the questions, “Do female or officers of color leave at different rates than White males?”, all seven respondents stated that they had a fairly low turnover rate overall and that mostly White males have left, and not many officers of color or females have left. One respondent offered reasons why women might leave including shift work, daycare, or are intimidated because of their size. The responses that few women and officers leave are consistent with the results of the separation data presented in chapter IV.

In response to the question, “What does your agency do to retain your full-time officers?”, even though all respondents stated that officers leave for more opportunities in other agencies, most of the respondents stated there are opportunities here that help in retention. Examples included additional assignments or what one respondent described as “collateral duties” to their assigned position, for example, instructor positions, career enrichment opportunities, sending officers to different types of training, offering more overtime, offering some flexibility on work schedules when feasible, and making women feel welcome. One respondent added that “some people do not realize what a privilege it is to work here”.

In response to the question, “What else do you think your agency can do to retain officers?”, suggestions included offering ride-a-longs for applicants so they understand what the job entails, give officers more opportunities for different or additional assignments, and help with child care issues. One respondent stated they can offer more opportunities only to a point because they cannot pull officers from core assignments. One respondent emphasized the need to do more with mentorship programs.

**The perception that some diverse applicants hired were not qualified.** The theme, the perception that some diverse applicants hired were not qualified, emerged from the interview data. Respondents indicated that it is important for management to communicate with officers what the hiring process consists of and the rationale behind the hiring process. Four respondents stated that there is a perception that some of the diverse candidates do not meet minimum selection standards or qualifications. In response to the question, “Has there been any challenges to the selection criteria?”, respondents stated although there were very few formal complaints, they have heard concerns and perceptions from other officers. These included some people get more chances in passing the academy training and field training, administration can pick whoever they want, that people get hired because of their race/ethnicity, that some applicants got hired here that could not get hired at other agencies, that the same people are on the interview panel, that people not recommended by the background investigator were hired, that the standards were lowered, and there is lack of communication regarding who is hired and why.

One respondent stated that “we also need to make sure that we continue to maintain a standard” and provided two examples. The first example acknowledged that there is a benefit of someone who can speak other languages, however, officers need to be able to speak, read, and write English because others have to be able to understand what they are saying on the radio, and secondly, reports that are poorly written can impact the credibility of the officer and the agency. Five respondents stated officers have left their agency because they were not happy with the processes for hiring, promotion, and/or selection for special positions/assignments. Two respondents explained that they have lost officers who don’t want to work with other officers who lack a competency level.

It is not known where these perceptions originate because all applicants have to meet minimum selection standards to become a police officer set by the state regulatory board. Recruiting and hiring diverse officers increases the hiring pool and is not in opposition to recruiting and hiring competent and qualified applicants. Chapter VI discusses how the role and function of police has changed and expanded and how these changes impact hiring requirements.

**The positive influence of professional organizations and associations on increasing recruiting, hiring, and retention of female officers and officers of color.** The theme, the positive influence of professional organizations and associations on increasing, hiring, and retention of female officers and officers of color resulted from the response to the questions “What professional organizations have affected your agency in recruiting and hiring diversity? Please describe how.” All seven respondents stated that there were positive outcomes from several organizations and associations, including the different racial/ethnic police organizations and associations which one respondent termed “affinity organizations” and organizations and associations for women police and chief law enforcement officers. The following are examples cited by respondents of how these organizations have helped their recruiting: the agency is promoted at the various conferences; the agency sends their officers to the various conferences; applicants have stated in their interview that a particular association told them to apply and/or helped them prepare for the interview; officers who belong to associations tell other members to apply to their agency; and openings at their agency are posted in the various publications of the different organizations. One respondent stated “there’s two reasons we’re really diverse. Number one are the affinity organizations that have been sending us great recruits, and secondly, and probably even more important than that are the cops that we have here will go back and tell their friends this is a good place to work”. Respondents cited examples where some of the

officers of color within their agency recruited others from their community to apply. One respondent added “the cops become your best tool for recruiting”.

### **Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the results of the interview data organized by nine themes. The last chapter, Chapter VI, discusses the findings and conclusions for the analysis of the four sets presented in Chapter IV and this chapter, the implications of this study, the contributions of this study to the literature, and compares the results to previous literature presented in Chapter II. Discussed last are the limitations of this study and recommendations for future research.



## **CHAPTER VI**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The purpose of this study is to describe how one police agency in the Midwest recruits, hires, and retains a representative agency and to describe what factors were important in this process. It is a descriptive, single case study that uses triangulation of multiple methods, both quantitative and qualitative, and multiple data sources to describe how the agency recruits, hires, and retains diversity. The quantitative methods include composition data from 2009 through 2017, application data from 2009 through 2016, and separation data from 2010 through mid-2017. The one qualitative method, interviews of personnel responsible for the implementation and oversight of recruiting, hiring, and retention, provided detailed descriptions from the perspectives of those involved in these practices. These detailed descriptions contribute to our understanding of how this agency increased its representation of female officers, officers of color, and officers who are fluent in languages other than English.

#### **Summary of the Findings**

The three quantitative data sets, the composition, applicant, and separation data, provided valuable information on the representation of female officers and officers of color. In addition, the data from the interviews provided in-depth explanations, descriptions, and insights of how the agency accomplished passive representation and the effects of changing demographics within their agency, which provided elements of active representation.

This study identified several factors that increased passive representation of female officers, officers of color, and officers who are fluent in languages other than English. These factors include the Human Resources Office and command staff prioritizing being reflecting of and responsive to the communities it serves, the agency setting goals for hiring and composition of female officers and officers of color (underrepresented groups), and the chief taking an active role in the hiring process, particularly in implementing changes in the application process.

It is evident from the composition, applicant, and interview data that representation of females and officers of color has increased in numbers and percentages for both applications and officers hired since the change of command staff in 2012. These increases are a result of the Human Resources Office and the agency prioritizing being reflective of its communities. This includes setting hiring goals, targeting recruiting efforts, and implementing changes in the application process.

The command staff set goals for their agency to be reflective of its communities. One goal is to have 50% of their officers from underrepresented groups for each job posting and overall composition of the agency. A second goal is that the percentages of female officers and officers of color hired are comparable to the percentages that applied. Respondents identified the role of leadership as a crucial factor for both the increases of female officers and officers of color and their agency engaging in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing. Another important factor is the role of the command staff in gaining support and cooperation from members throughout the agency, including management, supervisors, and officers.

In addition to the minimum selection standards for police officers set by the state regulatory board, all respondents discussed that their human resources office sets the standards, rules, and regulations for hiring practices. The Human Resources Office was described by

interview respondents as an Equal Opportunity Employer that has a formal Affirmative Action plan to reflect the workforce demographics of its communities. An important factor in increasing the hiring of female officers and officers of color is that the agency's employment practices are not under civil service rules. Respondents stated that many police agencies, particularly for large agencies, operate under civil service rules. Respondents clarified the influence of civil service versus their employment practices on hiring diverse applicants. They stated that under civil service rules there are rankings and an eligibility list created where candidates are hired in the order they are ranked. Instead, their agency hires eligible applicants from a pool of qualified candidates, not from a ranked order. Respondents perceived this as an important factor that increased the hiring of female applicants, applicants of color, and applicants who are fluent in languages other than English.

Another factor identified by respondents is that although their union contract influences promotional practices, the contract does not influence hiring practices. Respondents stated that within the framework established by the Human Resources Office and their union contract not influencing hiring decisions, the chief is provided with the authority and flexibility to make decisions regarding hiring practices, specifically by implementing changes to the steps in the application process. Respondents provided the following examples where this flexibility was applied: adding desired qualifications, moving the second interview from after background investigations to before background investigations; eliminating the written test; making the interviews pass/fail instead of using a ranking; having the backgrounds conducted by officers within the agency instead of contracting with investigators outside the agency; and, selecting people from diverse backgrounds to be on the oral boards.

It is also evident from the applicant and interview data that this agency places great emphasis on people skills, specifically, communication skills and possessing a community mindset. The interview data results indicated that there is a reciprocal relationship between community-oriented and problem-oriented policing and recruitment, hiring, and retention. Although the practices resulted in increasing diversity, interview respondents indicated that there were unintended negative consequences, including perceptions and concerns that some of the diverse applicants were not qualified or competent and that there was increased separation of officers for failed probation.

It is imperative that police agencies examine their hiring requirements to ensure they are predictive of the tasks police perform. Over the past several decades, the role and function of policing has expanded and evolved. These changes include a broader range of tasks, the demands of policing in a pluralistic society due to changing population demographics, the engagement of community-oriented and problem-oriented policing, and changes in the societal and political environment calling for accountability, trust and legitimacy.

As discussed in Chapter II, the theory of representative bureaucracy has evolved since its inception in the 1940s. Groeneveld and Van de Walle (2010) argue “that representative bureaucracy is a multidimensional and changing concept” (p. 239). The responses in the interview data illustrate what Stein (1986), Selden (1997), Meier et al. (1999), and Sowa and Selden (2003) claimed, that public agencies can be more responsive to the public if they are broadly representative of the public they serve. Respondents stating that their agency prioritizes being reflective of their communities also supports the assertion by Meier and Nicholson-Crotty (2006) that passive representation is an “indicator of the organization’s commitment to equal

opportunity and access to power and can promote the legitimacy of public bureaucracies” (p. 851).

Diverse police agencies that are reflective of the communities they serve are vital to community-oriented and problem-oriented policing and in repairing fractured relationships by establishing trust and a partnership with the communities. Agencies that engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing also attract more female officers and officers of color. One effect of reflective police agencies was a competency effect, identified by interview respondents who stated that female officers and officers of color possess skills that are consistent with community engagement and can help other officers understand different cultures and backgrounds. This is consistent with Sklansky’s (2006) argument that changes in police demographics result in special competencies described as “greater understanding of minority communities, and greater credibility in minority communities” (p. 1224). Another effect identified by respondents was that being reflective of its communities improves their agency’s credibility. This illustrates an example of Sklansky’s community effects where diversity within a police agency positively affects the relations with the community.

It was evident from the separation data that the rates of female officers who resigned and involuntarily separated were lower than the rates for male officers, which is contrary to the most recent research cited. The interview data regarding the perceptions on why officers have left their agency validated the data results of the separation data. In addition, the interview data added detailed information that enriches the data.

The findings from this study have several implications for this agency, the communities it serves, and for other police agencies. The results from the application data indicate that targeted recruitment and changes in the application process increased representation of female officers

and officers of color. The results suggest that the traditional selection and hiring process for police officers may negatively affect female applicants and applicants of color. It is important to note that the changes implemented in the application process still meet the requirements for police officers by the state regulatory board. This agency may use the results of this study to evaluate the future impact of the changes implemented in the recruiting and hiring practices at different stages in an officer's career. This includes assessing the impact on officer retention. The agency may also evaluate the future impact of increasing their diversity on the performance of their officers in being responsive to its communities.

Other police agencies who want to be reflective of their communities and engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing can use this case study as an example. This includes committing resources to recruiting efforts, targeting specific groups for recruitment, examining their application process and be willing to change the process to ensure that their qualifications are consistent with the skills needed to engage in community policing, and ensure that diverse officers are welcomed and respected within their agency. Those agencies where the employment practices are under civil service may still implement changes in the application process through civil service procedures dictated by state statute and local ordinances.

The literature cited in Chapter II presented ways in which passive representative bureaucracy may lead to active representative bureaucracy in some form of policy outputs, programs, and decision making that positively impact the interests of female police officers, police officers of color, and communities of color. Bradbury and Kellough (2008) and Kennedy (2014) added that a bureaucracy that is diverse will promote public policy that is more responsive and represent all interests in the formulation and implementation of policy. Benefits from a diverse agency can be the result of direct sources, or indirect sources that influence the

behaviors of others. Examples of active representation provided by respondents include having a symbolic nature of representation; achieving social equity; emphasizing the service aspects regarding the role of police, including communication skills and a community mind-set; increasing credibility, trust, and cooperation from their communities; increasing engagement of community-oriented and problem-oriented policing; improving the attitudes of the public towards the police; increasing officer's awareness, understanding, and acceptance of different cultures, backgrounds and experiences in other officers within the agency; and attracting and retaining officers who wish to engage in community policing.

