

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 fourth 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 US 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 fourteen 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 to design/redesign the service delivery process to bring a greater customer orientation, thus improving the overall service quality.

The Fourth 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, probation-police relationships, inmate-staff relationships, institutional racism, militarization of police training and use of lethal force, and fatal police shootings
- Increased discussion of how the media impacts criminal justice agencies, homeland security era policing, 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

- Revised case studies with critical thinking questions
- Updated Career Highlight boxes
- New In the News articles to demonstrate how research and practice are interconnected

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
- Lists of references and suggested readings that provide students with the primary sources for the information in these chapters

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Chapter 1

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Defining Management and Organization

Learning Objectives

- Explain management, organization, and leadership
- 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. Even though the management permeates everything 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, create procedures, and have input into the mission and long-term goals of the organization. Consider police officers, for example. One officer on patrol may consider a driver as speeding if they are driving at five or more miles over the posted speed limit. Another officer may not consider a driver to be speeding unless they are ten miles or more over the posted speed limit. Even though the law says that the speed limit is fifty-five miles per hour, and the police agency is expected to ticket drivers driving over 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. According to Hecht, “Management is an activity” (p. 1). Thus, even frontline personnel can be considered managers. Research defining management has been ongoing and there are conflicting definitions of management. This means that each organization faces the unique task of determining how it will be managed and by whom.

This chapter will investigate the term *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 covered 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 chapter inventory. 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 complex term to define. It is easier to identify what a manager does or is supposed to do than to determine 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 be displayed, 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, 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 et al., 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 Chapter 2 and 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.

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 chapters that follow, look for the Career Highlight Box, 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 advisers 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.

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 (the commonwealth) 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 contrast with 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 et al., 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 Orlando Police Department's mission statement is to "keep Orlando a safe city by reducing crime and maintaining livable neighborhoods" (City of Orlando, n.d., para. 3).

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 (n.d.) while the City of Orlando's police department notes their officers are dedicated, loyal, prideful, courageous, and committed (n.d.).

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), goals 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, an agency's strategic goals 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 its 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 specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-specific (SMART) the agency's goals are, the easier it is for others to determine whether an agency has actually met the strategic goals.

The better organized an organization is, the better it will 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, the organization is seen as decentralized if there are few levels of authority between the top managers and the line staff (those performing the everyday tasks or jobs). *Decentralized organizations* allow lower-level staff to make decisions on policies or procedures that directly affect accomplishing 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 is 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

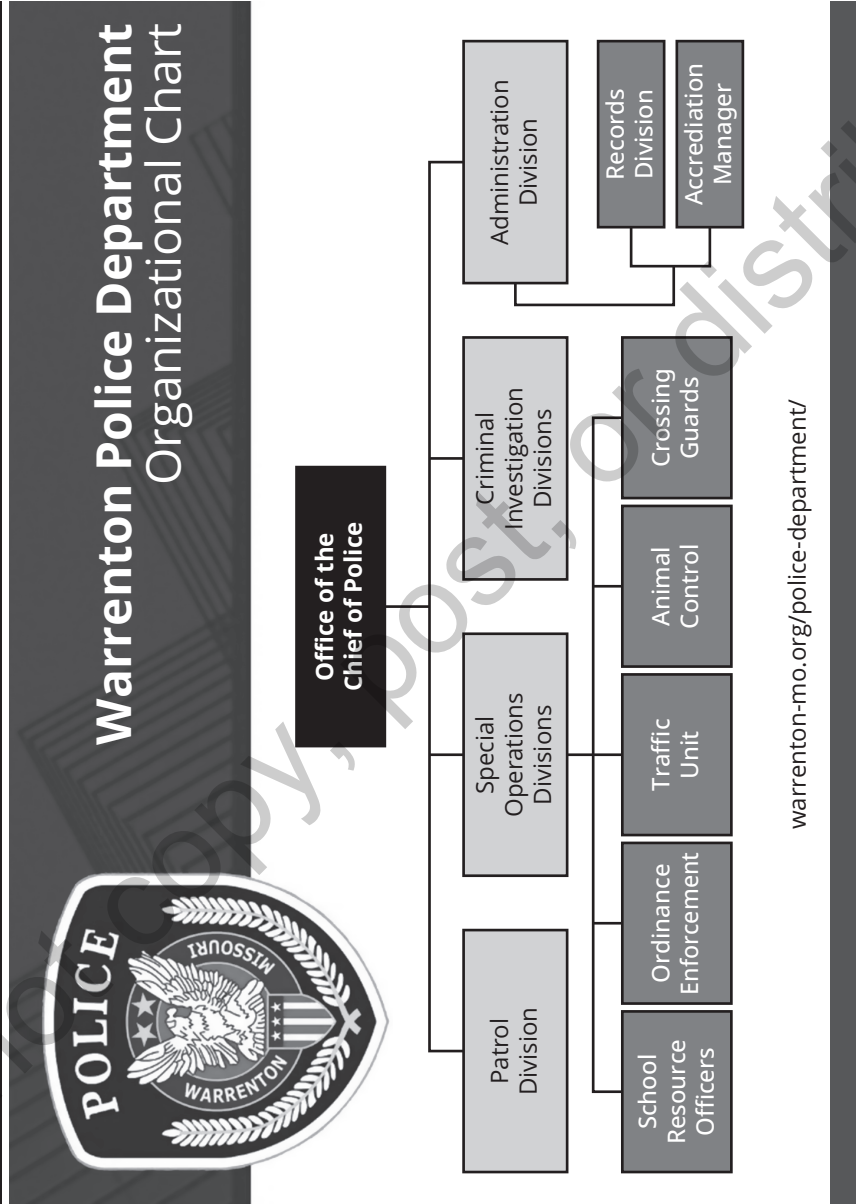
similar fashion. By looking at Figure 1.1, we can see a sample of the formal structure typical of a police department. The patrol officers report to the shift sergeants, who report to the corporals, who report to the lieutenants in each squad. Each area of specialty has a defined chain of command within the overall chain of command or formal structure of the organization. We can see from the figure that the Warrenton Police Department uses a very centralized and formal organizational structure.

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 each other and, sometimes, to the judge. In essence, this is a more *informal organizational structure*. In probation, the *line staff* for 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 can 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 medium-sized police department in Figure 1.1.

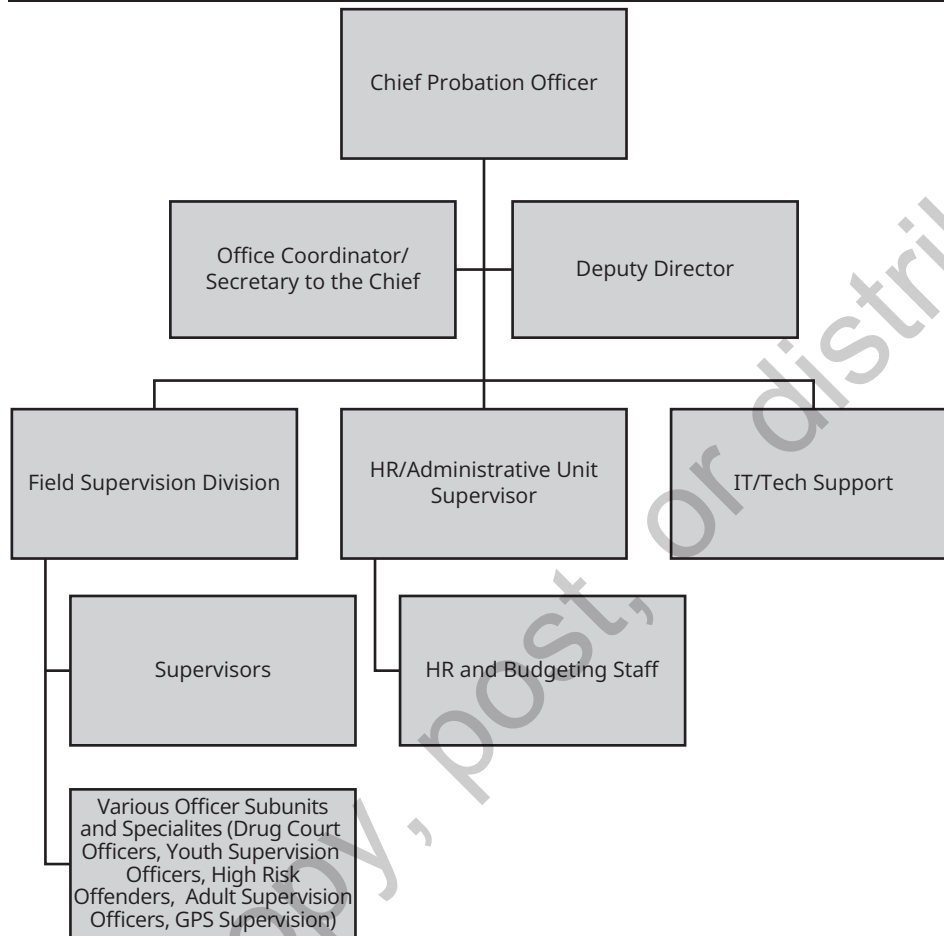
Organizations are also structured as systems (discussed in detail in Chapters 2 and 3). Basically, this means that organizations have inputs, outputs, processes, and feedback. The whole system is designed to accomplish the organizational goal(s) (McNamara, 2007). *Inputs* are taken in by the organization and 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 whether the organization is successful. The final step in the systems approach includes feedback. *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,

Figure 1.1 ■ Organizational Chart of a Medium-Sized Police Department



Source: Warrenton Police Department. (2020). Warrenton Police Department Chain of Command. Retrieved from <https://www.warrenton-mo.org/police-department/organization/>

Figure 1.2 ■ Organizational Chart of Medium-Sized Probation Department

and feedback (McNamara, 2007). Detective units in police departments can be thought of as subsystems. The detectives' unit has its own mission, 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 (sometimes called the College of Social Sciences) along with other departments with similar disciplines (social work, sociology, etc.), and they share a mission and common goals and values set by the dean of the college. 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 (i.e., the university president). 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.

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. In contrast, managers maintain the status quo, monitor how the job is getting done, and solve problems as they arise in the organization. Leaders and managers can be in 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, business-minded, or have more self-confidence, integrity, and honesty, and a constant drive to promote change and improve their environment. 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. 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.

A lack of leadership skills can 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 may 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 twenty 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 could impact the ability to impose changes and lead a department.

