LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, the student will:

- be able to define organizations and be familiar with their elements
- know the evolution of organizational theory, including scientific, human relations, systems, and bureaucratic management
- understand the major components of organizational structure, such as span of control and unity of command
- comprehend the primary leadership theories and skills, including the characteristics and skills of America’s best leaders
we familiar with the components of communication, including its process, barriers, role, cultural cues, and the uniqueness of communication within police organizations

know the kind of world and related challenges and organizational implications of persons of three younger generations who are now in, or will soon be entering, the workplace

understand the impact of the socialization and lifestyle of the three younger generations now entering the workplace

describe the rights and interests—and legal aspects—concerning both employees and employers regarding employees’ personal appearance at the workplace

We are born in organizations, educated by organizations, and most of us spend much of our lives working for organizations. We spend much of our leisure time paying, playing, and praying in organizations. Most of us will die in an organization, and when the time comes for burial, the largest organization of all—the state—must grant official permission.

—Amitai Etzioni

Omnes aequo animo parent ubi digni imperant.
[All men cheerfully obey where worthy men rule.]

—Publilius Syrus

INTRODUCTION

It is no surprise that Dilbert—one of today’s most popular cartoon strips and television programs—portrays downtrodden workers, inconsiderate bosses, and dysfunctional organizations. Scott Adams’s cartoon “hero,” a mouthless engineer with a perpetually bent necktie, is believed by many Americans to be representative of today’s workers. Although a sizable majority of U.S. workers routinely indicate that their workplace is a pleasant environment, more than 70 percent also experience stress at work because of red tape, unnecessary rules, poor communication with management, and other causes. Indeed, what gives Adams grist for the Dilbert mill is the way managers mishandle their employees and carry out downsizing. But, as we will see, it does not have to be so.

This chapter—one of the lengthiest in this book and certainly one of the most essential chapters in terms of providing the foundation of administration—examines organizations and the employees within them and how they should be managed and motivated. The chapter offers a general discussion of organizations, focusing on their definition, theory and function, and structure. Included are several approaches to managing and communicating within organizations.

Also, as indicated in Chapter 1, the initial chapters of Parts II, III, and IV of this book discuss the organization and operation of police, courts, and corrections agencies, respectively. Similarly, countless books and articles have been written about organization and administration in general (many of them in the business and human resources disciplines); therefore, in this
chapter I will attempt to discuss the major elements of organization and administration that apply to the field of criminal justice administration. Then we review the evolution of organizational theory, including scientific, human relations, systems, and bureaucratic management.

Next, we consider the structure of organizations (including such concepts as span of control and unity of command). We then focus on one of the most important aspects of organizations: communications; after defining what constitutes communication, we consider its process, barriers, role, some cultural cues, and the uniqueness of communication within police organizations. Next is leadership and primary theories of how to lead the organization; included is an overview of the characteristics and skills of America’s best leaders.

Following is a discussion of several classical motivational techniques that are used with employees; here we include such major theorists in the field as McGregor, Maslow, Katz, and Herzberg.

Then I look at some of the unique challenges posed by younger (so-called Generations X, Y, and Next) employees who are entering the workplace—including the world into which they were born, the influences of television and digital gaming on their worldview, their non-traditional lifestyle and penchant for bodily adornment, and the implications for the criminal justice workplace.

The chapter concludes with a case study relating to the latter issues.

DEFINING ORGANIZATIONS

Like supervision and management, the word organization has a number of meanings and interpretations that have evolved over the years. We think of organizations as entities of two or more people who cooperate to achieve an objective(s). In that sense, certainly, the concept of organization is not new. Undoubtedly, the first organizations were primitive hunting parties. Organization and a high degree of coordination were required to bring down huge animals, as revealed in fossils from as early as 40,000 years ago. An organization may be formally defined as “a consciously coordinated social entity, with a relative identifiable boundary, that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals.” The term consciously coordinated implies management. Social entity refers to the fact that organizations are composed of people who interact with one another and with people in other organizations. Relatively identifiable boundary alludes to the organization’s goals and the public served. Using this definition, we can consider many types of formal groups as full-blown organizations. Four different types of formal organizations have been identified by asking the question “Who benefits?” Answers include (1) mutual benefit associations, such as police labor unions; (2) business concerns, such as General Motors; (3) service organizations, such as community mental health centers, where the client group is the prime beneficiary; and (4) commonweal organizations, such as the Department of Defense and criminal justice agencies, where the beneficiaries are the public at large. The following analogy is designed to help the reader to understand organizations.

An organization corresponds to the bones that structure or give form to the body. Imagine that the hand is a single mass of bone rather than four separate fingers and a thumb made up of bones joined by cartilage to be flexible. The single mass of bones could not, because of its structure, play musical instruments, hold a pencil, or grip a baseball bat. A criminal justice organization is analogous. It must be structured properly if it is to be effective in fulfilling its many diverse goals.

It is important to note that no two organizations are exactly alike. Neither is there one best way to run an organization.
THE EVOLUTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY

Next, we discuss the evolution of organizational theory, which is the study of organizational designs and structures, the relationship of organizations with their external environment, and the behavior of administrators and managers within organizations.

According to Ronald Lynch, the history of management can be divided into three approaches and time periods: (1) scientific management (1900–1940), (2) human relations management (1930–1970), and (3) systems management (1965–present). To this, I would add another important element to the concept of organizations: bureaucratic management, which is also discussed in this section.

**Scientific Management**

Frederick W. Taylor, who first emphasized time and motion studies, is known today as the father of scientific management. Spending his early years in the steel mills of Pennsylvania, Taylor became chief engineer and later discovered a new method of making steel; this allowed him to retire at age 45 to write and lecture. He became interested in methods for getting greater productivity from workers and was hired in 1898 by Bethlehem Steel, where he measured the time it took workers to shovel and carry pig iron. Taylor recommended giving workers hourly breaks and going to a piecework system, among other adjustments. Worker productivity soared; the total number of shovelers needed dropped from about 600 to 140, and worker earnings increased from $1.15 to $1.88 per day. The average cost of handling a long ton (2,240 pounds) dropped from $0.072 to $0.033.

Taylor, who was highly criticized by unions for his management-oriented views, proved that administrators must know their employees. He published a book, *The Principles of Scientific Management*, in 1911. His views caught on, and soon emphasis was placed entirely on the formal administrative structure; terms such as authority, chain of command, span of control, and division of labor were coined.

In 1935, Luther Gulick formulated the theory of POSDCORB, an acronym for planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting (Figure 2.1); this philosophy was emphasized in police management for many years. Gulick stressed the technical and engineering side of management, virtually ignoring the human side.

The application of scientific management to criminal justice agencies was heavily criticized. It viewed employees as passive instruments whose feelings were completely disregarded. In addition, employees were considered to be motivated by money alone.

**Human Relations Management**

Beginning in 1930, people began to realize the negative effects of scientific management on the worker. A view arose in policing that management should instill pride and dignity in officers. The movement toward human relations management began with the famous studies conducted during the late 1920s through the mid-1930s by the Harvard Business School at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company. These studies, which are discussed in more detail later in this chapter, found that worker productivity is more closely related to social capacity than to physical capacity, that noneconomic rewards play a prominent part in motivating and satisfying employees, and that employees do not react to management and its rewards as individuals but as members of groups.

In the 1940s and 1950s, police departments began to recognize the strong effect of the informal structure on the organization; agencies began using techniques such as job enlargement...
and job enrichment to generate interest in policing as a career. Studies indicated that the supervisor who was “employee centered” was more effective than one who was “production centered.” Democratic or participatory management began to appear in police agencies. The human relations approach had its limitations, however. With the emphasis placed on the employee, the role of the organizational structure became secondary; the primary goal seemed to many to be social rewards, with little attention given to task accomplishment. Many police managers saw this trend as unrealistic. Employees began to give less and expect more in return.

**Systems Management**

In the mid-1960s, features of the human relations and scientific management approaches were combined in the *systems management* approach. Designed to bring the individual and the organization together, it attempted to help managers use employees to reach desired production goals. The systems approach recognized that it was still necessary to have some hierarchical arrangement to bring about coordination, that authority and responsibility were essential, and that overall organization was required.

The systems management approach combined the work of Abraham Maslow, who developed a hierarchy of needs; Douglas McGregor, who stressed the general theory of human motivation; and Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, who developed the “managerial grid,” which emphasized two concerns—for task and for people—that managers must have. (These theories are discussed in greater detail later.) In effect, the systems management approach holds that to be effective, the manager must be interdependent with other individuals and groups and have the ability to recognize and deal with conflict and change. More than
mere technical skills are required; managers require knowledge of several major resources: people, money, time, and equipment. Team cooperation is required to achieve organizational goals.

Several theories of leadership also have evolved over the past several decades, the most common being trait theory, leadership styles, and situational approaches. Each is discussed briefly next.

**Bureaucratic Management**

Criminal justice agencies certainly fit the description of an organization, as provided on page 22. First, they are managed by being organized into a number of specialized units. Administrators, managers, and supervisors exist to ensure that these units work together toward a common goal (each unit working independently would lead to fragmentation, conflict, and competition). Second, these agencies consist of people who interact within the organization and with external organizations, and they exist to serve the public. Through a mission statement, policies and procedures, a proper management style, and direction, criminal justice administrators attempt to ensure that the organization maintains its overall goals of crime treatment and suppression, and that it works amicably with other organizations and people. As the organization becomes larger, the need becomes greater for people to cooperate to achieve organizational goals.