### **Contributions of this Study to the Literature**

Although this case study includes only one agency, the results of the data provide a richness in detail. This research examines the various practices, factors, and variables of one police agency that recruits, hires, and retains diversity that is reflective of the communities it serves and makes several contributions to the literature. This study benefits from the triangulation of multiple data sources that strengthens reliability and validity and reduces possible response bias and interviewer bias in the interviews. This study examines full-time police officer composition data over a nine-year period from 2009 to 2017 and all applicants for full-time police officer at the case agency over an eight-year period from 2009 through 2016. This includes examining data before and after a change in command staff in 2012 to assess the impact of the changes in recruiting and hiring practices. In addition, this study examines each step in the application process to determine if certain steps in the application process result in different passing rates for males and females and the five categories of race/ethnicity.

The separation data from 2010 through mid-2017 provide information over an eight-year period and is also more current than the most recent 2008 data found in prior literature, which

includes different and/or additional factors that may influence police officer separation from 2008 to mid-2017. The results of the separation data and interview data regarding the reasons officers have left the agency and ways to retain officers can help this agency and other agencies retain officers, especially in reducing early separation of female officers and officers of color.

This study also adds to the literature by conducting qualitative in-depth interviews to capture the perspectives of those responsible for the implementation of recruiting, hiring, and retention practices in the context of a law enforcement agency. Also, the interviews provided data that could not be obtained from only the three quantitative data sets. This includes capturing the respondents' perceptions that provided validation to the three quantitative data sets. This also includes detailed descriptions and explanations of the steps in the application process, information regarding the changes implemented in the application process, and factors perceived to influence recruitment, hiring, and retention in general, and for increasing the representation of female officers and officers of color. This study also includes the complexity and combination of factors involved. This study adds to the literature by increasing our understanding of representative bureaucracy by refining, extending, and offering new insights to the theory, concepts, and prior literature, and contextualizing what factors influence recruiting, hiring, and retaining diverse police agencies.

Discussed next are the results and conclusions for the data analysis of the four data sets presented in Chapter IV and Chapter V: composition data, application data, separation data, and interview data. Then, the results of the data are compared to previous literature presented in chapter II. The chapter concludes with the limitations of this study and recommendations for future research.



## **Discussion and Conclusions for the Composition Data**

Table 4, previously presented in Chapter IV, shows that in 2009, 3.7% of the officers were female and the percentage of female officers increased each year to 17.0% in 2017. Noteworthy is that the percentage of female officers in 2017 was more than four and one-half times the percentage in 2009. The interview respondents identified that the change in command staff in 2012 was responsible for the increase in their agency's diversity by prioritizing being reflective of and responsive to the community. This led to the 60% increase in the percentage of females between 2013, 10.6%, and 2017, 17.0%. Compared to the percentage of females from the previous year, there was a 13% increase in 2013, a 11% increase in 2014, a 13% increase in 2015, a 24% increase in 2016, and a 3% increase in 2017.

The percentages of female officers can also be compared to the percentages of female officers in the U.S. previously presented in Chapter II. Almost 12% of officers in local police departments in Langton's (2010) 2007 data were female and about 12% in the 2013 LEMAS survey data (Reaves, 2015; Stevens, 2018). The percentages of female officers for 2009 through 2014 were below 12.0% and for 2015, 2016 and 2017, were more than 12.0% with 13.3%, 16.5%, and 17.0%, respectively.

Table 5, previously presented in Chapter IV, shows a 127% increase in officers of color between 2009, 13.0%, and 2017, 29.5%. In 2009, 13.0% of the agency's officers were officers of color, in 2010, the percentage of officers of color increased to 13.5%, in 2011 and 2012 the percentages decreased, and from 2013 to 2017, the percentages increased each year to 29.5% officers of color in 2017. There was a 214% increase in the percentage of officers between 2013, 10.6%, and 2017, 29.5%. Compared to the percentage of officers of color from the previous year, there was a 13% increase in 2013, an 89% increase in 2014, a 28% increase in 2015, a 14%

increase in 2016, and a 0.7% increase in 2017. The command staff's priority of diversifying the agency and the chief implementing changes in the application process discussed for the increase of females also likely contributed to the increase in officers of color starting in 2013. Adding fluency in languages other than English as a desired qualification in the 2013 through 2016 job postings and working with diverse populations as a desired qualification in the 2014 through 2016 postings also likely contributed to increasing the percentages of officers of color.

The percentages of officers of color within the agency can also be compared to 27% of officers of color in local police departments nationwide from the 2013 LEMAS survey data cited in Chapter II (Reaves, 2015). The percentages of officers for the years 2009 through 2015 were still below 27%, but by 2016 and 2017, had exceeded the national average of 27%, with 29.3% and 29.5%, respectively.

The data in Table 6, discussed in Chapter IV, can be compared to the percentages for the make-up of race/ethnicity in the population that the case agency serves. As discussed in Chapter II, data from the 2010 Census Bureau were used to calculate the percentages for the five categories of ethnic groups used by the case agency. The percentages were 79% White, 5% Hispanic / Latino, 8% Black / African American, 6% Asian / Pacific Islander, and 0.6% American Indian / Native Alaskan. The data results from Table 6 in Chapter IV show that the agency is reflective of the communities it serves. For Hispanics / Latinos, the percentages for officers in 2009, 2010, 2014, 2015, 2016, and 2017 were more than the 5% in the population and the percentages of Hispanics and Latinos in 2011, 2012, and 2013 were just under 5%.

Noteworthy is that the agency was reflective of the city population for Hispanics and Latinos before and after the change in command staff. For Blacks / African Americans, the percentages for officers in 2014, 2015, 2016, and 2017 were more than the 8% in the population. For Asians

/ Pacific Islanders, the percentages for officers in 2016 and 2017 were more than the 6% in the population and the percentages increased after the change in command staff. For American Indians / Native Americans, in 2009, 2010, 2011, 2015, 2016, and 2017, there were more than the 0.6% in the population. Noteworthy is that the agency was reflective of population demographics before the change in command staff and the percentage increased after the change of command staff. One reason for these results in meeting population demographics may be attributed to the human resources office's effort of ensuring that its job postings are inclusive.

These results support research by Hochstedler et al. (1984), Stein (1986), Lewis (1989), Kim and Mengistu (1994), Selden (1997), Zhao and Lovrich (1998), Goode and Baldwin (2005), and Morabito and Shelley (2015), finding that the size of local minority populations is positively associated with officers of color. Possible explanations for this finding include pressure from communities of color to be more reflective of and responsive to the make-up of their communities. Another explanation extends Zhao and Lovrich's (1998) argument regarding African Americans to other communities of color, that the increase of African American officers is influenced by a larger African American population leading to more political power and influence on personnel policies and equitable hiring and promotional practices in police departments. This element was evident in respondent's statements that being reflective of and responsive to their communities is a priority set by the command staff and integrated throughout the agency.

### **Discussion and Conclusions for the Application Data**

There was a total of 13 job postings, seven job postings open to both external and internal applicants and six job postings open only to internal employees. The seven postings open to both external and internal applicants were in 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016.

The six postings open only to internal applicants were from 2011 through 2015 and are grouped together for analysis because of the small number of applicants.

Discussed first are the seven postings open to external and internal applicants, including the percentages of female applicants and applicants of color for each step of the application process and the differences between the percentages of females and applicants of color who applied and who were hired. This discussion includes the impact of the different steps in the application process on female applicants and applicants of color, the impact of the changes implemented in the application process on female applicants and applicants of color, and the implications of the results. Discussed last are the results and implications of the data results for the six postings open only to internal applicants.

Tables 96-101 compiled data presented in Chapter IV which shows the percentages of female applicants and applicants of color who passed each step of the application process from application to hiring for the seven postings open to external and internal applicants from 2009 through 2016.

### **Overview of Applicant Data**

The following is an overview of the percentages of female applicants and applicants of color, including the differences between the percentage of females and applicants of color who applied and who were hired for each posting. For female applicants, as Table 96 presents, there were two postings that showed a decrease in the percentage hired compared to the percentage who applied. In 2010, 11.5% females applied but no females were hired and in 2016, 14.5% females applied and 13.3% were hired. For the other five postings, the highest increase from application to hiring was in 2009 where 13.0% females applied and 33.3% were hired. In 2011

and 2013, there were about twice the number of females hired, 20.0% and 23.1% compared to females who applied, 10.7% and 11.6%.

In examining the increase of female applicants, in addition to examining percentages, it is important to examine the number or frequency of female applicants presented in Tables 7, 15, 25, 37, 47, 57, and 67 previously presented in Chapter IV. The number of female applicants was similar for the 2009 through 2012 postings, with 52, 56, 46, and 51 female applicants, respectively, increased to 74 in the 2013 posting, increased to 81 in the 2014 posting, and decreased to 46 female applicants in the 2016 posting. There were only 317 applicants who applied for the 2016 posting. This is consistent with interview respondents stating that applications were down for their agency and for other agencies due to social and community pressure. Even though the total number of applicants decreased for the 2016 posting, the 15% of female applicants is only one percent lower than the previous posting. The increase in both the numbers and percentages of female officers are likely attributed to the targeted recruiting efforts and the changes in the application process.

For applicants of color, Table 96 presents the two postings where the percentages of applicants of color hired were lower than the percentages of applicants of color who applied. In 2009, 20.5% applicants of color applied and 13.4% were hired, and in 2011, 16.5% applicants of color applied but no applicants of color were hired. The other five postings showed an increase in applicants hired compared to the percentages who applied. For the posting in 2010, there was an increase of the percentage of applicants of color hired, 20.0%, compared to the percentage who applied, 16.8%. For the postings in 2012 and 2014, there were more than twice the percentages hired, 40.7% and 55.0%, compared to the percentages who applied, 19.8% and

25.8%. For the postings in 2013 and 2016, there were almost twice the percentages of applicants of color hired, 46.2% and 60.0%, compared to the percentages who applied, 25.8% and 34.1%.

Table 96. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants.

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2016
Application							
Females	13.0%	11.5%	10.7%	10.0%	11.6%	15.7%	14.5%
AOC	20.5%	16.8%	16.5%	19.8%	25.8%	25.8%	34.1%
Qualifications							
Females	9.7%	7.9%	11.5%	10.7%	10.1%	14.1%	10.4%
AOC	13.9%	5.3%	15.2%	18.0%	31.3%	41.2%	51.9%
Written Test							
Females	None	None	18.5%	11.8%	13.2%	None	None
AOC			7.4%	18.7%	33.4%		
Interview 1							
Females	10.9%	9.1%	11.1%	9.1%	15.4%	15.7%	11.1%
AOC	15.6%	9.1%	5.6%	20.7%	36.8%	41.0%	53.4%
BI, I2, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	33.3%	0.0%	20.0%	-----	-----	-----	-----
AOC	13.4%	20.0%	0.0%	-----	-----	-----	-----
I2, BI, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	-----	-----	-----	14.8%	23.1%	20.0%	13.3%
AOC	-----	-----	-----	40.7%	46.2%	55.0%	60.0%

Applicants, AOC=Applicants of Color

Hiring 1 = The following order in the hiring step: Background Investigation (BI), Interview 2 (I2), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

Hiring 2 = The following order in the hiring step: Interview 2 (I2), Background Investigation (BI), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

In examining the increase of applicants of color, in addition to examining percentages, it is important to examine the number or frequencies of applicants of color presented in Tables 8, 16, 26, 38, 48, 58, and 68 in Chapter IV. The number of applicants of color was 82, 82, and 72 for the postings in 2009 through 2011, increased to 101 in the 2012 posting, increased to 165 in the 2013 posting, decreased to 133 in the 2014 posting, and decreased to 108 in the 2016 posting.

