

POLICE INSTITUTIONS & ISSUES

**American and
Australian
Perspectives**

Bruce Swanton



POLICE INSTITUTIONS & ISSUES

**American and
Australian
Perspectives**

Bruce Swanton



Australian Institute of Criminology · Canberra 1979

Published and printed by the Australian Institute of Criminology,
10-18 Colbee Court, Phillip, A.C.T., Australia, 2606

© Australian Institute of Criminology, 1979

The J.V. Barry Memorial Library has catalogued this work as follows:

SWANTON, Bruce

363.20973

Police institutions and issues: American and Australian perspectives.
Phillip, A.C.T., Australian Institute of Criminology, 1979.

Bibliography.

1. Police - U.S. 2. Police - Australia. 3. Police administration - U.S.
4. International Association of Chiefs of Police. 5. Police Foundation.
6. School of Police Administration, Louisville. 7. Police training - U.S.
8. Police - U.S. - Societies. 9. Trade-unions - Police - U.S. 10. Trade-unions - Police - Australia. 11. Collective bargaining - Police - U.S.
12. Police - Diseases and hygiene - U.S. 13. Police professionalization - U.S. I. Australian Institute of Criminology. II. Title.

ISBN 0 642 90866 4

The views expressed in this publication are those of the author and not necessarily of the Australian Institute of Criminology.

SUMMARY

Essentially, *Police Institutions and Issues* presents a critical examination of seven selected topics currently existing in American and Australian police communities. The main purpose of the book is to inform and stimulate police administrators, intending police administrators, and students of police administration and comparative police studies. Also, it is intended to be of interest to professionally oriented police personnel generally.

The institutions examined are all American. They are: (1) The Police Foundation; (2) The International Association of Chiefs of Police; (3) Police Boards/Commissions, and (4) The School of Police Administration, Louisville. In each case, implications for the Australian police community are briefly considered.

The issues considered include: (1) police labour relations; (2) police health maintenance, and (3) police occupation. Discussion of the first issue is heavily American-oriented, but the remaining two issues are dealt with in a more balanced manner, drawing upon

both United States and Australian sources.

Due to its broad-ranging and critical approach to matters not widely discussed in the police literature, this book represents a useful secondary resource for police supervisor and junior executive courses, as well as administration courses.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
SUMMARY	
PREFACE	ix
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	xiii
GLOSSARY	xvii
POLICE INSTITUTIONS AND ISSUES: A BRIEF OVERVIEW	3

PART ONE - INSTITUTIONS

Chapter

1	Police Foundation	23
2	International Association of Chiefs of Police	51
3	Police Boards/Commissions ..	91
4	School of Police Administra- tion, Louisville	135

PART TWO - ISSUES

5	Police Labour Relations	161
6	Police Health Maintenance	219
7	Police Occupation	309

PART THREE

ANNEXES

A	Police Foundation Publications	351
B	International Association of Chiefs of Police Publications Select List	353
C	International Association of Chiefs of Police Training Calendar 1979	354
D	Authority and Responsibilities of the Los Angeles Board of Police Commissioners	360
E	National Crime Prevention Institute Courses	365
F	Police Officers' Bill of Rights	367

G	Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department Spouses Training Program Format	372
H	Physical Fitness Scoring Charts (Ohio State Police) ...	373
I	Stress Producing Situations ..	374
J	New York City Police Depart- ment's Weight Tables	380
REFERENCES		381
NAME INDEX		399
SUBJECT INDEX		403

LIST OF TABLES

1.	Police Functions	322
2.	Classification of Police Functions, Number of Agencies/ Occupations Performing Same, by Country	336

LIST OF FIGURES

1.	Police Foundation, Organisa- tion	30
----	--------------------------------------------	----

viii *Police Institutions and Issues*

2. International Association of Chiefs of Police, Major Events Timeline	58
3. International Association of Chiefs of Police, Organisa- tion, by Function	62
4. Fire and Police Commission, Milwaukee, Organisation	103
5. School of Police Administra- tion, Louisville, Organisation	137
6. United States Police Employee Associations, Organisation	170
7. San Francisco Police Grievance Resolution Process	184
8. Boston Police Collective Bargaining Process	185
9. New York State Police Collective Bargaining Process	186
10. The Process of Police Health	224