Criminal justice organizations are *bureaucracies*, as are virtually all large organizations in modern society. The idea of a pure bureaucracy was developed by Max Weber, the German sociologist and the “father of sociology,” who argued that if a bureaucratic structure is to function efficiently, it must have the following elements:

1. **Rulification and routinization.** Organizations stress continuity. Rules save effort by eliminating the need for deriving a new solution for every problem. They also facilitate standard and equal treatment of similar situations.

2. **Division of labor.** This involves the performance of functions by various parts of an organization along with providing the necessary authority to carry out these functions.

3. **Hierarchy of authority.** Each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one.

4. **Expertise.** Specialized training is necessary. Only a person who has demonstrated adequate technical training is qualified to be a member of the administrative staff.

5. **Written rules.** Administrative acts, decisions, and rules are formulated and recorded in writing.

The administration of most police and prison organizations is based on the traditional, pyramidal, quasi-military organizational structure containing the elements of a *bureaucracy*: specialized functions, adherence to fixed rules, and a hierarchy of authority. (This pyramidal organizational environment is undergoing increasing challenges, especially as a result of departments implementing community policing, as will be seen in Chapter 3.)

Bureaucracies are often criticized on two grounds. First, they are said to be inflexible, inefficient, and unresponsive to changing needs and times. Second, they are said to stifle the individual freedom, spontaneity, and self-realization of their employees. James Q. Wilson referred to this widespread discontent with modern organizations as the “bureaucracy problem,” where the key issue is “getting the frontline worker . . . to do ‘the right thing.’” In short, then, bureaucracies themselves can create problems.
Organizational Inputs/Outputs

Another way to view organizations is as systems that take inputs, process them, and thus produce outputs. These outputs are then sold in the marketplace or given free to citizens in the form of a service. A police agency, for example, processes reports of criminal activity and, like other systems, attempts to satisfy the customer (crime victim). Figure 2.2 demonstrates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BUSINESS ORGANIZATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inputs</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer takes photos to shop to be developed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Processes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photos are developed and packaged for customer to pick up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outputs</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer picks up photos and pays for them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inputs</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A crime prevention unit is initiated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Processes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizens contact unit for advice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outputs</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police provide spot checks and lectures.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>COURT</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inputs</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A house arrest program is initiated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Processes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certain people in pre- and post-trial status are screened and offered the option.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outputs</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease in number of people in jail, speeding up court process.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Feedback**

- Analysis is made of expenses/revenues and customer satisfaction.
- Target hardening results; property crimes decrease.
- Violation rates are analyzed for success; some offenders are mainstreamed back into the community more smoothly.

**FIGURE 2.2** The organization as an input–output model.
the input/output model for the police and private business. There are other types of inputs by police agencies; for example, a robbery problem might result in an input of newly created robbery surveillance teams, the processing would be their stakeouts, and the output would be the number of subsequent arrests by the team. Feedback would occur in the form of conviction rates at trial.

**ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE**

**Primary Principles**

All organizations have an organizational structure or table of organization, be it written or unwritten, very basic or highly complex. An experienced manager uses this organizational chart or table as a blueprint for action. The size of the organization depends on the demands placed on it and the resources available to it. Growth precipitates the need for more personnel, greater division of labor, specialization, written rules, and other such elements.
In building the organizational structure, the following principles should be kept in mind:

1. **Principle of the objective.** Every part of every organization must be an expression of the purpose of the undertaking. You cannot organize in a vacuum; you must organize for something.

2. **Principle of specialization.** The activities of every member of any organized group should be confined, as far as possible, to the performance of a single function.

3. **Principle of authority.** In every organized group, the supreme authority must rest somewhere. There should be a clear line of authority to every person in the group.

4. **Principle of responsibility.** The responsibility of the superior for the acts of his or her subordinates is absolute.

5. **Principle of definition.** The content of each position, the duties involved, the authority and responsibility contemplated, and the relationships with other positions should be clearly defined in writing and published for all concerned.

6. **Principle of correspondence.** In every position, the responsibility and the authority to carry out the responsibility should correspond.

7. **Span of control.** No person should supervise more than six direct subordinates whose work interlocks.\(^{19}\)

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**Span of Control and Unity of Command**

The last concept in the preceding list, **span of control,** has recently been revisited in the literature and deserves additional commentary. How many subordinates can a chief executive, manager, or supervisor in a criminal justice organization effectively supervise? The answer will depend on such factors as the capacity of the leader and the persons supervised, the type of work performed, the complexity of the work, the area covered, distances between elements, the time needed to perform the tasks, and the types of persons served. Normally, a police patrol sergeant will supervise six to ten officers, while a patrol lieutenant may have four or five sergeants reporting to him or her.\(^ {20}\)

Several authors now argue for even higher spans of control, however, to afford reductions in the distortion of information as it flows through the organization; less slow, ineffective decision making and action; fewer functional roadblocks and “turf protection”; greater emphasis on controlling the bureaucracy rather than on customer service; and reduced costs due to the lower number of managers and management support staff. Some also argue that rank-and-file employees favor high spans of control because they receive less detailed and micromanaged supervision, greater responsibility, and a higher level of trust by their supervisors.\(^ {21}\)

A related, major principle of hierarchy of authority is **unity of command,** which refers to placing one and only one superior officer in command or in control of every situation and employee. When a critical situation occurs, it is imperative that someone be responsible and in charge. The unity-of-command principle ensures, for example, that multiple and/or conflicting orders are not issued to the same police officers by several superior officers. For example, a patrol sergeant might arrive at a hostage situation, deploy personnel, and give all appropriate orders, only to have a shift lieutenant or captain come to the scene and countermand the sergeant’s orders with his or her own orders. This type of situation would obviously be counterproductive for all concerned. All officers must know and follow the chain of command at such incidents. Every person in the organization should report to one and only one superior officer. When the unity-of-command principle is followed, everyone involved is
aware of the actions initiated by superiors and subordinates. A simple structure indicating the direct line of authority in a chain of command is shown in Figure 2.3.

An organization should be developed through careful evaluation of its responsibilities; otherwise, the agency may become unable to respond efficiently to clients’ needs. For example, the implementation of too many specialized units in a police department (e.g., community relations, crime analysis, media relations) may obligate too many personnel to these functions and result in too few patrol officers. Today, 56 to 90 percent of all sworn personnel are assigned to patrol.22

The classic pyramidal design is shown in Figure 2.4. The pyramidal structure has the following characteristics:

1. Nearly all contacts take the form of orders going down and reports of results going up the pyramid.
2. Each subordinate must receive instructions and orders from only one boss.
3. Important decisions are made at the top of the pyramid.
4. Superiors have a specific span of control, supervising only a limited number of people.
5. Personnel at all levels except at the top and bottom have contact only with their boss above them and their subordinates below them.23

**COMMUNICATION WITHIN THE ORGANIZATION**

**Import and Consequence**

Communication is obviously important in every segment of our society. As Mark Twain put it, “The difference between the right word and the almost right word is the difference between lightning and lightning bug.”24

And to that we might add one more quote, by the noted Italian-American linguist Mario Pei,25 who wrote about the essential nature of proper communication in general:

Rightly or wrongly, most people consider language as an index of culture, breeding, upbringing, personality, sometimes even of intelligence, decency, and integrity.
Under the circumstances, it is unwise, not to say harmful, to pay no heed to your language. Ignorance or improper use of language can easily interfere with your success and advancement. It can take money out of your pocket.

Certainly there is no discipline where communication is more important than that of criminal justice, where people communicate in and through offense reports; in affidavits; via general orders, policies, procedures, rules, and regulations; on the courtroom witness stand; and in competency, parole, or probation hearings. Indeed, it might be fairly said that communication is the foundation of criminal justice organization and administration.

Communication also becomes exceedingly important and sensitive in criminal justice organizations because of the nature of information that is processed by practitioners—particularly police officers, who often see people at their worst and when they are in the most embarrassing and compromising situations. To communicate what is known about these kinds of behaviors could be devastating to the parties concerned. A former Detroit police chief lamented several decades ago that “many police officers, without realizing they carry such authority, do pass on rumors. The average police officer doesn’t stop to weigh what he says.”

Certainly the same holds true today and extends to courts and corrections personnel, especially in view of the high-tech communications equipment now in use.

**Definition and Characteristics**

Today we communicate via e-mail, facsimile machines, video camcorders, cellular telephones, satellite dishes, and many other forms. We converse orally, in written letters and memos, through our body language, via television and radio programs, through newspapers and meetings. Even
private thoughts—which occur four times faster than the spoken word—are communication. Every waking hour, our minds are full of ideas. Psychologists say that nearly 100,000 thoughts pass through our minds every day, conveyed by a multitude of media.27 Studies have long shown that communication is the primary problem in administration, and lack of communication is employees’ primary complaint about their immediate supervisors.28 Indeed, managers are in the communications business. It has been said that

> [o]f all skills needed to be an effective manager/leader/supervisor, skill in communicating is the most vital. In fact, research has shown that 93 percent of police work is one-on-one communication. Estimates vary, but all studies emphasize the importance of communications in everyday law enforcement operations.29

Several elements compose the communication process: encoding, transmission, medium, reception, decoding, and feedback.30

**Encoding.** To convey an experience or idea, we translate, or encode, that experience into symbols. We use words or other verbal behaviors or nonverbal behaviors such as gestures to convey the experience or idea.

