

DEFINING MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

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

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

Learning Objectives

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

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

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

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

DEFINING MANAGEMENT

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

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

CAREER HIGHLIGHT BOX

An Introduction

Students are often interested in the types of jobs available in criminal justice, but they are not always given the chance to explore the various options during their coursework. Since this book discusses a variety of criminal justice agencies and the administration and management of those agencies, it makes sense to expose students to different career opportunities that may be available in those organizations. In each of the following chapters, look for “Career Highlight” boxes, which will provide information concerning specific occupations, typical duties, pay scales, and job requirements within or related to the criminal justice system. Keep

in mind that different jurisdictions have distinct requirements, so this is only a small representation of the possibilities and occupations available. In addition, students are encouraged to examine the job outlook and prospects sections in each job description with a critical eye, since demands for workers with specific skill sets change regularly. The authors suggest that students discuss career options with faculty and advisors as they narrow down their professional goals. Students are also encouraged to contact individuals currently working in the field of criminal justice to discuss opportunities, interests, and concerns.

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

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

IDENTIFYING AN ORGANIZATION

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

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

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

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

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

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

The strategic goals will have “two features: a description of an intended future state and action towards achieving that future state” (Day & Tosey, 2011, p. 517). The structure and culture of the organization are reiterated in the strategic goals. Likewise, the strategic goals of an agency provide employees the opportunity to align themselves and their personal goals with the agency’s stated goals. Citizens in the community can determine whether an agency is accomplishing the mission by assessing the statements made in the strategic goals and the outputs delivered by the department. Doran (1981) and Locke and Latham (2002) claim that the more specific, *measurable*, *achievable*, *realistic*, and *time-specific* (SMART) the agency’s goals are, the easier it is for others to determine if an agency has actually met the strategic goals.

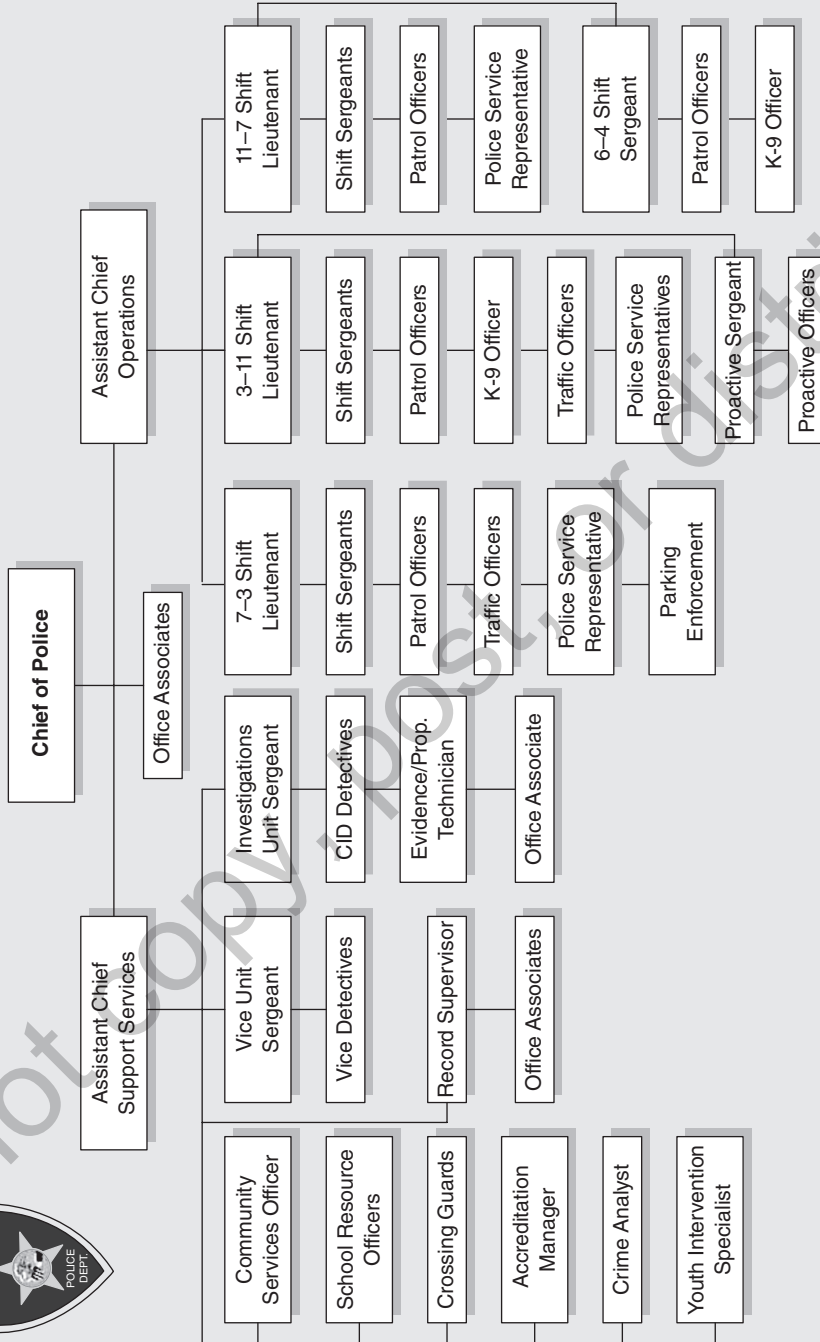
The better organized an organization is, the better it will be able to accomplish its goals. The term *organized* can relate to structure. Organizations are structured vertically and horizontally. They contain departments, units, specializations, work groups, jobs, and so on.