In addition, employees in criminal justice agencies are not necessarily encouraged to think outside 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 since the sheriff is from the town and may have little incentive to enact change. 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. In the end, 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. The US Department of Justice published an article that further considers the issues mentioned here (see In the News 1.1). An extensive discussion on leadership is provided in Chapter 7.

In The News 1.1: What really matters for effective police leadership?

You owe it to those you lead to practice the positive leadership attributes you admire in others and never do the bad things you've observed

In my previous **two articles**, I espoused two of my steadfast beliefs – based on over 30 years in police supervision and executive leadership roles in one of North America's largest police services:

1. **Leadership can make or break morale** and in doing so affect levels of police employee professionalism and productivity. Without effective leadership, employees won't feel connected, will not be inspired and will likely not act and do their very best; and
2. Police department professionalism and productivity ultimately **impact public trust**. The department is not apt to develop the vital trust of the public they serve if they are not perceived to be professional and always trying their best to ensure community safety and reduce victimization. Overall, such a scenario will create an ineffective "us versus them" policing environment and severely hurt both employee retention and the ability to recruit the best the community has to offer.

While you are reading this article, I'd ask that you do two things: Firstly, think of the best leader you ever worked for and what made them that way. What was it they did or said that made you willing to walk through broken glass for them? Secondly and conversely, think of the worst boss you ever had. What was it about them that made you want to quit the job, go home and suck your thumb and cry yourself to sleep?

Weak leadership has negative impacts on all public or private sector organizations, but in a policing environment that continues to be plagued with allegations of racism and excessive force, that range from real to exaggerated to contrived, combined with calls for government reviews into and for the defunding of police, it has never been more critical to get leadership right. Police leaders owe that to their communities and to their employees.

Essential leadership skills

I was a cop most of my adult life and in leadership roles throughout. I saw and learned from the very best, but sadly they were few and far between. I also learned tremendous leadership lessons from the weakest of leaders, but they taught me how NOT to treat people. Then there was a large glut in the middle. They were

supervisors and managers who really didn't care about anyone but themselves; never tried hard to inspire, coach, or mentor others or to make good decisions; but at the same time were not necessarily offensive. They simply filled a uniform, or a suit and they were most often physically present, but that was it. For much of my career, it was a depressing picture.

When I wrote my book, "**Never Stop on a Hill**," I put questions similar to what I asked you above regarding good and bad leaders to many police chiefs from across Canada in one-on-one interviews, and to thousands of police employees during lectures and through informal surveys I conducted. When I asked those questions to live audiences, I immediately saw the gears turning among them as they pictured the worst and the best leaders that have impacted their lives. Some smiled, others grimaced.

Chief Rick Deering (Ret.) of both the Ontario Provincial Police and the Royal Newfoundland Constabulary told me: "The best leader I had the pleasure of working for was Roy Gordon, a common-sense, soft-spoken gentleman with a quick wit and a sense of humor that was appreciated by all. He taught me many valuable lessons regarding the art of leadership through the humility, empathy and honesty that accentuated every decision he made, particularly the difficult ones. In particular, he had the innate ability to accurately assess every situation on its own merits and apply the best resolution for all involved. Succinctly put, he was a master at both talking the talk, and walking the walk."

Many police personnel at all levels describe individuals with similar "people skill" qualities that positively impacted them as leaders. They speak of courage, decisiveness, passion, support, humility, empathy and honesty. They give examples of leaders who were there for them in the tough times, personally and professionally. I heard descriptors like: "He'd stop and talk to people and make them feel special." They confirmed my belief that leadership is all about people.

From an essential skill perspective, the qualities that most often resonate with employees are as follows:

1. **Communication.** I firmly believe that if you can't communicate you cannot lead. Leaders must be able to effectively talk and honestly listen, in good times and bad, formally in meetings and casually in the hallway, in groups and individually. Communicating with personnel about employee issues and needs as opposed to all the wonderful accomplishments of the leader is key. Ensuring an environment in which respectful feedback is both given and taken is a must.
2. **Decision-making.** Real leaders do what is right, not what is easy or expedient, and do it for the right reasons – the good of the community and in the best interests of those being led, as opposed to what is best for the leader's resume. They involve employees in identifying the problems and the solutions. When feasible, true leaders actively seek input prior to making decisions and at the very least communicate the "what" and the "why" of their decision-making. It should never be a "Where is this coming from?" environment from an employee perspective.
3. **Accountability.** It should not be a "do as I say but not as I do world." True leaders ensure employees are accountable and that they are accountable themselves. Many employees expect to be held accountable but expect the punishment to fit the crime and in a uniform way. Many employees have told me stories of superiors who were totally unaccountable themselves but harangued good

employees over the most trivial of issues while allowing pet employees to get away with anything. Fairness and consistency emerged as key themes, as did the ability of leaders to distinguish honest mistakes from acts of malice with an even-tempered approach.

4. **Caring and supportive.** Employees of all ranks want leaders who know them, appreciate and care about them. I've regularly heard the sentence "He (or she) doesn't even know me." Of all the feedback I have received about my leadership success over the years (and I have had my failures as well), I have no doubt that "knowing" people has been my strength, as has knowing their names, stopping to say hello, asking them about their families, and acknowledging work successes. Also checking in on them following difficult personal or professional events are things that mean the world to people. And we cannot forget that they are "people" with names, histories, families, goals and feelings and a need to feel supported.
5. **Inspiring.** When you think back to your own lives and careers, those who inspired you to be and do your very best undoubtedly stand out in your minds. As a leader, that should be a critical goal: Inspire those around you. Employees who feel they have a say, feel understood, appreciated and supported are much more apt to be inspired to contribute to department goals and strategies. At the same time, they will likely do it more professionally than those who merely do the minimum because they are forced to.
6. **Building trust.** All successful roads lead to trust. By effectively and honestly communicating and supporting your people with integrity while demonstrating your faith in them, a two-way trustful environment will emerge. Would you strive to do your best for a leader who you do not trust? No. Nor will those you lead. Trust is a critical commodity. Work hard to build and maintain it.

Choose good leadership

Observations I have received about bad leaders are the total antithesis of the good and great ones. Bad leaders are largely described as unethical, dishonest and poor communicators. Some have tremendous egos. They are more concerned about their own careers than those of the officers they led. They play favorites, are insecure, show a lack of judgment and/or common sense, and are prone to panic and abuse people verbally through demeaning commentary and derogatory behavior. In fact, they really aren't "leaders" at all but simply have been appointed to leadership roles.

Bad leaders were described by police officers as people who:

- Cause hatred and dissension
- Destroy morale and ruin lives
- Won't make decisions
- Are self-serving and full of entitlement
- Surround themselves with "yes people"
- Are abusive, ignorant and rule with an iron fist
- Care about no one but themselves
- Blame others, take credit
- Never seek input as they know it all.

The resounding lesson is this: Remember what the good leaders did and do those things yourself as a leader. Then remember what the bad leaders did and never do those things to anyone, ever. Those leaders significantly impacted you in both wonderful and disturbing ways, so you owe it to those you lead to use the positive attributes and not the negative qualities that you personally experienced.

You are bound to be a better leader as a result.

Source: Lewis, C. D. (2022). What really matters for effective police leadership? *Police1*. Retrieved from <https://www.police1.com/chiefs-sheriffs/articles/what-really-matters-for-effective-police-leadership-QcB15RDHXs5PQYS8/>

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 business activities are viewed as taxable personal income (McNamara, 2007). The sole proprietor is personally liable for all business activities and operations. 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 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; retain a voice in management decisions, goals, values, and activities; and 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 client's needs (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 organization's effectiveness in meeting client needs. The chief is accountable for the work of the staff and 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 ex-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 several 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 can 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 referred by the court receives individual mental health counseling for free from a nonprofit agency. 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-profit companies 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, n.p.).

What Are Criminal Justice Organizations?

The criminal justice system consists 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, arresting persons they witness or suspect to be violating the law, and making 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 often depicted on television in courtroom dramas. 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 set 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 less structured than 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 be able to choose from numerous alternatives, to weigh the costs and benefits of each against the client's unique situation, and to decide 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 if the employees are meeting the organization's overall goals. (It should again be noted

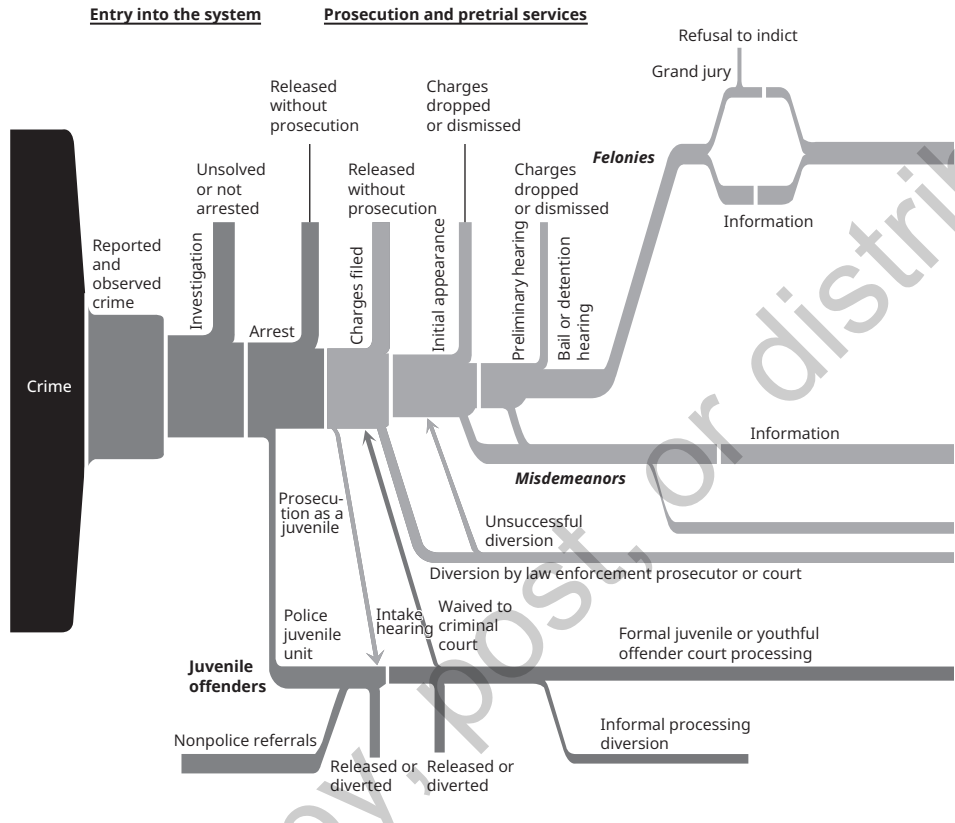
that the organization's size will make a difference, so the ability to generalize structure is limited.) The means used to achieve the goals are less important than the end result of rehabilitation in most probation, parole, and treatment agencies. Probation and parole are discussed in Chapter 11.