**Transmission.** This element involves the translation of the encoded symbols into some behavior that another person can observe. The actual articulation (moving our lips, tongue, etc.) of the symbol into verbal or nonverbal observable behavior is transmission.

**Medium.** Communication must be conveyed through some channel or medium. Media for communication include sight, hearing, taste, touch, and smell. Some other media are television, telephone, paper and pencil, and radio. The choice of the medium is important. For example, a message that is transmitted via a formal letter from the CEO will carry more weight than the same message conveyed via a secretary’s memo.

**Reception.** The stimuli, the verbal and nonverbal symbols, reach the senses of the receiver and are conveyed to the brain for interpretation.

**Decoding.** The individual who receives the stimuli develops some meaning for the verbal and nonverbal symbols and decodes the stimuli. These symbols are translated into some concept or experience for the receiver. Whether or not the receiver is familiar with the symbols, or whether or not interference such as noise or a physiological problem occurs, determines how closely the message that the receiver has decoded approximates the message that the sender has encoded.

**Feedback.** After decoding the transmitted symbols, the receiver usually provides some response or feedback to the sender. If someone appears puzzled, we repeat the message or we encode the concept differently and transmit some different symbols to express that concept. Feedback that we receive acts as a guide or steering device and lets us know whether the receiver has interpreted our symbols as we intended. Feedback is obviously a crucial element in guaranteeing that the sender’s intended meaning was in fact conveyed to the receiver.

An organization’s systems of communication are usually created by establishing formal areas of responsibility and explicit delegations of duties, including statements of the nature, content, and direction of the communications that are necessary for the group’s performance. Most criminal justice administrators prefer a formal system, regardless of how cumbersome it may be, because they can control it and because it tends to create a record for future reference.
Several human factors, however, affect the flow of communication. Employees typically communicate with those persons who can help them to achieve their aims; they avoid communicating with those who do not assist, or may retard, their accomplishing those goals; and they tend to avoid communicating with people who threaten them and make them feel anxious. Other barriers to effective communication are discussed later.

Communication within a criminal justice organization may be downward, upward, or horizontal. There are five types of downward communication within a criminal justice organization:

1. **Job instruction.** Communication relating to the performance of a certain task
2. **Job rationale.** Communication relating a certain task to organizational tasks
3. **Procedures and practice.** Communication about organizational policies, procedures, rules, and regulations (discussed in Chapter 3)
4. **Feedback.** Communication appraising how an individual performs the assigned task
5. **Indoctrination.** Communication designed to motivate the employee

Other reasons for communicating downward—implicit in this list—are opportunities for administrators to spell out objectives, to change attitudes and mold opinions, to prevent misunderstandings from lack of information, and to prepare employees for change.

**Upward** communication in a criminal justice organization may be likened to a trout trying to swim upstream: With its many currents of resistance, it is a much harder task than to float downstream. Several deterrents restrict upward communication. The physical distance between superior and subordinate impedes upward communication. Communication is often difficult and infrequent when superiors are isolated and seldom seen or spoken to. In large criminal justice organizations, administrators may be located in headquarters that are removed from the operations personnel. The complexity of the organization may also cause prolonged delays of communication. For example, if a corrections officer or a patrol officer observes a problem that needs to be taken to the highest level, normally this information must first be taken to the sergeant, then to the lieutenant, captain, deputy warden or chief, and so on. At each level, these higher-level individuals will reflect on the problem, put their own interpretation on it (possibly including how the problem might affect them professionally or even personally), and possibly even dilute or distort the problem. Thus, delays in communication are inherent in a bureaucracy. Delays could mean that problems are not brought to the attention of the CEO for a long time. The more levels the communication passes through, the more it is filtered and diluted in its accuracy.

There is also the danger that administrators have a “no news is good news” or “slay the messenger” attitude, thereby discouraging the reception of information. Unless the superior does in fact maintain an open-door atmosphere, subordinates are often reluctant to bring, or will temper, bad news, unfavorable opinions, and mistakes or failures to the superior. Administrators may also believe that they know and understand what their subordinates want and think, and that complaints from subordinates are an indication of disloyalty.

For all of these reasons, administrators may fail to take action on undesirable conditions brought to their attention; this will cause subordinates to lose faith in their leaders. Many time-consuming problems could be minimized or eliminated if superiors took the time to listen to their employees.

**Horizontal** communication thrives in an organization when formal communication channels are not open. The disadvantage of horizontal communication is that it is much easier and more natural to achieve than vertical communication and therefore it often replaces vertical channels. The horizontal channels are usually informal in nature and include the
The advantage is that horizontal communication is essential if the subsystems within a criminal justice organization are to function in an effective and coordinated manner. Horizontal communication among peers may also provide emotional and social bonds that build morale and feelings of teamwork among employees.

**Communicating in Police Organizations: Consequence, Jargon, and the Grapevine**

As noted above, communication skills in policing are of vital importance. Officers must possess the ability to communicate internally and externally regarding policies and procedures that affect daily operations. The ability of police to communicate effectively using both oral and written means is also paramount because of the damage that can be done by, say, not completing an offense report properly or failing to convey accurately to one’s supervisors, to the district attorney, or in court what actually happened in a criminal matter. Officers must also be prepared to converse with highly educated people in their day-to-day work.

Like people in other occupations and the professions, the police have their own jargon, dialect, and/or slang that they use on a daily basis. To the police, an offender might be a “perp” (perpetrator); a “subject” is simply someone of interest whom they are talking with, while a “suspect” is someone suspected of having committed a crime. In an “interview” the officer attempts to obtain basic information about a person (name, address, date of birth, and so forth), while an “interrogation” involves questioning an individual about his or her knowledge of, or involvement in, a crime. Such jargon and slang help officers to communicate among themselves.

The police also communicate with one another by listening and talking on the squad car radio. Agencies generally have detailed instructions and do’s and don’ts in their policies and procedures regarding the use of radio. Supervisors must ensure that officers’ radio transmissions are as concise, complete, and accurate as possible; officers are to refrain from making unprofessional, rude, sarcastic, or unnecessary remarks while on their radio; and those who fail to abide by these rules will quickly be admonished or even disciplined.

Police communicate on their radios using codes and have done so since the 1920s. The codes that are actually used may vary somewhat from agency to agency, but a fairly common listing of codes is provided in Table 2.1.

In addition to the several barriers to effective communication just discussed, the so-called grapevine—so called because it zigzags back and forth across organizations—can also hinder communication. Communication includes rumors, and probably no type of organization in our society has more grapevine “scuttlebutt” than police agencies. Departments even establish “rumor control” centers during major crisis situations. Increasing the usual barriers to communication is the fact that policing, prisons, and jails are 24-hour, 7-day operations, so that rumors are easily carried from one shift to the next.