PREFACE

Two major desires lay behind the writing of this book. One, to provide the Australian police community (and also police commissioners elsewhere in the south west Pacific region) up to date information on the matters presented, many of which are American oriented. Two, to stimulate police administrators with respect to a range of matters including police training and education, controls, federal intrusion into policing, personnel administration, leadership, and the occupation itself. At the same time, American police readers are afforded a stranger's view of their own institutions and issues.

It will be seen from the table of contents that the institutions and issues considered are neither popular nor central topics in the plethora of police management, administration, and comparative police studies texts currently available. Nevertheless, this body of knowledge and opinion will be useful to those police officers who wish to be well informed. Non-police students of police administration and police studies generally may also find some value in this book as it covers matters of substance not widely dealt with

elsewhere.

The book itself is divided into two parts. The first part deals with institutions and the second with issues. A brief overview of the institutions and issues involved is presented by way of introduction.

Three of the institutions examined are unique, while one is generic. All four influence the American police community in their own special ways, whether by means of research, education, policy, or direct control. Although the reasons underpinning the existence of each of these four institutions are manifold, the goal of improving police performance is, formally at least, common to all.

The second part deals with two relatively neglected issues in police administration which are only now beginning to emerge into the light of public examination and discussion, that is, labour relations and health. The third issue dealt with is the 'job' itself. At a period in the history of police administration when functions, roles, missions, tasks and activities are being critically examined for the first time, study of the occupation is essential if sound organisational development is ever to be achieved.

Readers are cautioned that, unless otherwise indicated, the events and situations discussed and examined here are as at 1 January 1979. Such is the dynamic nature of public administration today that some facts and situations presented here

will inevitably have become redundant by the time these lines are read. Such redundancy is unavoidable.

A further caution to readers relates to the views and opinions expressed throughout the book. In a work of this nature, total neutrality is impossible. Some of the matters reviewed, such as federal intrusions in the police community, are of such a critical nature that any pretence at an objective stance would be to quite properly invite the accusation of 'fence sitting'. In those areas where a neutral approach is reasonable, I have taken such an approach. But where neutrality could be considered unfair to either the reader or the subject, I have opted for subjectivity. Writers have an obligation to warn their readers concerning bias - this passage is my warning to you.

At times, police readers will find themselves either strongly in favour or strongly opposed to arguments posited. Whether readers' reactions are for or against is not really important, provided they are stimulated in addition to being informed. These two considerations are especially important in today's police service which stands at the threshold of a new era of administration and organisation.

It is not uncommon in books of this type to include a dedication to the 'working policeman' or to specialist groups within the service. I wish to dedicate this particular volume to police

administrators. They are a long-neglected breed within the police community who are the architects of both the service and the occupation. It is they who prepare the pathways to the future and mould the careers of those who follow those pathways. If they do their job well, a tremendous contribution is made to the welfare of society generally. If they do their job poorly, not only do members of the occupation itself suffer but so also do all citizens. Theirs is truly a great responsibility.