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 by the inmates, and the treatment programs provided. However, 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 can 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.

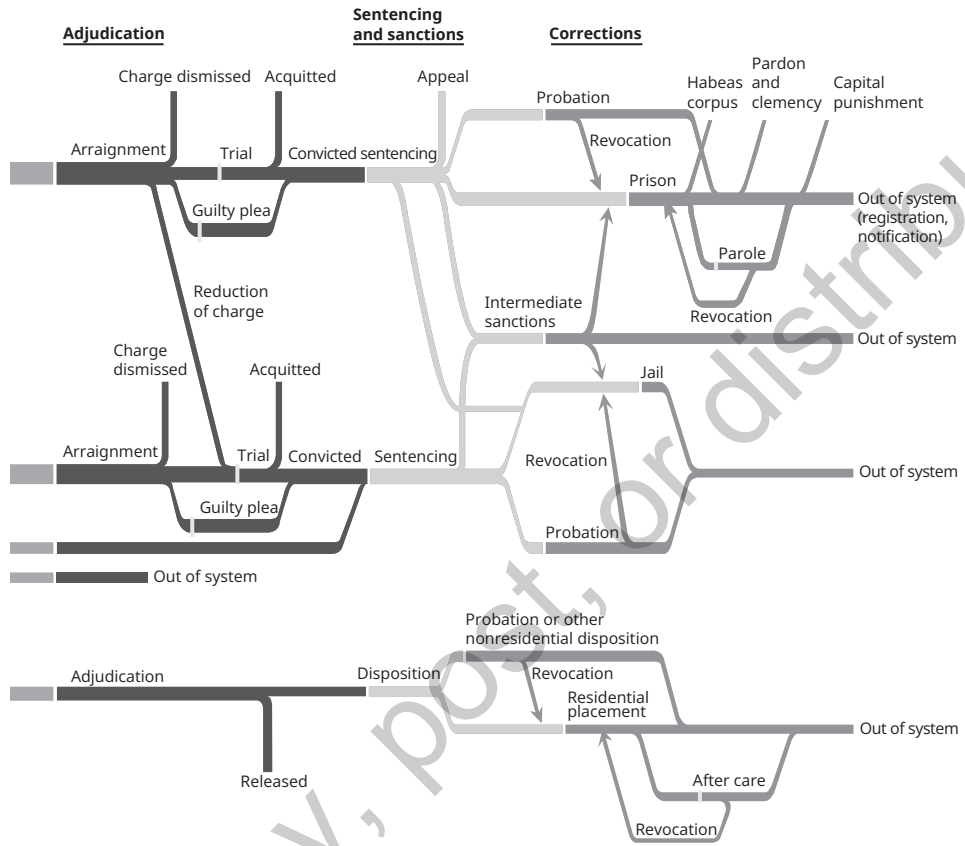
Figure 1.3 ■ The Criminal Justice System

What is the sequence of events in the criminal justice system?



Source: US Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, <https://bjs.ojp.gov/media/image/45506>

Figure 1.3 ■ The Criminal Justice System (Continued)



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 a toxic leader could impact a police department or a probation department as identified in In the News 1.1, Are Toxic Leaders Derailing Your Community Policing Efforts?
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. Next, consider your school or university. Identify three or four systems within the larger university structure.
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

About 100 young adults gathered outside of a government building in St. Louis, Missouri. They claimed to be protesting police violence toward minorities, the LGBTQ+ community, and other acts they believed to be prejudiced toward young people. The possible gathering had been broadcast across social media sites like Facebook, X (formerly Twitter), and Instagram for almost a month prior to this night. The police department had been monitoring the various sites and expected a small number of people to demonstrate. As such, there were police officers at the site of the gathering to monitor and control the crowd.

Around 11:30 p.m. more individuals joined the gathering. They were wearing masks and carrying flags and megaphones. Those with megaphones began calling for mayhem and screaming things like “Pigs should pay,” “Fuck the police,” “No more violence,” and “We have rights!” More agitators arrived within the hour and small fights started throughout the crowd. As police officers would break up one fight and make an arrest, another would start. The officers

on site called for back-up and reinforcement from the department. Additional officers arrived but it took more than an hour to get a coordinated response from the police headquarters. This went on for several more hours with more agitators and more cops arriving on the scene.

Around 3:00 a.m. someone in the crowd threw a pipe bomb into a police car. Next, a group flipped a city bus, and more police cars were burned. Rocks and other items were thrown at the police officers as they tried to make arrests and disperse the crowd. The violence ended as the sun rose.

At the end of the violent protest, fifteen stores were looted or damaged, two city buses were flipped, and four police cars were burned. Five officers had serious injuries, and several others were less seriously injured. Thirty-seven people were arrested, and several other protestors were taken to local hospitals.

The next day, the media and others questioned the police chief about the response to and control of the situation. Learning that the police knew the gathering was scheduled, critics wanted to know why it was allowed to get out of hand. The police chief claimed that the violence was “unforeseeable” and “unprecedented.” According to him, “no one could have predicted these events.” Although the chief acknowledged there could have been a quicker and more effective police response and stated the department would review their training and deployment tactics, he focused his response primarily on criminalizing the protestors’ behaviors by calling them “radicals” and “lunatics,” taking little responsibility in the event.

Others have disputed the chief’s response by saying that there didn’t appear to be a deployment plan, officers were called in from off-duty (some of who were new to the force and untrained for such an event), and officers were not provided the proper equipment to handle a growing and violent protest. One lower-level officer, in particular, who was injured during the protest, said that the department was well-aware for weeks that a protest was going to occur on that day and in that location, yet the department failed to prepare for such an event. Additionally, he argued that the rigid structure of the police department contributed to the delayed response to the rioters as officers were waiting for direction from the administration before responding to protestor actions. According to him, “officers are so afraid of losing their jobs they won’t make a decision.”

Questions For Discussion

1. From an administration approach, what are the main concerns in this case study?
2. Why was the protest allowed to continue for as long as it did? What could have been done sooner to stop the mayhem? Who was responsible for making these decisions?
3. How might the department’s mission, vision, and structure impact the officers’ abilities to control the crowd and end the protest? Was there a failure in leadership or management in this case study? If so, explain how or why. If not, why not?

Additional Resources

Administrative Office of US Courts

US Census Bureau

US Department of Justice

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Chapter 2

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Open Versus Closed Systems

Learning Objectives

- 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 societal changes. 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 et al., 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, 2021). This chapter aims 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 explaining organizational events, and they can be broadly classified as closed systems or open systems depending on their starting presumption (Thompson, 1967). *Closed-system models* tend to focus on internal events when explaining organizational actions and behavior. In contrast, *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, 2021). At the outset, it needs to be clarified that the words *model* and *theory* will be used interchangeably in this chapter. However, at a more subtle level they have nuanced differences in their implications.

The rest of the chapter is loosely divided into three sections. The first discusses the closed-system models, where the three main subfields of the classical perspective are presented: scientific management, administrative management, and bureaucratic management. The advantages and disadvantages in managing the criminal justice system are examined within each subfield. The open-system models are reported in the second section, where the humanistic and behavioral perspectives are introduced. This section discusses the total quality management model and the supply chain/synergy model, which introduces a novel 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 considers 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, 2021). 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 particular 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 seem unrealistic in the present circumstances, were the products of the problems and subsequent changes that emerged during the Industrial Revolution. The early factories were highly inefficient at the beginning of industrialization in the mid-1800s. 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* 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 individual worker's productivity, *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 overlapping elements and components. All these models assume that people are *rational beings* who act logically and correctly when faced with a given situation. In other words, these models assume that labor is homogeneous and that workers behave and act the same whenever they face a similar situation. According to these models, the correctional officer, the police officer, and the jury will behave the same way when presented with similar situations at different times and places.

Scientific Management

Scientific management focuses 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 on task performance, supervision, and motivation, which 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 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 calculations revealed a significantly higher productivity level, indicating the potential for individual growth and development by adopting correct techniques.

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 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 a foreman 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 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 created an incentive system that paid each employee \$1.85 per day to meet 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, Frank and Lillian Gilbreth, a husband-and-wife team, also made significant contributions to the field. Frank Gilbreth specialized in time and motion studies (Gilbreth, 1923/1970; Locke, 1982). He identified the most efficient ways to perform tasks in seventeen 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 eighteen to five, resulting in a 200 percent productivity increase (Lewis et al., 2001). Lillian Gilbreth focused on the human aspects of industrial engineering to improve 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 the greatest efficiency. These methods are also employed in sports. Coaches take their players through hours of videotapes and commentary on how to perform an action correctly with the least 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 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. Law enforcement officers carefully plan and simulate every move 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 derives from changes made during the Industrial Revolution (Batts et al., 2012), these departments sometimes fail to correctly apply 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 criminal justice field 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 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 predictably, like machines. For example, two law enforcement officers will act differently in dealing with a similar situation; in fact, the same law enforcement officer will not deal in the same way when confronted with a similar situation every time. This difference in action will emerge despite the best 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 they respond 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 of Taylor's (1911) and Gilbreth's (1923/1970) research is their consideration that workers are hired for their physical ability and not to use 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, in many cases, officers are limited 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 hours of their training with an agency doing nothing but reading the policy manual. Batts and colleagues (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 experience, he identified management functions as planning, organizing, commanding/leading, coordinating, and controlling. He proposed fourteen general principles of management that formed the foundation for modern practice and organizational design (Fayol, 1949):

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 learning, thus increasing the efficiency and productivity of employees.
2. *Authority.* Managers should have the authority to issue commands to their staff to carry out managerial responsibilities.