The grapevine’s most effective characteristics are that it is fast, it operates mostly at the place of work, and it supplements regular, formal communication. On the positive side, it can
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10-1</td>
<td>Signal weak</td>
<td>10-42</td>
<td>Ending shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-2</td>
<td>Signal good</td>
<td>10-43</td>
<td>Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-3</td>
<td>Stop transmitting</td>
<td>10-44</td>
<td>Permission to leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-4</td>
<td>Message received</td>
<td>10-45</td>
<td>Dead animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-5</td>
<td>Relay</td>
<td>10-46</td>
<td>Assist motorist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-6</td>
<td>Busy</td>
<td>10-47</td>
<td>Emergency road repair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-7</td>
<td>Out of service</td>
<td>10-48</td>
<td>Traffic control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-8</td>
<td>In service</td>
<td>10-49</td>
<td>Traffic signal out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-9</td>
<td>Repeat</td>
<td>10-50</td>
<td>Traffic accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-10</td>
<td>Fight in progress</td>
<td>10-51</td>
<td>Request tow truck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-11</td>
<td>Animal problem</td>
<td>10-52</td>
<td>Request ambulance</td>
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<tr>
<td>10-12</td>
<td>Stand by</td>
<td>10-53</td>
<td>Livestock on roadway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-13</td>
<td>Report conditions</td>
<td>10-54</td>
<td>Intoxicated driver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14</td>
<td>Prowler report</td>
<td>10-55</td>
<td>Intoxicated pedestrian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>Civil disturbance</td>
<td>10-56</td>
<td>Hit-and-run accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-16</td>
<td>Domestic problem</td>
<td>10-57</td>
<td>Direct traffic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-17</td>
<td>Meet complainant</td>
<td>10-58</td>
<td>Escort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-18</td>
<td>Urgent</td>
<td>10-59</td>
<td>Squad in vicinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-19</td>
<td>Go to station</td>
<td>10-60</td>
<td>Personnel in vicinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-20</td>
<td>Location</td>
<td>10-61</td>
<td>Reply to message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-21</td>
<td>Phone</td>
<td>10-62</td>
<td>Prepare to copy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-22</td>
<td>Disregard</td>
<td>10-63</td>
<td>Network message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-23</td>
<td>Arrived at scene</td>
<td>10-64</td>
<td>Cancel message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-24</td>
<td>Assignment complete</td>
<td>10-65</td>
<td>Clear for network message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-25</td>
<td>Report to—</td>
<td>10-66</td>
<td>Dispatch information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-26</td>
<td>Detaining suspect</td>
<td>10-67</td>
<td>Message received</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-27</td>
<td>Driver's license information</td>
<td>10-68</td>
<td>Fire alarm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-28</td>
<td>Vehicle registration information</td>
<td>10-69</td>
<td>Advise of nature of fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-29</td>
<td>Check for wants/warrants</td>
<td>10-70</td>
<td>Report progress of fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-30</td>
<td>Unauthorized use of radio</td>
<td>10-71</td>
<td>Smoke report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-31</td>
<td>Crime in progress</td>
<td>10-72</td>
<td>Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-32</td>
<td>Person with gun</td>
<td>10-73</td>
<td>In contact with—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-33</td>
<td>Emergency, stand by</td>
<td>10-74</td>
<td>E.T.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-34</td>
<td>Riot</td>
<td>10-75</td>
<td>Request assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-35</td>
<td>Major crime alert</td>
<td>10-76</td>
<td>Notify coroner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-36</td>
<td>Correct time</td>
<td>10-77</td>
<td>Breathalyzer report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-37</td>
<td>Investigate suspicious vehicle</td>
<td>10-78</td>
<td>Pursuit in progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-38</td>
<td>Stop suspicious vehicle</td>
<td>10-79</td>
<td>Reserve lodgings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-39</td>
<td>Use lights and siren</td>
<td>10-80</td>
<td>School crossing detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-40</td>
<td>Respond quickly</td>
<td>10-81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-41</td>
<td>Beginning shift</td>
<td>10-82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 2.1 Partial List of Standard Radio Codes Used by Many Agencies
TABLE 2.1 Partial List of Standard Radio Codes Used by Many Agencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10-84</td>
<td>E.T.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-85</td>
<td>Arrival delayed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-86</td>
<td>Operator on duty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-87</td>
<td>Pick up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-88</td>
<td>Advise of telephone number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-89</td>
<td>Bomb threat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-90</td>
<td>Bank alarm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-91</td>
<td>Pick up subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-92</td>
<td>Illegally parked vehicle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-93</td>
<td>Blockage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-94</td>
<td>Drag racing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-95</td>
<td>Subject in custody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-96</td>
<td>Detain subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-97</td>
<td>Test signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-98</td>
<td>Escaped prisoner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-99</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


be a tool for management to gauge employees’ attitudes, to spread useful information, and to help employees vent their frustrations. However, the grapevine can also carry untruths and be malicious. Without a doubt, the grapevine is a force for administrators to reckon with on a daily basis.

**Oral and Written Communication**

Our society tends to place considerable confidence in the written word within complex organizations. Writing establishes a permanent record, but transmitting information this way does not necessarily ensure that the message will be clear to the receiver. Often, in spite of the writer’s best efforts, information is not conveyed clearly. This may be due in large measure to shortcomings with the writer’s skills. Nonetheless, criminal justice organizations seem to rely increasingly on written communication, as evidenced by the proliferation of written directives found in most agencies.

This tendency for organizations to promulgate written rules, policies, and procedures has been caused by three contemporary developments. First is the requirement for administrative due process in employee disciplinary matters, encouraged by federal court rulings, police officer bill of rights legislation, and labor contracts. Another development is civil liability. Lawsuits against local governments and their criminal justice agencies and administrators have become commonplace; written agency guidelines prohibiting certain acts provide a hedge against successful civil litigation. Written communication is preferred as a medium for dealing with citizens or groups outside the criminal justice agency. This means of communication provides the greatest protection against the growing number of legal actions taken against agencies by activists, citizens, and interest groups.

Finally, a third stimulus is the accreditation movement. Agencies that are either pursuing accreditation or have become accredited must possess a wealth of written policies and procedures.

In recent years, electronic mail (e-mail) has proliferated as a communication medium in criminal justice organizations. E-mail provides easy-to-use and almost instantaneous communication with anyone possessing a personal computer—in upward, downward, or horizontal directions. For all their advantages, however, e-mail messages can lack security and can be ambiguous—not only with respect to content meaning but also with regard to what they
represent. Are such messages, in fact, mail, to be given the full weight of an office letter or memo, or should they be treated more as offhand comments?\textsuperscript{39}

**Other Barriers to Effective Communication**

In addition to the barriers just discussed, several other potential barriers to effective communication exist. Some people, for example, are not good listeners. Unfortunately, listening is one of the most neglected and the least understood of the communication arts.\textsuperscript{40} We allow

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2.2 Phonetic Alphabet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two general phonetic alphabets are used in the United States. Law enforcement agencies generally use the one on the top, while fire agencies primarily use the one on the bottom.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**LAW ENFORCEMENT**

| A | Adam | N | Nora |
| B | Boy | O | Ocean |
| C | Charlie | P | Paul |
| D | David | Q | Queen |
| E | Edward | R | Robert |
| F | Frank | S | Sam |
| G | George | T | Tom |
| H | Henry | U | Union |
| I | Ida | V | Victor |
| J | John | W | William |
| K | King | X | X-ray |
| L | Lincoln | Y | Young |
| M | Mary | Z | Zebra |

**FIRE AND MILITARY**

| A | Alpha | N | November |
| B | Bravo | O | Oscar |
| C | Charlie | P | Papa |
| D | Delta | Q | Quebec |
| E | Echo | R | Romeo |
| F | Foxtrot | S | Sierra |
| G | Golf | T | Tango |
| H | Hotel | U | Uniform |
| I | India | V | Victor |
| J | Juliet | W | Whiskey |
| K | Kilo | X | X-ray |
| L | Lima | Y | Yankee |
| M | Mike | Z | Zulu |

other things to obstruct our communication, including time constraints, inadequate or excessive information, the tendency to say what we think others want to hear, failure to select the best word, prejudices, and strained sender–receiver relationships.\textsuperscript{41} In addition, subordinates do not always have the same "big picture" viewpoint that superiors possess and do not always communicate well with someone in a higher position who is perhaps more fluent and persuasive than they are.

\textbf{Cultural Cues}

It is important to note that at least 90 percent of communication is \textit{nonverbal} in nature, involving posture, facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice ("it's not what you say but how you say it"), and so on.\textsuperscript{42} People learn to interpret these nonverbal messages by growing up in a particular culture, but not every culture interprets nonverbal cues in the same way.

For example, in some cultures, avoiding eye contact by looking at the ground is meant to convey respect and humility. Making what to some people are exaggerated hand gestures may be a normal means of communication in some cultures, and social distance for conversation in some societies may be much closer than it is in the United States. Someone from Nigeria, for example, may stand less than 15 inches from someone while conversing, whereas about 2 feet is a comfortable conversation zone for Americans. These few examples demonstrate why criminal justice practitioners must possess cultural empathy and understand the cultural cues of citizens from other nations.

Over 20 years ago Peter Drucker, often referred to as the \textit{business guru},\textsuperscript{43} conducted a study of the Los Angeles Police Department; among Drucker's findings was: "You police are so concerned with doing things right that you fail to do the right things." Drucker added that "Managers do things right; leaders do the right thing." Another leadership guru, Warren Bennis, has said essentially the same thing. In other words, administrators cannot be so concerned with managing that they fail to lead.\textsuperscript{44}

We now look at theories underlying leadership and what leaders can do to motivate their subordinates.

\textbf{PRIMARY LEADERSHIP THEORIES}

\textbf{What Is Leadership?}

Probably since the dawn of time, when cave dwellers clustered into hunting groups and some particularly dominant person assumed a leadership role over the party, administrators have received advice on how to do their jobs from those around them. Even today, manuals for leaders and upwardly mobile executives abound, offering quick studies in how to govern others. Although many have doubtless been profitable for their authors, most of these how-to primers on leading others enjoy only a brief, ephemeral existence.

To understand leadership, we must first define the term. This is an important and fairly complex undertaking, however. Perhaps the simplest definition is to say that leading is "getting things done through people." In general, it may be said that a manager operates in the status quo but a leader takes risks. Managers are conformers; leaders are reformers. Managers control; leaders empower. Managers supervise; leaders coach. Managers are efficient; leaders are effective. Managers are position oriented; leaders are people oriented. In sum, police administrators must be both skilled managers and effective leaders.\textsuperscript{45}
Other definitions of leadership include the following:

- “The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation”
- “Working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals”
- “The activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives”
- “The exercise of influence”

Conversely, it has been said that the manager may be viewed as a team captain, parent, steward, battle commander, fountain of wisdom, poker player, group spokesperson, gatekeeper, minister, drill instructor, facilitator, initiator, mediator, navigator, candy-store keeper, linchpin, umbrella-holder and everything else between nurse and Attila-the-Hun.

In criminal justice organizations, leaders take the macro view; their role might best be defined as “the process of influencing organizational members to use their energies willingly and appropriately to facilitate the achievement of the [agency’s] goals.” I discuss leaders and managers in greater length later in this chapter and in Chapter 4 (the Mintzberg model of chief executive officers).

