Third Edition

Administration and Management in Criminal Justice

A Service Quality Approach

Jennifer M. Allen
Rajeev Sawhney

Administration and Management in Criminal Justice

Third Edition

This book is dedicated to Bridget, Brooke, and Landon.

J. A.

This book is dedicated to my late father, Harivansh Lal Sawhney, a brave and honest police officer who taught me the value of treating people with respect and dignity. Recognizing his outstanding quality of service and bravery, the government of India decorated him with the three highest honors of the land (President's Gold Medal, Police Gold Medal, and an Army medal), received by only a handful of officers in the history of India.

R. S.

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PREFACE

We felt compelled to write this textbook because there are only a handful of textbooks in the area of administration and criminal justice that focus specifically on management concepts. The books that exist focus on management of criminal justice but do not consider service quality. Instead, these books tend to discuss management in general, without providing an understanding to the customers using this service and the role that customers play in the delivery of service. Since customers are part of any service delivery process, they should be an inherent part of the process that is designed to deliver the service. In criminal justice, the customer changes from call to call—sometimes it is a victim, a complainant, or a community member; other times it is an offender or another officer or agency. Thus, management and administration approaches must be customized to the environment being serviced. We hold that using a service approach to management is much more appropriate in the changing criminal justice environment. To date, and to the best of our knowledge, this is the first textbook that has adopted a service quality approach to administration in the criminal justice field. We believe this textbook is innovative and will challenge the current understandings of management in criminal justice agencies held by students, practitioners, and researchers alike.

APPROACH

In this text, we question the traditional closed-system approaches often used in criminal justice and introduce the concepts used in open systems and in service quality approaches. We examine criminal justice services by focusing on who the customers are, what their demands and needs happen to be, how the changing environment can affect these services, and how criminal justice administrators can respond to the dynamic customer and environmental bases. The book also addresses the constraints placed on the field of criminal justice and how these restrictions impact the choices administrators and line staff can and do make, as well as how services are provided. We acknowledge the increased pressures on criminal justice professionals to work within a global environment and in communities with heightened expectations. We also acknowledge the efforts criminal justice agencies are making to become more customer friendly. As we write the 3rd edition of the book, we consider it to be a forward-thinking approach to management in criminal justice, emphasizing proactive techniques for administration. We feel that training in service quality must start early in the career and in the educational process to produce effective and successful administrators in the criminal justice system. Using a service quality lens to

understand and facilitate the criminal justice system provides a better learning experience in the changing U.S. and global environments for undergraduate and graduate students, who will be staffing this system in the near future. By using case studies at the end of each chapter, we provide opportunities to apply the material learned. We believe this approach will have greater meaning for the students' learning process.

The text is written with five express objectives. The first objective is to provide the theories of management. The second objective is to look at the theories through closed- and open-system approaches. The third objective is to draw attention to the issues and concerns of these two approaches in nonprofit service industries, such as criminal justice. The fourth objective is to provide a service quality lens to examine how the criminal justice field could be (and is being) redesigned to better address community needs and to respond to global and national dilemmas. We also use this time to point out how the criminal justice field is evolving and accepting the importance of service quality. Finally, we present the information in such a way that students can internalize the importance of their future role in providing high-quality and effective criminal justice services.

The text is organized in 14 chapters. The first step in improving service delivery is identifying the customers and recognizing their importance within the service delivery process, also called the customer focus, which is the primary theme presented in Chapters 1 through 3. In Chapter 4, we discuss the changing global environment and the pressures that are forcing criminal justice agencies to become more customer oriented. In Chapters 5 through 8, we present the management principles of conflict, power, ethics, motivation, leadership, and communication in the criminal justice environment, viewed through the service quality lens. In Chapters 9 through 13, we discuss the functional knowledge of criminal justice agencies and integrate the service quality principles in these areas. In the last chapter, we provide hands-on tools to incorporate the voice of the customer in designing/modifying criminal justice services to improve the delivery of service quality. We hope the approach adopted in this textbook will better prepare the students of criminal justice to design/redesign the service delivery process to bring a greater customer orientation, thus improving the overall service quality.

THE THIRD EDITION

In this edition you will find numerous substantial changes:

- Updated references, statistics, and data to present the latest trends in criminal justice
- Coverage of current concerns and management trends in criminal justice agencies, including workplace bullying, formal and informal leadership, realignment in California's correctional institutions, probation-police relationships, inmate-staff relationships, and fatal police shootings

- Increased discussion of homeland security era policing, procedural justice, key court personnel, and private security changes
- Expanded coverage of technology in criminal justice, such as cybercrime, electronic monitoring and other uses of technology in probation and parole, body worn cameras, and police drones
- Half of the case studies are new or updated
- All of the "Career Highlight" boxes have been updated to demonstrate the latest data for each career presented
- Eight new "In the News" articles that include topics such as
    - Police shootings
    - Funding for criminal justice agencies
    - Police drones
    - Use of GPS monitoring devices on sex offenders
    - Cyber attacks and identity theft
    - Cybercrime
    - Procedural justice

PEDAGOGICAL AIDS

We have included the following learning aids in every chapter:

- Chapter objectives at the beginning of each chapter to highlight the information students should master
- "In the News" boxes to help students see the practical implications of what they are reading
- "Career Highlight" boxes that describe various types of jobs in management and administration in the criminal justice field
- End-of-chapter summaries to help students prepare for exams and review in shorter form what they have learned in the chapter
- Chapter review questions to assist students in preparing for exams and to encourage them to go beyond the memorization of terms and concepts learned in the chapter
- Case studies at the end of each chapter to allow students to apply the information they have learned in a situation similar to what is likely to occur in the field of criminal justice

- Internet resources that students can use to learn more about the criminal justice field and view research in hot topics in criminal justice administration
- Lists of references and suggested readings that provide students with the primary sources for the information in these chapters

INSTRUCTOR SUPPLEMENT

We have also created an Instructor's Manual/Test Bank, which includes chapter outlines, discussion questions, a test bank, PowerPoint slides of each chapter, and more.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

As with any endeavor of this magnitude, there are always people behind the scenes who assist in the preparation and final product. First, we would like to thank the various agencies that granted permission for us to use their policies, procedure manuals, handouts, and other documents in the text. We would also like to thank the print media and other forums for their contributions to the "In the News" inserts. We would like to offer special acknowledgments to the publishing team at SAGE for their continued assistance, creativity, and hard work. As we finish the third edition, we acknowledge the contributions made by Dr. Robert Fischer, Dr. Martha Heltsley, Professor Jill J. Myers, Professor Sabita Sawhney, and Professor Jane Schmidt-Wilk. We appreciate their hard work and expertise. We also express appreciation to our families for their constant encouragement. We welcome your comments concerning the text and look forward to writing again in this field.

We would also like to thank the reviewers whose feedback helped shape the development of this text: Timothy C. Albright, California State University, Sacramento; Emmanuel N. Amadi, Mississippi Valley State University; Doris J. "Dorie" Astle, Southwestern Oklahoma State University; Kevin M. Beaver, Florida State University; Ronald J. Curtis, Jr., Florida Gulf Coast University; Raymond L. Hasselman, Northeastern State University; Eric Metchik, Salem State University; and Francis M. Williams, Plymouth State University.

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Sara Miller McCune founded SAGE Publishing in 1965 to support the dissemination of usable knowledge and educate a global community. SAGE publishes more than 1000 journals and over 800 new books each year, spanning a wide range of subject areas. Our growing selection of library products includes archives, data, case studies and video. SAGE remains majority owned by our founder and after her lifetime will become owned by a charitable trust that secures the company's continued independence.

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CHAPTER ONE

DEFINING MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

Learning Objectives

Upon completion of this chapter, students should be able to do the following:

- Define management, organization, and leadership
- List and discuss criminal justice organizations and the various specialties in criminal justice
- Describe nonprofit and for-profit agencies

In an era of globalization accompanied by complexity, ambiguity, rapid change, and diversity, managing any organization or agency is a difficult task. Yet, good management is critical to the survival of an organization or agency. In fact, Hanson (1986) has suggested that the ability to manage is more strongly related to a firm's profitability than any other factor. Managers are constantly challenged with making decisions, formulating goals, creating a mission, enacting policies and procedures, and uniting individuals in the organization so that completion of all of these and other related tasks can be accomplished. Despite the fact that management permeates everything that an organization does, what *the management* actually is, is not always clearly defined or identified.

Management consists of many individuals in an organization at varying levels and ranks, often classified as lower management, middle management, and upper management. Of course, people are familiar with the terms *chief executive officer*, *director*, *president*, *chief operating officer*, and so on. These are automatically assumed to be titles that indicate the ranks of management. We also assume that those holding the management roles work to provide the organizational mission by making decisions and setting goals for those not designated as management. But are these obvious assumptions? Hecht (1980) asserts, "Many a person who carries the title of manager is not really a manager" (p. 1). What this means is that people on the front lines may make decisions, formulate procedures, and have input into the mission and long-term goals of the organization. Take police officers, for example. One officer on patrol may consider a driver as speeding if he or she is driving at five or more miles over the posted speed limit. Another officer may not consider a driver to be speeding unless he or she is 10 miles or more over the posted speed limit. Even though the law says that the speed limit is 55 miles per hour, and the police agency is expected to ticket drivers driving in excess of the posted speed limit, a patrol officer may practice a policy of five to ten miles over the speed limit. This allows the officer to make decisions on enforcement of the law and influence the mission of the organization. In other words, the police officer is

acting as a manager. Individuals employed in positions considered to be at the second or third level may also have input or titles that indicate they are managers within the organization. Does this make them management? According to Hecht, "Management is an activity," and managers are "charged with a number of people working at the task of getting some activity accomplished within a set period of time" (p. 1). Research defining management has been ongoing; to date, there is still not a clear definition of management for all organizations. This means that each organization faces the unique task of determining how it will be managed and by whom.

This chapter will investigate the definition of management as well as tasks commonly associated with managing an organization. The term *organization* will be defined, and key aspects of organizational structures in nonprofit and for-profit agencies will be discussed. Leadership and how leaders work within organizations are discussed as well. As this book pertains to management in criminal justice, a brief summary of criminal justice agencies and their management structures is also provided in this chapter. Each chapter in the text—this one included—ends with a fictional case study and summary discussion. The case studies provide scenarios likely to be encountered in real life. Although the case studies may resemble reality, they are based on fictitious names, places, and occurrences. There are questions at the end of each case study. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. Instead, the intent is to allow for application and processing of the information learned in the chapter.

DEFINING MANAGEMENT

As discussed earlier, *management* is a difficult term to define. It is easier to identify what a manager does or is supposed to do than to define the actual term. If one were to search for the term *management* on the Internet, words such as *supervising*, *directing*, *managing*, *measuring results*, and so on would display, which are all action-oriented terms. Dwan (2003) identifies management as planning goals and specifying the purpose of the agency; organizing people, finances, resources, and activities; staffing, training, and socializing employees; leading the organization and the staff; and controlling, monitoring, and sanctioning when needed (p. 44). On closer scrutiny, one will find that both the explanation proposed by Dwan and the words displayed on the Internet identify management with tasks or responsibilities, while neither provides an exact definition.

Looking in another direction, one may find that management has been defined through theory such as *scientific management*, where those in charge of an organization are to maximize productivity through selection, training, and planning of tasks and employees. Management theory has also focused on Fayol's (1949) five functions of management—planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and providing feedback—and Weber's (1947) bureaucratic management, where there is a clear division of labor, rules, and procedures. There are also those who see management as a *process* to be studied and analyzed through cases so that correct techniques can be taught to others (Dale,

CAREER HIGHLIGHT BOX

An Introduction

Students are often interested in the types of jobs available in criminal justice, but they are not always given the chance to explore the various options during their coursework. Since this book discusses a variety of criminal justice agencies and the administration and management of those agencies, it makes sense to expose students to different career opportunities that may be available in those organizations. In each of the following chapters, look for "Career Highlight" boxes, which will provide information concerning specific occupations, typical duties, pay scales, and job requirements within or related to the criminal justice system. Keep in mind that different jurisdictions have distinct requirements, so this is only a small representation of the possibilities and occupations available. In addition, students are encouraged to examine the job outlook and prospects sections in each job description with a critical eye, since demands for workers with specific skill sets change regularly. The authors suggest that students discuss career options with faculty and advisors as they narrow down their professional goals. Students are also encouraged to contact individuals currently working in the field of criminal justice to discuss opportunities, interests, and concerns.