This decrease in 2016 was a result in the decrease of total applicants as discussed and the 34% of applicants of color who applied in 2016 was highest percentage for all the postings. Even though the number of applicants of color decreased for the 2014 and 2016 postings, the percentages increased to 55% and 60% respectively. The increase in both the numbers and percentages of officers of color are likely attributed to the targeted recruiting efforts and the changes in the application process.

As previously stated, there was a change in the command staff in 2012. One way to assess the impact of the changes in the application process implemented by the command staff after 2012 is to compare the percentages of female applicants and applicants of color in the steps of the application process in the postings before and after the change of command staff in 2012. When the changes were made also needs to be taken into consideration. The postings that included these changes resulting from the change in command staff were the 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings. The 2012 posting closed at the end of 2012 and the steps in the application process took place in early 2013. The 2013 posting closed in early 2014 and the steps in the application process took place in 2014. The 2014 posting closed towards the end of 2014 and the steps in the application process took place at the end of 2014. This information was verified by the list and description of the steps and the order of the steps in the job announcements and the application data, the respondent's descriptions of the steps in the interviews, and confirming this information with a member of the management team. The increase in the numbers and percentages are likely attributed to targeted recruiting and the changes implemented in the application process.

## **The Impact of Changes in the Hiring Process on Increasing Diversity**

The following section discusses four changes in the application process that were identified as resulting from the change in command staff in 2012 and their impact on the recruitment and hiring of female officers and officers of color at the case agency. The first change is moving the second interview from after background investigations to before background investigations in the 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings. The second change is the addition of desired qualifications, fluency in languages other than English in the 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings and experience working with diverse populations in the 2014 and 2016 postings. The third change is elimination of the written test in the 2014 and 2016 postings. The fourth change are two changes in the background investigations that took effect in the 2014 and 2016 postings and are covered as one change. Background investigations were conducted by officers within the agency instead of being contracted with background investigators from outside the agency as was the case in the previous postings. Also, before the 2014 and 2016 postings, background investigators had the ability to eliminate applicants and this was changed to background investigator making recommendations not to hire, and if they do not recommend an applicant to be hired, they are required to state the reason why they do not recommend an applicant to be hired. Thus, this decision whether or not to hire based on the background was moved to the command staff and hiring manager instead of the background investigator.

### **The First Change - Moving the Second Interview to Before the Background Investigation**

The first change in the application process discussed is moving the second interview from after background investigations to before background investigations in the 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings. All respondents in the interviews indicated that this change affected who was hired. Terms used to describe this change were “the list starts over” and “scores are reset at 0”.



The descriptions from respondents provided clarity and explanations for why this was the case. One respondent stated that “because what the interview panel looks for [in the first interview], is this person likely to be a good cop in a very general sense” and what the second interview “looks for, is will this person be a good cop here ... they’re different sets of criteria”. The content of the five questions command staff asked the applicants in the second interview, previously discussed in Chapter V, are consistent with interview respondents stating that the qualifications and skills applicants should possess include good communication skills, being ethical, having integrity, having a community mind-set, and having experience working with diverse communities. Noteworthy is that the respondents’ list is also consistent with the skills and qualifications necessary to engage in community policing.

Respondents stated that moving background investigation to after the second interview changed what most agencies historically have done. In addition to increasing female applicants and applicants of color hired, moving the second interview to before background investigations sped up the hiring process because it reduced the number of backgrounds and the time it took to make a conditional offer to candidates.

Noted in bold print in Table 97 below are the postings showing where the second interview is located in the order of the application process. In the 2009, 2010, and 2011 postings, there were 33.3%, 0.0%, and 20.0% female applicants hired, respectively, and in the 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings, there were 14.8%, 23.1%, 20.0%, and 13.3% female applicants hired respectively. The postings with the second interview after background investigations shows a wider range in the percentages, 0.0% to 33.3%, compared to the postings with the second interview before background investigations, 14.8% to 23.1%.

In the 2009, 2010, and 2011 postings, there were 13.4%, 20.0%, and 0.0% applicants of color hired, respectively, and in the 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings, there were 40.7%, 46.2%, 55.0%, and 60.0% applicants of color hired, respectively. The postings with the second interview after background investigations show a range of 0.0% to 20.0%, compared to a range of 40.7% to 60.0% in the postings with the second interview before background investigations. The percentage for applicants of color hired increased by more than 20% in the 2012 posting from the 2011 posting, and increased in the 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings. This suggests that the change in the second interview likely influenced the increase of more than 20% in the percentage of applicants of color observed in the 2012 posting. The 2013 posting also added fluency in languages other than English as a desired qualification, so this change may have also influenced the increase of applicants of color at the qualifications step through the remaining steps in the hiring process. There were also three other changes in the application process for both the 2014 and 2016 postings that may also have influenced the increase in applicants of color, adding experience working with diverse populations as a desired qualification, the changes in the background investigations, and eliminating the written test. These results suggest a combined effect of the changes to account for the increase of applicants hired in the 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings.

Table 97. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – First Change.

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2016
Application							
Females	13.0%	11.5%	10.7%	10.0%	11.6%	15.7%	14.5%
AOC	20.5%	16.8%	16.5%	19.8%	25.8%	25.8%	34.1%
Qualifications							
Females	9.7%	7.9%	11.5%	10.7%	10.1%	14.1%	10.4%
AOC	13.9%	5.3%	15.2%	18.0%	31.3%	41.2%	51.9%
Written Test							
Females	None	None	18.5%	11.8%	13.2%	None	None
AOC			7.4%	18.7%	33.4%		
Interview 1							
Females	10.9%	9.1%	11.1%	9.1%	15.4%	15.7%	11.1%
AOC	15.6%	9.1%	5.6%	20.7%	36.8%	41.0%	53.4%
BI, I2, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	<b>33.3%</b>	<b>0.0%</b>	<b>20.0%</b>	----	----	----	----
AOC	<b>13.4%</b>	<b>20.0%</b>	<b>0.0%</b>	----	----	----	----
I2, BI, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	----	----	----	<b>14.8%</b>	<b>23.1%</b>	<b>20.0%</b>	<b>13.3%</b>
AOC	----	----	----	<b>40.7%</b>	<b>46.2%</b>	<b>55.0%</b>	<b>60.0%</b>

Applicants, AOC=Applicants of Color

Hiring 1 = The following order in the hiring step: Background Investigation (BI), Interview 2 (I2), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

Hiring 2 = The following order in the hiring step: Interview 2 (I2), Background Investigation (BI), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

### The Second Change - Addition of Desired Qualifications

As noted previously in Chapter IV, fluency in languages other than English was added in the 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings, and experience working with diverse populations was added in the 2014 and 2016 postings. There were three methods used to assess how these two additional desired qualifications impacted the percentage of applicants of color. The first method is examining the data for the three postings that added the first desired qualification, fluency in other languages besides English, 2013, 2014, and 2016, which also includes the two postings that

added the second desired qualification, experience working with diverse populations. As presented in bold print in Table 98 below, for the postings in 2013, 2014, and 2016, the percent of applicants of color who passed the qualifications review increased to 31.3%, 41.2%, and 51.9%, from the percent of applicants of color in the previous step, applications, 25.8%, 25.8%, and 34.1% respectively. These increases for the three postings, 5.5%, 15.4%, and 17.8%, suggests that the first desired qualification influenced the increase observed in the 2013 posting, and the increases of more than three times observed in the 2014 and 2016 posting likely were influenced by the addition of both desired qualifications.

As presented in bold print in Table 98 below, a second way to examine the impact of the addition of desired qualifications is comparing the percentages of applicants of color who passed the qualifications step in the postings that did not include these two desired qualifications, 13.9% in the 2009 posting, 5.3% in the 2010 posting, 15.2% in the 2011 posting, and 18.0% in the 2012 posting, to the percentages of applicants of color who passed the previous step, application, in the same postings, 20.5%, 16.8%, 16.5%, and 19.8%, respectively. In all four postings, the percentages of applicants who passed the qualifications step was lower than the percentages in the previous step, application. This is contrary to the increases observed between the two steps for all three of the postings in 2013, 2014, and 2014. This also suggests that the addition of these two desired qualifications influenced these increases.

Also presented in bold print in Table 98 below, a third way to examine the impact of these desired qualifications is comparing the percentage of applicants of color who passed the qualifications step in the postings where these two desired qualifications were not present, the 2009 posting, 13.9%, the 2010 posting, 5.3%, the 2011 posting, 15.2%, and the 2012 posting, 18.0%, to the postings where the desired qualifications were added, the 2013 posting, 31.3%, the

2014 posting, 41.2%, and the 2016 posting, 51.9%. The range for the percentage of applicants of color is 5.3% to 18.0% for the postings before the two desired qualifications were added compared to the range of 31.3% to 51.9% for the postings where the two desired qualifications were added. This also suggests that these desired qualifications positively influenced the increases observed. Respondents also indicated that there are symbolic and practical effects of officers of color and officers who are fluent in languages other than English by increasing the agency's credibility and improving relationships with communities of color.

Table 98. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – Second Change.

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2016
Application							
Females	13.0%	11.5%	10.7%	10.0%	11.6%	15.7%	14.5%
AOC	<b>20.5%</b>	<b>16.8%</b>	<b>16.5%</b>	<b>19.8%</b>	<b>25.8%</b>	<b>25.8%</b>	<b>34.1%</b>
Qualifications							
Females	9.7%	7.9%	11.5%	10.7%	10.1%	14.1%	10.4%
AOC	<b>13.9%</b>	<b>5.3%</b>	<b>15.2%</b>	<b>18.0%</b>	<b>31.3%</b>	<b>41.2%</b>	<b>51.9%</b>
Written Test							
Females	None	None	18.5%	11.8%	13.2%	None	None
AOC			7.4%	18.7%	33.4%		
Interview 1							
Females	10.9%	9.1%	11.1%	9.1%	15.4%	15.7%	11.1%
AOC	15.6%	9.1%	5.6%	20.7%	36.8%	41.0%	53.4%
BI, I2, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	33.3%	0.0%	20.0%	----	----	----	----
AOC	13.4%	20.0%	0.0%	----	----	----	----
I2, BI, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	----	----	----	14.8%	23.1%	20.0%	13.3%
AOC	----	----	----	40.7%	46.2%	55.0%	60.0%

Applicants, AOC=Applicants of Color

Hiring 1 = The following order in the hiring step: Background Investigation (BI), Interview 2 (I2), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

Hiring 2 = The following order in the hiring step: Interview 2 (I2), Background Investigation (BI), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

### **The Third Change - Elimination of the Written Test**

The 2009, 2010, 2014, and 2016 postings did not include a written test and the 2011, 2012, and 2013 postings had a written test as one of the steps in the application process. Eliminating the written test was one of the changes implemented by the chief in 2012. It is interesting to note that the postings in 2009 and 2010 also did not include a written test which occurred under the previous command staff.

Reasons why respondents stated the written test was eliminated included the written test was not a good indicator of performance, eliminated applicants who possess the skills they are looking for and diverse applicants, and decreased the numbers of the applicant pool going into the first interview. Three respondents expressed concerns that the written test assessed cognitive abilities and the aptitude to learn and added that they did not know of a different test to assess these.