Australian Institute of
Criminology
Canberra

Bruce Swanton

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people contributed directly and indirectly to the preparation and writing of this book. It would take pages to catalogue the numerous ways in which they helped and so I have taken the simpler course of listing their names alphabetically. In America: Supervisory Special Agent Richard M. Ayres, Patrolman John Ballantine, Patrolman John F. Bilodeau, James F. Blumenberg, Deputy Director Lilburn E. Boggs, Barbara R. Bomar, Tom Brady, Colonel Eugene J. Camp, William G. Cowdin, Sergeant Raymond A. Downing and his wife Marge, Patrolman Ed Donovan, Jerry J. Dudak, Commander Richard Dungy, Joseph D. Echelberry, David J. Farmer and his wife Rosemary, Sergeant W. Frazier, G. Patrick Gallagher, Chief Darryl F. Gates, Inspector Joseph E. Gillespie, Sergeant Joseph E. Goldring, Dr John Greacen, Professor Robert M. Hardt, Chief William L. Hart, Raymond J. Hauser, Patrolman Jack R. Hawkonsen, Gary Hayes, Gordon Hayter, Dr John Heaphy, Sergeant Glen E. Held, Lieutenant Max K. Hurlbut, Lieutenant M. Johnson, Commissioner Joseph M. Jordan, Philip Katz, Dr George L. Kelling, Assistant Professor Carl Kellum, Edward J. Kiernan, Patrolman Robert B. Kliesmet, Dean John C. Klotter, Superintendent John F. Kreckler, Roberta

Lesh, Joseph Lewis, Richard F. Mayer, Richard Meyer, Stanley H. Michelstatter, Susan Mills-Peek, James J. Mortier, Patrick V. Murphy, William G. Norton, Professor Joseph O'Donnell, Ken Oliver, Carl Parsell, Patrolman Roy L. Perkins, Norman E. Pomrenke, Dr Martin Reiser, James C. Roche, Edward J. Rowley, Captain James P. Shannon, Associate Professor Lawrence W. Sherman, Special Agent Walt Sirene, Assistant Professor Rolland L. Soule, David F. Smydra, Dr Richard Staufenberger, Assistant Dean R.R. Stevens, Dr John G. Stratton, Dr Stanley L. Swart, Sergeant Roy St Onge, Mark R. Uliciny, Patrolman James Van Devender, Sergeant William J. Vorbeck, Lieutenant Robert W. Wagner, Captain Billy J. Wallace, Colonel Donald Whaley, Professor Leslie and Barbara Wilkins.

My gratitude is also due to a number of Australian and New Zealand police practitioners and commentators who were kind enough to comment upon early versions of certain chapters. Detective Chief Inspector William Macrae, Officer in Charge, Crime Prevention Unit, Victoria Police (and, a graduate of the School of Police Administration) was good enough to comment upon chapter four, i.e., School of Police Administration. Supervisory Special Agent Richard M. Ayres, of the FBI Academy and Dr Dorothy Guyot, of the Team Policing Evaluation Project, Leonia, NJ, both took considerable time and effort to thoroughly critique chapter five, i.e., police labour relations. I learned a lot from them both. Dr William Treadwell, Director of Medical Services, New Zealand Police, made

available his great experience in police medicine in his examination of chapter six, i.e., police health. Finally, Raymond Whitrod brought his unrivalled understanding of the police occupation to bear on the final chapter, to my great advantage.

A great deal of help was also provided me within the Australian Institute of Criminology. Annette Waters and Dorothy Zorichich typed all drafts, and the production copy. Wendi Fraser performed the tedious but essential chore of detail checking. Rosalind Dawson masterminded the production process.

My gratitude is due to Wendi Fraser and Sylvia Blomfield for their compilation of the name and subject indexes respectively.

David Biles, the Institute's Assistant Director (Research) provided the necessary encouragement to complete this undertaking by use of a judicious balance of inducements and threats.

The expert advice and assistance received from so many sources is gratefully acknowledged. Such merit as this book may possess derives entirely from this wealth of support. I alone accept responsibility for its shortcomings.

GLOSSARY

A number of abbreviations and other special terms are employed throughout this book. Police and other criminal justice professionals are well acquainted with such shorthand forms. Lay readers, on the other hand, may have difficulty in understanding them. Mostly, they are introduced into the script in juxtaposition to their parent expression. This has not always been possible, though, and so this glossary is provided for readers experiencing difficulty with any abbreviation or other special terms.