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 they report. This clear line of command will avoid conflicts and confusion.
5. *Unity of direction.* All similar and related activities should be organized and directed by one manager. This 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 the employees and the organization.
8. *Centralization.* Power and authority should be concentrated at the upper levels of the organization. However, 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 subordinates sufficient freedom to take initiative in 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. Line personnel (police officers, correctional officers, probation officers, juvenile officers) are frontline workers who implement organizational goals and objectives. Specialized staff members work behind the scenes, supporting the frontline officers by providing advice in areas such as planning, research, legal issues, etc. Auxiliary functions provide logistical support, including

recordkeeping, 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 the centralization of power and authority at the upper levels of the organization.

Furthermore, Fayol (1949) proposes subordination of individual interests to the organization's goals. 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 an emphasis on equipment being well-maintained and put in the right place to be available at the right time since numerous situations in criminal justice require speedy response times.

Mismanagement of Fayol's organizational elements can lead to break down and disorganization (Dias & Vaughn, 2006; Wren, 1994). For example, the criminal justice system fails when unity of direction is not strictly adhered to. Dias and Vaughn cite the example of administrative breakdown during the May 1992 riots 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 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. A lack of unity of command 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 incompatible with contemporary management. For example, centralization of power and authority at the organization's upper levels is not considered a favored practice. Instead, modern management principles allow frontline workers more autonomy and authority for making and carrying out decisions. Modern management emphasizes good training that will enable the officers to make appropriate decisions rather than always reverting 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 work, thus enabling them to provide superior service to all their customers, who, by definition, include anybody to whom an agency provides a professional service (e.g., citizens, clients, offenders, arrestees, detainees, etc.). Contemporary management views employees as valuable assets whose interests must always be considered (Lewis et al., 2001).

Bureaucratic Management

Scientific management focuses on the individual worker's productivity, administrative management focuses on the manager's functions, and 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), compromising 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 the 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 if 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, job positions should be ranked within an organization according to the 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, National Sheriffs' Association, and 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 twenty 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 detective 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 can work more efficiently since they are responsible for just one part of the 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 helps maintain continuity through easy employee replacement and eliminates impartiality.

The bureaucratic model is best suited for 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 earlier, machines do not have feelings like humans 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 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 juvenile's best interest. 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 as less critical than due process. Even if the child needs 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 et al., 2017). Therefore, it is hard to imagine comprehensive coverage of all situations using 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 must 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 evident 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.

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 accurate 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, 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 communication 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 a 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 increasingly specialized, they start losing perspective on the full picture of the organization, and they start working in silos. These workers lose the flexibility to accommodate any variability in a situation that does not fit 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, when visiting a bank that operates on specialization, one typically finds long lines in front of some customer service representatives and none in front of others. This pattern emerges because customer needs on any given day are not equally divided as per the specialization of the employees. Therefore, such banks are unable to use their employees fully on any given day; some employees are overworked and others have little work. In contrast, another bank where the employees are cross-trained will be better able to fully engage 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, law enforcement should have some 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 organization's overall efficiency 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 next day after having traveled the previous night. Consequently, they cannot procure much business for the organization, the very objective for which they traveled. In this example, interdependence between the two subsystems (travel and marketing) has been ignored, and the travel department's performance goals have superseded the organizational performance goals.

Although there is a positive argument that specialization brings ownership, ownership can cause agendas to shift (Braiden, 1992) and personal interests to become more important than organizational interests. If one were to look at the organizational chart of a police department today, one would notice that there are many more divisions than there were thirty years ago. There are traffic, drug, vice, fraud, crime prevention, juvenile, homicide, special victims, and

detective divisions, and the list goes on and on. It is easy for detectives from several divisions to work cases involving the same suspects yet not collaborate because their specialties keep them from doing so (Braiden, 1992). Although this may be efficient in solving a particular incident, it is not efficient for the overall accomplishment of the goal of law enforcement or to provide high customer satisfaction.

According to the Weberian principles, employees must fit a role definition stated in rules and procedures. Individual creativity has no place in a bureaucratic structure. This inflexibility is in direct conflict with the changing face of modern organizations. In today's organizations, managers are required to display greater creativity and innovation to make decisions that solve problems as they work toward achieving the organization's goals. Employee creativity and innovativeness is not just desirable, but is of critical significance in service industries, where customers increasingly desire customization to their specific needs. Failing to allow frontline officers to voice concerns or adopt productive approaches to solving the problems they face is not just a recipe for disaster, but a missed opportunity for growth and improvement. Such an approach produces a demoralized officer who checks out of the job by doing only what is minimally required to get by and to stay out of trouble. In an article on the demoralization of employees, Braiden (1992) states,

They are the inevitable product of the drudgery of routine labor that ultimately dulls the brain and saps the spirit. . . . Sadly, bright people literally chain their brains at the gate coming in, function through their shift, and pick it up again on the way out. We go out of our way to hire the brightest people we can find, and then we teach them to follow orders like soldiers. (p. 96)

This is clearly a part of the bureaucratic mindset of controlling and managing each aspect of the employee's day. Breaking tasks into the smallest pieces possible is the key in a bureaucracy to allow for accountability, efficiency, and standardization of tasks, even though it may not be the best way to handle the job at hand. Despite the several negative characteristics, bureaucracy remains the dominant model within criminal justice organizations (although it can be argued that community policing initiatives have worked to change this approach). Consequently, there is great reluctance within the criminal justice system to open up and accommodate changes to meet the shifting needs of the society it serves.

Career Highlight Box

Police and Detectives

Nature of the Work

Police officers protect lives and property. Detectives and criminal investigators, who sometimes are called agents or special agents, gather facts and collect evidence of possible crimes. Law enforcement officers' duties depend on the size and type of their organizations.

Duties

Uniformed police officers typically do the following:

- Enforce laws
- Respond to calls for service
- Patrol assigned areas
- Conduct traffic stops and issue citations
- Arrest suspects
- Write detailed reports and fill out forms
- Prepare cases and testify in court

Detectives and criminal investigators typically do the following:

- Investigate crimes
- Collect evidence of crimes
- Conduct interviews with suspects and witnesses
- Observe the activities of suspects
- Arrest suspects
- Write detailed reports and fill out forms
- Prepare cases and testify in court

Training and Other Qualifications

Education requirements range from a high school diploma to a college degree or higher. Most police and detectives must graduate from their agency's training academy before completing a period of on-the-job training. Candidates must be US citizens, usually at least twenty-one years old, and meet rigorous physical and personal qualifications.

Important Qualities

Ability to multitask. Officers and detectives may find that the demands of their job vary from day to day. But multiple tasks and extensive paperwork must be completed on time.

Communication skills. Police and detectives must be able to speak with people when gathering facts about a crime and to then express details about a given incident in writing.

Empathetic personality. Police officers need to understand the perspectives of a wide variety of people in their jurisdiction and have a willingness to help the public.

Good judgment. Police and detectives must be able to determine the best way to solve a wide array of problems quickly.

Leadership skills. Police officers must be comfortable with being a highly visible member of their community as the public looks to them for assistance in emergency situations.

Perceptiveness. Officers must be able to anticipate another person's reactions and understand why people act a certain way.

Strength and stamina. Officers and detectives must be in good physical shape both to pass required tests for entry into the field and to keep up with the daily rigors of the job.

Education and Training

Police and detective applicants usually must have at least a high school education or GED and be a graduate of their agency's training academy. Many agencies require some college coursework or a college degree. Knowledge of a foreign language is an asset in many federal agencies and urban departments.

Applicants may have to pass physical exams of vision, hearing, strength, and agility as well as competitive written exams. Previous work or military experience is often seen as a plus. Candidates typically go through a series of interviews and may be asked to take lie detector and drug tests. A felony conviction may disqualify a candidate.

Applicants usually have recruit training before becoming an officer. In state and large local police departments, recruits get training in their agency's police academy. In small agencies, recruits often attend a regional or state academy. Training includes classroom instruction in constitutional law, civil rights, state laws and local ordinances, and police ethics. Recruits also receive training and supervised experience in areas such as patrol, traffic control, use of firearms, self-defense, first aid, and emergency response.

Some police departments have cadet programs for people interested in a career in law enforcement who do not yet meet age requirements for becoming an officer. These cadets do clerical work and attend classes until they reach the minimum age requirement and can apply for a position with the regular force.

Detectives normally begin their career as police officers before being promoted to detective.

State and local agencies encourage applicants to continue their education after high school by taking courses or training related to law enforcement. Many applicants for entry-level police jobs have taken some college classes, and a significant number of applicants are college graduates. Many junior colleges, colleges, and universities offer programs in law enforcement or criminal justice. Many agencies offer financial assistance to officers who pursue these or related degrees.

Employment

Police and detectives held about 796,800 jobs in 2023.

Police and detective work can be physically demanding, stressful, and dangerous. Police officers have one of the highest rates of on-the-job injuries and fatalities.

The jobs of some federal agents, such as US Secret Service and Drug Enforcement Administration special agents, require extensive travel, often on short notice. These agents may relocate several times over the course of their careers. Some special agents, such as those in the US Border Patrol, may work outdoors in rugged terrain and in all kinds of weather.

Job Outlook

Employment of police and detectives is expected to grow by 4 percent from 2023 to 2033, slower than the average for all occupations. Continued demand for public safety will lead to new openings for officers in local departments; however, both state and federal jobs may be more competitive.

Because they typically offer low salaries, many local departments face high turnover rates, making opportunities more plentiful for qualified applicants. However, some smaller departments may have fewer opportunities as budgets limit the ability to hire additional officers.

Jobs in state and federal agencies will remain more competitive as they often offer high pay and more opportunities for both promotions and interagency transfers. Bilingual applicants with a bachelor's degree and law enforcement or military experience, especially investigative experience, should have the best opportunities in federal agencies.

Earnings

The median annual wage of police and detectives was \$74,910 in May 2023. The median wage is the wage at which half the workers in an occupation earned more than that amount and half earned less. The lowest 10 percent earned less than \$45,790, and the top 10 percent earned more than \$117,100.

The median wages for police and detective occupations in May 2023 were as follows:

- \$91,100 for detectives and criminal investigators
- \$72,250 for transit and railroad police
- \$72,280 for police and sheriff's patrol officers
- \$60,380 for fish and game wardens

Many agencies provide officers with an allowance for uniforms as well as extensive benefits and the option to retire at an age that is younger than a more typical retirement age.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, US Department of Labor, *Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2023-2024 Edition*, Police and Detectives, on the internet at <http://www.bls.gov/ooh/protective-service/police-and-detectives.htm> (accessed February 3, 2025).