There were two analyses utilized to address the impact of the written test on female applicants and applicants of color. The first analysis examines the data in the three postings that included a written test, 2011, 2012, and 2013. As presented in bold print in Table 99 below, the percentages of females and applicants of color who passed the previous step, the qualifications review, are compared to the percentage of females and applicants of color who passed the written test. In the 2011, 2012, and 2013 postings, the percentages of female applicants who passed the qualifications step, 11.5%, 10.7%, and 10.1%, increased to 18.5%, 11.8%, and 13.2%, respectively, of females who passed the written test. These results demonstrate that female applicants did better than males on the written test. In the 2011 posting, the percentage of applicants of color who passed the qualifications step, 15.2%, decreased by about 50% to 7.4% who passed the written test. In contrast, the percentages increased slightly for the 2012 and 2013

postings to 18.4% and 33.4% from 18.0% and 31.3%, respectively. More than half of the applicants were eliminated by the written test in the 2011 posting. However, for the 2012 and 2013 postings, this was reduced to eliminating only 0.4% and 2.1%, respectively. This is interesting because this is contrary to the perceptions of three respondents who perceived that the written test eliminated applicants of color. In the 2011 posting, almost 50% of the applicants of color from the previous step were eliminated by the written test, however, the percent of applicants of color increased by 4% and 7% in the 2012 and 2013 posting, respectively.

Table 99. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – Third Change – First Analysis.

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2016
Application							
Females	13.0%	11.5%	10.7%	10.0%	11.6%	15.7%	14.5%
AOC	20.5%	16.8%	16.5%	19.8%	25.8%	25.8%	34.1%
Qualifications							
Females	9.7%	7.9%	<b>11.5%</b>	<b>10.7%</b>	<b>10.1%</b>	14.1%	10.4%
AOC	13.9%	5.3%	<b>15.2%</b>	<b>18.0%</b>	<b>31.3%</b>	41.2%	51.9%
Written Test							
Females	None	None	<b>18.5%</b>	<b>11.8%</b>	<b>13.2%</b>	None	None
AOC			<b>7.4%</b>	<b>18.7%</b>	<b>33.4%</b>		
Interview 1							
Females	10.9%	9.1%	11.1%	9.1%	15.4%	15.7%	11.1%
AOC	15.6%	9.1%	5.6%	20.7%	36.8%	41.0%	53.4%
BI, I2, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	33.3%	0.0%	20.0%	----	----	----	----
AOC	13.4%	20.0%	0.0%	----	----	----	----
I2, BI, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	----	----	----	14.8%	23.1%	20.0%	13.3%
AOC	----	----	----	40.7%	46.2%	55.0%	60.0%

Applicants, AOC=Applicants of Color

Hiring 1 = The following order in the hiring step: Background Investigation (BI), Interview 2 (I2), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

Hiring 2 = The following order in the hiring step: Interview 2 (I2), Background Investigation (BI), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

The second analysis to assess the effects of the written test on female applicants and applicants of color is comparing the percentages of female applicants and applicants of color who passed the qualifications step for the postings that did not include a written test, 2009, 2010, 2014, and 2016, to the percentages of female applicants and applicants of color who passed the written test for the postings that included a written test, 2011, 2012, and 2013, which are presented in bold print in Table 100 below. For the postings that did not include a written test, the percentages of female applicants who passed the qualifications step ranged from 7.9% to 14.1% and the percentages of female applicants who passed the written test ranged from 11.8% to 18.5%. These results confirm the findings from the other comparison above, that females do better than males on the written test. For the postings that did not include a written test, the percentages of applicants of color who passed the qualifications step ranged from 5.3% to 51.9% and the percentages of applicants of color who passed the written test ranged from 7.4% to 33.4%. The range for applicants of color who passed the written test is narrower, 26.0%, than the range for applicants of color who passed the qualifications step, 46.6%, however the range for applicants of color who passed the written step falls within the range for applicants of color who passed the qualifications step. This suggests that even though some applicants of color are eliminated, the impact on applicants of color does not appear to be a disproportionate impact. Also, as noted above, the increase to 41.2% in the 2014 posting and 51.9% in the 2016 postings for applicants of color occurred in qualifications step, which were likely influenced by the addition of the desired qualifications.



Table 100. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants - Third Change – Second Analysis.

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2016
Application							
Females	13.0%	11.5%	10.7%	10.0%	11.6%	15.7%	14.5%
AOC	20.5%	16.8%	16.5%	19.8%	25.8%	25.8%	34.1%
Qualifications							
Females	<b>9.7%</b>	<b>7.9%</b>	11.5%	10.7%	10.1%	<b>14.1%</b>	<b>10.4%</b>
AOC	<b>13.9%</b>	<b>5.3%</b>	15.2%	18.0%	31.3%	<b>41.2%</b>	<b>51.9%</b>
Written Test							
Females	None	None	<b>18.5%</b>	<b>11.8%</b>	<b>13.2%</b>	None	None
AOC			<b>7.4%</b>	<b>18.7%</b>	<b>33.4%</b>		
Interview 1							
Females	10.9%	9.1%	11.1%	9.1%	15.4%	15.7%	11.1%
AOC	15.6%	9.1%	5.6%	20.7%	36.8%	41.0%	53.4%
BI, I2, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	33.3%	0.0%	20.0%	----	----	----	----
AOC	13.4%	20.0%	0.0%	----	----	----	----
I2, BI, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	----	----	----	14.8%	23.1%	20.0%	13.3%
AOC	----	----	----	40.7%	46.2%	55.0%	60.0%

Applicants, AOC=Applicants of Color

Hiring 1 = The following order in the hiring step: Background Investigation (BI), Interview 2 (I2), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).  
Hiring 2 = The following order in the hiring step: Interview 2 (I2), Background Investigation (BI), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

### The Fourth Change - Changes in the Background Investigations

The 2014 and 2016 postings included the background investigations being conducted in-house instead of being contracted from outside the agency. One respondent described the previous process of background investigations being conducted from officers outside the agency as “thorough but eliminated candidates who were recruited” for this agency. Three respondents also stated having background investigation conducted by officers within the agency may help retain officers because it provides officers with an opportunity to perform additional duties.

The previous process also allowed background investigators to eliminate candidates, which was changed to background investigators making recommendations to not hire instead of their ability to eliminate candidates, and if they recommended an applicant not to be hired, they were required to state the reason why. This change moved the decision whether or not to eliminate applicants in the background investigation from the background investigator to the command staff and hiring manager. This allowed for consideration of the circumstances for each applicant. Several respondents stated that they support this change because if people made a mistake and grow from that mistake, they should not be automatically eliminated.

Table 101. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Hired for Full-time Police Officer by each Step in the Application Process from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants – Fourth Change.

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2016
Application							
Females	13.0%	11.5%	10.7%	10.0%	11.6%	15.7%	14.5%
AOC	20.5%	16.8%	16.5%	19.8%	25.8%	25.8%	34.1%
Qualifications							
Females	9.7%	7.9%	11.5%	10.7%	10.1%	14.1%	10.4%
AOC	13.9%	5.3%	15.2%	18.0%	31.3%	41.2%	51.9%
Written Test							
Females	None	None	18.5%	11.8%	13.2%	None	None
AOC			7.4%	18.7%	33.4%		
Interview 1							
Females	10.9%	9.1%	11.1%	9.1%	15.4%	<b>15.7%</b>	<b>11.1%</b>
AOC	15.6%	9.1%	5.6%	20.7%	36.8%	<b>41.0%</b>	<b>53.4%</b>
BI, I2, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	33.3%	0.0%	20.0%	----	----	----	----
AOC	13.4%	20.0%	0.0%	----	----	----	----
I2, BI, ME, DS, PE, H							
Females	----	----	----	14.8%	23.1%	<b>20.0%</b>	<b>13.3%</b>
AOC	----	----	----	40.7%	46.2%	<b>55.0%</b>	<b>60.0%</b>

Applicants, AOC=Applicants of Color

Hiring 1 = The following order in the hiring step: Background Investigation (BI), Interview 2 (I2), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

Hiring 2 = The following order in the hiring step: Interview 2 (I2), Background Investigation (BI), Medical Examination (ME), Drug Screen (DS), Psychological Evaluation (PE), Hired (H).

These two changes are difficult to assess because the background investigation is part of the hiring step, so it cannot be isolated from the second interview, medical examination, drug screen, and psychological evaluation. As presented in Table 101, these two changes possibly contributed to the increases observed from the previous step, the first interview, increases of 27% in the 2014 posting and 20% in the 2016 posting for female applicants, and increases of 34% in the 2014 posting and 12% in the 2016 posting for applicants of color.

### **The Impact of the Changes in the Application Process on the Hiring Goals for the Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants**

Another method used to assess the impact of the changes in the application process on female applicants and applicants of color is determining whether the hiring goals identified and described during the interviews were met. As discussed in Chapter V, one of the hiring goals implemented by the current command staff was hiring at least 50% from underrepresented populations, which includes women and people of color. As described in Chapter V, one respondent explained that females are included in “Underrepresented Groups” because females are underrepresented in law enforcement. The percentage presented for Underrepresented Groups hired for each job posting was calculated by adding the percentages of females hired to the percentages of persons of color hired for each job posting. Females of color were counted for both females and persons of color. As presented in bold print in Table 102, the percentages of Underrepresented Groups hired from the 2009 posting was just under 50% with 46.9%, the 2010 and 2011 postings were considerably less than 50% with 20% for both postings, the 2012 posting was 55.5%, the 2013 posting was 69.3%, the 2014 posting was 75.0%, and the 2016 posting was 73.3%. The hiring goal of 50% from Underrepresented Groups was met in the 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016 postings with 55.5%, 69.3%, 75%, and 73.3%, respectively, was just under the goal in

the 2009 posting with 46.9%, and considerably lower than the goal in both the 2010 and 2011 postings with 20% for both postings. It is important to note that the percentages of females hired is considerably lower than the percentages of persons of color hired.

Respondents stated in the interviews that diversifying their agency was a priority with the current command staff as of 2012. The increases in females and persons of color hired observed in all four of the postings after the change of the command staff, are likely a result of the command staff prioritizing diversity and implementing changes in the application process to meet this goal. It is interesting that the 46.9% of females and persons of color from the 2009 posting was under the previous command staff. As stated previously, the 2012 posting closed at the end of 2012 and the application process took place in 2013 which was after the change in command staff. The second interview was moved to before the background investigation in the 2012 posting, which also likely influenced the increase in Underrepresented Groups by 30% from the 2010 and 2011 postings.

Table 102. Percent of Underrepresented Groups Applied and Hired for Full-time Police Officer from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants.

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2016
Females							
Applied	13.0%	11.5%	10.7%	10.0%	11.6%	15.7%	14.5%
Hired	33.3%	0.0%	20.0%	14.8%	23.1%	20.0%	13.3%
Persons of Color							
Applied	20.5%	16.8%	16.5%	19.8%	25.8%	25.8%	34.1%
Hired	13.4%	20.0%	0.0%	40.7%	46.2%	55.0%	60.0%
Underrepresented Groups							
Applied	33.5%	28.3%	27.2%	29.8%	37.4%	41.5%	48.6%
Hired	<b>46.7%</b>	<b>20.0%</b>	<b>20.0%</b>	<b>55.5%</b>	<b>69.3%</b>	<b>75.0%</b>	<b>73.3%</b>

Underrepresented Groups include females and persons of color

The second goal identified during the interviews was to hire the same percentages of female officers and officers of color as the percentages who applied. For females hired, the bold print in Table 103 shows that this second goal was met for every posting except for two postings. In the 2010 posting, 11.5% females applied but none were hired, and in the 2016 posting, 14.5% applied and 13.3% were hired, which was a slight decrease of 1.2%. For applicants of color hired, this second goal was not met in the 2009 or 2011 postings where 20.5% and 16.5% applied and 13.4% and 0.0% were hired, respectively. The postings in 2010, 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2016 met this second goal. For the postings from 2012 on, the percentage of applicants of color hired was just less than twice to more than twice that of the percentage who applied. These increases were likely influenced by the changes in the application process.

Table 103. Percent of Females and Persons of Color Applied and Hired for Full-time Police Officer from the 2009 through 2016 Postings Open to External and Internal Applicants.