AA	Alcoholics Anonymous
ABA	American Bar Association
AFL-CIO	American Federation of Labor- Congress of Industrial Organiza- tions
AFSCME	American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees
AL-ANON	Family groups designed for the mutual support of relatives and friends of problem drinkers
ALATEEN	Self help groups for children of problem drinkers
AOC	Administrative Officers' Courses (SPI)
BLS	Bureau of Labor Statistics

xviii Police Institutions and Issues

BP	Border Patrol
CETA	Comprehensive Employment and Training Act 1973
CHD	Coronary Heart Disease
COLA	Cost of Living Adjustment
COPS	California Organization of Police & Sheriffs
CAE	College of Advanced Education
CSEA	Civil Service Employees Association
DC	District of Columbia
DCI	Detective Chief Inspector
DEA	Drug Enforcement Administration
DIA	Defense Intelligence Agency
DPD	Degree Programs Division (SPA)
ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation
FOP	Fraternal Order of Police
IACP	International Association of Chiefs of Police
IBPO	International Brotherhood of Police Officers
IBT	International Brotherhood of Teamsters
ICFA	International Conference of Police Associations
INS	Immigration and Naturalisation Service
LEAA	Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
LEEP	Law Enforcement Education Program
MBO	Management By Objectives
MSU	Michigan State University
NCPI	National Crime Prevention Institute (SPA)
NEI	National Executive Institute (FBI)
NILECJ	National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice
NSF	National Science Foundation
NUPO	National Union of Police Officers

NYCPBA	New York City Patrolmen's Benevolent Association
NYSP	New York State Police
PBA	Patrolmen's Benevolent Association
PEP	Police Executive Program (PF)
PERF	Police Executive Research Forum (PF)
PF	Police Foundation
POA	Police Officers' Association
POAG	Police Officers' Association of Georgia
POAM	Police Officers' Association of Michigan
PORAC	Police Officers' Research Association of California
PPA	Police Patrolmen's Association
RCMP	Royal Canadian Mounted Police
RTA	Road Traffic Authority
SLFOA	St Louis Police Officers' Association
SPA	School of Police Administration (Louisville)
SPI	Southern Police Institute (SPA)
SSA	Supervisory Special Agent
SUNY	State University of New York
TM	Transcendental Meditation
UCR	Uniform Crime Reports
US	United States (of America)
USA	United States of America
USCG	United States Coast Guard
USSS	United States Secret Service

POLICE INSTITUTIONS
AND ISSUES

A BRIEF OVERVIEW

OVERVIEW

THE police role today encompasses a complex mixture of responsibilities, tasks, and activities. At the same time, the body of knowledge and theory relevant to police work - although perhaps small when compared with that obtaining in the longer established vocations such as law or medicine - has grown remarkably. To optimise performance, police need to adapt this knowledge and theory to operationally acceptable formats. The capacity of individual police agencies to perform such adaptations is perhaps best reflected in their reputations for effectiveness and/or public respect.

In Australia, as well as in America, there certainly seems to be a high correlation between a police department's public reputation and its capacity for responsible innovation. It also seems to be the case throughout the English-speaking world that police generally are subjected to considerable criticism with respect to their performance regarding the demanding situations now existing in society.¹ To whatever extent this criticism is valid, such fault as is attributable to police themselves must rest primarily on the desks of administrators. It is mainly through them that new ideas, techniques, and

approaches are channelled into the service, made credible to employees and then, possibly, operationalised.

Two factors are of particular importance if police are to make full use of the knowledge available to them. One, administrators must become aware of the knowledge available. Two, administrators need to be appropriately motivated to adapt and apply such knowledge. Many implications flow from these two propositions, ranging from the provision of adequate current awareness services within agencies, through the running of residential administrative training courses, to effective selection processes for entry into the administrative echelon. The collection of police institutions and issues presented here constitutes yet another approach. It is basically an attempt to both inform administrators concerning a limited range of relevant institutions and other knowledge, while at the same time endeavouring to provide some stimulation to improved administration in respect of these two important areas of management.