Open-System Models: The Humanistic Perspective

Classical thinkers made significant contributions to the theory and practice of management. However, their theories did not always achieve the desired results because they did not include the behavioral perspective of management. During the early twentieth century, the world's industrialized nations were experiencing social and cultural changes. Their standards of living and working conditions were improving. Under these changing conditions, it was increasingly noted that management's actions were not necessarily consistent with the ones predicted by the closed-system models. Increasingly, human behavior was being seen as an important factor in shaping managerial style and worker actions (Daft, 2021).

In 1924, various studies were being performed at Western Electric Company's plant in Hawthorne, Illinois, to understand how different factors would increase productivity (Rieger, 1995; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1956). One such study (Parson, 1974) examined the impact of lighting levels on productivity. Two groups were formed; the test group was subjected to different light levels, and the control group was subjected to the same light level. The results demonstrated that the productivity of the test group went up when the light was increased, when the light remained the same, and when the light decreased; however, the productivity of the control group went up as well, even though the lighting level remained the same. These were somewhat confusing results.

Elton Mayo, a Harvard professor, was invited with his team to study this phenomenon in greater depth. They found that the increase in productivity was being caused by the human behavior, which they called the *Hawthorne effect* (Parson, 1974). They explained that workers in both groups perceived that special attention was being given to them within their organization because they were chosen for the study, causing them to develop a sense of pride, which in turn motivated them to improve their performance. The so-called Hawthorne studies also revealed that organizations work as social systems, which promote the formation of informal groups that operate parallel to the formal structure within an organization. These informal groups are formed based on the social relations that members may develop inside and outside of the organization. Mayo believed that work attitudes and sentiments of the members of a group are important motivating factors that determine their productivity. The Hawthorne studies introduced the human element to management thinking that had been missing from the closed-system models. Though the Hawthorne studies were conducted between 1924 and 1933, their influence on management thinking was not felt until the 1950s due to the Great Depression and World War II.

Workers are not just employees, but they are also members of social groups and work organizations. Both roles play crucial parts in shaping worker behaviors and actions. As workers move back and forth between the workplace and their social groups, they inadvertently bring external influences into the organization in the form of values and behaviors, impacting the internal functioning of an organization. This realization that organizations cannot be isolated from the external environment and should be integrated into the management principles led to the birth of open-system models. These models are embedded in human relations theory, which comprises the research of scholars such as Mayo, Abraham Maslow, and David McGregor (see detailed discussion in Chapter 6). The primary theme of these human relations models favors the designing of jobs so that the workers are allowed to use their full potential. The four basic characteristics that flow from human relations theory, which differentiate the open-system models from the closed-system models, are as follows:

1. *Individual differences.* Management must recognize that people are different and will react differently to similar situations. Therefore, management must not assume employees to be homogeneous when designing and allocating tasks. However, greater standardization among employees can be achieved through good training.
2. *Motivation.* Individuals can be motivated to work toward achieving organizational goals. Therefore, it is essential for managers to constantly design and create schemes to stimulate the employee's interests and desires toward the organization's planned goals (see detailed discussion in Chapter 6).
3. *Mutual interest.* Employees have an inherent need to socialize at work, which drives them to pursue membership in informal groups with common interests. The management must recognize that formal groups cannot satisfy these needs. Therefore, the management must facilitate the formation of informal groups, which brings employees together to pursue common interests. Having a lounge where officers can

have lunch or a coffee break or an in-house gym facility where officers can work out allows for the creation of informal socialization among those who take advantage of the opportunities.

4. *Human dignity.* Employees like to be treated with respect. Their individuality needs to be respected for them to love their job and work toward organizational goals.

In *open-system models*, the principal starting assumption is that the external variables or events play a significant role in explaining what is happening within an organization. Revisiting the example of prisoner abuse discussed earlier under the closed-system model, an open-system approach would look for external reasons to explain the problem. Researchers may discover that the problem started two years ago when the governor visited the state prison. In his speech, the governor mentioned reducing the budget for the prisons, which was not well-received among the inmates. The conditions at that prison were already appalling. The inmates perceived any further cut in the budget as implying a worsening of inmate privileges and security, making them angry and confrontational. Such defiant inmate behavior led to more work hours for the correctional officers, who were already underpaid due to restrictive budgets. The officers became angry and resorted to dealing with the prisoners heavy-handedly, thus leading to abuse. Careful examination of this example shows the relationship among an external stimulus, officers' responses, and inmates' (customer) reactions, all collectively interacting to create chaos.

Yet another example where the open-system model provides a better understanding is that of the brutality and discrimination scandals that were rampant in the late 1980s in police departments in Los Angeles and Milwaukee (Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993) and the new accusations of discrimination of law enforcement arising from the highly publicized police-involved shootings sparking the Black Lives Matter movement. In Los Angeles and Milwaukee, the researchers found that these communities, especially the minority populations, were apprehensive because of a lack of adequate representation in the local police force. Consequently, they would not be cooperative with the local police force. As a result, the local police force was not friendly and helpful to the minority community and often would look at its members suspiciously. The actions of the local police force seemed discriminatory. In this example, to get a clearer perspective of the existing problem, one must include the role played by the employees and the customers, who are a part of the external social system. Similarly, the wave of student unrest on university campuses across the United States in early 2024 highlights the importance of the open-system model in understanding social issues. According to the Associated Press, "Student protests over the Israel-Hamas war have popped up at many college campuses after being inspired by demonstrators at Columbia University" (2024). These protests centered around a critical examination of the moral implications of the Gaza conflict between Israel and Hamas—a problem that erupted thousands of miles away from these campuses. The situation escalated dramatically when social media, a vital force in contemporary activism, revealed troubling footage of student arrests at Columbia University, galvanizing support and outrage nationwide.

These examples illustrate that the open-system models are more realistic in understanding the problems and in identifying workable solutions as compared to closed-system models, but they are also extremely difficult to interpret because of dynamic interactions between the

internal and external variables. The influence of these external factors has been amplified in recent years due to a changing environment as reflected in growing globalization, increased diversity, rising ethical standards, and rapid advances in technology accompanied by rising e-commerce. Next, we discuss two popular open-system models that have express implications for improving service quality in the criminal justice system.

Total Quality Management (TQM) Model

In the 1970s and 1980s, Japanese organizations made a significant impact throughout the world with their extremely high product quality. The success of the Japanese companies was attributed to their prevention-oriented quality approach through employee involvement, which was different from the US model that was based on an inspection-oriented quality approach. The Japanese companies incorporated the suggestions from their employees in improving the manufacturing process to prevent errors from occurring. They also introduced the *voice of the customer* in designing the product and modifying the process to provide higher quality because they realized that the customer is the final judge of product quality. A product that is well-made but does not satisfy the customer's needs will not be highly rated by the customer. Four important elements of this model, dubbed *total quality management (TQM)*, were the following:

1. *Employee involvement.* This means companywide participation of the workers in quality control and quality improvement. It also means active thinking on the part of all employees on how to improve the system. This radical thought was a significant departure from the classical management models in which the workers were hired for their physical work and the thinking was to be left to the management.
2. *Customer focus.* Instead of focusing on product attributes that management thinks are important, which was the dominant paradigm for the classical management models, TQM companies consult on these attributes with their customers, who are the final judges of quality. The TQM companies then try to meet or exceed their customers' needs and expectations.
3. *Continuous improvement.* TQM companies are not satisfied with their performance but are constantly striving to do better. They constantly make incremental improvements in all areas of the organization, which the employees typically suggest. Employee involvement is a paradigm shift as compared to the classical models, where the improvement was initiated by the management. These small changes are easy to implement because they have been identified and approved by the employees, who feel involved, and because these modifications do not require drastic changes to the existing work conditions.
4. *Benchmarking.* TQM companies constantly study the best companies in the business to identify areas for improvements and find the best method of incorporating improvements. Benchmarking is outward looking, which is again a paradigm shift in comparison to the classical models that were inward looking for making any changes and improvements.

These four concepts, which are universally accepted in improving service quality in most industries, are very difficult to accept and implement by most criminal justice officers, who are deeply entrenched in the Weberian model of bureaucracy. However, there has been a change in philosophy in allowing victims and offenders, seen as customers who assess the quality of the justice they receive, more of a say in their cases and in sentencing decisions. In 2004, victims were given new and expanded rights in the courtroom. Not only can they now appear and be seen in court, but they are reasonably heard at any sentencing, can provide victim impact statements, and are given much more information on the processing of the offenders in their cases. A victim impact statement can improve the quality of justice as it provides rich information about the full harm of the defendant's crime to the judge or jury. Further, it allows the defendant to understand and gain empathy toward the victim, which may serve as the first step toward effective rehabilitation of the defendant (Cassell, 2009). This change may raise the bar in how cases are handled when a victim is involved by providing more quality services to the victim and offender (concepts proposed by TQM). However, there are others who have concerns about the victim's involvement in court sentencing and bail hearings because it has the possibility of bringing about biased consequences. Despite these concerns, the potential for improvement in the criminal justice system is inspiring and should motivate us to continue striving for better practices.

Supply Chain/Synergy Model

Most complex organizations are often viewed as a collection of interrelated systems, where changes in one subsystem impact the functioning of the other system. Therefore, promoting coordination and cooperation among different subsystems, known as a *supply chain* perspective, will accomplish more than when the subsystems work in isolation. This property, in which the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, is referred to as *synergy* (Lewis et al., 2001).

The supply chain phenomenon can be seen in the criminal justice system, which consists of different agencies. For example, a law enforcement agency responds when a crime is committed. Once the criminal suspects are apprehended, they are screened for prosecution by the state's prosecutors. Once the offenders are charged, they are allowed a trial presided over by a judge. If the defendants are found guilty of the crime(s), they are sentenced. At this point, the corrections department supervises offenders in various ways. As the offender passes from one agency to the next in this chain of activities, the agency that hands over the offender is the supplier, and the agency that receives the offender is the customer. In this supply chain approach, there is a *supplier* and a *customer* at each stage of the criminal justice system. As the offender moves to the next stage, the agency that was a customer in receiving the offender now becomes the supplier to the next agency. For the criminal justice system to work efficiently and effectively, there needs to be a high degree of coordination among different agencies involved in its processes. When the supply chain phenomenon breaks down, problems arise in the criminal justice system; for example, when police officers apprehend criminals and the court system lets them go with lesser charges or a softer penalty by striking a plea bargain. The law enforcement officer (acting as a supplier) may not fully understand why the court system (acting as a customer) operated the way it did. The police may have expected a harsher penalty and may be disappointed when this does not happen.