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

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

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

**NORMAL POLICE DEPARTMENT
Organizational Chart
August 1, 2008**



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

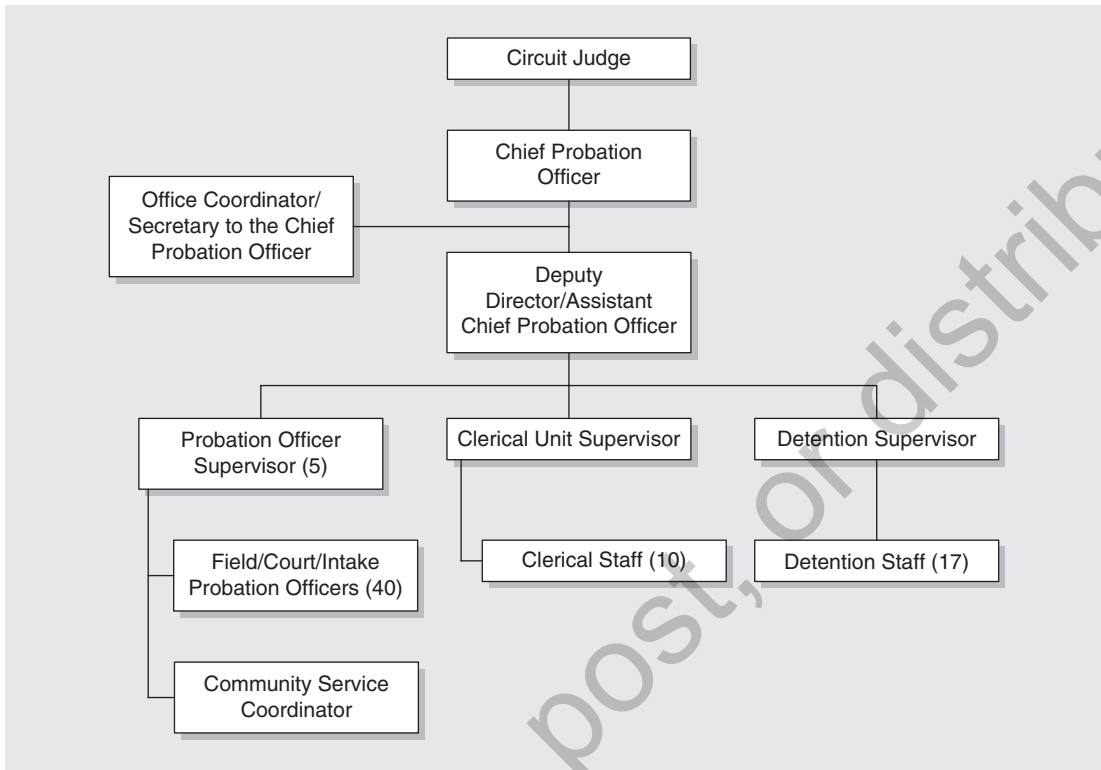
formal structure typical of a police department. The patrol officers report to the shift sergeants, who report to the commanders in each squad. Each area of specialty has a defined chain of command within the overall chain of command or formal structure of the organization.

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

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

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

Figure 1.2 Organizational Chart of Medium-Sized Probation Department



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

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

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

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

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

IN THE NEWS 1.1

Statute Open to Interpretation Says City of Abingdon Officials

August 2, 2007

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

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

concerns about was the risk and this City management's call."