1960). There is the human relations approach that perceives management as closely tied to sociology and the various social systems in society (Barnard, 1938; March & Simon, 1958), emphasizing a manager's understanding of workers as sociopsychological beings who need to be motivated (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961). Management has also been discussed from both decision-making and mathematical perspectives (Koontz, 1961). Although most of these will be addressed in detail in later chapters, it is important to note that they appear to be the *roles* of management and not true definitions of what it is to manage.

Koontz (1961) stated, "Most people would agree that [management] means getting things done through and with people" (p. 17). Management, as viewed in this book, is best defined within groups. It is an ongoing process that works toward achieving organizational goals. It may consist of multiple organizational layers, offices, people, positions, and so on. In other words, management is an ongoing process of getting things done through a variety of people with the least amount of effort, expense, and waste, ultimately resulting in the achievement of organizational goals (Moore, 1964).

IDENTIFYING AN ORGANIZATION

Blau and Scott (1962) defined an *organization* by using categories. The first category consists of the owners or managers of the organization, and the second consists of the members of the rank and file. Third are the clients, or what Blau and Scott referred to as the people who are outside the organization but have regular contact with it. Fourth is

the public at large or the members of society in which the organization operates. They suggest that organizations benefit someone—either the management, the membership, the client, or the commonwealth. This definition fits well with private enterprise in that the managers or shareholders may benefit greatly from the organization's business and sales. This definition also fits well with criminal justice since the victim and the commonwealth (public) may benefit when an offender is arrested and placed in jail. In criminal justice, the typical organization is focused on identifying, deterring, preventing, and processing crime and criminal acts. It is service based. The hope of achieving goals and objectives is the same as that found in private enterprise, but the functions and activities are in contrast to private enterprise or for-profit organizations.

Members of an organization usually share common visions, missions, values, and strategic goals. A *vision* is how individuals imagine the goals of the organization will be accomplished. Each person will have a particular perception of how the organization functions. So long as the organization is working according to the vision, people perceive the organization as going well. The *mission* is the overall purpose of the organization and is used to help describe organizations to those outside of it, such as community members. The mission may be a statement or a list of goals to be accomplished (Ivancevich, Donnelly, & Gibson, 1989). A correctional institution's mission may include statements regarding protecting the public, staff members, and inmates; providing opportunities for rehabilitation; and assisting in reintegrating offenders into society once they are released. A common mission statement in police departments may include phrases that support public safety, working with citizens and the community, and reducing crime. For example, the Atlanta Police Department in Georgia states that their mission is to "create a safer Atlanta by reducing crime, ensuring the safety of our citizens and building trust in partnership with our community" (Atlanta Police Department, n.d., para. 1).

The *values* held in an organization are considered priorities. They incorporate aspects of the vision and the mission to focus the activities of an organization. The values are determined by the culture of the organization. In policing, the culture tends to revolve around providing services, controlling crime, and increasing public safety. There are strict policies and procedures to be followed in carrying out the activities of the policing agency. Officers' positions are well defined, and there is a clearly identified hierarchy in the organization. Employees are expected to be honest and show integrity while completing their tasks. Using the Atlanta Police Department's website as an example, one can see that the department values professionalism, integrity, commitment, and courage (no date).

Last, organizations use *strategic goals.* Members will work toward several organizational goals to accomplish the agency's mission. The goals, also known as objectives, are the main concerns of the organization. They are generally set by the administration and passed through formal and informal communication to employees. According to Hecht (1980), objectives should filter all the way to the bottom of the agency, with each unit or department establishing and working on its own unit goals while keeping the larger organizational strategic goals in mind (p. 91). Employees may also have personal goals set for themselves. It is hoped that the personal goals do not conflict with the organizational goals. If this occurs, the employee may be unsuccessful within the agency, or the agency's accomplishment of larger organizational and unit goals may be blocked. The

administration at that point must step in and restate the organizational strategic goals or retrain or terminate the employee.

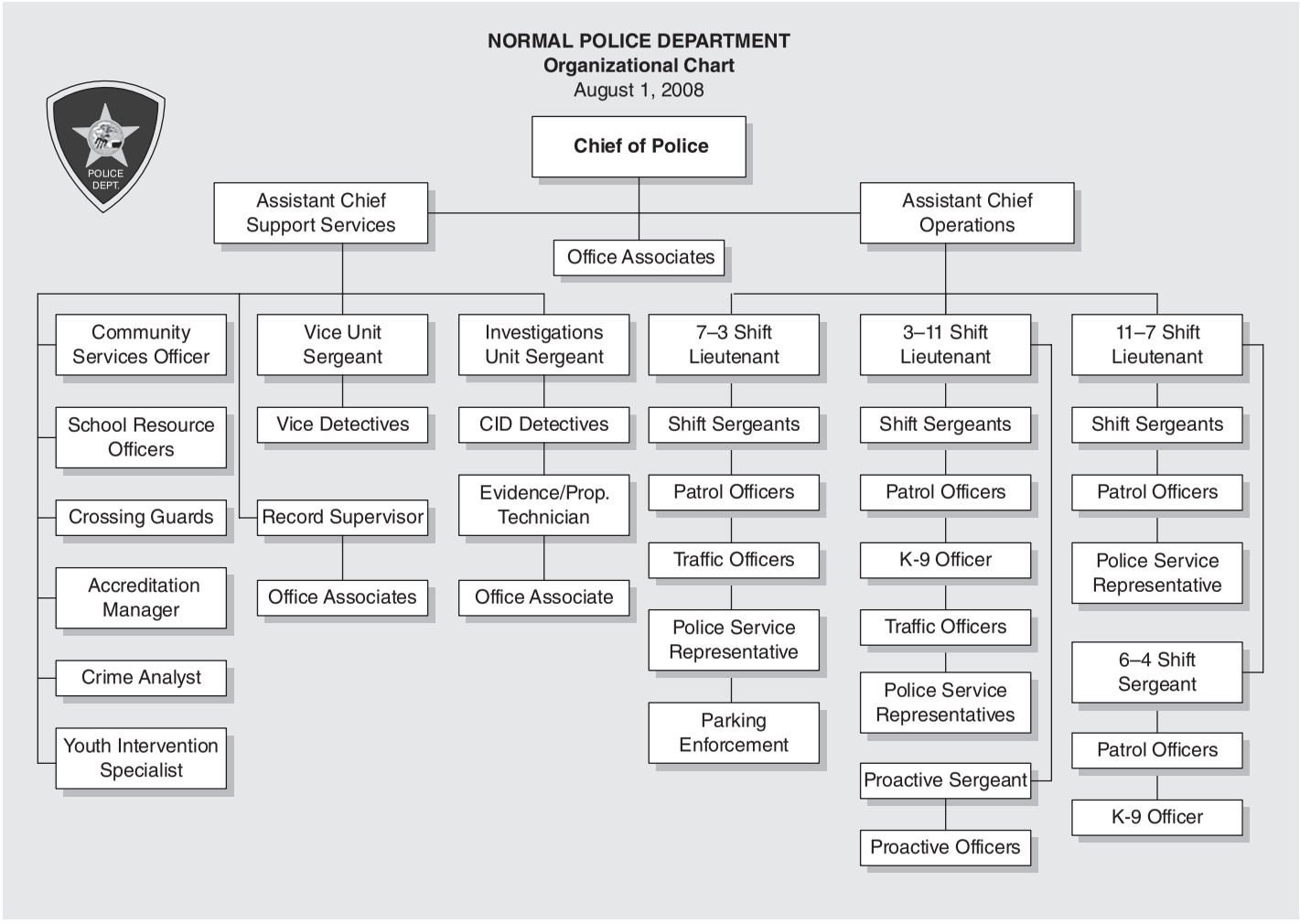
The strategic goals will have "two features: a description of an intended future state and action towards achieving that future state" (Day & Tosey, 2011, p. 517). The structure and culture of the organization are reiterated in the strategic goals. Likewise, the strategic goals of an agency provide employees the opportunity to align themselves and their personal goals with the agency's stated goals. Citizens in the community can determine whether an agency is accomplishing the mission by assessing the statements made in the strategic goals and the outputs delivered by the department. Doran (1981) and Locke and Latham (2002) claim that the more *s*pecific, *m*easurable, *a*chievable, *r*ealistic, and *t*ime-specific (SMART) the agency's goals are, the easier it is for others to determine if an agency has actually met the strategic goals.

The better organized an organization is, the better it will be able to accomplish its goals. The term *organized* can relate to structure. Organizations are structured vertically and horizontally. They contain departments, units, specializations, work groups, jobs, and so on.

The structure is typically determined by how formal the organization is. If there is a rigid hierarchy, or what some refer to as bureaucracy, the organization is seen as centralized. *Centralized organizations* house authority positions at the top of the hierarchy in the upper levels of the administration. Managers are responsible for most decisions in centralized organizations, and communication is sent from management to lower-level staff on how to perform tasks and on changes in policy or procedure. However, if there are few levels of authority between the top managers and the line staff (those performing the everyday tasks or jobs), the organization is seen as decentralized. *Decentralized organizations* allow for lower-level staff to make decisions on policies or procedures that directly affect the accomplishment of tasks and goals (Ivancevich et al., 1989). Delegation of authority is foremost in decentralized organizations. The structure of organizations and the impact centralization or decentralization has on how organizations function and accomplish goals will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2. For now, it's important to realize that the structure of an organization determines how much *autonomy*, or the power to self-govern, workers have within that organization and may influence their individual goal setting and achievement.

The chain of command within an organization can also determine structure. A *chain of command* is the vertical line of authority that defines who supervises whom in an organization. If an organization has a well-defined, unyielding chain of command, the organization is formalized. *Formal organizations* are bureaucratic and have clearly defined rules, procedures, and policies. Those at the higher levels of the chain have the authority and power to issue commands to those at the lower level. Police departments use formal chains of command, with street officers reporting to sergeants, who report to lieutenants, who report to assistant chiefs, who report to the chief of police; there may even be levels in between these. Skipping a level in the chain of command may result in formal reprimands and is highly frowned upon by coworkers and supervisors. In a formal chain of command, information will travel from the chief of police, to the assistant chiefs, to the commanders and sergeants, and finally to the street-level officers. Questions or comments regarding the information will travel up the chain of command in a similar fashion. By looking at Figure 1.1, we can see a sample of the

Figure 1.1 Organizational Chart of the Roxboro Police Department, Roxboro, NC



Source: Roxboro Police Department, http://www.cityofroxboro.com/assets/pdf/policeorg.pdf.