Consequently, when faced with the same-case scenario again, the police may handle the situation differently by not making an arrest, knowing that the court will not proceed as the police had hoped.

In the business world, to benefit from the synergy among different entities working in the supply chain network, one of the latest trends is the adoption of *enterprise resource planning*, which is a complex information system that collects, processes, and provides information about an organization's entire activities, leaving no blind spots. It integrates the organization's different functions, allowing the managers and employees to use the information to adjust plans and respond to opportunities and threats in real time. Lack of integration of different agencies involved in security functions was an essential problem in the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. Law enforcement did not have the systems necessary to integrate the information they received from various sources and agencies to identify the potential threat to the United States (Kean & Hamilton, 2007). They could not connect the dots to prevent the terrorist activities. Now, more than twenty years later, there are still issues with information system planning. Even though systems have been put in place for the Central Intelligence Agency, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, and other agencies to share information, they are restricted in what they can share with one another and they have experienced changes in upper-level management, so it is hard to maintain continuity in homeland security policies and procedures.

Within the context of potential threats to the security of our country, one must be extremely careful that as we protect our airports, we do not compromise the quality of service provided to the customers, that is, the passengers. As airlines and different agencies responsible for homeland security work together in a supply chain relationship, the focus should always be on improving the experiences of the customers. Better planning and integration among these agencies can improve the quality of service for the passengers who may or may not be citizens of the United States. However, when these agencies lose focus of the customers and do not understand the supply chain relationship among them, the service levels will drop sharply.

Let's elaborate on this with a true story where the name of the traveler has been changed. Mike was traveling with his family back to the United States from an international trip. His connection from Amsterdam to Minneapolis was delayed by an hour. According to the itinerary, Mike had two hours and fifteen minutes at the Minneapolis airport, which was sufficient time to do immigration clearance, customs clearance, recheck the baggage, and take a connecting flight to Chicago O'Hare airport. But the delay at Amsterdam reduced the available time to one hour and fifteen minutes, which was tight. Cognizant of the tight connection, Mike approached the crew on the plane asking them to help his family deplane ahead of the other passengers, and the crew obliged. Mike reached the immigration checkpoint in Minneapolis and stood in the line for immigration clearance. Minneapolis, being a smaller airport from the point of view of international traffic, does not have a significant immigration presence. The line was moving slowly, which worried Mike that he would miss his connecting flight. Mike approached a Customs and Border Protection (CBP) officer who was standing near the line, communicated his dilemma, and requested priority immigration clearance. The officer gave Mike a condescending look and declined his request, telling Mike about the importance of immigration clearance for the safety of the country and why he needed to wait for his turn to come.

By the time the immigration and customs clearance was done, Mike and his family had missed the connecting flight. After an extra six-hour wait at the Minneapolis airport, Mike got a connection to Chicago Midway airport. From there, he took a cab to Chicago O'Hare airport, where his car was parked. The inconvenience due to the unhelpful attitude of the officer made Mike vow never to travel through Minneapolis again. Now, let's adopt a supply chain lens and see how the quality of service provided to Mike and his family could have been improved through better coordination and communication between different agencies. When the flight was delayed in Amsterdam, the airline's office in Minneapolis should have immediately pulled out the passenger list to see which passengers would have tight connections. The airline's office at the Minneapolis airport should have shared the list of these passengers with the CBP supervising officer and requested priority service for these passengers. Next, the airline office at the Minneapolis airport should have immediately contacted the crew on the plane and asked them to identify these passengers and help them deplane ahead of other passengers. Subsequently, the personnel from the airline and a CBP officer should have escorted the passengers to a special counter to assist them with their immigration clearance. Simultaneously, another airline employee should have identified these passengers' luggage and got it off the carousel so that the passengers could immediately collect their bags after immigration clearance and get their customs clearance. Subsequently, the airline personnel should have helped these passengers recheck their luggage to the final destination and guided them to the gates to take their flights. This supply chain approach to service between CBP and the airline would have elevated the quality of service to passengers such as Mike who had tight connections. Instead, the service that Mike and other passengers received has now led them to talk about their bad experience at the Minneapolis airport with their friends and family and even share it on social media. The bad word of mouth will discourage potential customers from traveling through the Minneapolis airport. Consequently, international traffic at the Minneapolis airport will decline, reducing the number of CBP personnel at the airport, and leading to some losing their jobs. Similarly, some of the personnel from the airlines stationed in Minneapolis will lose their jobs as demand for international services of this airline to Minneapolis will decline. This incident suggests the importance of treating the customer well, both by the CBP officers and the employees of the airlines working in a supply chain network.

The supply chain model discussed previously includes the role of employees, customers, and suppliers in introducing outside influences into the workings of an organization, thus making the solutions to the existing problems more realistic. This model mandates that managers focus on relationship building with customers, suppliers, and other partners to create modern organizations. In criminal justice, one can see this application in probation offices, where officers within probation are commonly brought together to informally staff or discuss cases as a group. These practices allow the officers to address any issues or concerns they may have about a particular case and potential ideas about processing the case that are not traditionally used. When looking at a single case, for example, and if a probation officer allows it to be staffed, the officer working the case may receive multiple suggestions on how best to handle the case from others in the office. This shows that not all officers would respond to the situation in the same manner. The probation officers can also bring up a program or treatment opportunity that they

are aware of but that is not commonly used by the agency. Comments or information can be gathered from others in the group on whether the program or opportunity would work well in this situation. Support can also be given to the probation officer to assist in the decisions being made. All involved feel more valued at contributing to the case and the decision-making process while working toward the organizational goal of treatment and rehabilitation of offenders. Adopting such integrated practices in other areas of the criminal justice system will only add value.

Changing Face Of The Criminal Justice System Need For A Learning Organization

With globalization, the internet, and rapid technological changes, the environment for all organizations is becoming unpredictable, characterized by complexity and surprises. In this highly volatile environment, managers are working to redesign their companies toward *learning organizations*, which are highly flexible and adaptable in embodying the tenets of the open-system model (Daft & Lewin, 1993). The attention in these companies is on problem solving (Gebert & Boerner, 1999). These organizations value open communication and cooperation, engaging everyone in identifying and solving problems. Such progressive organizations are based on little hierarchy and a culture that promotes employee and customer participation.

These rapid changes in the environment have also provided different sets of challenges for the criminal justice system, each of which is briefly discussed next.

1. Significant changes have occurred in the past fifty years that have altered the demographics of criminal activities. The traditional family of the 1950s, consisting of a husband, a housewife, and two children, has been replaced by the two-income family. For this new family unit, time is at a premium, resulting in children spending more time without adult supervision, watching television, and surfing the internet. The children are easily influenced by violence that is being propagated through television and the internet. While the demand for law enforcement services is increasing, the biggest challenges facing law enforcement is retention and recruitment. In a 2021 survey by the Police Executive Research Forum, law enforcement agencies identified difficulty recruiting eligible candidates as too few individuals are applying for positions, forcing some agencies to reduce or eliminate services due to staffing difficulties.
2. In the United States, immigrants accounted for a significant share of the increase in the labor force in the 1990s, and they are expected to provide a growing share of the workforce in the twenty-first century. By 2045, projections indicate that white individuals will comprise a minority at 49.7 percent, while Asian Americans (7.9 percent), Black Americans (13.1 percent), multiracial Americans (3.8 percent), and Hispanic Americans (24.6 percent) together will make up over 50.3 percent of the US population (Frey, 2018). This demographic transformation will undoubtedly reshape

the US workforce. Additionally, it is estimated that in 2024, women accounted for 47.2 percent of the US workforce, with that percentage expected to rise in the coming years. The growing diversity in the US workforce, also true for criminal justice services, is bringing a variety of challenges to the workplace in the form of supporting diversity, balancing work and family concerns, and coping with the conflict brought by different cultural styles. Another trend is the change in prisoner demographics, with a greater number of immigrants or second-generation immigrants and women becoming involved in criminal activities. This change has introduced challenges for criminal justice agencies in dealing with gender and cultural issues.

3. Technology, especially information technology including the internet, plays a primary role in knowledge management and information sharing. Companies today assume that ideas can emerge from everyone, and the role of the manager is to facilitate open channels of communication to allow ideas, information, and knowledge to flow throughout the organization. An emphasis on knowledge management and information sharing has led to flattening of organizational structures and greater empowerment and involvement of employees. This technology age has created more white-collar jobs, a direct consequence of which is the increase in intricate white-collar crimes, thus adding another layer of complexity to the jobs in the criminal justice system. In addition, social media, a gift from information technology, has become a new platform for organizing criminal activities and violence, which is a reality we must all be aware of. It has been widely implicated as a key factor in the anti-immigrant riots that spread throughout the United Kingdom in late July and early August 2024. Yet, alongside these challenges, technology is equipping law enforcement with innovative tools to combat crime more effectively. For example, drones can be swiftly deployed to capture images of crime scenes, cover larger search areas, or pursue fleeing suspects, enhancing situational awareness in real time. Police vehicles can release foam darts that stick to offenders' cars, enabling officers to track movements via GPS, thereby reducing the need for dangerous high-speed chases that threaten public safety. Additionally, sophisticated sensors and mapping technologies allow officers to pinpoint gunshots in high-crime neighborhoods, while handheld scanners and facial recognition systems significantly improve the identification of offenders. Data analytics tools empower law enforcement agencies to predict crime trends, significantly enhancing their ability to intervene proactively and prevent crime before it escalates. Embracing these technologies is crucial for creating safer communities and effectively addressing the complex challenges of modern criminal justice agencies. More in-depth discussion on the role of technology is provided in Chapter 8.
4. Over the past several years, US public confidence in businesses has reached a new low. Consequently, there is a resurgence in the public's expectations toward corporate responsibility, as they demand higher standards related to business ethics, corporate governance, business regulation, and other stakeholder considerations. The US public is pushing corporations to maintain socially responsible behavior and fulfill their

economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities toward their stakeholders. These public expectations of higher ethical and moral responsibilities from corporations have created new duties for the criminal justice system. Moreover, the public standards for corporate responsibility and accountability also extend to criminal justice agencies and employees. As law enforcement agencies work toward building trust between their officers and the community, it's noteworthy that many states have taken proactive steps by passing new laws. These laws are designed to enhance police accountability and cover a variety of topics, including body cameras, use of force, and no-knock warrants. Additionally, more training is being introduced for first-line supervisors to ensure they can effectively hold their colleagues accountable.