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Females								
Applied	<b>13.0%</b>	<b>11.5%</b>	<b>10.7%</b>	<b>10.0%</b>	<b>11.6%</b>	<b>15.7%</b>	N/A	<b>14.5%</b>
Hired	<b>33.3%</b>	<b>0.0%</b>	<b>20.0%</b>	<b>14.8%</b>	<b>23.1%</b>	<b>20.0%</b>		<b>13.3%</b>
Persons of Color								
Applied	<b>20.5%</b>	<b>16.8%</b>	<b>16.5%</b>	<b>19.8%</b>	<b>25.8%</b>	<b>25.8%</b>	N/A	<b>34.1%</b>
Hired	<b>13.4%</b>	<b>20.0%</b>	<b>0.0%</b>	<b>40.7%</b>	<b>46.2%</b>	<b>55.0%</b>		<b>60.0%</b>
Underrepresented Groups								
Applied	33.5%	28.3%	27.2%	29.8%	37.4%	41.5%	N/A	48.6%
Hired	46.7%	20.0%	20.0%	55.5%	69.3%	75.0%	N/A	73.3%

Underrepresented Groups include females and persons of color

The increase in hiring applicants of color is also observed in Table 80 previously presented in Chapter IV, which presents the applicants of color by the frequency (n) and percentage of applicants hired for each of the five ethnic groups for full-time police officer from the 2009 to 2016 postings. At least 1 Hispanic / Latino was hired in five of the seven years, at

least 1 Black / African American was hired in five of the seven years, at least 1 Asian / Pacific Islander was hired in four of the seven years, and at least 1 American Indian / Alaskan Native was hired in two of the seven years. The highest number of the four non-White groups were Blacks / African Americans with 7 in 2012. The highest percentage of the four non-White groups were Asians / Pacific Islanders with 33.3% hired in the 2016 posting, followed by Blacks / African Americans with 26.7% also in the 2016 posting. For Blacks / African Americans hired, there was a 20% increase between the 2009 and 2016 postings. For Asians / Pacific Islanders, there was an increase between the 2012 and 2016 postings with none hired in the 2009, 2010, and 2011 postings. There were only two postings where American Indians / Alaskan Natives were hired, 2013 and 2016. The increases in numbers and percentages of officers of color hired starting in the 2012 postings compared to the previous postings suggests a positive influence. Only one change in the application process was implemented in the 2012 posting, moving the second interview from after the background to before the background, which likely influenced the increase of applicants hired in the 2012 posting. Fluency in languages other than English as a desired qualification was implemented in the 2013 posting, experience working with diverse populations as a desired qualification, the two changes in the background process, moving investigations in-house and removing backgrounders ability to eliminate candidates to making recommendations, were implemented in the 2014 and 2016 postings. These changes likely had a combined influence on the increase of applicants of color hired.

One other change discussed by respondents in the interviews was the change in the make-up of the interview panels in the first interview. Some respondents indicated there was a perception of losing candidates in the first interview as influencing the need to diversify the interview panel. That was illustrated by one respondent stating that they were told that panel

members had to be subject matter experts and replied that “the subject matter they’re experts on is being in the community”. It was difficult to assess the impact of this change because it cannot be determined what panels were used for each posting because there were more than one panel used for each posting. Also, who was selected to be on the panels depended on the availability of work schedules.

### **The 2011 to 2015 Postings for Full-time Police Officer Internal Only Applicants**

There were six postings from 2011 to 2015 for internal employees only for the position of full-time police officer as previously discussed in Chapter IV. All six postings for internal postings are grouped together in reporting the frequencies and percentages by gender and ethnic group due to the low number of applications. There were 39 applications received for the internal postings. As presented in Tables 81 and 82 in Chapter IV, there were 12.8% female applicants and 38.5% applicants of color, with all four non-White Ethnic Groups represented.

There were 14 applicants hired from the six postings for internal employees only. As presented in Table 83 and 84 in Chapter IV, there were 28.6% of female applicants hired which was more than twice the percentage of females who applied, 12.8%. There were 14.3% of applicants of color hired, which was almost one-third less than applicants of color who applied, 38.5%.

Table 85 previously presented in Chapter IV compared the frequencies and percentages of female applicants and applicants of color hired for postings open to external and internal applicants to the postings for internal applicants only. For the postings open to all applicants, 19 (19.0%) of the applicants hired were female, and for the postings open only to internal employees, 4 (28.6%) of the applicants hired were female. For the postings open to all

applicants, 40 (40.0%) of the applicants hired were applicants of color, and for the postings open only to internal employees, 2 (14.3%) of the applicants hired were applicants of color.

These results suggest that internal only postings benefit female applicants but not applicants of color. Although the percentage of applicants of color hired was lower than the percentage of applicants of color who applied for the postings open only to internal employees, there are benefits of having postings open only to internal employees. Respondents stated in the interviews that their agency may lose applicants to other agencies that offer them the job first. Having internal only postings may be offered between postings open to external and internal postings, thus applicants do not have to wait as long to apply. Also, due to the small size of the applicant pool in the internal only postings, the application process takes considerably less time so this likely reduces applicants receiving an offer from another agency during the time it takes to get through the application process. Another benefit of internal postings is that because applicants work in other positions within the agency, applicants are more likely to understand what officers do in this agency and the opportunities that exist, and applicants are known within the police agency which may also shorten the time it takes to hire applicants and increase retention.

### **The Impact of the Changes in the Application Process on the Hiring Goals for the Postings Open Only to Internal Applicants**

The two hiring goals previously discussed in the postings open to external and internal applicants above were also compared to the six internal only postings from 2011 through 2015. Five of the six postings occurred in 2013 or after, thus these five postings were influenced by the changes in the application process. Table 104 shows that the goal of 50% Underrepresented Groups was met with 51.3%. The second goal, the percentage of who was hired is comparable to



the percentage who applied, was met for females, the 28.6% hired was more than twice that of who applied, 12.8%. However, this goal was not met for officers of color, with 38.5% who applied, but only 14.3% were hired.

Table 104. Percent of Females, Persons of Color, and Underrepresented Groups Applied and Hired for Full-time Police Officer Internal Only Postings from 2011 through 2015.

Type of Posting	Internal Applicants Only Postings from 2011 through 2015
Females Applied	<b>12.8%</b>
Hired	<b>28.6%</b>
Persons of Color Applied	<b>38.5%</b>
Hired	<b>14.3%</b>
Underrepresented Groups Applied	<b>51.3%</b>
Hired	<b>42.9%</b>

### **Discussion and Conclusions for Separation Data**

The discussion on the separation data includes the turnover rates for the case agency, reasons why officers have separated from the case agency, officers leaving the case agency for law enforcement positions in other agencies, female officers and officers of color leaving the case agency, and officers who left the case agency by length of service. The results of the analysis of the separation data are also compared to research cited in Chapter II.

### **Turnover Rates**

As previously discussed in Chapter IV, there are three broad categories of separation used by the case agency: Resignation, Termination, and Retirement. These three categories are parallel to the three broad categories cited in Chapter II: Voluntary Separation, Involuntary Separation, and Retirement used by Wareham et al. (2015).

The most recent research on separation and turnover rates were from Reaves (2012) and Wareham et al. (2015) using the 2003 LEMAS data and 2008 CSLLEA data. The turnover rates for the case agency are compared to the data from those two studies. Since the data from this study includes separation rates from 2010 through 2016, which is more recent than the 2003 and 2008 data, there are likely different or additional factors to explain the case agency's turnover rates, which are discussed below.

The total turnover rates from Table 86 previously presented in Chapter IV shows that the lowest turnover rate was 1.54% in 2010 and the highest rate was 11.93% in 2015. The higher turnover rates of 12.5% in 2011, 10% in the 2014, and 11.9% in 2015, may be a result of the increased number of officers hired in previous postings.

Table 105 below compares the agency's turnover rates using the same turnover indicators as Wareham et al.'s (2015) data previously discussed in Chapter II. The total turnover rate for the case agency, 8.29% is about 2.5% lower than both the total turnover rates for the 2003 LEMAS, 10.82%, and 2008 CSLLEA data, 10.76%. It is interesting that the case agency had less than half the percentage of resignations, 3.55%, compared to the 2003 LEMAS data, 7.79% and the 2008 CSLLEA data, 7.31%. The percent of normal retirements, 2.2%, was more than two times higher compared to the .92% and .90% for the 2003 and 2008 data. This could be due to some officers who reached retirement age, and some officers may have retired earlier than they planned due to changes in the pension plan in the past few years which reduced benefits for early retirement. The involuntary separations, 2.54%, was comparable to the 2003 and 2008 data.

The case agency's turnover rates presented in Table 105 are also consistent with Reaves (2012) statistics using the 2008 CSLLEA, with a turnover rate of 7.4% for state and local officers

and Stevens (2018) rates of 5% for large agencies and 5% for large agencies previously discussed in Chapter II. The total turnover rates presented in Table 105 for the case agency shows that this is consistent with the total turnover rates presented in Table 86, which are less than or about 7.0% in 2010, 2012, 2013, and 2016. There were three years where the total turnover rates were higher, 12.50% in 2011, 10.00 in 2014 and 11.93% in 2015. The average turnover rate, 8.29% is less than 1.0% higher than Reaves 7.4%.

Table 105. Agency Turnover Rates for Officers who Separated from 2010 to 2016 and the 2003 LEMAS Data and 2008 CSLLEA Data (Wareham et al., 2015) by Turnover Indicators.

Turnover Indicator	Agency Turnover Rate	2003 LEMAS Data	2008 CSLLEA Data
Resignations	3.55%	7.79%	7.31%
Retirements	2.20%	.92%	.90%
Involuntary Separations	2.54%	2.11%	2.55%
Total Turnover	8.29%	10.82%	10.76%

As discussed previously in Chapter II, the findings from Wareham et al.'s (2015) study found that geographic location, type of agency, and size of agency influenced different kinds of turnover (p. 365). As the data in Table 106 presents, there is a wide range of mean turnover rates which are dependent on geographic location, urban status, type of agency, and size of agency. The last column indicates that the mean turnover rate for the case agency, 8.29%, lies within the ranges for both the 2003 LEMAS Survey data and the 2008 CSLLEA data for region and division, urban status, and type of agency. However, the 8.29% mean turnover rate for agency size is higher than the highest percentage for both the 2003 LEMAS Survey data and the 2008 CSLLEA data.

The mean turnover rate for resignations at the case agency, 3.55%, is lower for region and division, and urban status, within the range for type of agency, and higher for agency size than the 2003 LEMAS data; and within the range for region and division, and type of agency,

lower for urban status, and just higher for agency size than the 2008 CSLLEA data. For retirements, the rate for the case agency, 2.20%, is more than two times higher for the Midwest region and division than both the 2003 and 2008 data, higher for the rates for urban status than both data sets, lies within the range for type of agency than the 2003 data, but is higher than the 2008 data, and is higher for agency size than both sets of data. The agency's mean turnover rate for involuntary separation, 2.54%, is higher than the region and division than both the 2003 and 2008 data, within the range for urban status than both data sets for type of agency, higher than the 2003 data and within the range than the 2008 data, and more than 1.0% higher for agency size than both data sets.

Overall, the agency's rates for resignations are consistent with the 2003 and 2008 data. However, there are some differences, which may be explained by the time frame covered by the agency data, 2010 through 2016. As state previously, the most recent data found for separation rates were the 2008 data. Retirements are higher but may be a result of officers reaching retirement age. Also, there were changes in the pension plan the past few years which reduced benefits for early retirement, where officers who could retire may have retired early.

Involuntary separations were higher for the case agency compared to the Midwest region and division for the two data sets, consistent for urban status and type of agency, and higher for agency size. The higher rate of failed probation likely contributed to the higher rate, including officers not passing FTO training or the period while officers are on their own during the remainder of the probationary period. The total mean turnover rate of 8.29% is consistent with region and division, urban status, and type of agency, but about 2% higher for agency size. As explained previously, this may be due to officers who have reached retirement age or who retired due to the changes in the pension plan.