Next, we discuss what kinds of activities and philosophies constitute leadership. One would also do well to consider the views of Lawrence B. Kokkelenberg, in Exhibit 2.1

**EXHIBIT 2.1**

**Leadership’s Bond of Trust**

*By Lawrence B. Kokkelenberg*

The old military dogma, one also quite familiar to many areas of the private sector, was “I am the boss you are the subordinate, just do what I tell you to do. You don’t have to trust me, in fact you don’t even have to like me. Just follow orders.” Many old adages support this paradigm: “Leadership is a lonely position.” “A manager’s job is to manage, not run a popularity contest.” “If you are going to lead, then lead.” “When I tell you to jump, just go up, I’ll tell you when to come down.”

This autocratic approach worked well for America for 200 years, but that was back in the days when life was simple. Back then if you did not work, you did not eat. Today if you don’t work, you can make a pretty good living. We are not economically or financially bound by a job today as we were then. Back then, having a job was only a means to an end (providing for your family). Today, having a meaningful career is an important end in itself. Back then, we worked for someone; today we want to work with someone. (Today there are no “employees”; everyone is an “associate.”) Back then, work came first, then family. For many workers today, family is first and work second. Back then there was *[sic]* little, if any, civil rights laws, today, everyone has rights.

Times have changed, people’s values have changed. People today are more sophisticated and more mature than the workers of 50 years ago. In fact, the entire culture has changed, and if leadership does not change its style then it is the leadership that is out of sync with the culture and the desires of the American work force. The new Generation X’ers will only serve to prove the above even further and more rapidly than the current generation.
More than ever before in the history of American management, values are critical. ... A leader’s values color the entire organization or country. ... Values drive the behavior and therefore the culture of an organization. All organizations have values, whether they know it or not. Simply watch how people are treated in any organization and you’ll see their informal values. Trust is one of those critical values.

Why is trust important? Because all good sustained relationships require trust. Think about this: Would you voluntarily follow anyone you did not trust? We learned this lesson in Vietnam about not trusting our military leaders. Look what happened to those individuals.

To be a leader, you must have followers. So the question to ask yourself is why in the world would anyone choose to voluntarily follow you. What traits or characteristics do you possess that would encourage people to say, “I’ll go with you anywhere”? Here is the acid test. If you left your current department or agency and went to another, would you have people who would want to transfer with you, or would the remaining staff now have a party because you’re gone?

Certainly one of the key characteristics of an effective leader is that followers trust him or her. Have you ever worked for someone you did not trust? What was the atmosphere like? How would you characterize your relationship with him or her? What were some of the qualities or traits of this boss? Contrast this with someone you did trust. What was this atmosphere like? How would you characterize this trusting relationship? What were some of the qualities or traits of this boss?

Leadership is not about position, title or rank; it is about developing, possessing or acquiring the necessary traits to encourage people to voluntarily follow us. We tend to trust those individuals who have integrity, solid values and a strong character ethic. We tend not to trust those individuals who are duplicious, upholding the law for others while violating it themselves. How many officers speed on their way to and from work every day, and then write tickets for citizens who do the same? ... If you want to be a trusted leader, work on your character and be trustworthy. Over time, establish yourself as an individual of great character and moral strength, walk the talk, have integrity, be honest and fair, do the right things and you will be a trusted leader.


Trait Theory

Trait theory was popular until the 1950s. This theory was based on the contention that good leaders possessed certain character traits that poor leaders did not. Those who developed this theory, Stogdill and Goode, believed that a leader could be identified through a two-step process. The first step involved studying leaders and comparing them to nonleaders to determine which traits only the leaders possessed. The second step sought people who possessed these traits to be promoted to managerial positions.\(^52\)

A study of 468 administrators in 13 companies found certain traits in successful administrators. They were more intelligent and better educated; had a stronger need for power; preferred independent activity, intense thought, and some risk; enjoyed relationships with people; and disliked detail work more than their subordinates.\(^53\) Figure 2.5 shows traits and skills
commonly associated with leader effectiveness, according to Gary Yuki. Following this study, a review of the literature on trait theory revealed the traits most identified with leadership ability: intelligence, initiative, extroversion, a sense of humor, enthusiasm, fairness, sympathy, and self-confidence.

Trait theory has lost much of its support since the 1950s, partly because of the basic assumption of the theory that leadership cannot be taught. A more important reason, however, is simply the growth of new, more sophisticated approaches to the study of leadership. Quantifiable means to test trait theory were limited. What does it mean to say that a leader must be intelligent? By whose standards? Compared with persons within the organization or within society? How can traits such as a sense of humor, enthusiasm, fairness, and the others listed earlier be measured or tested? The inability to measure these factors was the real flaw in and reason for the decline of trait theory.

**Style Theory**

A study at Michigan State University investigated how leaders motivated individuals or groups to achieve organizational goals. The study determined that leaders must have a sense of the task to be accomplished as well as the environment in which their subordinates work. Three principles of leadership behavior emerged from the Michigan study:

1. Leaders must give task direction to their followers.
2. Closeness of supervision directly affects employee production. High-producing units had less direct supervision; highly supervised units had lower production. Conclusion: Employees need some area of freedom to make choices. Given this, they produce at a higher rate.
3. Leaders must be employee oriented. It is the leader’s responsibility to facilitate employees’ accomplishment of goals.

In the 1950s, Edwin Fleishman began studies of leadership at Ohio State University. After focusing on leader behavior rather than personality traits, he identified two dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traits</th>
<th>Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adaptable to situations</td>
<td>Clever (intelligent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alert to social environment</td>
<td>Conceptually skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious and achievement oriented</td>
<td>Creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>Diplomatic and tactful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative</td>
<td>Fluent in speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive</td>
<td>Knowledgeable about group task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependable</td>
<td>Organized (administrative ability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant (desire to influence others)</td>
<td>Persuasive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic (high activity level)</td>
<td>Socially skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant of stress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willing to assume responsibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

or basic principles of leadership that could be taught: *initiating structure* and *consideration* (Figure 2.6).\(^56\) Initiating structure referred to supervisory behavior that focused on the achievement of organizational goals, and consideration was directed toward a supervisor’s openness to subordinates’ ideas and respect for their feelings as persons. High consideration and moderate initiating structure were assumed to yield higher job satisfaction and productivity than high initiating structure and low consideration.\(^57\)

The major focus of *style theory* is the adoption of a single managerial style by a manager based on his or her position in regard to initiating structure and consideration. Three pure leadership styles were thought to be the basis for all managers: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire.

**Autocratic leaders** are leader centered and have a high initiating structure. They are primarily authoritarian in nature and prefer to give orders rather than invite group participation. They have a tendency to be personal in their criticism. This style works best in emergency situations in which strict control and rapid decision making are needed. The problem with autocratic leadership is the organization’s inability to function when the leader is absent. It also stifles individual development and initiative because subordinates are rarely allowed to make an independent decision.\(^58\)

The **democratic leader** tends to focus on working within the group and strives to attain cooperation from group members by eliciting their ideas and support. Democratic managers tend to be viewed as consideration oriented and strive to attain mutual respect with subordinates. These leaders operate within an atmosphere of trust and delegate much authority. The democratic style is useful in organizations in which the course of action is uncertain and problems are relatively unstructured. It often taps the decision-making ability of subordinates. In emergency situations requiring a highly structured response, however, democratic leadership may prove too time-consuming and awkward to be effective. Thus, although the worker may appreciate the strengths of this style, its weaknesses must be recognized as well.\(^59\)

The third leadership style, that of the **laissez-faire leader**, is a hands-off approach in which the leader is actually a nonleader. The organization in effect runs itself, with no input or control from the manager. This style has no positive aspects, as the entire organization is soon placed in jeopardy. In truth, this may not be a leadership style at all; instead, it may be an abdication of administrative duties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiating Structure</th>
<th>Autocratic</th>
<th>Democratic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td></td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP®

Situational Leadership® theory recognizes that the workplace is a complex setting subject to rapid changes. Therefore, it is unlikely that one way of managing these varying situations would be adequate. In this view, the best way to lead depends on the situation.

In 1977, Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard® presented a model of Situational Leadership® that has been used for training by many major corporations and the military. Their model emphasizes the leader’s behavior in relationship to followers’ behavior (see Figure 2.7), and requires that the leader evaluate follower readiness in two ways; willingness (motivation) and ability (competence).

Situational Leadership® takes into account worker readiness; readiness is defined as the capacity to set high but attainable goals, the willingness to take responsibility, and the education and/or experience of the individual or the group. Figure 2.7 depicts the various levels of follower readiness, which are defined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Follower Readiness</th>
<th>High Task and High Relationship</th>
<th>High Task and Low Relationship</th>
<th>Low Task and High Relationship</th>
<th>Low Task and Low Relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(LOW)</td>
<td>(HIGH)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TASK BEHAVIOR</td>
<td>DIRECTIVE BEHAVIOR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(LOW)</td>
<td>(HIGH)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOLLOWER READINESS</td>
<td>ABLE AND WILLING AND CONFIDENT</td>
<td>ABLE BUT UNWILLING OR INSECURE</td>
<td>UNABLE BUT WILLING OR CONFIDENT</td>
<td>UNABLE AND UNWILLING OR INSECURE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R4</td>
<td>R3</td>
<td>R2</td>
<td>R1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 2.7 Situational Leadership®. Source: Copyright 2006. Reprinted with permission of the Center for Leadership Studies, Inc., Escondido, CA, 92025. All rights reserved.
R1. The followers are neither willing nor able to take responsibility for task accomplishment.

