

LAW ENFORCEMENT MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE

THE EVOLUTION OF POLICE ADMINISTRATION

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diverse interest groups prevalent at the time. The merchant police were hired to protect the individual store owners and shopkeepers, parochial police protected churchgoers and church property, and special police were hired to protect the harbor front (Swanson and Territo 1983).

Organization of these special groups was at best haphazard and self-serving. Residents of big cities had no organized group to serve the general interests of the total population. Sir Robert Peel lobbied in Parliament for a professional organized police force under government control (Reith 1975). His act for improving the police in the near Metropolis of London is known as the Metropolitan Police Act, was approved in 1829 with the main purpose as outlined in the first duty manual to prevent crime and protect property (Reith 1975).

Lt. Col. Charles Rowan and Richard Maynes, the authors of the first manual of instruction, adapted their text from the 1803 military manual of the Irish constabulary police, entitled Military Training and Moral Training (Reith 1975). The force was organized into ranks of superintendent, inspectors, sergeants, and police constables (Reith 1975). Some 11,000 recruits were screened to attain the final 1,000 officers to make up the semimilitary structure of the forerunner of our modern police organizations.

Prior to examining the historical development of police management theory, the main stages of development of the present managerial systems of law enforcement in the United States are identified as follows: Industrial Revolution, Traditional Management Model, 1750-1900; Scientific Management, 1900 to

creation of a countywide or metropolitan police agencies in the United States. This reluctance to consolidate in light of modern day economics and communications are major factors to be considered by today's police managers.

Today, Great Britain's police have traded much of its local control for centralized administration and services especially in the area of supervisory and command level training, i.e. command college (Souryal 1977). At present, it is the policy of most constabularies to transfer a newly appointed officer after an appropriate training period to a different constabulary (Souryal 1977). This transfer policy of not promoting police managers to take charge in their local districts eliminates a great deal of local influence and control over the police force.

In the United States, the lack of lateral entry between agencies has created a career ladder within the agency that has an opposite effect: increased Local control. And the American promotional system leads to some special management problems in both the area of training and control. The demand for local control by communities in many areas continues to hamper a more efficient delivery of services (Blumberg and Niederhoffer 1985). The result is an overlapping of jurisdictional authority and duplication of services.

With the passing of the Pendleton Act of 1870 by the federal government, federal employees were placed under a civil service merit system governing conditions of their employment in an effort to reduce the political interference that had prevailed in the Jacksonian Era (Swanson and Territo 1983). Shortly thereafter, the

replace unpaid work by family members. Then, a clerical component is added, the owners are separated from management. Finally, managers are expected to have professional qualifications.,

This has had further implications that are distinctly non democratic, namely, that bureaucratic authority prevents the group itself from conferring the position of leadership upon the member of their choice (Blau and Meyer 1971). If the group itself cannot pick its leaders, then a rationale has to be developed for another selection process. This is also true of the surrounding political context. One of the developments from scientific management is to have professional police managers replace political appointees whereby authority is then conferred by expertise and professional standards. Two major figures that practiced the scientific management approach were O.W.Wilson and William H.Parker.

Orlando Winfield Wilson served as a patrol officer under August Vollmer, chief of the Berkeley, California Police Department, from 1921-1925 (Gazell 1974). His career included being chief of Police, Fullerton, California (1925-1928) and Wichita, Kansas (1928-1939), professor of criminology, University of California at Berkeley (1939-1960) (Gazell 1974). In World War II, Col. Wilson served as Chief public safety officer in Italy, England, and Germany, 1943-1947 (Gazell 1974). From 1960 to 1967 he was the reform minded chief of police in the Chicago Police Department (Gazell 1974). O.W.Wilson's book, Police Administration (1950) became the most influential management textbook for use by police managers and police management faculties in the United States.

actions. He was concerned with punishing officers who used excessive force.

James A.Gazell sums up O.W.Wilson's legacy to police management (Gazell 1974): As Vollmer's most renowned pupil and disciple, he refined, extended and synthesized the former's work through multiple roles as practitioner, educator, scholar, and consultant. His voluminous writings are divisible into the following basic categories: the internal administrative environment, especially organizational theory, personnel and technology, the external environment, particularly the importance of foreign models and police interactions with citizens in such disparate areas as inputs, community relations, civil liberties, accountability and organized crime (Gazell 1974).

Between 1927 and 1939, William Henry Parker rose from police officer to captain in the Los Angeles Police Department, earned an LL.B. degree, and uncovered scandal in the police promotion process that resulted in the grand jury investigation and general cleanup of the department (Gazell 1974). During World War II, working under Col.O.W.Wilson, Parker developed the police and prison plans for the invasion of Europe and organized democratic police departments in Frankfurt and Munich (Gazell 1974).