It is perhaps significant that many institutions designed to deal with matters relevant to police development generally are not integral to the service. These external institutions reflect, in part, the concern of interested parties, as well as some police, in the nature and quality of police occupational development and performance. Bearing in mind the gap which exists between the knowledge and theory available to police administrators and police performance itself, it is not surprising to find that

many of the external institutions bearing on police possess either wholly or in part a training or educative role. Equally significant, in terms of police development, is the influence of institutions designed to control police, for example, civilian review boards, law enforcement study groups, and police complaint boards. Such institutions, because of their basic assumptions of police malefaction, need for control, and/or lower than acceptable standards, are surely at least a partial impediment to the progress of police professional development.²

Ironically, even some institutions formally designed to assist police in raising their standards of professionalism and performance may have the effect of inhibiting training and research. Nothing is quite what it seems to be. Even control institutions may, at a certain period in time, prove beneficial, for example, by preventing potential police malpractice and thereby helping to maintain a climate of public opinion sufficient to permit subsequent attempts by police to achieve professional standards.

The wellbeing and development of the police occupation is ultimately dependent upon its own resources. This point applies equally to all occupations. This, of course, is not to say that some outside institutions may not have a beneficial effect overall. Even so, the institutions included in the first half of this book were selected primarily more for their reputations than any conviction that they will do more good than harm to the police service. The reader, in due course, will need to

exercise his or her own judgment on that point.

Some of the institutions selected are multipurpose according to my rather arbitrary assignment of function category, that is, the Police Foundation, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the Boards of Police Commissioners. One, that is, the School of Police Administration, Louisville, is monopurpose. In addition to being classified by function, institutions may also be classified by their status as being either unique or generic. Three of the four institutions, that is, the Police Foundation, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the School of Police Administration, are unique. The fourth institution, that is, the Boards of Police Commissioners, is generic. Unfortunately, I was unable to locate a generic single purpose institution worthy of inclusion.

The Police Foundation is a relatively new institution having been created in the 1970s. It represents a new approach in assistance to police. Not only is the foundation designed to improve policing by means of training, programs, and research but it is also concerned with supporting the development of a particular style of police professionalism. To pursue this end it has entered the field of police politics. The outcomes of this novel approach are not yet entirely apparent and so judgment concerning it can be only tentative at this time.

Regardless of eventual outcomes, one of many reasons for the appearance of the

Police Foundation was the failure of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) to exercise its influence in favour of a more rational police structure in the United States. A multipurpose organisation, the IACP has been unable to achieve the professionalism (and the attitudes associated with professionalism) required of its members by the association's constitution. This failure largely results from the association's conscious refusal to address the fundamental problem of fragmentation within the service. It has been estimated that fewer than 20 per cent of America's police forces contain more than 10 sworn police officers.³ Professionalism cannot possibly flourish in such constrained organisational environments.

Despite this failure, the IACP is nevertheless an interesting and effective organisation and a major power within the police community. Certainly, police administrators of all nationalities should be aware of its strengths and weaknesses, its successes and failures and the wide range of valuable services provided by this unique organisation. A special value in studying bodies such as IACP is the realisation that nothing is black and white but more a question of countervailing advantages and disadvantages needing to be carefully weighed. Administrators, above all, require an understanding of such organisational dynamics.

The level of professionalism enjoyed by an occupation is partly indicated by the level of control it exerts over its own members. This sort of control is well

exemplified in relation to disciplinary matters and ethics. Attorneys, clergymen, and physicians, for example, are permitted considerable freedom in their conduct before becoming subject to formal disciplinary action. Even then, disciplinary action is taken by the alleged miscreant's peers who, in doing so, normally exercise a legal right independent of the courts or other public tribunals. Members of lesser status occupations, for example, the military, police, and public service, on the other hand, are disciplined by their superordinates without recourse to peer review. Similarly with complaints, nonprofessionals are investigated at the behest of superordinates, sometimes even by members of other occupations.