R2. The followers are willing but are not able to take responsibility for task accomplishment.

R3. The followers are not willing but are able to take responsibility for task accomplishment.

R4. The followers are willing and able to take responsibility for task accomplishment.

Task behavior, shown in Figure 2.7, is essentially the extent to which a leader engages in one-way communication with subordinates; relationship behavior is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way communication (by providing positive reinforcement, emotional support, and so on).

There are four basic styles of leadership that are associated with task accomplishment; they are defined as follows:

S1. **Telling.** The high task/low relationship style is characterized by one-way communication in which the leader defines the roles of followers and tells them what, how, when, and where to do various tasks.

S2. **Selling.** The high task/high relationship style is provided by two-way communication and socioemotional support to get followers to voluntarily buy into decisions that have been made.

S3. **Participating.** The high relationship/low task style indicates that both the leader and followers have the ability and knowledge to complete the task.

S4. **Delegating.** The low relationship/low task style gives followers the opportunity to “run their own show” with little supervision.

The style-of-leader portion of Figure 2.7 means that, as the readiness level of followers develops, the appropriate style of leadership moves correspondingly. For example, a police supervisor who has a subordinate whose maturity is in the R3 range (able but unwilling) would be most effective when employing an S3 (participating) style of leadership.

Hersey and Blanchard asserted that leaders could reduce their close supervision and direction of individuals and increase delegation as followers’ readiness to complete tasks increased. The difficulty of this style of leadership is its dependence on the ability of leaders to diagnose the ability of followers and then adjust their leadership style to the given situation. This is often easier said than done.

**THE MANAGERIAL GRID**

In 1964, Blake and Mouton developed their **managerial grid** from the studies done by Edwin Fleishman and others at Ohio State University. The Ohio team used two variables, focus on task (initiating structure) and focus on relationships (consideration), to develop a management quadrant describing leadership behavior. The managerial grid (Figure 2.8) includes five leadership styles based on concern for output (production) and concern for people. Using a specially developed testing instrument, researchers can assign a numerical score based on subjects’ concern for each variable. Numerical indications such as 9,1, 9,9, 1,1, and 5,5 are then plotted on the grid using the scales on the horizontal and vertical axes. The grid is read like a map, right
and up. Each axis is numbered from 1 to 9, with 1 indicating the minimum effort or concern and 9 the maximum. The horizontal axis represents the concern for production and performance goals, and the vertical axis represents the concern for human relations or empathy.

The points of orientation are related to styles of management. The lower-left-hand corner of the grid shows the 1,1 style (representing minimal concern for the task or service and minimal concern for people). The lower-right-hand corner of the grid shows the 9,1 style. This type of leader has primary concern for the task or output and minimal concern for people. Here, people are seen as tools of production. The upper-left-hand corner represents the 1,9 style, often referred to as “country club management,” with minimum effort given to the output or task. The upper-right-hand corner, 9,9, indicates high concern for both people and

production—a “we’re all in this together,” common-stake approach of mutual respect and trust. In the center—a 5,5 middle-of-the-road style—the leader has a “give a little, be fair but firm” philosophy, providing a balance between output and people concerns.61

These five leadership styles can be summarized as follows62:

- Authority–compliance management (9,1)
- Country club management (1,9)
- Middle-of-the-road management (5,5)
- Impoverished management (1,1)
- Team management (9,9)

CHARACTERISTICS AND SKILLS OF AMERICA’S BEST LEADERS

“Good in Their Skin”

Given today’s deep-seated skepticism and distrust of leaders—often justified by public- and private-sector leaders’ ethical violations, fraud, and cover-ups—it may seem that there is a complete dearth of leadership. To assess that view, recently a weekly news magazine, U.S. News & World Report, teamed with Harvard University’s Center for Public Leadership to identify leaders who are making a difference. A national panel sifted through nominations and agreed on a small group of men and women who embody the more important traits of leadership. The survey determined that there is not a lack of leadership, but rather a “wrong-headed notion of what a leader is,” causing leaders to be hired for their style rather than substance and their image instead of integrity. It was also learned that there is no shortage of people with the capacity to lead who are just waiting for the opportunity.63

The survey found that twenty-first-century authentic leaders know who they are; they are “good in their skin,” so they do not feel a need to impress or please others. They inspire those around them and bring people together around a shared purpose and a common set of values. They know the “true north” of their moral compass and are prepared to stay the course despite challenges and disappointments. They are more concerned about serving others than about their own success or recognition. By acknowledging their weaknesses, failings, and errors, they connect with people and empower them to take risks. Usually authentic leaders demonstrate the following five traits: pursuing their purpose with passion; practicing solid values; leading with their hearts as well as their heads; establishing connected relationships; and demonstrating self-discipline.64

For a less contemporary, classical view of what skills leaders need to possess, we consider the views of Robert Katz.

Katz’s Three Skills

Robert Katz, in 1975, identified three essential skills that leaders should possess: technical, human, and conceptual. Katz defined a skill as the capacity to translate knowledge into action in such a way that a task is accomplished successfully.65 Each of these skills (when performed effectively) results in the achievement of objectives and goals, which is the primary task of management.

Technical skills are those a manager needs to ensure that specific tasks are performed correctly. They are based on proven knowledge, procedures, or techniques. A police detective, a court administrator, and a probation officer have all developed technical skills directly
related to the work they perform. Katz wrote that a technical skill “involves specialized knowledge, analytical ability within that specialty, and facility in the use of the tools and techniques of the specific discipline.” This is the skill most easily trained for. A court administrator, for example, has to be knowledgeable in areas such as computer applications, budgeting, caseload management, space utilization, public relations, and personnel administration; a police detective must possess technical skills in interviewing, fingerprinting, and surveillance techniques.

Human skills involve working with people, including being thoroughly familiar with what motivates employees and how to utilize group processes. Katz visualized human skills as including “the executive’s ability to work effectively as a group member and to build cooperative effort within the team he leads.” Katz added that the human relations skill involves tolerance of ambiguity and empathy. Tolerance of ambiguity means that the manager is able to handle problems when insufficient information precludes making a totally informed decision. Empathy is the ability to put oneself in another’s place. An awareness of human skills allows a manager to provide the necessary leadership and direction, ensuring that tasks are accomplished in a timely fashion and with the least expenditure of resources.

Conceptual skills, Katz said, involve “coordinating and integrating all the activities and interests of the organization toward a common objective.” Katz considered such skills to include “an ability to translate knowledge into action.” For example, in a criminal justice setting, a court decision concerning the admissibility of evidence would need to be examined in terms of how it affects detectives, other court cases, the forensic laboratory, the property room, and the work of the street officer.

Katz emphasized that these skills can be taught to actual and prospective administrators; thus, good administrators are not simply born but can be trained in the classroom. Furthermore, all three of these skills are present in varying degrees at each management level. As one moves up the hierarchy, conceptual skills become more important and technical skills less important. The common denominator for all levels of management is human skills. In today’s litigious environment, it is inconceivable that a manager could neglect the human skills.

**MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES**

One of the most fascinating subjects throughout history has been how to motivate people. Some have sought to do so through justice (Plato), others through psychoanalysis (Freud), some through conditioning (Pavlov), some through incentives (Taylor), and still others through fear (any number of dictators and despots). From the Industrial Revolution to the present, managers have been trying to get a full day’s work from their subordinates. The controversy in the early 1990s caused by Japanese businessmen who stated that American workers were lazy certainly raised our collective ire; many U.S. businesspeople and managers would probably agree that better worker motivation is needed. As Donald Favreau and Joseph Gillespie stated, “Getting people to work, the way you want them to work, when you want them to work, is indeed a challenge.”

Many theories have attempted to explain motivation. Some of the best known are those resulting from the Hawthorne studies and those developed by Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, and Frederick Herzberg, all of which are discussed here along with the expectancy and contingency theories.
The Hawthorne Studies

Another important theory that criminal justice leaders must comprehend is that of the Hawthorne effect, which essentially means that employees’ behavior may be altered if they know they are being studied—and that management cares; this was demonstrated in the following research project.

As mentioned earlier, one of the most important studies of worker motivation and behavior, launching intense interest and research in those areas, was the Western Electric Company’s study in the 1920s. In 1927, engineers at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric near Chicago conducted an experiment with several groups of workers to determine the effect of illumination on production. The engineers found that when illumination was increased in stages, production increased. To verify their finding, they reduced illumination to its previous level; again, production increased. Confused by their findings, they contacted Elton Mayo and his colleague Fritz Roethlisberger from Harvard to investigate. First, the researchers selected several experienced female assemblers for an experiment. Management removed the women from their formal group and isolated them in a room. The women were compensated on the basis of the output of their group. Next, researchers began a series of environmental changes, each discussed with the women in advance of its implementation. For example, breaks were introduced and light refreshments were served. The normal 6-day week was reduced to 5 days and the workday was cut by 1 hour. Each of these changes resulted in increased output. To verify these findings, researchers returned the women to their original working conditions; breaks were eliminated, the 6-day workweek was reinstated, and all other work conditions were reinstated. The results were that production again increased!

Mayo and his team then performed a second study at the Hawthorne plant. A new group of 14 workers—all men who performed simple, repetitive telephone coil-winding tasks—were given variations in rest periods and workweeks. The men were also put on a reasonable piece rate—that is, the more they produced, the more money they would earn. The assumption was that the workers would strive to produce more because it was in their own economic interest to do so.