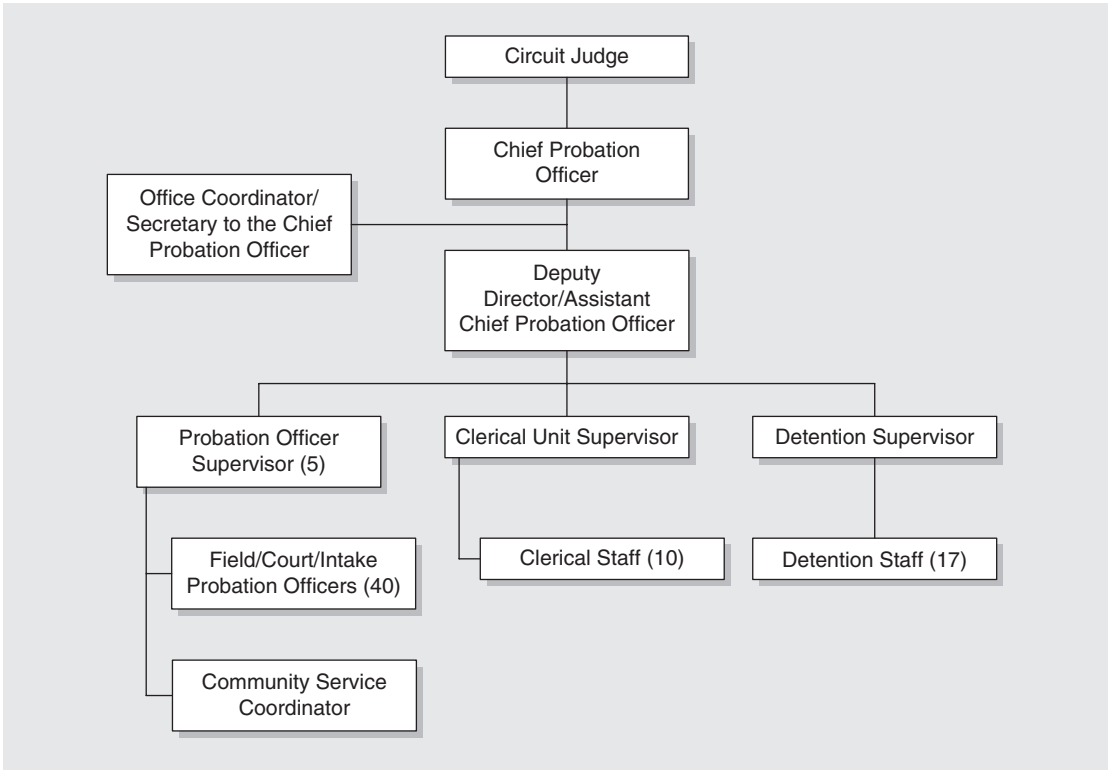
formal structure typical of a police department. The patrol officers report to the shift sergeants, who report to the commanders in each squad. Each area of specialty has a defined chain of command within the overall chain of command or formal structure of the organization.

On the other side of the spectrum, we can see criminal justice organizations that differ greatly in formalization. Although the size of the department may make a difference, organizations such as probation have a tendency not to rely as heavily on formal chains of command. This does not mean there is no organizational structure (the larger the agency, the more formalized it may be); the structure just tends to be more loosely tied together. The organization, therefore, is less formalized. Probation officers tend to report to one individual (the deputy chief), who is directly linked to the chief probation officer. The chief probation officer, the deputy chief, and the field probation officers typically have a direct line of communication to the judge(s). In essence, this is a more *informal organizational structure*. In probation, the *line staff* or probation officers working directly with the clients in the field have more autonomy and input into the decision making of the organization than do those in formalized organizations. They are able to interpret policy; ask managers questions directly; and answer questions asked by offenders, family members of offenders, service providers, the judge, and so on, with little or no managerial input. Figure 1.2 demonstrates an organizational chart in a medium-sized probation department. Notice the flat horizontal structure compared to the vertical structure of the police department in Figure 1.1.

Organizations are also structured as systems (discussed in detail in Chapters 2 and 3). Basically, this means that organizations have inputs, outputs, processes, and feedback. The whole system is designed to accomplish the organizational goal(s) (McNamara, 2007). *Inputs* are taken in by the organization that include such things as resources, money, technology, people, and so forth. The inputs are used to produce a *process* whereby the people in the organization spend money and resources on activities that meet the mission of the organization in hopes that the identified goals will be accomplished. The *outputs* are the tangible results (e.g., products, services, or jobs; or in the case of criminal justice, lowered crime rates, better protection, etc.) of the efforts produced in the process (McNamara, 2007). These are identifiable by those outside of the organization and are generally used to determine if the organization is successful. The final step in the systems approach includes feedback. This *feedback* comes from the larger environment as well as from customers, clients, stakeholders, employees, or the government, to name a few sources. In systems open to the environment, the feedback may be used to modify the inputs and processes used in accomplishing future goals (McNamara, 2007). In organizations closed to the environment, the feedback may or may not be considered in changes that are made to the organization.

The organization may have subsystems that operate within the larger system as well. Each subsystem can be thought of as a separate organization that works to accomplish its own goals while contributing to the accomplishment of the larger organizational goal(s). The subsystems have their own boundaries, missions, and tasks, as well as their own inputs, outputs, processes, and feedback (McNamara, 2007). Detective units in police departments can be thought of as subsystems. The detectives' unit has its own mission,

Figure 1.2 Organizational Chart of Medium-Sized Probation Department



Source: http://webapps.chesco.org/courts/cwp/view.asp?a=3&q=606462.

goals, and values, yet the detectives are working to accomplish the larger policing goals of providing services, identifying crime, and working with and protecting the public.

Groups and individual employees within an organization can also be thought of as systems with common missions, values, goals, inputs, outputs, processes, and so on. The organization can be thought of as multiple systems, all operating within multiple systems for one or more identified strategic goal(s). A simple way of considering the multiple systems approach is to think of a university campus. The individual classes offered by the Department of Criminal Justice have missions, goals, and values identified in each syllabus as course objectives and course descriptions. The courses are offered each semester by a department that also has a mission, goals, and values shared by the faculty who teach criminal justice and the students majoring in criminal justice. The Department of Criminal Justice is situated in a college or school (often called the School of Social Sciences) along with other departments with similar disciplines, and they share a mission and common goals and values set by the dean. Finally, these three systems operate within the larger university setting to accomplish the mission and strategic goals and values set by the school's administration. To add to this, some universities are involved in statewide systems that include all universities within the state. In Georgia, for example, all state-funded schools belong

to the University System of Georgia (USG). The USG sets a mission, goals, and values for the state educational system and passes that information down to the various systems mentioned previously. The systems approach will be investigated further in the next two chapters, but for now, suffice it to say that all organizations have systems in their structures. The impact of those systems on organizational activities, goals, and values varies greatly.

Organizations can be very complex organisms. They may operate within the confines of formal rules, regulations, and authority, or they may be more loosely based on the achievement of goals with little supervision. Organizations may also be open systems actively engaging and interacting with the environment or closed systems that accept little outside input and feedback; each is discussed in detail in Chapter 2. Either way, it is the managers who are tasked with clarifying the goals, systems, structure, and mission of the organization. Clarification of management and of goals, structure, and mission occurred in Abingdon, Illinois, in the provided news scenario. A reading of the Illinois Compiled Statutes led to questions regarding an officer's position and responsibilities in the police department. "In the News 1.1" brings to light how statutory requirements may impact organizational structure and how managers are called on to identify organizational structures and employee tasks and responsibilities.

IN THE NEWS 1.1

Statute Open to Interpretation Says City of Abingdon Officials

August 2, 2007

ABINGDON—An Abingdon Police Committee meeting was held Thursday evening, July 26; a follow-up to the previous meeting held the Wednesday before. At this meeting Abingdon Chief of Police, Ed Swearingen, and Lt. Jared Hawkinson, were present as were Aldermen Jason Johnson, Ronnie Stelle, Dean Fairbank, Dale Schisler, Myron Hovind, Mike Boggs, Mayor Stephen Darmer, Treasurer Jim Davis and Abingdon City Clerk Sheila Day.

At the previous meeting the question as to whether or not specific passengers riding in Abingdon squad cars were covered by City insurance was addressed with the understanding that certain passengers would not fall under the City insurance policy. Darmer says, after speaking with the City's insurance representative, this is not the case. "He said passengers are all covered under our insurance. They're always covered. The only thing he had concerns about was the risk and this City management's call."

Johnson then addressed Illinois Compiled Statute 65 5/3.1-30-21 Sec. 3.1-30-21 regarding part-time police officers. The complete statute reads as follows: A municipality may appoint, discipline, and discharge part-time police officers. A municipality that employs part-time police officers shall, by ordinance, establish hiring standards for part-time police officers and shall submit those standards to the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board. Part-time police officers shall be members of the regular police department, except for pension purposes. Part-time police officers shall not be assigned under any circumstances to supervise or direct full-time police officers of a police department. Part-time police officers shall not be used as permanent replacements for permanent full-time police officers. Part-time police officers shall be trained under the Intergovernmental Law Enforcement Officer's In-Service Training

(*Continued*)

(Continued)

Act in accordance with the procedures for part-time police officers established by the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board. A part-time police officer hired after Jan 1, 1996 who has not yet received certification under Section 8.2 of the Illinois Police Training Act shall be directly supervised. This statute was adopted Jan 1, 1996. Previously, Abingdon Police Sgt. Carl Kraemer said part-time police officer Jared Hawkinson has duties that include, but not limited to, making the schedule for the Department and Hawkinson was reported to be in charge of the Department in the absence of Swearingen, which, according to the statute, is a violation of Illinois Law. Johnson, Police Committee Chair, said that is not the case, "At the meeting it was brought up discussing an officer, Lt. Hawkinson, being in charge of the Department in absence of the Chief. According to the Illinois Compiled Statutes, it does say part-time officers shall not be assigned under any circumstances to supervise or direct full-time police officers of a police department. Now, when one reads that and when one looks at the semantics of the rank structure of the police department you see the chief, you see lieutenant and you see sergeant and being familiar with military command structure you can see where they stair-step. In fact, we have a ranking structure."

According to a hand-out passed around during the meeting Hawkinson is in charge of administrative functions: network operations, scheduling at the direction of the chief, fleet management; supervision of part-time officers: patrol officers, firearms instructor, ordinance officer and serves as the auxiliary officer liaison. Kraemer, who is a full-time officer, is the patrol supervisor and has duties including report approval, direct supervisor of departmental operation at the direction of the chief and evidence custodian. Said Johnson, "In the absence of, for whatever reason, whether it be personal vacation, whatever the occasion, in the absence of Chief Swearingen, the person who is in charge is in fact, Sgt. Kraemer. Sgt. Kraemer is the go-to-guy in place of Chief. It is not Jared Hawkinson. In stating that, going back to the Compiled Statute, in my opinion, in the way I read this, you can have five people read it and get five different opinions; Lt. Hawkinson is actually not a supervisor or directing full-time police officers in any capacity. We're trying to make sure we're not shooting ourselves in the foot with anything we do. And, like I said, five people can read the Compiled Statute and have five different interpretations. Actually, Hawkinson does not have any full-time officers reporting to him in any capacity. As far as the scheduling is concerned, the scheduling is done by the Chief and Lt. Hawkinson puts it on paper."

Swearingen noted, prior to the conclusion of the meeting, there are roadside safety checks planned for September in Abingdon to be conducted by the police department. Their focus will be on seat belt and insurance violations and those not having City Wheel Tax Stickers.

Source: From "Statute Open to Interpretation Says City of Abingdon Officials," by D. Fowlks, August 2, 2007, *Argus-Sentinel, 2*(31). Copyright © 2007 *Argus-Sentinel*.

LEADERSHIP

Managers are typically considered leaders by many inside and outside of the organization. Managers are charged with leading their subordinates through the task and into completion of the job. However, the manager may or may not be good at leading. Since "leadership can arise in any situation where people have combined their efforts

to accomplish a task" (Ivancevich et al., 1989, p. 296), a leader is not always a manager. In other words, management and leadership are not synonymous. An important task of *leadership* is to motivate others to accomplish organizational goals. Managers may tell subordinates what to do and how to do it, but they might not motivate subordinates to actually finish the job. Leaders inspire others not only to do the work but also to finish it. Leaders promote change, keep an eye on the accomplishment of the job, look at long-term goals, and inspire and motivate; whereas managers maintain the status-quo, monitor the means by which the job is getting done, and solve problems as they arise in the organization. Leaders and managers can actually be at opposition in their approach to the work and accomplishment of organizational goals.

There is some debate on whether leaders are born with leadership characteristics, are taught to be good leaders, or are better able to perform leadership behaviors than others. Trait theories put forth that leaders are born with specific characteristics that make them more capable of leading others (Bass, 1981; Lippitt, 1955; Stogdill, 1974). They may be more emotionally stable; be more business-minded; or have more self-confidence, integrity, and honesty, and a constant drive to promote change and to make improvements in their environments. Contrary to this approach, it may be that the person seen as a leader is simply better able to perform the behaviors associated with leadership—being supportive of others, friendly, and approachable; able to set goals, give directions, assign tasks, inspire, and motivate—and get people in the organization to accomplish individual and organizational goals. This is a behavioral approach. Behaviorists are interested in how those perceived as leaders can motivate others to perform. In their minds, leadership can be learned (Shanahan, 1978).