Parker shared many of the concerns of O.W.Wilson. Basically Parker's main contribution was in the implementation of scientific management in L.A.P.D., during his tenure as chief from 1950 to 1968 (Gazell 1974). Parker was known for his strong stand on effective law enforcement, accountability, technocratic innovations, and commitment to police professionalism. Gazell sums

### Human Relations and Participative Management Model, 1925 to Present

In general, the human relations and participative management model does not exist in any one department. It has a part of the personnel thrust of the scientific management model and part of the democratization of the team policing approach and its variations.

The human relations approach considers the police executive to be a team leader who creates a cooperative effort among line officers through the use of a management team. According to Maslow, the police executive is a self-actualizing individual who helps fulfill the social security, self-esteem, and autonomy needs of the personnel in his or her organization (Hersey and Blanchard). As found in Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y approach, the manager is responsible for motivating personnel and developing talent. This is done organizationally by having the manager create opportunities and provide guidance so all members can realize their potential in contributing to the organization. The theme here is that management should be group centered. According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1975), the manager would basically operate from two premises. The manager defines limits within which the group makes decision, and the manager and group jointly make decision within limits defined by organizational constraints.

The team policing approach as it exists in the 22 departments cited in Gay's Report (1977) relies on the police manager acting as first among equals rather than as a traditional autocratic administrator. The human relation approach is especially pertinent to the participatory management model where full-service and multispecialist teams operate with strong community commitment. In

Behavioral Management, 1945 to Present, and Systems Management,  
1960 to Present

These approaches have had their major impact in the area of fiscal organization, day-today budgeting, and short and long range planning (Levine 1985). Behavioral systems have interfered with the human relations approach in terms of developing two-way communication systems in terms of formal orders as well as informal communication systems as a framework for personal morale systems. Although often seen as competing with human relations approach, as both systems evolved in the 1980s, the systems-behavioral management approach compliments much of the human relations approach, having developed mechanisms for accountability as it integrated quantitative measures for both fiscal and human behavioral goals (Souryal 1977).

A behavioral goal has three major components: First, a goal stated in a practical manner so that an ordinary person would be able to see, hear, taste, smell, or feel something. Second, a criterion of success that is normally less than 100%. Third, a context in which to measure the goal developed in empirical terms (Souryal 1977). An example is an investigator shall interview an average of three to five suspects for every 40 hours tour of duty and shall document these interviews in a written report within one 8-hour shift of the duty documented at the end of each interview. This would constitute an increase of the production of an officer whose main duties consist of such interviews.

Such behavioral objectives can develop into excellent tool of

variable of the environment or situation (Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

Situational leadership takes advantages of the autocratic and democratic leadership styles and develops a complement of four styles which can be used, depending on the situation. The four styles are telling (directing), selling (coaching), participating (supporting), and delegating (Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

The advantages of the contingency model is realistic leadership, individualistic leadership, and facilitates the development of future leaders. The disadvantages is that it is a difficult, time consuming style and some organizations will not permit its use. (Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

According to James Q. Wilson (1968), the most significant elements of proactive management in the 1980's to present are as follows:

1. Objective of policing is crime prevention.
2. Strong commitment to community involvement.
3. Modern bureaucracy, range of control techniques.
4. Full-service department with multispecialist teams.
5. Full use of modern communication models (both technological/ computer and human relations techniques).
6. Modern budgeting and accounting systems in full use.
7. Great emphasis on forward planning.
8. Consultative management approach. (All elements of organization consulted; management team makes final decisions and organizes the implementation of policy decisions).
9. Optimal use of modern technology.



Another major reform effort over the past two decades also emphasized police administrative reforms to increase organizational accountability and efficiency in the area of crime control (Brown 1981; Fogelson 1977; Bittner 1971). This effort coincided with the professional movement's emphasis on the police function as a part of the formal justice system. The inherent contradiction between increased managerial control and professionalism remained unresolved among reformers (Goldstein 1977; J.Q.Wilson 1968; Brown 1981).

The automation movement additionally complements other recent trends in larger police departments. Effective management remains an exclusive goal in police administration partly because of the traditional quasi-military nature of the organizational structure. Consequently, resistance to new management ideas has not only been substantial, but many previous reform measures were either sabotaged, co-opted or superficial in their impact (Guyot 1979). According to Zuboff (1988), in spite of the fact that most executives in American enterprise have risen from the ranks, many of them secretly believe that there is a difference between their own mentalities and those of the officers and/or workers of today who are in the ranks. They feel vaguely, and sometimes say definitely, that the rank and file cannot understand the information which management can give them. This belief can neither be ignored or denied.