5. As mobility and communication have become cheaper and faster, law and order problems are acquiring a unified global field. The internet has torn down the boundaries of time and space, providing terrorists with a far-reaching global network, reaching people they could not have reached before. In the twenty-first century, law enforcement agencies will have to learn to work in cooperation with agencies in other parts of the world because the planning of terrorist activities may be done in one country or a nexus of countries, the recruiting of terrorists in other countries, and the implementation of terrorist activities in still another country. This nexus of evil across different countries is reflected in In the News 2.1, a story that is old but still relevant in explaining how terror activities are planned and executed across international borders. For example, there is evidence that the masterminds of the al Qaeda organization, Osama bin Laden and Ayman al-Zawahiri, were in the mountains of Afghanistan and later moved to the heart of Pakistan. Bin Laden, founder and head of al Qaeda, was killed in a commando raid by US forces on May 2, 2011, in Abbottabad, Pakistan, in a house within one mile from Pakistan Military Academy. And al-Zawahiri was killed in drone attacks in Kabul on August 2, 2022, where he was residing as a guest of the Taliban (Garamone, 2022). Terrorists are still being recruited in the Middle East, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and other parts of the world, and terrorist activities are being carried out globally—in the United States, Europe, Africa, Asia, and Australia.

In The News 2.1: Planning for Attack Done Outside of U.S.

September 30, 2001

The 19 terrorists suspected in the Sept. 11 attacks spent about \$500,000 preparing an operation that was planned and launched from overseas, beginning several years ago in Germany with support in Britain, the United Arab Emirates and Afghanistan, senior government officials have tentatively concluded.

U.S. investigators have determined that four hijackers were trained in camps in Afghanistan run by Osama bin Laden—whose al-Qaeda network is believed responsible for the assaults on New York and Washington—and have developed tentative links to the terrorist mastermind for most of the others, according to preliminary conclusions reached by the Justice Department, the FBI and the CIA. Government investigators are becoming increasingly convinced that one or two other hijackings were in the works, officials said, and are focusing on three men in U.S. custody who received flight training. One was detained while seeking flight simulator training in Minnesota before the hijackings, and two others were arrested on a train in Texas after departing a jet that was grounded after the attacks, sources said.

Government officials said other people in the United States may have provided minor assistance or had knowledge that a terrorist operation was underway. But the FBI has found little evidence so far that the teams of hijackers received much support here, sources said.

“There seems to be no U.S. mastermind,” one official said.

The Justice Department has cast a global dragnet over the last two weeks in a hunt for accomplices. It is narrowing its criminal investigation to a number of individuals and is beginning to formulate criminal charges that could be filed against them, sources said. But a senior Justice official declined to predict when the first indictment might be handed down.

“We are past the first phase, and we are beginning to sharpen and focus the investigation,” one Justice official said. “You don’t get smoking guns in a case like this. The key is going to be in the details, in putting together the pieces, and we’ve gone a long way to doing that.... We’re looking with particularity at a number of people.”

The disclosures provide the fullest picture yet of the direction and scope of the U.S. investigation into the deadliest terror attack in American history, which have left 6,500 people missing or dead in New York, Washington and Pennsylvania. The hijackings have led to arrests on every continent but Antarctica.

In tracing \$500,000 flowing into U.S. bank accounts used by Mohamed Atta and other members of the hijacking teams, the FBI has documented numerous large cash withdrawals and a long trail of hotels, rental cars and airplane trips that largely dispel any notion of an austere plot, a senior government official said. Previous reports have said the attacks cost no more than \$200,000.

Some of the money used to prepare the attack has already been linked to accounts in the Middle East, the source said, and investigators have documented instances of simultaneous withdrawals from the same account in different cities.

“This was not a low-budget operation,” the official said. “There is quite a bit of money coming in, and they are spending quite a bit of money.”

Investigators are now convinced that the details of the terror plot were hatched in Hamburg, Germany, where Atta and two other suspected hijackers, Marwan Al-Shehhi and Ziad Jarrahi, are believed to have run a terrorist cell out of a second-floor student apartment.

In the hours following the Sept. 11 terror attacks, German intelligence agents intercepted a phone conversation between jubilant followers of Osama bin Laden that led the FBI to search frantically for two more teams of suicide hijackers, according to officials in both countries.

The Germans overheard the terrorists refer to “the 30 people traveling for the operation.” The FBI already knew that 19 suspected hijackers had died on four planes, and

started scouring flight manifests and any other clues for 11 more people still at large, who might have been part of the plot.

The FBI is doubling its contingent of agents working on the investigation in Germany, in the belief that the trail will lead from there to the Middle East, one official said. The initial concept for the Sept. 11 attacks likely came from Afghanistan, where bin Laden is believed to be hiding, another official said.

Investigators have found that the leaders in the plot moved in and out of the United States beginning at least 18 months ago, with lower-level hijackers not arriving until this year. Atta returned to Germany at least twice after arriving in the United States, a source said.

"There were two groups on each plane," one senior official said. "You've got the brains, who are the pilots and the leaders, and then you have the muscle coming in later on. They were the ones who held the passengers at bay."

The FBI is deeply suspicious of the circumstances surrounding three key men who have been detained in the case. Zacarias Moussaoui was taken into custody in Minnesota in August after he attempted to pay cash to learn how to steer, but not take off or land, in a jumbo jet.

One official said Moussaoui was in Norman, Okla., at the same time that Atta and several other hijackers were.

Moussaoui is not cooperating with authorities.

Two others, Mohammed Jaweed Azmath and Ayub Ali Khan, were detained on an Amtrak train Sept. 12 in Fort Worth, Texas, with hair dye, large amounts of cash and box-cutters like the ones used in the hijackings. The men, who had lived in Jersey City, N.J., had flown on a plane from Newark to St. Louis that was grounded after the attacks. Both men were flight-trained, one source said.

FBI agents have combed the passenger manifest on that flight and have not found anyone else who is believed to be a potential hijacker, an official said.

Adding another important element to the global investigation, British authorities Friday accused an Algerian pilot of training four of the hijackers, including the apparent pilot of the jet that crashed into the Pentagon.

During an extradition hearing in London, British prosecutor Arvinda Sambir suggested that Lotfi Raissi, 27, may have been a knowing participant in the terrorist plot, and that U.S. authorities might charge him with conspiracy to murder.

"The hope is that he will be able to tell us who planned what and when," added one senior U.S. official.

Source: Adapted from "Planning for Attack Done Outside of U.S.," September 30, 2001, *The Washington Post*.

As the world becomes more connected through modern communication and information technologies, the environment for criminal justice agencies is becoming extremely complex. Criminal justice organizations must learn to cross lines of time, culture, and geography to succeed. Law enforcement officers today, for example, need to know a second and third language and develop cross-cultural understanding. The mindset needed by officers in criminal justice is to expect the unexpected and be prepared for constant change. Moreover, the growth in white-collar crimes, the rising number of female offenders and juvenile offenders, and increased

international terrorism all have created greater awareness and involvement of the general public in the criminal justice system. As a result, there is more scrutiny by citizens of the existing criminal justice system to examine the quality and effectiveness of the service being delivered. As administrators of the criminal justice system struggle to create customer-oriented learning organizations, they are finding that specific dimensions of their organizations, entrenched in Weber's bureaucratic model, must be changed: "The learning organization is incompatible with the bureaucratic configuration of police organizations" (Oettmeier, 1992, p. 52). The five areas of organization design that need to be revisited in the criminal justice system are structure, tasks, systems, culture, and attitude. They require change in the following ways:

1. *From vertical to horizontal structure.* Traditionally, the most common organizational structure has been functional, in which activities are grouped together by common work (function). A chain of command flows within each function from the top to the bottom, with decision-making authority residing with upper-level management. Typically, communication across different functions takes place only at the top level. Therefore, to communicate across functions, information must flow from the bottom to the top within a function and then be communicated to the other functional head, who then passes the information down within their function. This strict chain of command slows the flow of information, which may be crucial in this rapidly changing environment. Even now, it is being debated whether, if the information had flowed faster between different law enforcement agencies, they could have prevented the September 11, 2001, terrorist acts.

In a learning criminal justice organization, the vertical structure that creates distance between the administrator at the top and the staff is a mantra for failure. Therefore, the vertical hierarchy must be drastically reduced. Flatter organizations that reduce the distance between different ranks should be designed to promote faster information flow and greater coordination. Moreover, Daft (2021) asserts that departmental functions should be eliminated, and structures should be created to promote horizontal workflows. Self-directed teams with members from several functional areas are the fundamental work unit in a learning organization.

2. *From routine tasks to empowered roles.* Scientific management advocates precisely defined jobs and the exact steps to perform them. Each job is defined as a sequence of narrowly distinct tasks, which are done in a sequence of steps like a machine. Knowledge and control of these tasks reside with the senior management, and employees are expected to do as they are told. However, in this volatile environment, the requirements for each job change so rapidly that officers in criminal justice organizations need to use their discretion and responsibility to solve the problem rather than be guided strictly by the rules of the task. Historical limitations on discretionary decisions need to be readdressed as the implementation of a learning organization is analyzed. In a learning organization in criminal justice, officers need to play a role in the team or department, which is constantly redefined or modified. The officers need to be trained extremely well and then encouraged to work with one another to

find solutions rather than constantly looking at the supervisors or senior officers for directions.

3. *From formal control systems to shared information.* Information processing is centralized at the top in large organizations such as the criminal justice system. Formal systems are often implemented to manage the growing amount of complex information and to help identify any variation from accepted norms and measures (Hurst, 1995). However, such formal procedures also increase the distance between leaders and their workers, thus slowing the processing of information and further adding to the complexity.

In a learning criminal justice organization, information needs to be widely shared, and officers often must be entrusted with complete information to enable them to react quickly. Information control should not be used as a means of power, but rather senior officers should find ways of disseminating information and keeping lines of communication open. Communication should be maintained with all stakeholders, including other agencies involved in criminal justice and society at large, to enhance the learning capability. According to Santana and colleagues, “Communication breakdowns with local law enforcement hampered the Secret Service’s performance during a July campaign rally where former President Donald Trump was shot and wounded” (2024).