The final approach to explaining leadership is situational. This approach realizes that no one behavior may be appropriate in all situations with all people and that traits alone cannot always inspire others (Fiedler, 1967). Instead, leaders should be able to adapt (and may be taught to do so) to the situation put before them in determining how best to approach the goals of the organization and the individuals being led. In this case, leadership may be a learned quality. This seems to be the approach chosen by Parke-Davis Pharmaceuticals in 2001. The company partnered with the University of Michigan Executive Education Center to develop curriculum to teach its scientists leadership skills. The curriculum required the scientists to develop an individual action plan that addressed teamwork, qualities for success and failure, self-awareness, coaching others, communication, creativity, motivation, organizational structure, setting direction, and promoting change. Parke-Davis believes that its managers have an improved sense of self-awareness, leadership behaviors, and self-confidence as a result of the program. In addition, the organization feels the program provides employees with a "clearer idea of responsibilities and values needed to lead others . . . [as well as improved] communication, teambuilding, and problem solving skills" ("Making Scientists Into Leaders," 2001, p. 938). Learning how to lead, when best to lead, and in what situation leadership skills are most appropriate is the approach put forth in situational theories, as seen in the Parke-Davis curriculum.

The lack of leadership skills initially seen by Parke-Davis in the company's scientists can also appear, at times, in the criminal justice system. Managers, who are assumed

to be the leaders in criminal justice agencies, are usually promoted from within and arrive at their positions because of the amount of time served with the organization, by community election, through appointment, or because of socialization skills or heroism. They do not necessarily possess the abilities to be good leaders and may not be able to adapt easily to situations that arise. Because of the way they obtained their positions, it may be more difficult for them to lead others employed by the agency, since there are relationships already formed with the community and employees. In a study of police chiefs and sheriffs, LaFrance and Allen (2010) found that sheriffs lived in the county they served for an average of 20 or more years longer than police chiefs, were more likely to have served in their current positions longer than police chiefs, and on average have worked for the agency they served for almost six times longer than police chiefs. Based on these findings, even though sheriffs are elected, they have obvious relationships with the community and the employees in the sheriff's office. These relationships may impact the ability to impose changes and lead the department.

In addition, employees in criminal justice agencies are not necessarily encouraged to think outside of the box, often because of constitutional and legal confines and training mandates. Therefore, imagination, creativity, and long-term innovation may not be qualities valued by the agency or used by those viewed as leaders. Thinking of the sheriffs mentioned previously, we are reminded of the old saying, "There's a new sheriff in town," but even with new administration, we may see very few changes occur in the policing organization and in the providing of services. Finally, leadership in criminal justice can be constrained by environmental factors (discussed in detail in Chapter 4) that weigh into these agencies. Union contracts, budgeting constraints, legislative decisions, court rulings, and a lack of community support may limit the amount of change a leader can accomplish inside a policing or correctional institution. These factors may also determine the means used and ends accomplished, so there is little a leader can do to challenge the system. Consequently, the leaders may not be inspired or motivated to accomplish the goals of the organization, and they may end up doing little for those who look to them for guidance and encouragement. For example, in one county in Florida, the Sheriff is attempting to use social media to educate and raise awareness but often experiences negative responses from those viewing the posts. Recently, under a fourth of July fireworks educational video, community members posted numerous comments to include, "So, will this be the year that [the county] Deputies enforce the laws regarding illegal fireworks purchase and use, or just another year where Seniors, Pets, Special Needs Children, Veterans with PTSD, and folks that just want peace and quiet have to just suck it up, and live with it, because it's too much trouble to enforce the laws on the books?" and "When will the department enforce laws about fireworks in neighborhoods???? It is not fair to our vets with PTSD, our pets or our babies!!!!" and "Mr. Entertainment - great safety message" (see Brevard County Sheriff's Office, https://www.facebook.com/BrevardCountySheriff). Although the Sheriff is receiving some pushback, shared leadership (between managers and subordinates) and increased focus on situational leadership skills may increase his ability to garner support with the public and allow him and other officers in similar criminal justice organizations to be more adaptive.

Leaders need to be trained; they should not be assumed to have the abilities to lead just because they have worked for an agency for a long time. An extensive discussion on leadership is provided in Chapter 7.

FOR-PROFIT AND NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

Organizations can be classified into two broad categories, namely, for-profit and nonprofit. This classification of organizations is helpful because the underlying values, objectives, visions, and mission statements that form the guiding principles in attaining organizational goals in each category are different. The inherent differences and similarities found in nonprofit criminal justice organizations and for-profit types of businesses must be understood.

For-profit organizations, such as computer manufacturers, car dealerships, restaurants, and Internet service providers, exist to generate profits from products or services (McNamara, 2007). Their goal is to make a profit by taking in more money than they spend on development, training, personnel, marketing, distribution, and sales of goods and services. For-profit businesses are organized as privately owned or publicly held corporations. They may be unincorporated sole proprietorships owned by one person or partnerships between people or organizations, and the activities of the business are viewed as taxable personal income (McNamara, 2007). The sole proprietor is liable personally for all activities and operations of the business. For-profit businesses can also be organized as corporations (known as C corporations and S corporations). A corporation is considered its own legal entity, separate from the individuals who own it or who formed the organization. Corporations can be for-profit or nonprofit (government owned, for example) (McNamara, 2007). Corporations are usually formed to limit the liability the founders will face if there are poor operations or harmful activities and so that stock can be sold in the business. A board of directors is appointed to oversee the activities of corporations. Finally, for-profit organizations may organize as limited liability companies (LLCs). The LLC combines the advantages of the corporation with those of the sole proprietorship. The founders have minimum personal liability, unless a state or federal law is violated; they can sell stock in the business; they can retain a voice in management decisions, goals, values, and activities; and they can share in profits. This is a very popular form of for-profit organization (McNamara, 2007).

For-profit businesses rely on a formal structure with a rigid hierarchy to accomplish their goals. A president or chief executive officer oversees the business by implementing strategic goals and objectives; working with the board of directors in governance; supporting operations; overseeing design, marketing, promotion, delivery, and quality of the product or service; managing resources; presenting a strong community image; and recruiting investors (McNamara, 2007). The hierarchy branches out from there to include vice presidents who specialize in the various aspects—marketing or promotion, human resources, operations, sales, finances, and so on—of the business. Assistants work directly under the vice presidents, and so it goes until one arrives at the employees working on the assembly line putting the product together or selling the service to consumers.

In addition to the hierarchy, customers are sought after, and hopefully retained, to continuously purchase the product or use the service provided (McNamara, 2007). Investors are relied on to buy stock in the business, or in the case of sole proprietorships, to fund the business until a profit is generated. In the end, the results are the profits yielded from the sales of the product or service. These profits may be distributed among the investors or reinvested back into the organization (McNamara, 2007).

Nonprofit agencies are created to fulfill one or more needs of a community. Criminal justice agencies are considered nonprofit agencies that provide services to society by deterring, preventing, identifying, and processing crime and criminal acts. Even though a nonprofit organization may generate a profit, the goals of these organizations do not include generating monetary earnings, although a service or product may be provided to customers using the agency. By calling an agency *nonprofit*, it can be assumed that the organization is structured in such a way that it is federally and legally forbidden to distribute profits to owners. A profit, in this case, means having more revenue than expenditures (McNamara, 2007).

All activities, goals, and values in a nonprofit organization are centered on the client. *Clients* are the consumers of the nonprofit organization's services. In criminal justice, this includes the victim, offender, community member, witness, treatment provider, and so forth. The nonprofit is designed to meet the needs of the client (McNamara, 2007) by continually assessing the desires of the clients and determining the appropriate means of providing for them. This is a service-oriented approach and is the primary underlying theme of this textbook. Assessments may be done by the executive director or, in the case of criminal justice, the chief in charge of the agency to determine the effectiveness of the organization in meeting client needs. The chief is accountable for the work of the staff and to the public, as well as for carrying out the strategic goals of the organization. If there are failures in meeting needs—for example, crime increases instead of decreases—the chief is the one called to the carpet, so to speak, for an explanation.

The chief may also engage in fundraising to meet the needs of the nonprofit agency and, subsequently, the clientele. Fundraising is not meant to create a profit but to meet the fiscal needs of the organization (McNamara, 2007). Funds may be garnered from grants, individuals, foundations, and for-profit corporations. Grants are likely considered one of the largest fundraising initiatives in the criminal justice system (alongside forfeitures). They are given by governmental agencies (federal or state governments), foundations, and corporations to operate a specific program or initiative. Grant monies are provided up front and require an audit at the end of the grant period showing success or failure at completing the goals identified in the grant application. Individual donations may come from members of the organization or its constituents (wealthy community members, for example). They are usually small, onetime contributions of money or other assets, such as buildings or land (McNamara, 2007). Foundations and for-profit corporations may also choose to give onetime start-up costs to nonprofit organizations on issues they identify as worthy. Microsoft founder Bill Gates and his wife, for example, give charitable donations each year to nonprofit organizations that focus on children's health, AIDS and HIV, and medical and other health issues.

Nonprofits rely heavily on staff and volunteers. The staff are hired and paid by the nonprofit. They report to the administration and work directly with the clients. Since

the agency is not generating profits to pay for large numbers of employees, volunteers are commonly used to assist staff in the completion of tasks. The volunteers come from a number of sources including university intern programs, the AmeriCorps program, high school volunteer programs, civic agencies, and individuals in the community. They are not paid, but their contributions to the organization can be invaluable.

One of the key issues facing nonprofit organizations is devolution. *Devolution* is the term used to describe cutbacks in federal funding to nonprofit organizations (McNamara, 2007). Central to this issue is the fact that less money to a nonprofit means fewer services to clients. As a result of devolution, innovative staff and reliance on volunteers become even more important, as does the ability of the administration to raise funds from other outside sources (McNamara, 2007). Using fees for services is one way nonprofits can overcome the effects of devolution, but it is by no means the most popular choice. In many cases, those using the assistance of nonprofits cannot afford to purchase the services in the first place; otherwise, they would likely go to a for-profit agency for the service. When a fee is involved, the agency is concerned that those most in need of the service cannot receive it because of the fee, and clients are concerned about how to pay for the service in the first place (McNamara, 2007). As a result, assessing fees may put a hardship on the client as well as the agency. A second response to devolution is to bill an outside party for the fee. In some cases, state or county agencies are able to bill the federal government for each client who uses their service. The billed amount may not cover the full cost of the service, but it reimburses the nonprofit for some of the money spent on the client, and it does not require the federal government to make a commitment as significant as a grant (McNamara, 2007). One example of this is in court-ordered counseling services where the client receives individual mental health counseling for free from a nonprofit agency referred by the court. The agency then bills the state or federal government for each client serviced by the therapist. The therapist receives a monthly salary regardless of the number of clients counseled, and the clients receive the treatment they need regardless of the cost.

Priorities for services by nonprofits are determined by the clients, the community, and the political environment, just as the demands for goods and services in for-profit agencies are determined by many of the same individuals. In both for-profit and nonprofit agencies, administrators, as well as staff, must be aware of changes in needs and wants in the environment (McNamara, 2007). Meeting those needs and wants is highly demanding, and there are no easy answers as to how organizations should manage themselves to meet these challenges. A constant concern for progressive organizations is how to continuously improve while offering a high-quality service or product to a diverse group of customers. As discussed in Chapter 3, nonprofit organization service encounters with diverse clients can be complex.