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

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

According to a hand-out passed around during the meeting Hawkinson is in charge of administrative functions: network operations, scheduling at the direction of the chief, fleet

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

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

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

LEADERSHIP

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

FOR-PROFIT AND NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

WHAT ARE CRIMINAL JUSTICE ORGANIZATIONS?

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

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

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

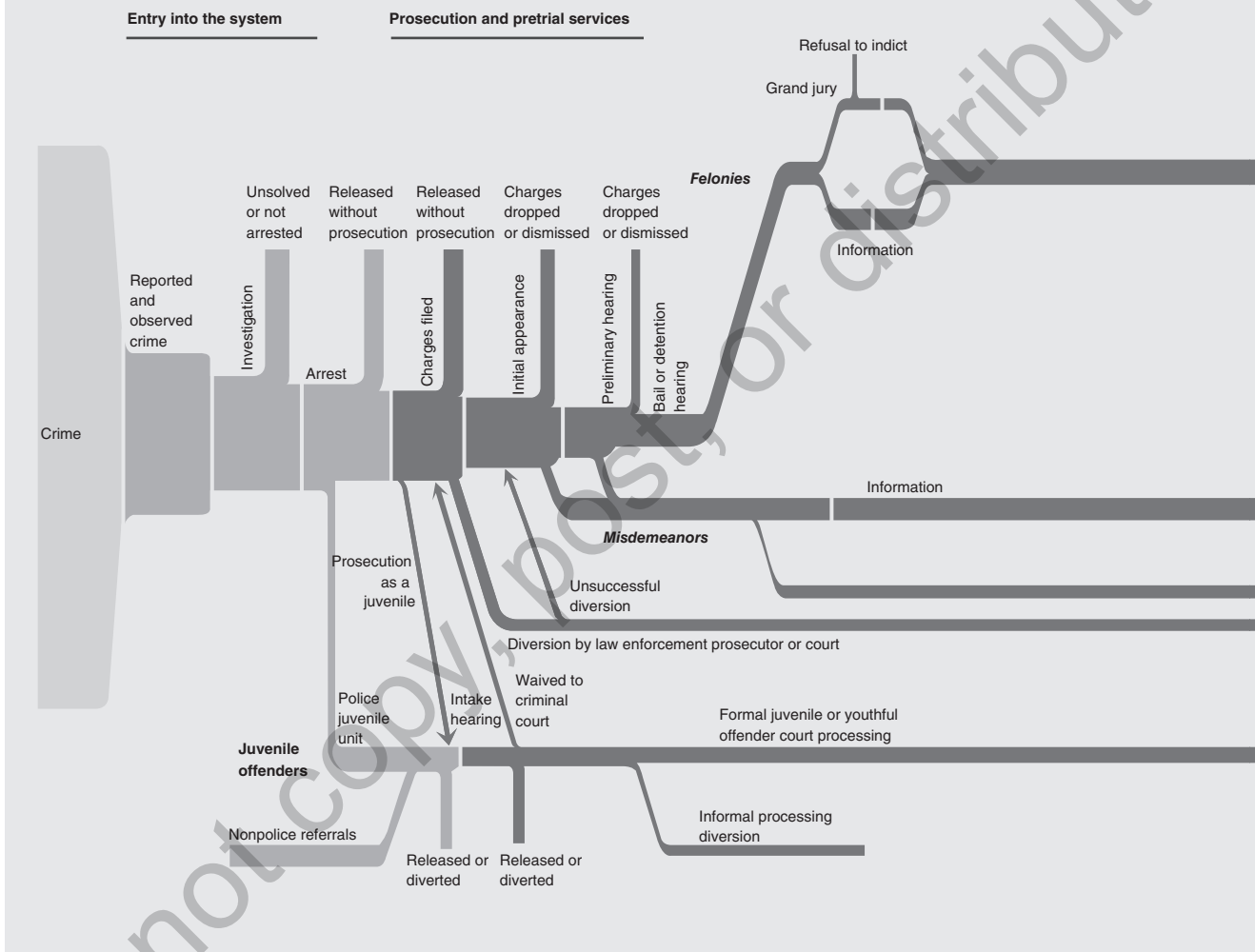
and a jury in the courtroom, but they may not be aware of the court processes, rules, or procedures. Courts are also highly structured, centralized agencies reliant on formal procedures of presenting evidence and hearing cases. The major responsibility of the court system is to provide impartiality to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