There has been a trend in recent years to impose complaint review bodies, that is, civilian review boards or complaint tribunals according to the terminology employed, on police throughout the English-speaking world. Quite apart from any other consideration, for example, the desirability of establishing channels through which public dissatisfaction may be expressed, such impositions militate directly against professional development. Police are no less trusted by the public, for example, than medical practitioners or attorneys and it cannot be reasonably argued that police possess the potential to harm citizens more than doctors and lawyers. I view unnecessary medication or operations, or deficient conveyancing by the office junior, as being far more damaging to my welfare than, say, a marginal speeding charge. Most police are well aware that the occupational group most

concerned with advocating increased controls on police is lawyers, that is, members of a group which is not itself subject to outside control. Lawyers, as members of an enviroing occupation, not only have boundary disputes with police, for example, lower court prosecutions, but frequently come into conflict with police in the criminal courts. I suspect that many lawyers are frustrated policemen (the opposite case also applies) and, in Australia, resent the police monopoly to institute criminal proceedings. In America, they have been more successful in some jurisdictions, in acquiring a criminal investigation role for themselves, as well as exercising far greater control over police prosecutions through the district attorney (DA) system. A prime example of lawyers involved in advocating extra-agency controls on police conduct in Australia, is that of the federal Law Reform Commission. In 1975, the Commission, composed almost entirely of lawyers, recommended that a tribunal be created to exercise disciplinary functions in respect of federally funded police.⁴ Quite apart from the inappropriateness of having such a group recommending administrative machinery in respect of any group of public employees, it seems undesirable to have lawyers recommending controls upon an occupation with which their relations are often far from amiable.

In the United States, boards of police commissioners sometimes exercise disciplinary responsibilities in respect of police; sometimes providing the discipline forum itself, sometimes exercising only an appeal capacity. Police commissions have been

unknown in Australia since 1840, although commissions have been used in respect of other government agencies, for example, corrective services and fire brigades. This difference between the two countries is interesting and most probably represents a basic difference in structure between their respective police services. Police commissions seem to be mostly related to local government, a stage of police development long since passed in Australia. Despite what may be thought by police themselves about the need for such controls, police boards operate in respect of many of America's largest police forces, exercising varying degrees of authority in respect of various responsibilities including licencing; budgeting; appointment and dismissal of chiefs; community relations; personnel administration; and examinations. These bodies represent an interesting example of controls on police administration and behaviour (and, sometimes operations), and all police administrators should therefore be aware of their functions.

One popular route to professionalism is education. It is now a matter of record that much of the higher police education in the United States, that is, undergraduate level and above, is 'intellectually shallow, conceptually narrow, and provided by a faculty that is far from scholarly'.⁵ This is not to say that the body of knowledge and theory concerning police is inadequate for the purpose. Police studies faculties at Michigan State, Louisville, and John Jay universities, for example, meet the highest academic standards. Judged against the traditional disciplines, police studies may

well be seen as an underdeveloped domain. The research and theoretical development necessary to sustain an academic discipline normally takes many years to accumulate. Thus, criticisms of intellectual shallowness are understandable when one considers that most police specific research and theory-building is no more than 20 years old. Such criticisms, although not without some validity when expressed in respect of small institutions trying to take advantage of law enforcement education program⁶ funds, do nevertheless smack of a certain ivory tower elitism.

As with most new disciplines or areas of study, many teachers tend to come from the occupation itself, for example, Vollmer, Ward, Wilson, or to have been closely related to it, for example, Goldstein, Sherman, Stead. It is not surprising that an element of vocationalism is present in tertiary police and allied courses as a result. There is nothing necessarily wrong with this, provided standards are maintained. Medicine, dentistry, and veterinary science, to say nothing of the various therapy disciplines, are all normally taught at university. In any case, it will be a generation at least before police studies find their own level comparable with the longer-established disciplines. In the meanwhile, practical applications of police work will continue to be highly visible in police education, no doubt to the distress of theorists. These comments are expressed mainly with regard to America. The development of police studies courses at Australian universities and colleges is limited at best. Indeed, the record of the academic staff

involved in such efforts is, with extremely few exceptions, dismal. The quality of cooperation and support generally rendered by the various police administrations warrants a similar epithet.