Some of the issues facing both nonprofit and for-profit organizations include the need for good leaders who also possess the ability to manage and lead a team with vision, skill, and sufficient resources to accomplish the strategic goals identified by the agency. Setting realistic goals that are complex enough to challenge employees, but not so complex that they cannot show results, is also an issue. Using diversity so that all perspectives can be taken into consideration and finding people good at planning, organizing, guiding, and motivating others are keys to organizational success (McNamara, 2007). It is also necessary

to have networks in place so that administrators can seek the funds and investments needed to run a successful business. Seeking and receiving advice from experts outside of the agency is important, as well as realizing that all services, in the case of nonprofit agencies, are not going to have an immediate impact, just as all products made by for-profits are not going to be successful (McNamara, 2007). Basically, nonprofit and for-profit agencies have just as many similarities as they do differences. The most important difference to focus on is the size of the organization. "Small nonprofits are often much more similar to small for-profits than to large nonprofits. Similarly, large nonprofits are often more similar to large for-profits than small nonprofits" (McNamara, 2007, no page).

WHAT ARE CRIMINAL JUSTICE ORGANIZATIONS?

The criminal justice system is comprised of many agencies working toward different albeit related tasks. It is important to understand these agencies, their goals and objectives, their history, and their clientele to be able to design an effective and efficient system focused on providing quality services. There are four primary areas of criminal justice: police, courts, corrections, and security (although some would not include security, since it is primarily profit-based).

The police are perhaps the most familiar part of the criminal justice system, since they are the ones called when someone becomes a victim of a crime, the ones that stop drivers who violate traffic laws, and are those seen driving around the neighborhood on patrol by community members. The police department is a highly structured agency primarily responsible for two tasks. First, the police enforce the law by responding to calls regarding law violations, arrest persons they witness or suspect to be violating the law, and make traffic or other types of stops. They rely heavily on state statutes and constitutional requirements in performing these tasks. In this role, the police are essentially gatekeepers to the criminal justice system by determining who will be arrested and brought into the system and who will be warned, let go, or otherwise ignored by the system (McCamey & Cox, 2008). Second, the police are responsible for providing services. Actual enforcement of the law is a minimal part of the police department's daily responsibilities. Using negotiation skills and mediation abilities in situations where there are disputes between parties, providing first aid, checking security alarms on buildings, investigating accidents, transporting prisoners, providing information, fingerprinting, making public speeches, handling calls about animals, and other service-related tasks are common occurrences in a police officer's day (McCamey & Cox, 2008). Strict policies and procedures are followed by the police in carrying out both law enforcement and service-related duties. Police departments typically operate in a centralized manner so that quick responses can occur when calls for assistance are made to the organization. In both enforcement and service-related circumstances, the police are largely a reactive organization that depends on public cooperation in reporting crimes, providing social control, and requesting assistance (McCamey & Cox, 2008). A detailed discussion of policing agencies is provided in Chapter 9.

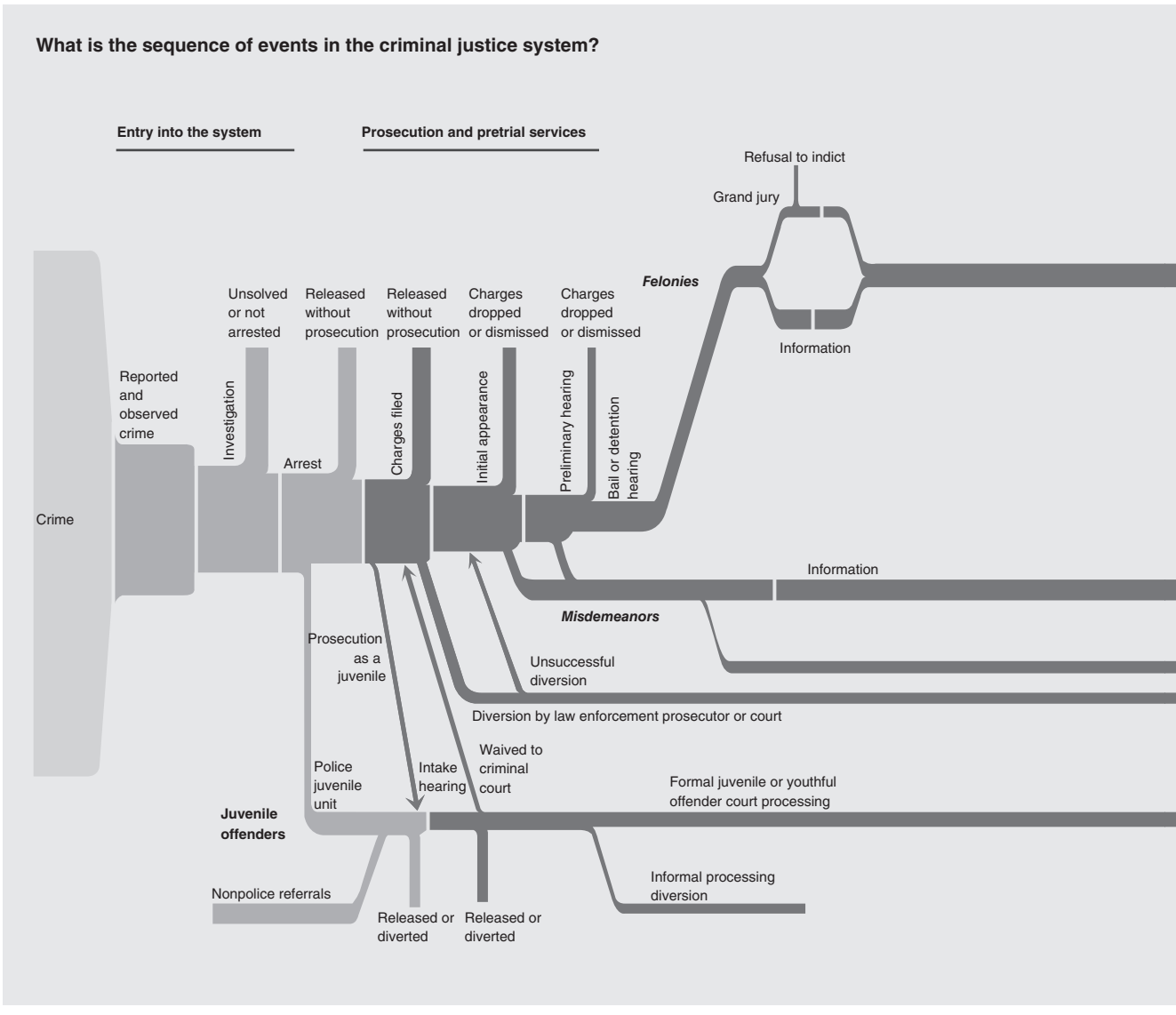
The courts are depicted on television in courtroom dramas such as *Law and Order*. Most people are aware that there is a prosecuting attorney, defense counsel, a judge,

and a jury in the courtroom, but they may not be aware of the court processes, rules, or procedures. Courts are also highly structured, centralized agencies reliant on formal procedures of presenting evidence and hearing cases. The major responsibility of the court system is to provide impartiality to those accused of committing criminal offenses. In court cases, both parties, the defendant and the prosecutor, are allowed to present their arguments within strict procedural guidelines, and the judge and jury are meant to act as decision makers in determining guilt or innocence. Yet this is not the only function of the courts. The courts also determine bail, conduct preliminary hearings, rule on admissibility of evidence, interpret the law, and determine the appropriate sentences for offenders. Constitutional guarantees are the backbone of the court system. By using formal procedures and structures, the court is better able to guarantee objective treatment of those coming before it and to more closely apply the law and constitutional requirements. Without such structure, the court would be full of bias and inconsistency. A detailed discussion of the courts is provided in Chapter 10.

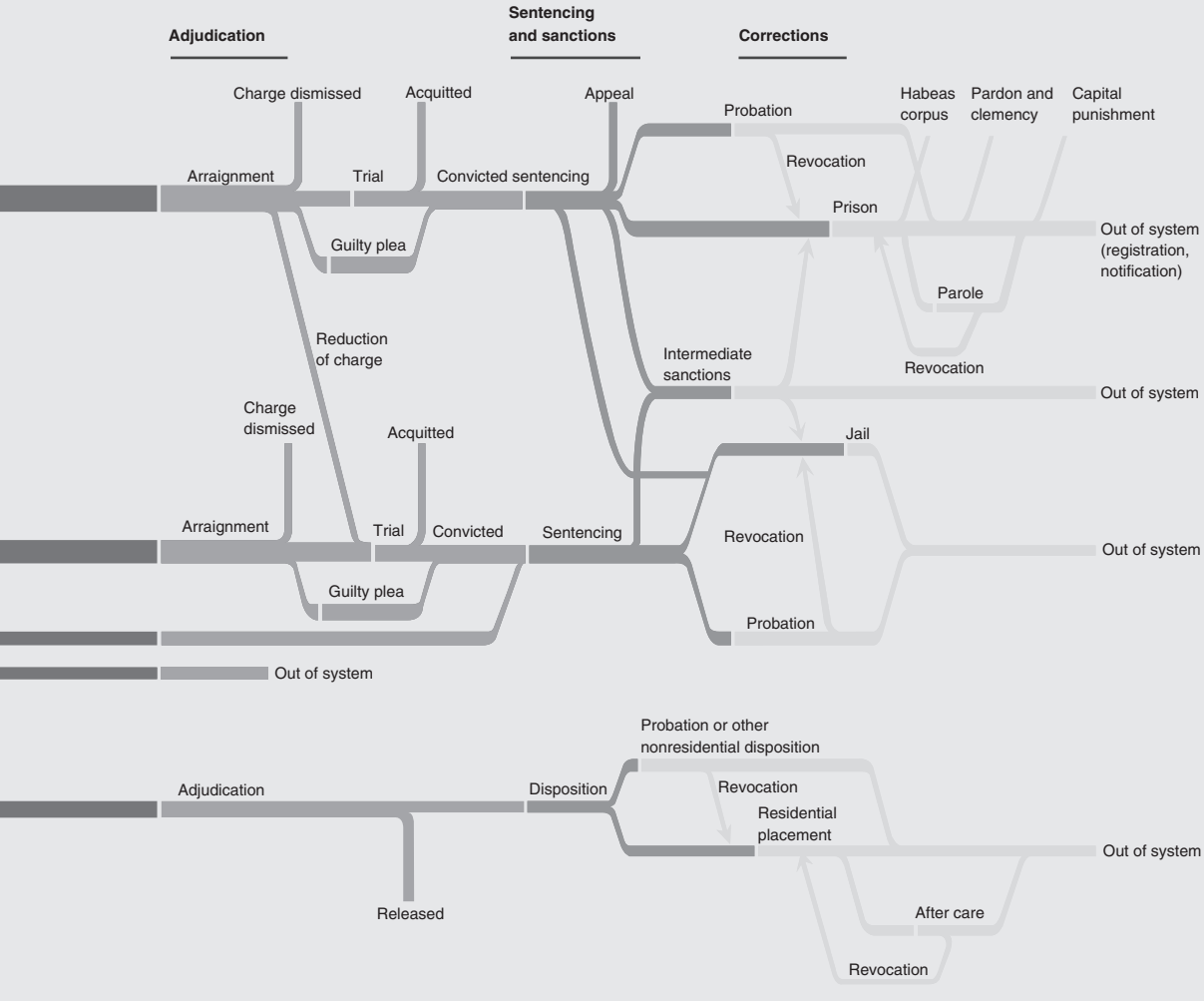
Probation, parole, and treatment programs are not typically as structured as police departments and courts. Employees in these specialties are tasked with making decisions on rehabilitation alternatives that best meet the needs of each individual client. In this case, a strict policy or procedure explaining what to do or what program to use if the client consumes drugs, for example, may not be appropriate. A strict procedure for handling drug offenders and their therapy, which may be included in the agency's policy manual, may actually encourage additional drug use in one person while discouraging it in another, since people are very different when it comes to behavior changes. Consequently, probation, parole officers, and treatment providers must have the ability to choose from numerous alternatives, to weigh the costs and benefits of each against the client's unique situation, and to make the decision on which alternative the client will benefit from the most. In probation and parole offices and treatment programs, the administration uses a hands-off approach as long as the employees are meeting the overall goals of the organization. (It should again be noted that the size of the organization will make a difference, so the ability to generalize structure is limited.) The means used to achieve the goals are less important than the end result of rehabilitation in most probation, parole, and treatment agencies. Probation and parole are discussed in Chapter 11.