Table 106. Mean Turnover Rates for the Case Agency, 2003 LEMAS Survey, and the 2008 CSLLEA Data for Geographic Location, Urban Status, Type of Agency, and Size of Agency.

Type of Turnover	Midwest Region and U.S. Division of Case Agency	Rural, Suburban, and Metro Agencies	Municipal, County, and State Agencies	Medium (50-99 Officers) and Large (100-299 Officers) Agencies	Case Agency Mean Turnover rate for 2010-2016
2003 LEMAS					
Resignations	6.1 to 9.4	4.8 to 10.6	2.2 to 8.5	2.9 to 3.1	3.55
Retirements	.3 to .9	.7 to 1.3	.9 to 2.8	1.3 to 1.8	2.20
Involuntary Separation	1.1 to 1.4	1.4 to 2.7	.9 to 2.2	1.3 to 1.4	2.54
Total Turnover	7.5 to 11.5	7.6 to 14.1	5.9 to 11.6	5.5 to 6.3	8.29
2008 CSLLEA					
Resignations	3.0 to 7.8	4.0 to 9.8	1.8 to 7.5	3.2 to 3.5	3.55
Retirements	.5 to 1.0	.8 to 1.2	.8 to 2.1	1.2 to 1.6	2.20
Involuntary Separation	.5 to 2.1	1.8 to 3.6	.9 to 2.7	1.4 to 1.5	2.54
Total Turnover	4.1 to 10.6	6.9 to 14.2	4.9 to 11.1	6.2 to 6.4	8.29

This data was compiled from data in Wareham et al.'s study (2015) and results from separation data presented in Chapter IV.

All rates are percentages.

Table 107 compares the 2008 CSLLEA data for type of separation and size of agency from Table 3 in Chapter II to the agency's percentages for types of separation. Reaves' (2012) calculations of officer separations in 2008 included 54% for resignations, 23% for non-medical retirements, 10% for dismissals, 5% for probationary rejections, and 5% for medical or disability retirements, and 4% for other, which includes disability and death (Reaves, 2012; Stevens, 2018, p. 6).

Comparing the agency data for types of separation to Reaves' (2012) data, 43.4% of the separations in the agency from 2010 through mid-2017 were resignations, which is lower than Reaves' data of 51% to 58%. The 24.5% retirements were just below Reaves' data for agencies with 100-499 officers, 26%, and higher than agencies with 25-99 officers, 18%. As explained

previously, this may be due to officers who have reached retirement age or who retired due to the changes in the pension plan.

Involuntary terminations were divided into four categories. The first category, 5.7% dismissals due to misconduct at the agency, was lower compared to the 9-11% in Reaves' (2012) data. The second category, 5.7% medical / disability retirements at the agency, was consistent with the 5% in Reaves' data. The third category, 5.7% in the "Other" category, was higher than the 3-4% in Reaves' data. The last category, probationary rejections, 15.0%, was about three times higher than the 5-6% in Reaves' data.

For the 8 officers who failed probation, 6 officers did not pass their FTO training and 2 officers passed their FTO training but were terminated before their probation expired due to performance or conduct issues. It is important to note that it is difficult to interpret this finding due to the small number of officers. This higher rate of failed probation may be an unintended consequence of the changes in the application process. One possible explanation for this higher rate may be that the recruiting and hiring process may impact applicants passing the academy and field training. Perhaps, there is a gap between qualifications for hiring and those in the academy and field training. Perhaps something was eliminated in the application process that provided screening of applicant's ability to be successful in the academy and field training. Referring to Table 90 in Chapter IV, also concerning is the number and percentage of female officers, 2 and 25%, and the number and percentage of officers of color, 4 and 50%, who failed probation. Recommendations include assigning a mentor to all officers hired to offer support before, during, and after the academy and FTO period. Offering information sessions and a ride-along with an officer for those interested in applying at their agency can also help in providing realistic expectations of the job. Future research could include examining the aspects

emphasized in the academy and FTO training compared to the qualifications and skills emphasized in the recruiting and hiring process.

Table 107. Type of Separation for the 2008 CSLLEA Data (Reaves, 2015) and Case Agency.

Type of Separation	Agencies of All Sizes	100-499 Officers	25-99 Officers	Agency Turnover
Resignation	54%	51%	58%	43.4%
Non-medical retirement	23%	26%	18%	24.5%
Dismissal	10%	9%	11%	5.7%
Probationary rejection	5%	6%	5%	15.0%
Medical/disability retirement	5%	5%	5%	5.7%
Other – Disability and death	4%	4%	3%	5.7%

This data was compiled from data in Reaves (2012) report (p. 7). Total percentages for first two columns total 101% due to rounding.

### **Police Officers who Left for another Law Enforcement Agency (Lateral Moves)**

Regarding lateral moves, using the 2008 CSLLEA data on officers who left the agency for another law enforcement position, about 45% left small agencies and about 24% left large agencies (Stevens, 2018; Reaves, 2012, p. 234). Table 88 presented in Chapter IV shows the number and percentage of officers who resigned – other position in bold print, 19, 35.9%. This falls in between Reaves’ (2012) data, 24% of officers who left for another law enforcement position from large agencies and 45% of officers who left from small agencies. This suggests that the case agency is not losing officers to other agencies compared to other agencies in the U.S. However, as stated by respondents in the interviews, there was the perception that other agencies are “poaching” their agencies away.

## **Female Officers and Officers of Color Who Left Policing**

Regarding women leaving policing, Fyfe and Kane (2006) examined attrition rates for female officers in the U.S. and found that female officers leave policing at higher rates than do male officers. They found that female officers were more likely to resign voluntarily than male officers (4.3 percent versus 3.0 percent, respectively) and that female officers were terminated involuntarily more often than male officers (1.2 percent versus 0.6 percent, respectively). As presented in Chapter IV, there were a total number of 49 officers who separated from the agency from 2010 through 2016. The 2017 separations were not included in these calculations because the data in 2017 did not include an entire year. Table 108 presents the turnover rates for male and female resignations and terminations by frequency, agency turnover rate, and Fyfe and Kane's turnover rates.

One significant finding was that the turnover rate for female officers who resigned, 0.68%, was 84% lower than Fyfe and Kane's (2006) rate of 4.3% and the turnover rate for male officers who resigned, 7.61%, was 154% higher than Fyfe and Kane's turnover rate of 3.0%. Another significant finding was that the turnover rate for female officers who were involuntarily terminated, 0.17%, was 86% lower than Fyfe and Kane's rate of 1.2%, and the turnover rate for male officers who were involuntarily terminated, 8.12%, was 1,253% higher than Fyfe and Kane's turnover rate of 0.6%. Contrary to Fyfe and Kane's results, the agency's results show that females are less likely to both resign voluntarily and be terminated involuntarily than male officers. These results for the agency are consistent with respondents who stated in their interviews that they did not perceive that female officers leave at higher rates than male officers. The data from this agency is more current, 2010 to 2016, than Fyfe and Kane's data, which could account for the contrast. A possible explanation for these differences is that there is a different



social climate for the agency than existed at the time of the 2006 data. Also, an agency that practices community policing and promotes being reflective of and responsive to its communities, are more welcoming and accepting of female officers. Thus, the agency is more successful at attracting and retaining females and has fewer females resign or terminated.

Table 108. Number and Percent of Agency Turnover Rates and Fyfe and Kane’s (2006) Study by Female and Male Resignations and Involuntary Terminations.

Turnover Indicator	Agency Frequency	Agency Turnover Rate	Fyfe & Kane (2006) Turnover Rate
Female Resignations	4	.68%	4.3%
Male Resignations	45	7.61%	3.0%
Female Involuntary Terminations	1	.17%	1.2%
Male Involuntary Terminations	48	8.12%	.6%

Using the data on the 53 officers who separated, previously presented in Table 90 in Chapter IV, the 6 females who separated were 11.3% of the total number and the 16 officers of color who separated were 30.2% of the total number. Martin (1994) concluded that the higher rate of women leaving law enforcement was due to women experiencing a “more hostile work environment” than males do (p. 398). Stevens (2018) added that “female officers who are single parents are also confronted with different problems than males in the workplace and are treated differently than male officers by their commanders as well” (p. 235). The data for this agency showing that few females leave, does not support females experiencing a hostile work environment. As stated by several respondents in the interviews, the senior command staff made an effort to welcome females. Stevens also reports that “minorities resign at higher rates than do white male officers” (p. 235). As stated in the interviews, respondents stated that only a few officers of color leave and that they perceive that overall, their retention rate is good.

## **Length of Service and Separation**

Regarding the relationship between length of service and attrition, Koper et al. (2002) found that two-thirds of the officers who leave both large and small agencies have 5 or less years of service (p. 47). Stevens (2012) also added that “officers with intermediate lengths of service (i.e., 6 to 14 years of service) are the least likely to leave both large and small agencies” (pp. 235-236). The percentage of officers who separated from the case agency with five or less years, 60.4%, is the total of the first three rows in Table 92 presented in Chapter IV and is about 6% lower than the two-thirds found by Koper et al. (2002) cited in Chapter II. The percentage of officers who separated from the agency with more than 5 years of service, 39.6%, is about 6% higher than Koper et al.’s results of one-third, which is likely due to the increase of retirements observed in the agency.

## **Important Factors in Recruiting, Hiring, and Retaining Diversity**

The changes in the application process were previously discussed under the applicant data, which is one important factor in increasing diversity within the agency. Other factors that respondents identified as important in recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity are discussed in this section.

## **Importance of the Agency being Reflective of its Communities**

The interview data indicates that a representative police agency has many benefits. All respondents stated in response to different questions, including one question asking directly about this theme, that it was important for their agency to be reflective of its community. Respondents also discussed the importance of targeted recruitment for specific groups, including females, Native Americans, Blacks and African Americans, Asians, and Latinos and Hispanics.

Several respondents stated that reaching out to diverse communities and females educates prospective applicants on what the police do.

Respondents also indicated that being representative of their communities helps educate communities of color on the role and function of their agency and increases support, trust, and credibility from the communities. This is crucial because of high profile critical incidents involving the police and communities of color. The priority of increasing diversity within their agency was also evident in the setting of the hiring and composition goals discussed previously. The data suggest that being representative of its communities helps in being responsive to its communities, which is discussed next.

### **The Relationship Between the Agency being Responsive to its Communities Through a Commitment to Community Engagement and Recruiting, Hiring, and Retaining Diversity**

All respondents indicated that it is important for their agency to be responsive to its communities through community policing. Interview data indicated that there was a reciprocal relationship between community policing and recruiting, hiring, and retaining female officers, officers of color, and officers who are fluent in languages other than English. As previously presented in Chapter V, respondents provided examples and descriptions on community engagement being a priority with their chief, and how attending community events has helped their recruiting efforts.

The influence of community policing impacting recruiting and hiring was also evident in the descriptions provided by respondents for the desired qualities, skills, and traits that applicants should possess. It is important to note that these desired skills are consistent with the traits and skills necessary for officers to engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing. All respondents indicated that personal character and traits were as important or more important than

technical knowledge and skills. This was illustrated by respondents stating what they perceived applicants should possess to successfully perform as police officers at their agency. The list includes honesty, integrity, good character, being innovative, a community service mindset, being a good communicator, a clean background, problem solving, moral courage, physical courage, ability to stand up to stress, willing to learn, trainable, and coachable. Respondents added, “anyone can become a police officer, and get trained, but it takes a passion, a calling, to be able to be in a field of service and protect and serve”, “we can take smart people and people with integrity and train the skills to be a good cop but it’s hard to train integrity, character, and community service mindset”, and we want people “who truly want to help out people that are out there to make somebody else’s day better”. It was interesting that one respondent pointed out that community policing increases recruitment and retention because their agency is doing much more community engagement than they use, and this may appeal to officers who want to practice community policing. Thus, it would be a reason to stay with this agency.