The workers soon split into two informal groups on their own, each group setting its own standards of output and conduct. The workers’ output did not increase. Neither too little nor too much production was permitted, and peers exerted pressure to keep members in line. The values of the informal group appeared to be more powerful than the allure of bigger incomes:

1. Don’t be a “rate buster” and produce too much work.
2. If you turn out too little work, you are a “chiseler.”
3. Don’t be a “squealer” to supervisors.
4. Don’t be officious; if you aren’t a supervisor, don’t act like one.

Taken together, the Hawthorne studies revealed that people work for a variety of reasons, not just for money and subsistence. They seek satisfaction for more than their physical needs at work and from their co-workers. For the first time, clear evidence was gathered to support workers’ social and esteem needs. As a result, this collision between the human relations school, begun in the Hawthorne studies, and traditional organizational theory sent researchers and theorists off in new and different directions. At least three major new areas of inquiry evolved: (1) what motivates workers (leading to the work of Maslow and Herzberg), (2) leadership (discussed earlier), and (3) organizations as behavioral systems.
Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham H. Maslow (1908–1970), founder of the humanistic school of psychology, conducted research on human behavior at the Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama, during the 1940s. His approach to motivation was unique in that the behavior patterns analyzed were those of motivated, happy, and production-oriented people—achievers, not underachievers. He studied biographies of historical and public figures, including Abraham Lincoln, Albert Einstein, and Eleanor Roosevelt; he also observed and interviewed some of his contemporaries—all of whom showed no psychological problems or signs of neurotic behavior.

Maslow hypothesized that if he could understand what made these people function, it would be possible to apply the same techniques to others, thus achieving a high state of motivation. His observations were coalesced into a hierarchy of needs. Maslow concluded that because human beings are part of the animal kingdom, their basic and primary needs or drives are physiological: air, food, water, sex, and shelter. These needs are related to survival. Next in order of importance are needs related to safety or security; protection against danger: murder, criminal assault, threat, deprivation, and tyranny. At the middle of the hierarchy is belonging, or social needs: being accepted by one’s peers and associating with members of groups. At the next level of the hierarchy are the needs or drives related to ego: self-esteem, self-respect, power, prestige, recognition, and status. At the top of the hierarchy is self-realization or actualization: self-fulfillment, creativity, becoming all that one is capable of becoming. Figure 2.9 depicts this hierarchy.

Unlike the lower needs, the higher needs are rarely satisfied. Maslow suggested that to prevent frustration, needs should be filled in sequential order. A satisfied need is no longer a motivator. Maslow’s research also indicated that once a person reaches a high state of motivation (i.e., esteem or self-realization levels), he or she will remain highly motivated, will have a positive attitude toward the organization, and will adopt a “pitch in and help” philosophy.

McGregor’s Theory X/Theory Y

Douglas McGregor (1906–1967), who served as president of Antioch College and then on the faculty of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, was one of the great advocates of humane and democratic management. At Antioch, McGregor tested his theories of democratic management. He noted that behind every managerial decision or action are assumptions about human behavior. He chose the simplest terms possible with which to express them, designating one set of assumptions as Theory X and the other as Theory Y.

Theory X managers hold traditional views of direction and control, such as the following:

- The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible. This assumption has deep roots, beginning with the punishment of Adam and Eve and their banishment into a world where they had to work for a living. Management’s use of negative reinforcement and the emphasis on “a fair day’s work” reflect an underlying belief that management must counter an inherent dislike for work.
- Because of their dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort to achieve organizational objectives. Their dislike of work is so strong that even the promise of rewards is
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not generally enough to overcome it. People will accept the rewards and demand greater ones. Only the threat of punishment will work.  

- The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all. This assumption of the “mediocrity of the masses” is rarely expressed so bluntly. Although much lip service is paid to the “sanctity” of the worker and of human beings in general, many managers reflect this assumption in practice and policy.

(Note: Theory X managers would be autocratic and classified as a 9,1 on the managerial grid.)

Theory Y managers take the opposite view of the worker:

- The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. The average human being does not inherently dislike work; it may even be a source of satisfaction, to be performed voluntarily.
- External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for producing effort to achieve organizational objectives.
- Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant rewards—satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs—can be direct products of effort directed to organizational objectives.
- Under proper conditions, the average human being learns not only to accept but also to seek responsibility. In this view, the avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition, and emphasis on security are general consequences of experience, not inherent human characteristics.
- The capacity to exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
- Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potential of the average human being is only partially utilized.

Herzberg’s Motivation-Hygiene Theory

During the 1950s, Frederick Herzberg conducted a series of studies in which he asked workers, primarily engineers, to describe the times when they felt particularly good and particularly bad about their jobs. The respondents identified several sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in their work. Then, from these findings, Herzberg isolated two vital factors found in all jobs: maintenance or hygiene factors and motivational factors.

Maintenance or hygiene factors are those elements in the work environment that meet an employee’s hedonistic need to avoid pain. These factors include the necessities of any job (e.g., adequate pay, benefits, job security, decent working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relations). Hygiene factors do not satisfy or motivate; they set the stage for motivation. They are, however, a major source of dissatisfaction when they are inadequate.

Motivational factors are those psychosocial factors that provide intrinsic satisfaction and serve as an incentive for people to invest more of their time, talent, energy, and expertise in productive behavior. Examples include achievement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself, advancement, and potential for growth. The absence of motivators does not necessarily produce job dissatisfaction.

Although these needs are obviously related, they represent totally different dimensions of satisfaction.


Expectancy and Contingency Theories

In the 1960s, expectancy theory was developed, holding that employees will do what their managers or organizations want them to do if the following are true:

1. The task appears to be possible (employees believe they possess the necessary competence).
2. The reward (outcome) offered is seen as desirable by the employees (intrinsic rewards come from the job itself; extrinsic rewards are supplied by others).
3. Employees believe that performing the required behavior or task will bring the desired outcome.
4. There is a good chance that better performance will bring greater rewards.

Expectancy theory will work for an organization that specifies what behaviors it expects from people and what the rewards or outcomes will be for those who exhibit such behaviors. Rewards may be pay increases, time off, chances for advancement, a sense of achievement, or other benefits. Managers and organizations can find out what their employees want and see to it that they are provided with the rewards they seek. Walter Newsom said that the reality of the expectancy theory can be summarized by the “nine C’s”: (1) capability (does a person have the capability to perform well?), (2) confidence (does a person believe that he or she can perform the job well?), (3) challenge (does a person have to work hard to perform the job well?), (4) criteria (does a person know the difference between good and poor performance?), (5) credibility (does a person believe the manager will deliver on promises?), (6) consistency (do subordinates believe that all employees receive similar preferred outcomes for good performance, and vice versa?), (7) compensation (do the outcomes associated with good performance reward the employee with money and other types of rewards?), (8) cost (what does it cost a person, in effort and outcomes foregone, to perform well?), and (9) communication (does the manager communicate with the subordinate?).

Later, in the 1970s, Morse and Lorsch built on McGregor’s and Herzberg’s theories with their theory of motivation called contingency theory. This theory sought to determine the fit between the organization’s characteristics and its tasks and the motivations of individuals. The basic components of the contingency theory are that (1) among people’s needs is a central need to achieve a sense of competence, (2) the ways in which people fulfill this need will vary from person to person, (3) competence motivation is most likely to be achieved when there is a fit between task and organization, and (4) a sense of competence continues to motivate people even after competence is achieved. In essence, we all want to be competent in our work. Contingency theory contends that people performing highly structured and organized tasks perform better in Theory X organizations and that those who perform unstructured and uncertain tasks perform better under a Theory Y approach. This theory tells managers to tailor jobs to fit people or to give people the skills, knowledge, and attitudes they will need to become competent.

GAMERS, TATTOOS, AND ATTITUDES: GENERATIONS X, Y, AND NEXT EMPLOYEES

Born in a Different World

Although not a subject of major theory, many articles and books are being written about understanding and motivating those persons of four younger generations who are now entering or will soon enter the workplace: the first, termed Generation X, includes those persons
born between 1965 and 1975; **Generation Y** was born between 1976 and 1980.\(^87\) Those who were born between 1990 and 1995 are being labeled the **Next generation**.\(^88\) Finally, some attention is now being given to the **Millennials**, also termed by some **Generation 2.0**—those 20-somethings who are extremely tech-savvy and digitally literate and who are preparing to enter the workplace.