As noted in Figure 1.3, corrections is the end result of the criminal justice system. Corrections is another area where individuals may have some experiences (in driving past a prison, knowing someone who was jailed, hearing descriptions of the experiences of jailed celebrities, or watching a prison drama on television) but may not have experienced firsthand the spectrum of correctional alternatives. Thinking of corrections, one tends to think of prisons with fences, correctional officers, and uniformed inmates; however, corrections also includes probation, parole, treatment, diversion, and prevention programs. In this textbook, we discuss correctional institutions, such as prisons, in a chapter on prisons, jails, and detention centers (see Chapter 12). Correctional institutions are found at both the state and federal levels. They have paramilitary structures, although there is autonomy in that the states can make decisions about their institutions separately from the federal system. The primary differences in the institutions may include the gender being housed, the age of the inmates, the types of offenses committed

Figure 1.3 The Criminal Justice System



Source: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, http://www.bjs.gov/content/largechart.cfm.


Adjudication
Sentencing and sanctions
Corrections
Charge dismissed
Acquitted
Appeal
Probation
Habeas corpus
Pardon and clemency
Capital punishment
Arraignment
Trial
Convicted sentencing
Revocation
Prison
Guilty plea
Out of system (registration, notification)
Parole
Reduction of charge
Intermediate sanctions
Revocation
Out of system
Charge dismissed
Acquitted
Jail
Arraignment
Trial
Convicted
Sentencing
Revocation
Out of system
Guilty plea
Probation
Out of system
Probation or other nonresidential disposition
Adjudication
Disposition
Revocation
Residential placement
Out of system
Released
After care
Revocation

by the inmates, and the treatment programs provided. But there are stark similarities in formalization regarding policies and procedures, training of employees, security, and control (McCamey & Cox, 2008). Employees in correctional institutions tend to follow strict policies, often explained in extensive policy manuals and academies, and to work within a highly structured chain of command.

Security is the last area of specialty in criminal justice. Security agencies have seen increased attention through Homeland Security (antiterrorism) initiatives since the terrorist attacks in New York City and Washington, DC, in 2001. The field of security includes many aspects such as private security (guards, protection services, loss prevention, and investigations), cybersecurity (computer-based crime), corporate security (finances, workplace violence, legal liability, health care issues, and risk assessment), as well as governmental security (executive security, investigations, and reporting). Security agencies differ greatly in their organizational structures. As discussed previously, what works for one organization may be unworkable for another. Since the security industry is one of the areas in criminal justice that can be in both private and public sectors, labeling this field as having only formal or informal organizational structure is impossible. Someone who works for a university campus security program may find a highly formalized organization similar to that of the police department in a local town or municipality. Another individual working as a private investigator with a firm may find that there is little structure and much more autonomy in this position. This person is able to decide when to work, how long to work in a day, and how to perform surveillance needed to get the information required. Both parties may have the exact same training and be involved in similar types of tasks, even though the organizational structure differs greatly, impacting the way in which they do their jobs. The security industry is discussed in detail in Chapter 13.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

- Identifying management in an organization may be difficult because policies, procedures, goals, values, and the mission can be influenced by line staff as well as top administrators.
- Many theoretical attempts have been made to identify who management is and the responsibilities of management in an organization. In this text, management is viewed as efficient and effective in meeting organizational goals while using the least amount of resources possible.
- Organizations differ greatly in size, structure, values, goals, and mission. Organizations can be formal or informal, centralized or decentralized. They may have defined chains of command and vertical communication or loosely identified chains of command and horizontal communication. The overall purpose of any organization is to achieve agreed-on goals and objectives.
- Organizations have a vision of how work should be accomplished by the line staff. They identify a mission statement so that those outside of the organization are aware of their purpose. Organizations create value structures that depend on the people working in the organization and the culture

of the organization. Values are considered the priorities of the organization. In addition, organizations use strategic goals to guide their efforts and to accomplish their stated missions. The goals are measurable outcomes used to assess the overall effectiveness of the organization. The more specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-specific (SMART) goals are, the easier they are to identify and achieve.

- Organizations can be considered systems consisting of inputs, processes, outputs, and feedback. Each organization is made up of smaller subsystems operating within the larger organizational system—a multiple systems approach. Employees and managers can also be considered systems operating within subsystems.
- Leaders motivate others to accomplish organizational goals. They may or may not be identified as managers within an organization. Being able to lead is not the same as being a manager. Managers may or may not be good leaders. Theoretical attempts to explain leadership have focused on those born with qualities that make them able to lead others, those taught to be leaders, and those who learn to rely on situations to determine the best way to lead.
- For-profit agencies are designed to develop and deliver products or services that generate income. They may be organized as sole proprietorships, corporations, or LLCs. For-profit organizations tend to be structured formally, with ends being more important than means in accomplishing strategic goals.
- Nonprofit organizations are created to fulfill community and client needs. They are not concerned with generating earnings and rely heavily on fundraising through grants, corporations, individuals, foundations, and governmental agencies to meet budgetary needs. Line staff and volunteers are employed to accomplish strategic goals. One of the biggest issues facing nonprofit organizations is devolution.
- For-profit and nonprofit agencies are similar in that they both require inputs and feedback from the environment. They also rely on good leadership, sufficient resources, achievable goals, diverse staff, and planning for future activities to succeed.
- The biggest difference between nonprofit and for-profit agencies is the size of the organization.
- There are four areas of specialty in criminal justice: policing, courts, corrections, and security. Each area consists of agencies that are organized differently depending on their size, clientele, and strategic goals. All of them work together to accomplish the larger system's goals of upholding the laws, deterring criminal acts, and rehabilitating offenders.

CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Think of an organization in which you are involved. Can you identify a manager in the organization? Can you identify a leader in the organization? Are these two separate individuals? What qualities do each possess that differentiate them from one another?
2. Explain in your own words how the legal requirements impacted the organization structure of the Abingdon Police Department in "In The News 1.1: Statute Open to Interpretation Says City of Abingdon Officials."

3. What qualities do criminal justice agencies share? How are they different? What determines the organizational structure in criminal justice organizations? Describe multiple systems that may exist in a police department.
4. What are the similarities and differences in nonprofit and for-profit agencies? Identify a for-profit agency in your community. Identify a nonprofit agency in your community. What are the differences and similarities between these two agencies? What types of products or services do they provide?

CASE STUDY

On August 11, 2014, a police officer arrested a local sheriff for indecent exposure in a city park. According to the report, Officer Dunham noticed a man exposing himself to women and children as they walked on the paths in the park. He followed the man for approximately a quarter of a mile witnessing the various acts. The man did not attempt to speak to or touch any women or children. He only exposed his genitalia. After approximately 10 minutes, Officer Dunham approached the man while his genitalia was exposed and yelled "Stop, Police!" The man ran into the wooded area adjacent to the path. Officer Dunham chased the man while yelling, "Stop" and "Police." After a short foot chase, Officer Dunham caught the man near the park's parking lot.

While questioning the man, it was discovered that the man's name matched a local sheriff's name. The man then identified himself as the local sheriff and asked if he could retrieve his badge from his car. When Officer Dunham refused to allow him to retrieve the badge, the sheriff requested to speak to Officer Dunham's supervisor, who he referred to by name. He was again refused this opportunity and was transported and booked into the local jail.

The sheriff quickly bonded out of jail and claimed the arrest was a misunderstanding. Officer Dunham stood by the arrest, and community members questioned the integrity of the sheriff and police department. The investigation resulted in formal charges and the conviction of the sheriff on misdemeanor indecent exposure charges. Of interesting note, the sheriff was an elected official, had previously worked in the police department prior to holding office, and the previous seven sheriffs in that department had all faced criminal charges while serving as the sheriff.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Should police officers pursue arrests and legal actions against other officers? Should Officer Dunham have called his supervisor (or manager) to the scene to assist in making the decision to arrest? Why do you think Officer Dunham denied the sheriff the opportunity to speak to his supervisor or to go to his car?
2. Who was the manager in this particular case? Who was the line staff? Would you argue that there is a failure of leadership or of management in this case? Or of both or of neither? If you think there was a failure, explain how or why.
3. How might the previous criminal actions of sheriffs in this department impact the department's mission, vision, structure, and ability to meet its organizational goals?
4. What was the service that was being offered in this case? Was the service successful or unsuccessful? Why?

INTERNET RESOURCES

Administrative Office of U.S. Courts: http://www.uscourts.gov/

FEDSTATS: https://fedstats.sites.usa.gov/

U.S. Department of Justice: http://www.usdoj.gov

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CHAPTER TWO

OPEN VERSUS CLOSED SYSTEMS

Learning Objectives

Upon completion of this chapter, students should be able to do the following:

- Define closed-system models: scientific management, administrative management, and bureaucratic management
- Define open-system models: total quality management model and supply chain/ synergy model
- Describe how the environment is changing and the need for a learning organization
- Explain how the criminal justice system can become a learning organization

Organization design and management practices have transformed over time in response to changes in society. New organizations emerge when fresh needs are discovered or new technologies are available. Alternatively, organizations die or are transformed when the needs satisfied by them no longer exist or have been replaced by other needs (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Mitroff, Mason, & Pearson, 1994). *Organizational theory* is a way to examine and analyze organizations more precisely and intensely based on patterns and trends in organizational design and behavior, which otherwise may not have been done (Daft, 2015). The purpose of this chapter is to explore the nature of organizations and organizational theory. Scholars have provided various models to characterize organizations to view them more scientifically. The central management objective addressed in these models is the efficient running of the organization. These models become the basis for explanations of organizational events, and they can be broadly classified as closed systems or open systems depending on their starting presumption (Thompson, 1967). The *closed-system models* tend to focus on internal events when explaining organizational actions and behavior, while *open-system models* focus on events occurring externally to the organization that influence changes within the organization. A *systems view* considers an organization as a set of interacting functions that acquire inputs from the environment, process them, and then release the outputs back to the external environment (Daft, 2015). At the outset, it needs to be clarified that the words *model* and *theory* will be used interchangeably in this chapter, though at a more subtle level it could be argued that they have fine differences in their implications.

The rest of the chapter is loosely divided into three sections. The first provides a discussion on the closed-system models, where the three main subfields of the classical perspective are presented—namely, scientific management, administrative management, and bureaucratic management. Within each subfield, the advantages and disadvantages in managing the criminal justice system are examined. In the second section, the open-system models are reported, where the humanistic and behavioral perspectives are introduced. This section provides a discussion on the total quality management model and

the supply chain/synergy model, which introduces a new concept of including the customer's perspective in designing open systems. Within each model, the advantages and disadvantages in managing the criminal justice system are examined. The third section examines the changing face of the criminal justice system, making a strong argument for building learning organizations. Such organizations, which are more effective and better suited to the criminal justice system, can only be developed on the foundations of an open system.

CLOSED-SYSTEM MODELS: THE CLASSICAL PERSPECTIVE

Closed-system models consider external environment influences (described in detail in Chapter 4) to be stable and predictable, and they assume that they do not intervene in or cause problems for the functioning of an organization. Therefore, the closed-system models do not depend on the external environment for explanations or solutions to managerial issues; instead, they are enclosed and sealed off from the outside world (Daft, 2015). These models rely primarily on internal organizational processes and dynamics to account for organizational, group, and individual behaviors. Closed systems are easier to deal with theoretically than open systems, and they are preferred, despite their limitations. For example, if abuse of prisoners took place in a certain prison, a closed-system approach would look for explanations for the abuse within the prison itself and then adopt correctional procedures. The prison would examine the prison policies, prison warden, correctional officers, prison culture, officer–inmate interaction, inmate–inmate interaction, and other organizational components of the prison. It would not consider environmental influences to identify the causes of the problems. In other words, the external environment would not be blamed for the abuse. The prison and its officials would assume that something within the facility led to these issues.

The closed-system models, some of which may seem unrealistic in the present circumstances, were the products of the problems and subsequent changes that emerged during the Industrial Revolution. At the beginning of industrialization in the mid-1800s, the early factories were highly inefficient. There were no documented correct ways of doing work. Organizations were constantly thinking of ways to design and manage work to increase productivity, with the focus primarily being internal. The theories and models that emerged as a result are often termed *machine models*, also popularly known as *classical models* or *traditional models*. These models sought to make organizations run like efficient, well-oiled machines by correcting the internal functioning of the organizations.