The School of Police Administration (SPA) at Louisville started its police degree program in 1969, although its involvement with police training goes back to 1950. Partly as a result, the quality of education offered by the SPA faculty is outstanding. Louisville is one of the few universities offering police specific degrees up to doctoral level. Police administrators need to be aware of such resources within the community, particularly with a view to professionally preparing their successors. Although catering primarily to southern (and western) states, police degree students at SPA come from all over the USA and abroad.

Two of the issues selected for discussion in this book, that is, labour relations and health, have been relatively neglected in the police literature but are presently coming into their own. The administrator who wishes to be abreast of administrative issues will find them of interest. The third issue presented, i.e. the police occupation, defies precise classification, even though it is of central relevance to all serving police. The fact that it has been vastly under-represented in the police literature, and that it excites so little comment within the police service itself, are in themselves comments upon the state of police professional awareness at present.

There was a time when the nature and level of remuneration for employment was determined by an occupation's status. This is no longer entirely the case. The preoccupation of many medical practitioners, for example, with their already large incomes, combined with the prosecution of a number of them for fraud in recent years, has no doubt reduced their prestige. The myth of professional service and ethics is being discarded these days in the rush to the bank. Regardless of their occupation, people wish to be well remunerated. To achieve a required level of remuneration, practitioners will resort to whatever measures are necessary - even if it means the medical association bargaining just like any other trade union. Thus, the fact that a particular occupation is required to negotiate its salary levels by means of a union within an industrial commission is in itself no longer a bar to increased occupational standing.

There are vast differences between the two approaches to police salary fixing in Australia and the United States. In Australia, a vast superstructure of courts, committees, and commissions overshadow all industrial activities. In America, great emphasis is placed on collective bargaining, consistent with the national industrial ethos. Both systems have considerable defects, although their subjects appear to be generally satisfied with the salary-fixing machinery available to them. There is much Australia can learn from the United States, particularly with regard to fact-finding, mediation, and arbitration. I have been informed by a number of American police

operating in the labour relations field that because of the varieties of systems and procedures operating within their country they are quite ignorant of the broader police industrial scene in the United States. Thus, hopefully, the chapter on this subject will be as informative to American as it will be to Australian readers.

Major responsibilities of police unions these days exist in the areas of health, welfare, and safety of their members. This book's longest chapter, 'Police Health', is devoted to these largely-neglected subjects. The chapter's disproportionate length shows my concern with this important administrative issue. A comprehensive view is adopted because health, like philosophy and the future, is a universal dimension. All aspects of police work need to be viewed from the health perspective, from under cover duty to speed detection, and from school lecturing to patrol. It is axiomatic that society needs healthy and well-adjusted police. Although ideals are admittedly unachievable, most police agencies should be doing far more in the cause of health and safety promotion than they are currently doing. One example of a police agency highly concerned with the health of its members is the New Zealand police. This body is currently collecting medical, physical, social, and psychological data concerning its workforce in order to provide a sound empirical basis for its medical programs. Both American and Australian police forces can profitably study that agency's efforts in this regard.

The chapter on health is second only

in relative importance to the final chapter, which is entitled 'Police Occupation'. If labour relations and health have been neglected issues in the police literature, then the nature of the police occupation itself has been positively ignored. Its presence in this book is appropriate as the police occupation at present is changing dramatically. Aimless evolution (or deliberate manipulation) rather than aware and reasoned development will occur unless police practitioners (and others) acquire an awareness of the essential nature and substance of the occupation and its potential. More than this, it is by no means sure that the changes currently taking place in both America and Australia will operate to either the public's or the occupation's advantage.