From the Gen Xers on, these generations grew up very quickly amid rising crime rates and violence as hostage crises and major disasters unfolded around them; their youthful years included a national fear of AIDS; and they entered the job market only to be confronted with new terms like **downsizing**.\(^89\) They grew up in a world where terrorism is a fact of life; with scheduled, structured lives; with a multicultural society; and with a resurgence of the “American hero”: police officers and firefighters who commonly are in the news. As a result, they have an emerging sense of patriotism and political interest, and regard themselves as special, connected, confident, hopeful, goal and achievement oriented, and inclusive.\(^90\)

Almost 90 percent of the X, Y, Next, and Millennial generations have used or will use the Internet; more than half send text messages daily and use social networking sites, have gotten a tattoo or had a body piercing, or have dyed their hair a nontraditional color.\(^91\) Their television viewing habits are unique as well. For those who grew up on a steady diet of television in the 1960s and 1970s, consider the evolution in television programming using the following examples: **Dragnet** versus **CSI** or **NYPD Blue**; **Marcus Welby, M.D.** versus **ER**; **Starsky and Hutch** versus **24**; and **Three’s Company** versus **The Simpsons**. Certainly today’s programs are more complex; that complexity, along with the impact of video gaming, has created a culture that is more intellectually demanding.\(^92\)

Those who are now in their twenties have never known a world without digital gaming—indeed, the digital gaming industry has sold more than 100 million units, and 70 percent of children under 18 live in households where there is a game console. An entire generation grew up in a game world—where reward is everywhere. Gaming taps into the brain’s natural reward circuitry; it offers everyone the opportunity to be in charge, succeed, and be a star; be bosses and experts in their gaming environments; experience thrills, crashes, and deaths without getting hurt; and be in a world where anything is possible, and trial and error is the best way to find an answer.\(^93\)

With respect to tattooing, almost one-half of all Americans between the ages of 18 and 29 have either a tattoo or a piercing other than pierced ears according to the **Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology**.\(^94\) While a member of these younger generations might not look twice at exposed ink or metal, an administrator of the baby boomer generation might find it offensive. Others in public and private organizations often find themselves caught in the middle, trying to be more flexible with their dress codes while projecting a professional image.\(^95\)

The restricting of tattoos and body piercings is discussed below.

**Implications for the Criminal Justice Workplace**

Many veterans in today’s workplace already view Gen X workers as slackers and malign them as being unreliable, unwilling to work long hours, thinking in terms of a job rather than a career, and having unrealistic expectations about raises and promotions.\(^96\) The Y Generation, or echo boomers, and the Millennials, are viewed by some as coddled and confident, technologically savvy, and with the attitude that “I’m here to make a difference.”\(^97\) These complaints, of course, are nothing new; even in the time of Aristotle, adults condemned the
younger generation’s lack of motivation and believed that they would fail in their work from a lack of loyalty.\footnote{98}

Considering the above and the possible impact of these generations entering criminal justice with an interactive, self-reliant, wired upbringing and a reliance on the strategy of trial and error, how might criminal justice integrate such individuals into a work environment with a strong hierarchy and no reset button? First, the task ahead for aging baby boomers is to adapt the wisdom of their years to the habits of gamers and millennials as they welcome these newcomers into entry-level roles. They will be adept at probing, participatory thinking, and adapting to changing circumstances.\footnote{99}

The American workplace will increasingly become a playing field of competing viewpoints and values, and young adults from the three aforementioned generations share, or will soon share, the same workspace and attempt to navigate unknown cultural territory.\footnote{100} The implications for criminal justice administrators are several. First, they should think of ways in which they can take advantage of the motivations of these younger generations as they enter the field: They desire to work in teams, perform work of significance, engage in activities consistent with heroism, and have flexibility in their daily environment.

It is also recommended that these leaders attempt to understand that the younger employee’s preferred work environment is more casual and friendly, technologically up-to-date, neat and orderly, collegial and a place to learn, and includes a high level of freedom. Furthermore, such leaders should avoid judging those whose work ethic is slightly different from theirs; accommodate individual needs whenever possible; forgive impatience (if individuals are anxious for raises and promotions); and, when possible, allow room for mistakes and for the youthful workers to correct the mistakes themselves and to learn from them.\footnote{101}

Finally, regarding tattooing, administrators can legally restrict tattoos, body piercings, and body art with dress codes or uniform requirements unless their state has additional legislation granting protection. Some agencies, like the Houston, Texas, police department, have implemented new policies; they require all tattoo-bearing officers to cover their ink with their uniforms or plain clothes (no bandages or sweatbands allowed) or have them removed by laser or other treatment (officers working undercover are exempt from the rule, but bike police, who might generally wear shorts, are required to wear long pants if they have leg tattoos).\footnote{102}

Attempts to restrict such bodily adornments, however, have met with lawsuits and discrimination allegations filed with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (some employees have even sued, claiming membership in the Church of Body Modification). As more body art discrimination cases go to court, organizations and companies need to develop dress code policies that are applied consistently and equally.\footnote{103}

In a related vein, criminal justice administrators are given some control over their employees’ appearance—and may find guidance in that arena—in a 1976 U.S. Supreme Court decision, \textit{Kelley v. Johnson}.\footnote{104} There, a police agency restricted the personal appearance of male members of the department by providing that officers “shall be neat and clean at all times while on duty”; placing specific restrictions on hair length and grooming, sideburns, mustaches, and the wearing of wigs; and prohibiting beards and goatees. The Court’s analysis began with the presumption that such regulations are valid and placed the burden of proof on the objecting employee to show the invalidity of the regulation; the Court said that such appearance regulations are generally valid unless those regulations are so irrational that they are arbitrary. Furthermore, the regulations in question were rationally justified by either a desire to make police officers readily recognizable to the members of the public or a desire to maintain the \textit{esprit de corps} (i.e., morale) of the organization.
CASE STUDY

Targeting Tattoos

You are a police chief in a medium-sized city and have just received information from a captain that one of your officers, Newton, has recently had a swastika tattooed on one arm and a naked woman on the other. The captain says that both tattoos are visible in the summer uniform and, as news is spreading about these adornments, an increasing number of officers are becoming offended and some are even saying that they will refuse to respond to any calls for service with Newton. Based on this information, you believe the tattoo may violate the city’s policy against workplace harassment and quickly call Newton into your office. He admits having the tattoos but rather sarcastically states that he has a “liberty” interest under the Fourteenth Amendment and a right to “expression” under the First Amendment. He adds that for you to try to control such activity would constitute a “hostile” work environment. You know that there is currently no policy that prohibits the displaying of any tattoos, let alone any that are offensive.

Questions for Discussion

1. Can you take any action in response to the complaint?
2. Do you have the right to reasonably regulate the appearance of employees and require a professional appearance?
3. If you implement a policy against such tattoos, does the rule impermissibly discriminate against Newton?
4. Can you use to advantage any U.S. Supreme Court decisions in response to this matter?

Summary

Most young people entering the labor force would probably like to retain their individuality, feel free to express themselves, have a sense of being an important part of the team, and realize both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards from their work. The reality is, however, that a majority of people entering the job market will work within the structure of an organization that will not meet all of their personal needs.

We have seen that many organizations have a highly refined bureaucracy. Whether an organization will meet an employee’s needs depends largely on its administrative philosophy. Therefore, the discussions in this chapter covered the structure and function of organizations and, just as important, how administrators and subordinates function within them. Also shown to be of major importance is the need for effective communication.

The point to be made above all else is that administrators must know their people. In addition to covering several prominent theories that have withstood the test of time, I pointed out some approaches that have not succeeded. One can learn much from a failed approach or even from a poor boss who failed to appreciate and understand subordinates and used improper or no motivational techniques.
Questions for Review

1. Define organization. What is its function and structure?
2. Explain the evolution of organizational theory, including scientific, human relations, systems, and bureaucratic management theories.
3. Define span of control and unity of command.
4. Explain the characteristics and skills of America’s best leaders.
5. What did Katz say are the three most important general qualities in leaders?
6. What does communication mean? What is its importance in organizations? Explain cultural cues, the nature and uniqueness of police communications, and some of the major barriers to effective communication.
7. Objectively assess what kind of leader you would likely be (if it is helpful, use the managerial grid). Is it an effective style? What are some of the possible advantages and disadvantages of that style?
8. What kind of world did the X, Y, and Next generations grow up in, and what advantages and challenges do those persons pose in the criminal justice workplace? In criminal justice, what are the policy and legal implications of the younger generations’ penchant for tattoos and a generally nontraditional appearance?

Related Websites

Criminal Justice Management Council
http://www.co.la-crosse.wi.us/
Minutes%20and%20Agendas/HmPgsSpecial/CJMC.htm
Criminal Justice Management Institute
http://cjmi.com
Embassy of the United States: Strengthening Criminal Justice Management in Foreign Countries
http://phnompenh.usembassy.gov/ilea.html
GOVNET: Criminal Justice Management Corporate Information
http://www.govnet.co.uk/corporate/cjm.htm

JUSTINFO: The Newsletter of the National Criminal Justice Reference Service
http://www.theiacp.org
National Center for Policy Analysis
http://ncpa.org/pi/crime/crime71.html
National Institute of Justice International Center
http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij
Policy Action Network
http://movingideas.org
Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics
http://www.albany.edu/sourcebook

Notes

18. Ibid., p. 3.
21. Ibid.
27. Swanson et al., *Police Administration*, p. 86.
30. See R. C. Huseman, quoted in ibid., pp. 21–27. Material for this section was also drawn from Swanson et al., *Police Administration*, pp. 309–311.
31. Swanson et al., *Police Administration*, pp. 312–313.
34. Swanson et al., *Police Administration*, p. 315.
37. Swanson et al., *Police Administration*, p. 343.
47. Ibid.
49. Ibid.
59. Ibid., pp. 41–42.
64. Ibid.
66. Ibid., p. 23.
68. Ibid., p. 24.
70. Ibid., p. 27.
77. Ibid.
78. Ibid., p. 88.
79. Ibid., p. 89.
80. Ibid.


97. Ibid., p. 2.


99. Ibid., p. 155.