The three main subfields of the classical perspective are scientific management, administrative management, and bureaucratic management. As will be examined, *scientific management* focuses on the productivity of the individual worker, *administrative management* focuses on the functions of the management, and *bureaucratic management* focuses on the overall organizational system within which the workers and management interact. Though each subfield has a somewhat different focus, they contain some overlapping elements and components. All of these models assume that people are *rational beings*, who act logically and correctly when faced by a given situation. In other words, these models assume that labor is homogenous and that workers behave and act the same

way every time they face a similar situation. According to these models, the correctional officer, the police officer, and the jury will all behave the same way when presented with similar situations at different times and in different places.

Scientific Management

In scientific management, the focus was on improving individual productivity. Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856–1915), the father of scientific management, believed that poor management practices and procedures were the primary problems. While employed at Midvale Steel Company in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, he began experimenting with methods that focused on the worker–machine relationship in manufacturing plants. Based on his observations, he formulated opinions in the areas of task performance, supervision, and motivation that are discussed here (Locke, 1982; Taylor, 1911).

Task performance. Taylor (1911) was convinced that decisions about organizations and job design should be based on precise, scientific study of individual situations. He believed that there was one right way of doing each task, and he attempted to define and document those optimal procedures through systematic study. Taylor calculated that with correct movements, tools, and sequencing, each man was capable of loading 47.5 tons of steel per day instead of the typical 12.5 tons, and Midvale Steel would be able to reduce the number of shovelers needed from 600 to 140.

These types of observations are examples of *time and motion studies*, which identify and measure a worker's physical movements and record the time of activity to determine how to do an activity through the smallest amount of effort. To implement these scientific principles, it was expected that management would do the following:

- Develop standard procedures for performing each job
- Select workers with appropriate abilities and skills to do each job
- Train workers in the standard procedures
- Support workers through careful planning of their work

Supervision. Taylor felt that a single supervisor could not be an expert in all of the tasks on the shop floor. Since the supervisors were promoted after demonstrating high skills in performing a particular function, they should be considered an authority only in that area of expertise. Therefore, each first-level supervisor—called foremen on the shop floor of a manufacturing plant—should be responsible only for workers who performed a common function familiar to the supervisor. Several of these supervisors would be assigned to each work area, with each having separate responsibility for planning, production scheduling, time and motion studies, material handling, and so forth in their area of expertise.

Motivation. Taylor believed that workers could be motivated to work at their fullest capabilities through monetary incentives. Therefore, he advocated a piecework system, in which the workers' pay was tied to their output. Workers who met a standard level of

production were paid a standard wage rate; higher rates were paid for higher production. He also worked out an incentive system that paid each employee $1.85 per day for meeting the new standard, an increase from the previous rate of $1.15. Productivity at Midvale Steel shot up overnight.

Besides Taylor's contribution to scientific management, the husband-and-wife team of Frank and Lillian Gilbreth also made significant contributions to the field. Frank Gilbreth specialized in time and motion studies (Gilbreth, 1970; Locke, 1982). He identified the most efficient ways to perform tasks in 17 work elements (such as lifting, grasping, hammering, etc.) and called them *therbligs.* In one of his studies, he used motion picture film to record and examine the work of bricklayers; he then restructured the tasks in a way that reduced the number of motions from 18 to 5, resulting in a 200% productivity increase (Lewis, Goodman, & Fandt, 2001). Lillian Gilbreth focused on the human aspects of industrial engineering for improving efficiency and productivity. She favored standard days, safer working conditions, scheduled lunch breaks and rest periods, and abolition of child labor.

Contemporary industrial engineers still use time and motion studies and the principles of scientific management to design jobs for greatest efficiency. These methods are also employed in sports. Coaches take their players through hours of videotapes along with commentary on how to perform an action correctly with the least amount of energy and maximum effect. The positions the players are recruited to play have been carefully matched to individual strengths. In law enforcement, the principles of scientific management are greatly emphasized when designing physical strength–building routines and in training officers to deal with uncooperative and dangerous offenders. Hours of videotapes and hands-on training are used to train law enforcement officers in physically handling uncooperative offenders and in the use of force. Every move is carefully planned and simulated by law enforcement officers using task performance and the principles of time and motion studies.

Although the traditional model of organizational design for the various departments in criminal justice derive from changes made during the Industrial Revolution (Batts, Smoot, & Scrivner, 2012), these departments sometimes fail in correctly applying the scientific management principles in administration. Supervisors are considered an authority in their area of proficiency; however, in policing for example, they are often also considered an authority in other areas where they may not have experience. Such an attitude of presumed expertise by the supervisor is a growing problem, as the field of criminal justice is becoming more specialized and complex. In line with the argument presented by Taylor (1911), rising specialization can be better handled by requiring several different supervisors to work as a team. The team members may have separate responsibilities for planning, training, and so forth in their areas of expertise, which will result in better preparedness of the officers being supervised thus improving the quality of service.

The strongest criticism that comes against scientific management involves the treatment of the worker as a machine. It is hard to imagine that workers, who have emotions, unlike machines, would always act in a predictable way, like machines. For example, two law enforcement officers will not act the same way in dealing with a similar situation; in fact, the same law enforcement officer will not deal in exactly the same

way when confronted with a similar situation every time. This difference in action will emerge despite the best of training given to the officers. An officer called to the shopping mall for a juvenile shoplifting incident may not make an arrest the first time he or she responds to the scene. However, on a second response, the officer may take custody of the juvenile and transport the child to the police station. In both instances, the amount of property stolen may be the same, but the officer makes a different decision.

A second criticism brought forth against Taylor (1911) and Gilbreth's (1970) research is their consideration that workers are hired for their physical ability and not for using their mind. Their work establishes that the role of management is to maintain stability and efficiency, with top managers doing the thinking and workers doing what they are told. As mentioned in Chapter 1, innovative or creative thinking is not always a valued characteristic in criminal justice. This is grossly apparent in the police policy manuals that cover just about any action and situation an officer will experience. Consequently, officers are limited, in many cases, in their responses to everyday calls for service as they strictly adhere to guidelines in the manuals. It is not uncommon for officers to spend the first or second eight-hour day of their training with an agency doing nothing but reading the policy manual. Batts et al. (2012) suggest, "Like the auto assembly plants of Henry Ford, traditional police agencies are characterized by a hierarchical authority structure that clearly distinguishes decision-makers from line staff, emphasizes adherence to principles of structure over flexibility, and prizes uniform operations" (p. 2).

Administrative Management

Scientific management focused primarily on the technical core—that is, the work performed on the shop floor by the frontline workers. In contrast, *administrative management* focuses on managers and the functions they perform. Henri Fayol (1841–1925), a French mining engineer, gained popularity when he revitalized a struggling mining company and turned it into a financial success. Based on this successful experience, he identified management functions as planning, organizing, commanding/leading, coordinating, and controlling. He proposed 14 general principles of management, which formed the foundation for modern practice and organizational design (Fayol, 1949) and are discussed below.

Fayol's General Principles of Management

1. *Division of work.* Efficiency and productivity could be improved by dividing the work into smaller work elements called tasks and assigning them to the workers. High repetition of tasks improves the learning, thus increasing the efficiency and productivity of employees.
2. *Authority.* To carry out managerial responsibilities, the managers should have the authority to issue commands to their staff.
3. *Discipline.* The staff should be disciplined to obey the issued commands and the rules of the organization for its smooth functioning.

4. *Unity of command.* Each worker should get orders from one boss to whom he or she reports. This clear line of command will avoid conflicts and confusion.
5. *Unity of direction.* All similar and related activities should be organized and directed under one manager. Such an arrangement will also facilitate unity of command.
6. *Subordination of individual interest to the general interest.* The goals of the organization should supersede the interests of individual employees.
7. *Remuneration of personnel.* The financial compensation for the work done should be based on the principle of fairness to both the employees and the organization.
8. *Centralization.* Power and authority should be concentrated at upper levels of the organization. However, the middle management and their subordinates should be given sufficient authority to perform their jobs properly.
9. *Scalar chain.* A single, continuous line of authority should extend from the top level to the lowest frontline worker in the organization.
10. *Order.* An organization should provide a work environment where the policies, rules, instructions, and so forth are clear and easily understood, resulting in both material and social order. Worker productivity improves when the system ensures that materials are in the right place at the right time and that the right workers are assigned to the jobs best suited to their skills.
11. *Equity.* Management should display equity, fairness, and a sense of justice toward subordinates.
12. *Stability of personnel tenure.* Employees learn with experience, making them more productive and efficient with tenure and job security. Therefore, employee turnover should be prevented as much as possible.
13. *Initiative.* The general work environment should provide the subordinates sufficient freedom to take initiative in carrying out their day-to-day work.
14. *Esprit de corps.* Management should foster worker morale, team spirit, and harmony among workers to create a sense of organizational unity.

Many of the principles proposed by Fayol, such as division of work, authority and responsibility, unity of direction, remuneration of personnel, and order (Fayol, 1949), are compatible with the views of scientific management and apply well to the criminal justice system. Fayol favors division of labor, a principle that is implemented in criminal justice agencies. There are line personnel (police officers, correctional officers, probation officers, juvenile officers) who are frontline workers implementing the organizational goals and objectives. Specialized staff members work behind the scenes, supporting the frontline officers by providing advice in such areas as planning, research, legal issues, and so forth. Auxiliary functions provide logistical support,

including record keeping, communications, operations, map directions, coordination, and so on (Wren, 1994). Specialization and division of labor bring efficiency by focusing on understanding the law and mastering the technicalities of work. Specialization allows workers to develop greater expertise, thus enabling them to perform the work more efficiently. Fayol also favors centralization of power and authority at upper levels of the organization.

Furthermore, Fayol (1949) proposes subordination of individual interests to the goals of the organization. Such centralized authority is observed in policing and corrections. Most decisions are vested in the hands of the administration and are delivered from the top down. Work is often designed and assigned to criminal justice officers with efficiency and productivity in mind. Authority resides with the supervisors to enable them to give orders and get the work done. There is strict discipline, making it essential that members of the criminal justice system respect the rules that govern it. There is unity of command, unity of direction, and adherence to the uninterrupted chain of authority in law enforcement, corrections, and security agencies. There is also emphasis placed on equipment being well maintained and put in the right place to be available at the right time, since numerous situations that arise in criminal justice require very fast response times.

Mismanagement of Fayol's organizational elements can lead to breakdown and disorganization (Dias & Vaughn, 2006; Wren, 1994). For example, when unity of direction is not strictly adhered to, the criminal justice system fails. Dias and Vaughn cite the example of administrative breakdown during the riots of May 1992 in Los Angeles after the acquittal of the officers who were charged with the beating of Rodney King. It was reported that no specific senior officer of the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) could be identified from whom the frontline officers were to receive orders or to whom they were to report (Police Foundation, 1992). Similarly, the abuses at Abu Ghraib prison in Iraq were attributed to the unclear dissemination of procedures, goals, and objectives, which resulted from conflicting directions that soldiers got from multiple senior officers. There was a lack of unity of command that led to administrative failure (Hersh, 2004).

Though Fayol's (1949) managerial functions of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling are routinely used in criminal justice agencies, some of the principles are not compatible with those of contemporary management. For example, centralization of power and authority at upper levels of the organization is not considered to be a favored practice. Instead, modern management principles allow frontline workers more autonomy and authority for making and carrying out decisions. Modern management places much more emphasis on good training that will enable the officers to make appropriate decisions rather than always reverting back to the centralized power hub to get directions. Training improves officers' skills, making them more aware of the demands of the environment in which they are working, and thus enabling them to provide superior service to all of their customers (e.g., citizens, clients, offenders, arrestees, detainees, etc.). By definition, anybody to whom an agency provides a professional service is the customer. Contemporary management views employees as valuable assets whose interests must be considered at all times (Lewis et al., 2001).