4. *From rigid to competitive to adaptive culture.* In traditional organizations, strategy is formulated by senior officers and imposed on the organization, leaving little scope for swift adjustments to external environmental changes. These organizations become victims of their own systems when the environment changes dramatically.

In a learning criminal justice organization, each officer is a valued contributor, and the organization thrives on creating relationships that allow officers to develop their full potential. Consequently, the officers know the big picture and how various parts fit together. The empowered workforce is fully involved in contributing to strategy development, making it more realistic and amenable to environmental changes. Since officers are in touch with a diverse group of stakeholders, the strategy emerges from the input of all stakeholders. Such a culture encourages openness and equality and is geared toward continuous improvement.

5. *From confrontational to collaborative.* In traditional organizations, the customers and suppliers are not considered partners, but they are competitors who must be kept at arm’s length. However, learning organizations approach their customers and suppliers as partners who can provide vital information to allow improvements (Daft, 2021). Instead of using *us against them* mentality, criminal justice agencies can (and have, in some cases) survey offenders, victims, and the community about procedures, policies, and processes that work or fail to work effectively in processing cases.

The previous discussion suggests that in this highly uncertain environment, criminal justice agencies need to be modified and redesigned toward becoming learning organizations, which supports the line of thinking presented earlier in the open-system models. We acknowledge that

criminal justice agencies may be limited in how far they can go in becoming learning organizations (because of laws, mandates from courts, etc.); however, adopting some learning approaches is better than none. Numerous criminal justice organizations fail to provide superior service because they close themselves from external influences and are primarily guided by their agency subcultures, which may not conform to the external environment. Without input from external environments, criminal justice agencies are shortsighted regarding the changing political, economic, social, and legal realities; consequently, they are unable to meet the demands of society. Often, when criminal justice agencies shut themselves off from the external environment and public scrutiny, they become insular and function with impunity until they are revealed through scandals, judicial intervention, government intervention, government investigation, or commission reports (Dias & Vaughn, 2006). To move in the direction of creating flexible and adaptable learning organizations, criminal justice officers need to adopt the human relations approach propagated in the open-system models. In addition, there is a need to reduce hierarchy, promote open communication and cooperation, and encourage greater employee and customer participation, so that organizations can continually align themselves with the changing needs of the external environment. Although this has been accomplished in some areas of criminal justice (e.g., community policing, probation, parole, etc.), there is much work to be done to the system as a whole in terms of greater employee and customer participation. Identifying and involving customers is crucial in improving service quality because the customer is viewed as an input to which value is added by the service process in the criminal justice system. Chapter 3 will include a discussion on service quality and identification of all criminal justice system customers.

Chapter Summary

- Organizations continually confront the uncertainty of new challenges and problems that they must address in a timely, efficient, and effective manner for their survival. Therefore, organizations die or are transformed when the needs satisfied by them no longer exist or have been replaced by other needs.
- Organizational theory is a way to examine and analyze organizations more precisely and intensely based on patterns and trends in organizational design and behavior.
- A systems view considers an organization as a set of interacting functions that acquire inputs from the environment, processes them, and then releases the outputs back to the external environment.
- Closed-system models consider the external environment to be stable and predictable and assume that it does not intervene with or cause problems to the functioning of an organization. These models rely primarily on internal organizational processes and dynamics to account for organizational, group, and individual behaviors. The central management objective addressed in these models is the efficient running of the organization.
- The theories and models that emerged from closed systems are often called machine models; they are 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. 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.
- During the early twentieth century, the industrialized nations experienced better standards of living and improved working conditions. Simultaneously, it was being observed that effective managers were not necessarily following all the principles laid down in the classical closed-system models. Human behavior was an important factor in shaping the managerial style and worker actions.
- Acknowledging that human behavior could influence the working of an organization was an acceptance that factors external to an organization had to be considered in the management principles, giving birth to the open-system models. In open-system models, the principal starting assumption is that external variables or events play a significant role in explaining what is happening within an organization.
- Since most work is done by teams in direct contact with customers, the open-system models (total quality management model and supply chain/synergy model) include customers in an attempt to create modern organizations.
- The total quality management (TQM) model supports the inclusion of the voice of the customer in designing the product/service and modifying the process to provide higher quality. Four important elements of the total quality management model are employee involvement, customer focus, benchmarking, and continuous improvement.
- For the criminal justice system to work efficiently and effectively, there needs to be a high degree of coordination among different agencies involved in its enforcement. In this supply chain relationship, at each stage of the criminal justice system there is a supplier and a customer. Therefore, promoting coordination and cooperation among different subsystems, known as a supply chain perspective, will accomplish more than when the subsystems are working in isolation. This property, in which the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, is referred to as synergy.
- The environment facing the criminal justice system is rapidly changing because of globalization, demographics, the internet, and rapid technological changes. In this highly volatile environment, managers of the criminal justice system need to redesign and modify their agencies to become learning organizations, which are highly flexible and adaptable. In an attempt to create learning organizations in the criminal justice system, the five areas of organization design that need to be revisited are structure, tasks, systems, culture, and attitude. In each of these areas, the emphasis should be on problem solving by promoting a culture of employee and customer participation.

Chapter Review Questions

1. Describe the primary differences in closed-system and open-system models.
2. If you were to apply closed-system models to criminal justice agencies, in which areas of criminal justice would they best fit? What about open-system models?
3. Describe how the principles of the bureaucratic model apply to law enforcement.
4. How are probation and parole officers specialized in the tasks they perform? What about police officers and corrections officers?
5. Explain how criminal justice agencies can become learning organizations.

Case Study

The Riverton Police Department handles approximately 58,000 calls for service annually. The department consists of a chief of police, five lieutenants, eight corporals, fifteen sergeants, and fifty-three patrol officers. The organizational structure follows a traditional hierarchy, with a top-down approach to policymaking and implementation. Patrol officers work closely with county sheriffs, who handle all traffic accident investigations in the county.

In June 2024, the Riverton Police Department received a call about a car accident on County Road 23, just outside the city limits. Patrol Officer Ryan Cooper was dispatched to the scene. Upon arrival, he found three teenagers, two adult men, and one adult woman around a young girl who appeared to be unconscious in a ditch on the side of the road. The girl was identified by one of the teenagers as Lily Parker, a seventeen-year-old passenger in a crashed Toyota RAV4. The seventeen-year-old driver, visibly shaken, was being comforted by two of the teenagers and the adult woman. Officer Cooper quickly determined that Lily had succumbed to her injuries. He moved the others away from the body, and Lily was confirmed dead at the scene. No one else involved in the accident required medical attention.

Officer Cooper secured the area while waiting for the county sheriff's deputies to arrive to investigate the incident. As he did so, several individuals at the scene spontaneously gave statements about the accident. Within the hour, the sheriff's deputies arrived, conducted interviews with witnesses and bystanders, and set up equipment to reconstruct the accident.

Officer Cooper filed a preliminary report, stating that the vehicle was speeding and lost control, swerving across the road before hitting a culvert. Lily had been ejected from the vehicle. His report was based on the spontaneous statements provided while he secured the scene. Officer Cooper clarified in his report that he did not conduct any interviews with witnesses or act as the investigating officer.

In a separate report, the sheriff's office investigators indicated that Lily had been playing a game of "chicken" with an oncoming car. In this dangerous game, a person stands in the road, daring a speeding car to approach them, and either the car swerves at the last second, or the person jumps out of the way. According to the sheriff's report, Lily was standing in the road

when the oncoming vehicle lost control, swerved, and struck a culvert. Lily was struck by the car, suffering fatal head and internal injuries. The report suggested that each of the teenagers, except the driver, had previously played “chicken” with the car. The two adult men and the adult woman, living near the accident scene, heard the crash and screaming before rushing to help. However, one of the adult men claimed he didn’t see anyone in the road when the accident occurred, and the other stated that he saw a car speeding back and forth but didn’t observe anyone standing in the road.

After the accident, Lily’s parents were in frequent contact with the Riverton Police Department. They were provided with a copy of Officer Cooper’s accident report, as well as the sheriff’s traffic investigation report. However, they did not receive any further information despite repeatedly asking for a second investigation to verify if their daughter had actually been in the road. The family insisted that witness statements were inconsistent and that Lily was not playing “chicken” at the time of the crash. Clarification of Lily’s role in the accident was important because the life insurance company was withholding funds based on the cause of the death.

On August 10, the Parker family sent an email to Officer Cooper requesting updates on the investigation. On August 17, Officer Cooper replied, saying, “I have forwarded this matter to the county sheriff’s office, and they will be in touch soon. Thank you for your patience.”

Three weeks later, the family followed up via email, and again, on September 1, Officer Cooper responded, saying the request had been passed along to the county sheriff’s office.

By November 2015, the family received a phone call from Deputy Laura Harris, a traffic investigator with the county sheriff’s office, who informed them that no new information was available. Deputy Harris explained that the sheriff’s office still believed Lily had been playing “chicken” and there were no plans for further investigation. The case appeared to be closed.

No charges were filed against the driver of the vehicle, even though some speculated that speeding toward a person standing in the road could be considered negligence. A spokesperson for the Riverton Police Department clarified that they could not conclusively say whether Lily was participating in the game of “chicken” because the investigation was conducted by the sheriff’s office. The spokesperson also mentioned that there wasn’t sufficient evidence to suggest Lily wasn’t involved in the dangerous game. The Parker family maintained that the driver should face charges if there was negligence, and they believed that the police’s refusal to charge the driver indirectly acknowledged that Lily was not playing “chicken.” The county prosecutor also weighed in, stating that while it was a tragic situation, there was not enough evidence to support charges. The prosecutor noted that the investigation did not uncover sufficient evidence to make an arrest.

Questions For Discussion

1. How has task specialization played a role in this case? Has it been successful in increasing efficiency or customer satisfaction? Why or why not?
2. What role, if any, does the Riverton Police Department have in the investigation or in opening a new investigation?

3. How does this case and the actions of Officer Cooper and the sheriff's investigator resemble an assembly-line production?
4. How could the organizational structure of police departments be modified to better serve Lily's family and the community at large in these types of incidents? Which type of organizational structure would best serve Lily's family?

Additional Resources

International Association of Chiefs of Police

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention

US Department of Homeland Security

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