All the respondents stated communication skills were also important. Respondents provided examples to illustrate this, including the necessity for applicants to effectively speak to other people in general, calm people who are upset or suicidal, read body language, speak languages other than English, and “communicate on a variety of different levels, face-to-face, good body language, but also have high levels of linguistics and cultural competency”. In addition to the influence of community policing on recruitment and hiring diverse officers, recruitment also influences community policing. Three respondents illustrated how recruiting efforts increase community policing by educating communities about their role and function and helps build relationships with their communities by attending schools, job fairs, and community events. Respondents also emphasized the importance of others to see officers in a positive light.

## **The Impact of External Factors on the Applicant Pool**

All respondents stated there were factors external to the agency that decreased the number of applicants for their agency and other agencies in the U.S. This was evidenced by the decrease in the total number of applicants in the 2014 and 2016 postings, after the 25% increase to 640 applicants in the 2013 posting from 511 in the 2012 posting, there was a 19% decrease to 516 applicants in the 2014 posting, and an additional decrease of 39% to 317 applicants in the 2016 posting. External demands from “community or special interest groups within the community can pressure law enforcement agencies to diversify their workforce” affirmed by Schuck (2014, p. 59) is illustrated by respondents identifying the negative portrayal of police by the news, social media, and protest groups, such as Black Lives Matter as decreasing the number of applicants for police agencies in general, as well as for their agency. This is consistent with five respondents who indicated the applicant pool for police officers is down for their agency and elsewhere in the U.S., including three respondents who stated that “the hiring pool is not as deep as it was just a few years ago”, the quality of candidates has decreased, and it was “tough to recruit women everywhere”.

Respondents indicated that the time it takes to get applicants through the application process can result in losing applicants who accept the first offer. This is illustrated by one respondent who stated, “we get them into the background phase, we then realize that they’re being backgrounded at multiple agencies at the same time, so it becomes a factor that they’ll take the first job they get offered” and if your process is not quick enough, you will lose them to another agency. This agency is competing with other police agencies for candidates. There are about 65 other agencies in general proximity to the case agency that applicants may also apply.

All responses discussed external factors that influence officer separation and retention in their agency. When the respondents were asked if they knew the reasons why officers left their agency, all respondents stated that there were a variety of reasons and all respondents stated that some of the officers left because there were more opportunities at other agencies. Other reasons provided include for family or personal reasons, for example, to be closer to home, and deciding they do not want to do this job after being hired. One factor that negatively affects officer retention was that several respondents indicated they lost officers who were recruited by other agencies, with two respondents using the term “poaching” to describe what they perceived other agencies taking their officers.

### **The Influence of Organizational Factors on Recruiting, Hiring, and Retaining Diversity**

All respondents provided examples and descriptions of how organizational factors have increased recruiting, hiring, and retention. All respondents stated in their interviews that their agency has great pay, benefits, overtime, and/or pension and these were factors for increasing recruiting, hiring, and retention. All respondents asserted that the changes in the application process have increased the number of female officers and officers of color within their agency. Mentors within the agency were mentioned by two respondents, with one respondent who stated that “mentors in the organization become a part of what keeps people here” and another respondent who stated that is important to retain officers because they are needed to mentor other officers. In response to the question, “What else do you think your agency can do to attract diverse qualified candidates?”, respondents suggested signing bonuses, having a full-time person committed to coordinating recruiting and community engagement activities, and using social media to attract millennials.

All respondents stated that their union, another organizational factor, supports recruiting and hiring female officers and officers of color, that their union has worked hard for good pay, benefits, and contracts to attract candidates, and that their union has a good working relationship with management. Respondents indicated that their union contract impacts promotional practices but not hiring practices. This is important because it appears to contribute to the chief taking an active role in the hiring process, particularly implementing changes in the application process. This factor also appears to work in combination with the other factors discussed previously, the state regulatory board that sets the minimum selection standards, their Human Resources Office that sets the hiring practices, and their agency not being under civil service rules. Also emphasized was the role of the union in ensuring that management communicates the hiring process and the rationale behind the hiring process with officers. Respondents also stated that even though they have heard negative comments from officers regarding the hiring process, there have been few formal complaints with the union.

All respondents perceived that they have a low turnover rate overall. Of the officers who left, respondents perceived that most of them were White males and just a few were female officers and officers of color. One respondent offered reasons why women might leave including shift work, daycare, or are intimidated because of their size. The responses that few women and officers leave are consistent with the results of the separation data presented in chapter IV.

All respondents stated that even though officers leave for more opportunities in other agencies, most of the respondents stated there are opportunities here that help in retention. Examples included additional assignments, instructor positions, career enrichment opportunities, sending officers to different types of training, offering more overtime, and offering some

flexibility on work schedules, when feasible. One respondent added that “some people do not realize what a privilege it is to work here”.

Respondents provided suggestions that their agency could use to retain officers, including, offering ride-a-longs for applicants so they understand what the job entails, give officers more opportunities for different or additional assignments, help with child care issues, offer signing bonuses, and having a full-time person committed to coordinating recruiting and community engagement activities. One respondent stated that their agency can offer more opportunities only to a point because they cannot pull officers from core assignments. One respondent emphasized the need to do more with mentorship programs, including asking current officers to volunteer as mentors for new officers before they start the academy training, and for veteran officers to help them throughout their careers, including help in getting promoted.

### **The Perception that Some Diverse Applicants Hired were Not Qualified**

The interview data indicated that respondents have heard comments from other officers that some officers hired at this agency were not qualified. These comments included: administration can pick whoever they want despite the order of applicants after the first interview, some officers have left because they were not happy with the processes for hiring, the standards were lowered, some applicants hired at this agency could not get hired at other agencies, and some people get more chances in passing the academy training and field training, It is not known where these perceptions originate because all applicants have to meet minimum selection standards set by the state regulatory board to become a police officer. Recruiting and hiring diverse officers is not in opposition to hiring qualified and competent officers. Instead, the pool of qualified and competent police officer applicants is enhanced.



The role and function of policing has changed and expanded over the past several decades. These expanded and additional tasks police officers are expected to perform include: a broader range of tasks, the demands of policing in a pluralistic society due to the changing population demographics, the complex skill set required for officers to engage in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing, and changes in the societal and political environment calling for more accountability, trust, and legitimacy. This urges police agencies to examine their hiring requirements to ensure they are predictive of the tasks officers perform. Changes in the application process that resulted in increasing the diversity within the agency suggest that the traditional application process for police officers may unnecessarily disqualify applicants from underrepresented groups.

The questions in the first interview are different than the questions asked in the second interview, as one respondent described the first interview as assessing whether applicants possess the qualities and skills to be a police officer in general, while the second interview assesses whether applicants possess the qualities and skills to be a police officer at this agency. This explains what respondents described as “the list starts over”. The second interview addresses the skills necessary for community-oriented and problem-oriented policing which is a part of the agency’s two priorities, being reflective of and responsive to their communities. These different and/or additional skills sought in applicants may account for some officers not understanding what the hiring process is screening for and may explain why some officers perceive that the agency has lowered the standards or hires officers that do not get hired by other agencies.

The perception that some people get more chances in passing the academy and field training may be a result of applicants having difficulty with the technical skills portion of the academy and FTO process. It is not only important that the academy and field training reflect

the skills and qualifications sought in the application process, but there is an additional need of working with officers during the academy and field training to develop their technical skills.

Offering mentors can also help in understanding expectations and support during the first year.

### **The Influence of Administrative Discretion on Decisions made Regarding Recruiting and Hiring Practices**

Previously discussed were the factors that influenced the chief taking an active role in the hiring process, especially in implementing changes to the steps in the application process that resulted in increasing the representation of female officers, officers of color, and officers who are fluent in languages other than English. Besides the minimum selection standards for police officer set by the state regulatory board, all respondents discussed that their Human Resources Office sets the standards, rules, and regulations for hiring practices at the agency.

An important finding from the interview data is that the chief takes an active role in the hiring process. The discretion allowing the chief to make decisions regarding recruiting, hiring, and retention practices is a key element in changing the traditional application process to hire more female officers and officers of color. It is imperative to understand what factors contributed to the flexibility and authority by the chief to take such an active role in the hiring process. Respondents discussed that there are certain requirements that Human Resources mandate, however their agency's Human Resources Office allows flexibility in recruiting and hiring. One important factor that contributed to the chief taking an active role in the hiring process is that their Human Resources Office allows the agency flexibility regarding decisions made on recruiting and hiring practices as long as the agency can articulate the reasons why. Examples provided by respondents included adding desired qualification for fluency in languages other than English, using supplemental questions to reduce the number of applicants,

moving the background investigations to before the second interview, eliminating the written test, making the interviews pass/fail instead of using a ranking, having the backgrounds conducted by officers within the agency instead of contracting with investigators outside the agency, and selecting people from diverse backgrounds to be on the oral boards.

In addition to the Human Resources Office rules that govern the hiring process, a second important factor is that their union influences promotional practices through the Human Resources office, however, their union does not influence hiring practices. A third important factor is that their agency's employment practices are not under civil service rules. This is interesting because most police agencies in the U.S. are under civil service. Respondents described that instead of having civil service which selects the top eligible candidates in ranked order, their agency establishes a pool of eligible candidates, so candidates do not have to be taken in order. This allows for more flexibility in hiring female officers and officers of color.

### **The Influence of Affirmative Action Programs**

Prior research on the influence of Affirmative Action programs cited in Chapter II found African American representation in police agencies in the U.S. has slowly increased since early efforts to encourage social equity. The NCWP (2003b) and Schuck (2014) found that consent decrees, hiring quotas, and court-orders led to greater representation for women. Hochstedler (1984), Martin (1991), Selden (1997), and Zhao and Lovrich (1998), also found that representation of officers of color has increased as a result of efforts to encourage social equity, hiring quotas, and affirmative action policies and programs. Walker (1985) found court-ordered quotas was significant in increasing the hiring of Black officers, and Lewis (1989) found that consent decrees was one of the most powerful variables in increasing Black percentages among Black officers. Zhao and Lovrich (1998) found that one of key elements of Affirmative Action

programs is for agencies to specify “goals and timetables keyed to pools of qualified applicants” (p. 269). Walker (1985) also found that the progress in Affirmative Action may be influenced by the “quality of leadership in police departments and/or elected or appointed officials” if the political power translates a commitment to Affirmative Action.

The agency has a statement in their job postings that their agency is an Equal Opportunity employer and has a formal Affirmative Action plan. This agency is not under any consent decrees, nor do they have quotas, so the high numbers and percentages of female officers and officers of color are impressive. The results from this study are consistent with prior literature discussed in Chapter II that found Affirmative Action programs increase representative bureaucracy. The data also suggests that the results are likely in combination with other factors discussed, including, commitment from the Human Resources Office and the command staff to increase their agency’s diversity and be responsive to their communities.

### **The Influence of Structure of Government/Autonomous Personnel Bureaus/Civil Service**

The literature in Chapter II also identified structure or type of government by itself and in combination with autonomy of its personnel bureau in influencing compliance with Affirmative Action programs and employment of people of color in the U.S. (Stein, 1986). The respondents stated that their command staff prioritizes being reflective of and responsive to their communities, which includes diversifying their agency and engaging in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing. This also demonstrates that the agency is responsive to external political and social forces and the make-up of its communities, and in gaining the trust and cooperation from the different communities it serves. The structure of government also influences the structure of human resources. Stein described civil service with the aim of substituting political hiring with selection and merit, however, she noted that the restrictive

qualifications that define the merit principle “prevent many minority applicants from obtaining positions with local government” (p. 697). She noted that professional autonomous bureaus were resistant to direction from the outside and the presence of a civil service commission had a significant negative relationship on employment of people of color in large city work forces (p. 702). The results of the data support Stein’s findings, that their Human Resources Office not being under civil service rules, was a factor in increasing the agency’s representation of female officers and officers of color. Not being under civil service rules is different than for most other police agencies, especially large agencies. This factor was important in the chief’s ability to implement changes in the application process that resulted in increasing the numbers and percentages of female officers and officers of color.