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

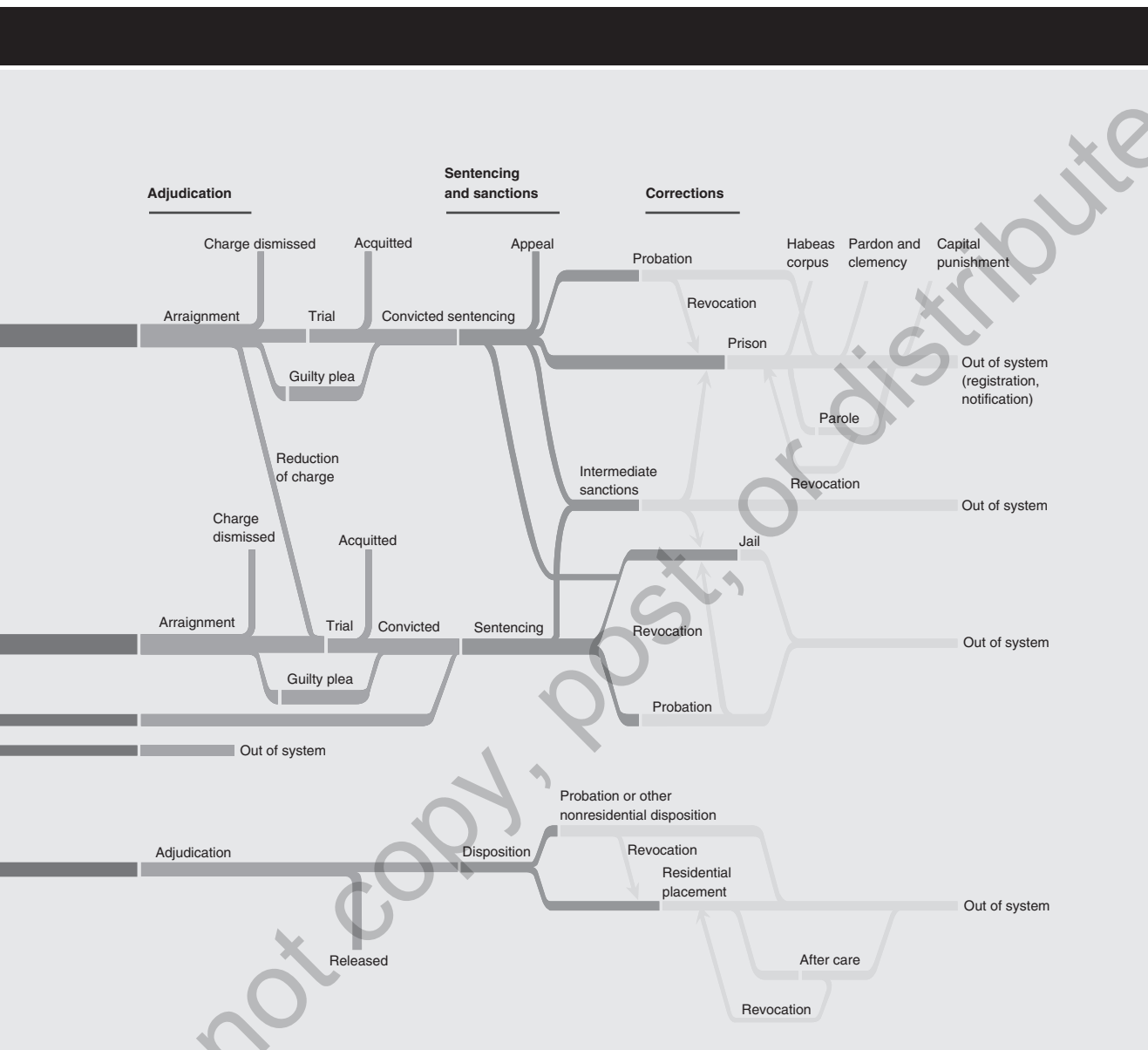
As noted in Figure 1.3, corrections is the end result of the criminal justice system. Corrections is another area where individuals may have some experiences (in driving past a prison, knowing someone who was jailed, hearing descriptions of the experiences of jailed celebrities, or watching a prison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

Figure 1.3 The Criminal Justice System

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



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



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

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

CHAPTER SUMMARY

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

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

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

CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

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

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

CASE STUDY

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

While questioning the man, it was discovered that the man’s name matched a local sheriff’s name. The man then identified himself as the local sheriff and

asked if he could retrieve his badge from his car. When Officer Dunham refused to allow him to retrieve the badge, the sheriff requested to speak to Officer Dunham’s supervisor, who he referred to by name. He was again refused this opportunity and was transported and booked into the local jail.

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

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

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

INTERNET RESOURCES

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

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

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

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