Both automated management and crime-related information systems may constitute the latest strategy by some reformers to increase accountability both internally and externally in police

computer chip and the information technology it generates.

In the long run, automation may represent an additional factor to continue bureaucratizing the police function through increasing routinization, standardization (i.e. accreditation), and ultimately centralization (Brown 1981). By enhancing the information processes for management decisions, police supervisors have a knowledge base to intervene more extensively into the discretionary activities of line officers, i.e. computerized C.A.D. system. Workload information, performance indicators, and program evaluation measures all create an environment for greater control in the name of efficiency or better management. If the innovation of motorized radio patrol created more continuous contact (and perhaps greater control) between administration and line officers, computer information systems may be even more significant in changing organizational relationships.

The bottom line when looking at information systems may be that the potential for increases in cost, internal reorganization, agency conflict, and bureaucratization of the criminal function of street officers are all outcomes that cannot be ignored. Whether these are trade-offs of automation, and whether the costs are acceptable costs will not be known for at least a decade (Sykes 1985).

Despite the commitment of vast resources to enhance the crime control function of the police over the past two decades, there is significant evidence that the efficiency of police detection, investigation, and apprehension functions was not markedly changed (Fogelson 1977). The principle concern with police efficiency was

implicitly excluding other alternatives because they do not lend themselves to a measurable data point (Sykes 1985). From this vantage point, peacekeeping does not become real police work and the result might be either a depersonalized approach to human regulation, or withdrawal from peace-keeping activities in general.

Computer aided dispatch (C.A.D.) allows for efficient resource allocation, and ultimately undermines the strategy for random preventive patrol. Fewer officers answering more calls for service, spending less time on each call, and responding in a standardized way might be some consequences of automation. But the cost in real terms may be the reduction of community peacekeeping and ultimately communal decay.

According to Wilson and Kelling (1982), increased efficiency in crime control activities based on automation could contribute to crime increases as such activities are encouraged at the expense of the peacekeeping function. Such a possibility hopefully will be addressed in research in automation and long-run tradeoffs.

### Future Perspective

#### Organizational Considerations

Today's financial crisis has reached new proportions created in part by policies on the federal level, which have slashed aid to state and local municipalities as a means of halting inflation. Some municipalities need these federal subsidies so not to go bankrupt.

When funding is tight, vehicles are overhauled and rehabilitation is deferred, and wage and benefit increases are

two or more departments are disbanded and merged into an area or county metropolitan police department. Departments that have undergone this process include those in Nassau and Suffolk Counties in New York; Riley County, Kentucky; Jacksonville, Florida; and Toronto, Ontario (Tofoya 1986). While this seems easy, consolidation can be very difficult process. As noted by the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (1971), for consolidation to occur, four main elements must be addressed: 1. The plan to consolidate must be functionally sound. 2. The plan must be legally permissible by state or county statutes. 3. It must have support by all political groups. 4. It must have public support.

While there is potential for increasing police efficiency by reducing duplication of effort, consolidation does not always result in economy. From the outset it can be expensive. Officer and command officials of previously existing departments are given new pay raises based on the highest wage scale paid in one of the older departments. New equipment has to be purchased on a mass scale for distinctive uniforms, vehicles, and weapons. New station houses have to be rented, purchased or constructed. Aside from implementation there is the collective bargaining issue, smaller department's unions are eliminated and reformed into one powerful union because of interested membership. Former chiefs are demoted to ranking administrative officers, however consolidation presents all kinds of opportunities for professional and career advancement.

The concept of consolidation can be feasible where there are high concentrations of people or businesses that create a single

concept.

### Stress Management

Organizations produce and diminish stress in terms of how the organization structure is operated. This means consistency of command, allowing time for new orders to be assimilated, and having a good feed back system that will modify orders in terms of the need of the line officer, i.e. Dallas Police Department's implementation of quality circles (McClain and Spencer 1986) officers and managers especially middle managers need communications skills so that the line officer will feel that someone up there in management is listening and he has a real and responsible input into the orders that effect his everyday professional life.

People and officers need to feel control in their lives. Unpredictable orders with no explanation destroy this feeling of control (McClain and Spencer 1986).

### Labor Relations

Consultive management teams should have a more positive relationship with various police unions. Management will be aware of the need for retaining management authority in terms of management-prerogatives in personnel, decision making, and so on, while retaining flexibility in normal labor-management contractual matters (Beer and Spector 1985). With officers being consulted concerning policy and the implementing of policing on a continual basis, there should be fewer areas of disagreement and fewer grievances since morale should be high. Management will consider contract negotiations as an opportunity to clarify labor-management

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