### **The Influence of Professional Associations**

All seven respondents stated that there were benefits from several organizations and associations, including the different racial/ethnic police organizations and associations, organizations and associations for women police and chief law enforcement officers, and athletic teams. The following are examples cited by respondents of how these organizations have assisted their recruiting. Examples include the agency being promoted at the various conferences, the agency sending officers to various conferences, hearing applicants state in their interview that a particular organization or association told them to apply and/or helped them prepare for the interview, officers who belong to associations tell other members to apply to their agency, and openings at their agency are posted in the various publications of the organizations and associations. This is consistent with the purpose and results of two professional associations cited in Chapter II. The National Black Police Association (NBPA) was started to bring together African American police associations with the goal of improving police agencies and

relationships between communities of color and the police. The National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE) was formed to bring Black police executives together to address crime in urban areas (H. Greene, 2003). H. Greene described how such organizations have brought about change, “these organizations address numerous issues confronting officers and black citizens, including brutality, crime, discrimination, police-community relations, and recruitment” (p. 212). H. Greene also described how NOBLE has initiated efforts in increasing recruitment of people of color and promoting career fairs. As discussed above, respondents provided examples of how several associations positively impact their recruiting and hiring diversity which adds to the literature regarding how professional associations and organizations can increase recruiting and hiring female officers and officers of color.

### **The Influence of its Union**

There were numerous studies cited in Chapter II that showed mixed results regarding the influence of unions on the representation of female officers and officers of color. Schuck (2014) found that collective bargaining had a direct negative impact on gender diversity. Walker (1985) stated that police unions opposed ways to improve police-community relations and have represented White officers who challenged Affirmative Action programs and plans in courts. Riccucci (1986) found that the presence of a union had a limited effect on female employment within municipal police departments. Kim and Mengistu (1994) found in their study that collective bargaining did not significantly influence female and Asian police office employment and that police unions did not promote hiring Black police officers but did Hispanic officers (p. 171). Warner et al. (1989) did not find a correlation between collective bargaining and female representation in their study. Using a more diverse and larger sample of agencies, Sass and Troyer (1999) found less female representation with unionization in the early 1980s, but not for

the late 1980s and early 1990s. Morabito and Shelley (2015) found that the presence of collective bargaining was significantly and positively associated with increased female representation, but not for officers of color (pp. 341, 345 & 345).

All respondents stated their union supports recruiting and hiring female officers and officers of color. The respondents indicated that their union contract does not influence hiring practices which is another indicator that their union supports hiring diversity. Respondents also stated that their union has worked hard for good pay, benefits, and contracts to attract and retain officers and that it was important for the command staff and management to communicate the rationale behind the hiring process with officers. The results of the data for this agency support some of the findings that unions increase female representation. However, the results for this agency are not consistent with the prior literature where unions oppose police-community relations and hiring women and officers of color or challenge Affirmative Action programs.

### **The Active Role of Leadership in Diversifying their Agency**

As discussed in Chapter V, all respondents indicated that the change in command staff in 2012 and the active role of the chief in the hiring process are responsible for increasing diversity within their agency. Leadership includes the command staff and management within the agency. The current command staff set goals in hiring, prioritized hiring for diversity, targeted specific groups in recruiting and hiring, and implemented changes in the application process to meet these goals.

The following are characteristics important in the command staff and management in recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity that were identified by respondents during the interviews: engaging in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing, prioritizing being reflective of and responsive to the communities they serve, the relationship between community

engagement and recruiting, hiring, and retaining diversity, and the discretion used by the command staff regarding hiring decisions. Warner et al. (1989) found that the attitudes of hiring agents influenced equal opportunity employment. The results from the interview data support this finding, where several respondents stated that the chief takes an active role in the hiring process and their agency prioritizes being reflective its communities by implementing changes in the application process and being responsive to their communities by committing to community-oriented and problem-oriented policing throughout the agency. Eisenberg, Kent, and Wall (1973) found that the chief of police was identified as “most frequently designated as having the major responsibilities for establishing personnel policies for sworn police personnel” (p. 13). Zhao and Lovrich (1998) found that a significant variable in predicting representation of African American officers in U.S. municipal police agencies is that the police chief has “significant power in the hiring procedure” (p. 274). H. Greene (2003) asserts that police chiefs can influence policing because they have the power to set priorities within their agencies, as well as have an impact on policy, which includes restricting the use of force, recruiting officers of color and practicing community-oriented policing (p. 212). Many Black police chiefs and Blacks in administrative and command positions espouse community-oriented policing “because it provides an opportunity to remove the historical barriers between police and the black community” (p. 212).

This agency has one member of command staff who is a person of color, which is a contributing factor in increasing diversity within the agency. This is consistent with the literature cited in Chapter II regarding role acceptance of administrators, “administrators who perceive themselves as possessing significant discretion and who assume the role of minority representative in their agencies are more likely to enact policy outcomes that favor minority



interests” (Sowa & Selden, 2003, p. 700). This also supports Sowa and Selden’s conclusion that this is one mechanism that strengthens the relationship between passive and active representation. The influence on decisions that increased the representation of female officers and officers of color within the agency included prioritizing and setting goals to be reflective of their communities. This includes implementing changes in their application process and being responsive to their communities by engaging in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing. This is also consistent with Bradley and Kellough (2008), who predicted that public administrators of color “will have similar attitudes to minority citizens on issues of critical import and relevance to those citizens, and those attitudes, in turn, will influence policy decisions” (p. 697). They found that African American administrators are more likely than White administrators to adopt an African American representative role. Selden (1997) and Bradbury and Kellough (2008) also point out that even though bureaucrats of color were a significant predictor of the minority representative role, White bureaucrats can also take the role of minority representative.

The chief did not and cannot diversify the agency without support from throughout the agency, including the command staff, management, supervisors, and officers. The interview data suggest that the chief possesses important leadership qualities. This includes leading by example, which was illustrated by getting out in the community, engaging in community-oriented and problem-oriented policing, demonstrating the benefits of a reflective agency, and gaining support from the rest of the command staff, management, supervisors and officers regarding the importance of diversifying the agency.

Zhao and Lovrich (1998), add that any changes in personnel policies are due to several factors, including political, organizational and legal factors (p. 267). In addition to the police

chief being important, the administration under the chief is important in diversifying police agencies. The findings from the interviews are consistent with Van der Lippe et al. (2004) that found that top managers are instrumental in “breaking down the barriers which women encounter” (p. 398). The findings are also consistent with Gustafson (2013) that found in municipal police agencies in the U.S., the presence of people of color in police leadership positions was one of the most significant factors in affecting diversity in line officers.

### **Limitations of this Study**

There are six limitations of the study. The first limitation is that because there is only one case, there is a lack of comparison (Bachman & Schutt, 2014, p. 307). This case study focuses on one law enforcement agency in the Midwest. Purposive sampling was used to select the case agency because it is important to select an agency that intentionally recruits and hires female officers and officers of color and is recognized for a commitment to hiring for diversity. Thus, this agency may not be representative of other police agencies and there is a lack of external generalizability to other agencies, settings, types of agencies, and geographic locations. This case is offered as an example in how other law enforcement agencies can increase the representation of female officers and officers of color. A second limitation is that it is hard to test for causal explanation with one setting because any explanations provided will be tailored to fit the particular setting and case (p. 308). A third limitation is that the small frequencies of female applicants and applicants of color may limit conclusions drawn from the data. The fourth limitation is that the interview data results obtained from seven agency personnel are limited in scope by including mostly the views of command staff, management, supervisors, and a limited viewpoint from officers at the ground level of the agency. The fifth limitation is that this study

does not include the perceptions from officers who separated from the agency. The sixth limitation is possible response bias in the interview questions.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

Purposive sampling was used to select the case for this study because it was important to select an agency that intentionally recruits and hires diversity. Thus, as previously stated, the case selected may not be representative of other law enforcement agencies. Since this study was a case study with only one agency, the results cannot be generalized to other agencies, including types of agencies, other geographic locations, and size of agencies. Suggestions for future research include examining the composition, application, and separation data in other agencies and geographic locations to increase external validity.

Other suggestions for future research include surveying officers on their experiences in recruiting, hiring, and retention. It would be useful to conduct a longitudinal study to assess whether female officers and officers of color are promoted in the future. In addition, it would be useful to assess whether the representation of female officers and officers of color in supervisor, management, and command staff positions impact recruiting, hiring, and retention of female officers and officers of color. Future research could also include a longitudinal study to assess the separation and retention of female officers and officers of color over several years. Officers who have separated from this agency and other agencies also could be surveyed on why they left and offer suggestions for retaining officers. Also, future research could include examining the aspects emphasized in the academy and FTO training compared to the qualifications and skills emphasized in the recruiting and hiring process.

It would also be useful to survey citizens on their attitudes towards the police to assess how a reflective agency is more responsive to the community and increases trust, legitimacy, and

cooperation from its communities. Officers could be surveyed to determine if officer attitudes towards the community have changed. Future research could also include what aspects of the police subculture are influenced by increasing diversity within an agency and what aspects of police subculture influence recruiting, hiring, and retaining female officers and officers of color.

### **Conclusion**

This case study has presented how the agency has achieved success by taking concrete steps to increase its representation of female officers, officers of color, and officers who are fluent in languages other than English. This was accomplished by setting composition and hiring goals, targeting recruiting efforts, updating their recruiting materials and job postings to reflect a commitment to diversity and community policing, implementing changes in the application process that differ from the traditional selection process, diversifying the make-up of their interview panels, and welcoming and respecting their diverse officers. This case study serves as an exemplary model for other police agencies to increase diversity within their agencies.

## **APPENDIX**

## **APPENDIX A**

### **Interview Guide**

Create Context: The purpose of this research is to describe how your agency recruits, hires, and retains diversity for your full-time police officers. I would like to ask you about this and your role in hiring, recruiting, and retention processes. The first part of the interview will ask you questions about recruiting and hiring and the second part of the interview will ask you questions about retention.

The following are guiding questions for the discussion on recruiting and hiring:

- It seems to me that there are some people or positions that are important in setting and realizing diversity goals for your agency. Could you identify people or positions that are important in terms of recruiting and hiring diversity among your agency's full-time officers? Why are they important?
- What is your primary role and responsibility in recruiting and hiring?
- Tell me about your recruiting and hiring process. Has your agency identified goals in achieving diversity in recruiting and hiring your full-time officers? If yes, what are these goals? What is your agency doing to achieve these goals?
  - What groups do you target in recruiting?
- What qualities, skills, abilities, and traits are you looking for in your full-time police officer applicants?
- What are the steps in your selection process?

- What type of human resource structure or system do you have for your recruiting and hiring? Please describe this structure and its goals. How has it impacted recruiting and hiring female officers and officers of color within your agency?
- Do you think it is important for your agency to reflect community characteristics? Why or why not?
- What factors do you think impact your agency's recruitment and hiring practices in achieving diversity?
  - What professional associations have affected your agency in recruiting and hiring diversity? Please describe how.
  - Does your union support or hinder recruiting female officers and officers of color? Have there been any challenges to recruiting or hiring practices?
- What else do you think your agency can do to attract qualified applicants for full-time officers? Female officers? Officers of color?

The following are guiding questions for the discussion on retention:

- For the officers that have separated from your agency, do you know the reasons why they have left? If yes, please tell me about these reasons.
- Do you think female officers and officers of color separate at different rates than White males?
- How do you think your agency is doing on retaining your full-time officers?
- What does your agency do to retain full-time officers in general? For female officers and officers of color? What else could your agency do to retain officers?
- What external or internal factors encourage or hinder retention of your officers? For female officers and officers of color?

- Closing Question: Is there anything else you would like to share about your agency's recruiting, hiring, and retention processes?



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