Bureaucratic Management

Whereas scientific management focuses on the productivity of the individual worker, and administrative management focuses on the functions of the manager, bureaucratic management focuses on the overall organizational system in which both the workers and the managers interact. The *bureaucratic model* was developed by Max Weber (1947), and it emphasizes designing and managing organizations based on five principles:

1. *Impersonal social relations.* Weber did not favor employees relating on a social basis in the workplace. He felt such interactions led to nepotism (favoritism based on social connections), which compromised productivity and efficiency. Therefore, he said that organizations should operate according to laws, which would eliminate such favoritism. According to him, productivity should be the sole measure of performance. He emphasized distance between supervisors and workers and felt there was no place for emotions in rule enforcement. Maintaining personal distance was considered a strong defense against the potential loss of power in the event that a supervisor was required to reprimand the subordinate. In application to criminal justice, correctional officers in prisons are trained to maintain social distance with the inmates to prevent a loss of control and to heighten their ability to reprimand inmates.

2. *Employee selection and promotion.* Weber emphasized that employees should be selected based on their skills and technical competence, and that they should be promoted based on performance and not on whom they know. He felt that nepotism had no place in a bureaucratic setup. Though that may be true for most big organizations, there is still nepotism in personnel policies of smaller organizations, including law enforcement agencies.

3. *Hierarchy of authority and spheres of competence.* According to Weber, within an organization, job positions should be ranked according to the amount of power and authority each possesses. In the resulting pyramid-shaped hierarchical structure, power and authority increase as the levels get higher, and each lower-level position is under the direct control of one higher-level position. Weber believed that authority and responsibility should rest in a position and not be based on who is holding that position. For example, if the written rules state certain expectations of duties from a supervisor, then these obligations cannot change when different individuals hold that same supervisory job. Adapting this Weberian tenet to law enforcement, there is continuous effort in designing new aptitude-assessing tools followed by more rigorous and creative training methods. More thorough background checks and better oral tests are also being employed for screening purposes. Various law enforcement agencies have raised their requirements for recruitment and promotion to improve the sphere of competence in their officers. Hiring and promotions are not always based on education. Police officers in most states are not required to have a bachelor's degree. A high school diploma or GED is sufficient. As a result of increased professionalism, some departments are implementing promotion standards that include degree requirements, although it is not standard throughout the United States (McFall, 2006).

4. *System of rules and procedures.* Weber emphasized the need to provide clear formal rules and guidelines for performing all organizational duties, to which employees must strictly adhere. He believed that provision of a comprehensive set of rules and procedures enabled people to make decisions that are more objective, without allowing their personal judgments to interfere. Moreover, rules and procedures help maintain continuity when people retire or leave.

Organizations at national, state, and local levels (such as the International Association of Chiefs of Police, Police Executive Research Forum, the National Sheriffs' Association, and the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives) have invested much time and effort in writing standards and rules by which to regulate employee behavior in law enforcement agencies. Although there are no national mandates on police departments, outside of laws, there is an accrediting body called the Commission on Accreditation of Law Enforcement Agencies that works with departments to standardize rules and expectations for employees. In this way, a police department seeking accreditation can better identify hiring, promotion, evaluation, and supervision standards while clarifying standards on which agency and individual performance can be measured. Not every police department is accredited (an issue that is also discussed in Chapter 9), but all departments set minimum standards and policies for their officers. In some cases, the standards for hiring and supervision may also come from the state and federal levels, depending on whether the officer works for a state or federal agency. For example, in Illinois, police departments face mandates on the reporting of offenses charged against police officers, on newly hired police officers, and on weapons and training requirements. According to the mandates, a new police officer must complete the Law Enforcement Basic Training Course within the first six months of hire, sheriffs and deputy sheriffs must complete 20 training hours per calendar year, and all law enforcement officers must complete the Mandatory Firearms Training Course and requalify annually in firearms training. Agencies must report to the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board (2016) any arrest or conviction of a law enforcement officer.

5. *Task specialization*. Weber believed that task specialization provides greater efficiency. He emphasized that the duties should be divided into simpler, more specialized tasks to enable an organization to use its workers more efficiently. Such division of work leads to less interference and allocates responsibility with each job. Task specialization is used today in all criminal justice agencies. In policing, for example, officers may be assigned to units such as community policing, juvenile divisions, homicide divisions, special victims divisions, or detectives units. Probation officers are trained to work with specific types of offenders. They may work with those offenders on low-risk probation in which the offender is referred to many treatment and rehabilitation programs, and the probation officer is simply a liaison and coordinator for the offender. Other probation officers may work specifically with unique populations of offenders such as those on electronic monitoring, those placed inside facilities such as boot camps or drug rehabilitation centers, or sexual offenders. In either case, the employees are able to work more efficiently, since they are responsible for just one part of the overall agency's population.

The advantages of Weber's bureaucratic principles include the following:

- Productivity is increased by matching personal competence with job requirements.
- Efficiency is enhanced through the adoption of task specialization. Furthermore, employees are selected and promoted based on their skills and competence, which ensures the best available person for the job.
- Duplication of work is eliminated by strictly allocating designated spheres of work activity to individuals, thus creating clear lines of control.
- With the given procedures and rules, employees can predict the effort required to earn rewards, and they are more clear on the career progress path, which results in greater loyalty.
- Rules and procedures allow greater standardization, which help maintain continuity through easy replacement of employees and eliminates impartiality.

The bureaucratic model can best be applied in a very structured work environment characterized by a well-defined chain of command, a rigid hierarchy, and strict formal rules. These conditions are best adapted to a system providing standardized services. However, there is much criticism against the bureaucratic and machine models when applied to the criminal justice system, where every encounter is believed to be different.

As mentioned before, machines do not have feelings like human beings, and can provide the same outcome when operating under similar conditions. However, human beings have emotions that can change during interactions, thus changing the outcomes even when the conditions may be the same as in other encounters. Since criminal justice services are highly labor intensive and involve a high degree of contact between the officer and the other person (e.g., offender, victim, citizen, complainant, etc.), there is a significant scope of human emotions and feelings surfacing during decision making, which may lead to different outcomes even under similar conditions. Consequently, principles of Weber's management model that are embedded in the unrealistic assumption of treating people as machines have limitations when applied to the criminal justice system. According to the machine and bureaucratic models, given procedures and rules, anyone can take the supervisory role effectively. However, as will be discussed in Chapter 7, personality traits of individuals can confound their leadership abilities and can introduce inconsistency between what they are supposed to do and what they actually do.

One can see the impact of human emotions and feelings that play out in the courtroom. Judges working in juvenile court often adopt parent figure or lawgiver roles when listening to cases and determining what is in the best interest of the juvenile. Judges acting as parent figures are most concerned with the overall well-being of the youth and less concerned about the formalities of due process in the court and the courtroom. In this case, the judge may allow the youth or the youth's family to present information and to show remorse. Once that occurs, the judge weighs the information and emotion

in the final determination of adjudication and disposition. Instead of a standard punishment, the judge may provide continuances so that a resolution outside of court can be determined, or the judge may place the child on supervision for an undetermined amount of time while problems are resolved. Lawgiver judges are just the opposite. These judges are primarily concerned with procedural requirements. This type of judge holds the child's total well-being and personality to be less important than due process. Even if the child is in need of care and rehabilitation, the judge may dismiss a case if the prosecutor cannot prove beyond a reasonable doubt that the youth committed the act alleged in the petition. Treatment or identification of problems in the child's life is secondary to statutory requirements. The personalities of both types of judges influence how they function in the courtroom (Cox, Allen, Hanser, & Conrad, 2017). Therefore, it is hard to imagine comprehensive coverage of all situations by extensive rules and procedures.

The same set of rules cannot be enforced in the exact same fashion in all situations. In juvenile justice for example, some detention centers operate under a policy that forces youth who commit felony offenses to remain in detention for a minimum time. Although this provides ammunition for increased funding at the end of the budget year, it is not always feasible—nor is it necessary—to hold every felony offender in detention. Incarceration is supposed to be reserved for those who pose the most threat to society. If one looks at shoplifting statutes, for example, a child who steals an HDTV from a retail store in Missouri can be charged with a felony offense if the television is worth more than $500 (Missouri Revised Statutes, 2007). A person must ask if this child is really a threat to society. Does this child really belong in detention with others who might have committed much more serious offenses, such as robbery or rape? In this case, a generalized rule regarding detention of youth may not be appropriate for all.

Rulification, emphasizing the rules and policies of the organization that best meet the needs of every situation, consistent with Weber's principles of management, is impossible in the criminal justice system. Rulification gives rise to bureaucratic *red tape*, a term often used for strict adherence to procedures and rules. Bureaucratic red-tapism works against organizational innovativeness and progress, leading to a sharp decline in service quality. Strict adherence to procedures and rules, and an unwieldy chain of command in a bureaucratic structure, slow the pace of change, adversely influencing flexibility and innovativeness. Everything has to be done in accordance with the rules under this system, with no place for innovative approaches to deal with new situations that are emerging from changes in the environment (discussed in detail in Chapter 4). Nowhere is the ineffectiveness of this system more obvious than in the war on drugs. Policies have been enacted to control drug distribution and manufacturing. The United States has spent billions of dollars fighting the war on drugs, only to see a drug raid occur one hour and the drug market flourishing in the same neighborhood within the next hour. Statutes require the incarceration of drug offenders, even though other approaches to preventing continued drug involvement, such as drug courts, may be more effective. Little creative thought has traditionally existed in this approach to crime control.

Furthermore, because of strict vertical lines of command and multiple layers of hierarchy, bureaucratic structures stifle communication, often giving rise to the *grapevine*.

This informal communication may not provide entirely true information, but it becomes a powerful source for filling the void created by a lack of formal communication. It may also give rise to informal leaders, who can interfere with the authority of the formal leaders and adversely affect the employees' attitude toward their work. Consequently, the formal leaders may face difficulty enforcing procedures and rules. Therefore, criminal justice agencies must pay special attention to combat the negative influence of grapevines through innovative structural changes to improve communication. For example, detention centers often use *linking pins*, or individuals who convey information from one shift to another, thus maintaining continuity. In one detention center familiar to the authors, one employee was hired to work four hours of his shift with the day staff and four hours with the evening staff. He was able to provide informal information from one shift to the other. Since he was the only employee in this position, the organization held him accountable for the information shared. In other words, there was a single, identifiable source for informal communications between the two shifts. This was beneficial for both the employees and the agency because formal and informal communication could be passed in a somewhat controlled manner.

Another tenet of Weber's (1947) theory is specialization of tasks, which brings efficiency. However, it is now seen that specialization up to a point improves efficiency, but then it acts detrimentally to the very same cause. As employees get more and more specialized, they start losing perspective on the full picture of the organization, and they start working in silos. These workers lose flexibility to accommodate any variability in a situation that does not fit into their rigid job definitions. An accompanying implication of specialization is resistance to change. Furthermore, too much specialization promotes suboptimal use of resources, adversely impacting organizational capacity. For example, visiting a bank that operates on specialization, one will typically find long lines in front of some customer service representatives and none in front of others. This is because of the nature of customer needs, which are not equally divided on any given day among all employees specializing in different areas. This bank obviously is unable to fully use all of its employees, some being overworked and some having very little work. On the other hand, another bank where the employees are cross-trained will be better able to fully use all of its personnel. In this bank, customers with different needs can stand in any line and can be served by any customer service representative, thus leading to almost equal lines in front of all employees. Similarly, in law enforcement there should be some amount of specialization, which should be integrated with cross-training for officers to handle a broad spectrum of functions.

The bureaucratic and machine models do not give much attention to the interdependence between various subsystems of an organization. Instead, they promote specialization that breeds the *departmentalization mentality*, where the department becomes more important than the organization. This isolation defeats the overall efficiency of the organization because departmental excellence supersedes the organizational goals. For example, consider a travel department in an organization that flies the sales associates for business purposes on red-eye flights. The express objective is to curb travel costs, an important measure used to evaluate the performance of the travel department. However, the sales associates complain that they are very tired and unproductive the