In both America and Australia, although more markedly in the former, there are signs that the police occupation is being eroded. This erosion is not in the traditional sense of low skill roles being shedded while at the same time retaining high skill roles, but in the sense of losing its identification. There is a real danger in the United States that the police occupation will be eroded to the extent that its uniqueness will be lost and it will merely become a minor category of law enforcement or public safety classifications. As such, it would then share the status of the low-skill security and investigation occupational groups, which normally occupy these broad categories, for example, personal and property protectors, investigators, and process servers. But, nothing is fixed in the occupational

universe, and even if erosion occurs, there are possibilities available other than that just envisaged. These dangers to the police occupation, while more evident in America, also exist in Australia. Certainly with the growth of federal interest in security and police matters generally and, more particularly, with the introduction of a totally unnecessary federal police force, considerable threats to the integrity of the police service are posed.

NOTES

¹ Probably, a majority of the police literature is critical of police performance in one respect or another. The following four books, two American and two Australian, are selected to indicate a range of criticism, from implied to direct, from low-key to emotional, and from general to specific; 1977. MILTE K.L., WEBER T.A. *Police in Australia*. Sydney: Butterworths; 1967. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office; 1972. STARK R. *Police Riots*. Belmont, CA: Focus Books; 1972. WILSON P.R., WESTERN J.S. *The Policeman's Position Today and Tomorrow*. St Lucia: University of Queensland Press.

² The terms 'profession', 'professional', and 'professionalism' in this work are left deliberately undefined. They are

used to indicate, as appropriate, the possession in various proportions, and regardless of model, occupational credibility, prestige, complexity, sophistication, and high levels of performance.

- ³ 1978. MURPHY P.V. *Remarks Made Before the Police Executive Research Forum*. Americana Hotel, New York City (10 Oct), p.5.
- ⁴ 1975. *Complaints Against Police*. Canberra: Law Reform Commission.
- ⁵ 1978. SHERMAN L.W. *The Quality of Police Education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, p.19.
- ⁶ 1978. ANDERSON D.C. 'The Off-Duty Degree'. *Police Magazine*, v1 #2 (May): 29-38.

PART ONE

INSTITUTIONS

Police Foundation
International Association of Chiefs of
Police
Police Boards/Commissions
School of Police Administration,
Louisville

POLICE FOUNDATION

The overall effect of the police foundation may be symbolic and inspirational as much as anything else. For its very existence is probably reassuring to those in the country who are either intuitively or through experience persuaded of the need to improve policing. Its very existence means that there are persons in this country who care deeply about this improvement. It means there is every reason to hope that someday quantum improvements will come. It means that there can be institutions like the police foundation that may someday help transform policing into, if not a profession, then at least into a legitimate calling.

P.V. Murphy, 1977

CHAPTER ONE

DURING the late sixties, the Ford Foundation encountered criticism for allegedly favouring liberal causes in its grants program. To counter this criticism of left wing favouritism, Foundation President McGeorge Bundy and his advisers developed the idea of creating an organisation to effect innovation and improvement in American policing.¹ In this manner, right wing critics would be mollified while the liberal cause could be simultaneously promoted. Who said Machiavelli is dead? A \$30 million grant was provided to convert the notion into reality. The reality was to be called the Police Foundation.

A board of directors was appointed. A lawyer, Charles H. Rogovin, was engaged as president. Premises were rented in Washington, DC's, commercial district and staff were recruited. By the end of 1970, the Police Foundation was in business.

Originally, it was determined that the Foundation's life span would be five years. That initial five year period has since been extended to 10 years, although no further increase in funds has been obtained. Accordingly, funds have had to be stretched twice as far as was originally envisaged.

As a result, the Foundation has changed from being a money spending and granting organisation to being itself largely dependent on grants and fees. It is, in fact, now functionally little different from other non profit consultant organisations operating in the criminal justice field. This drastic change in circumstances inevitably means that the Foundation will have less opportunity to be as selective as it would like to be in its undertakings. And yet, selectivity is important in relation to its mission to introduce improvement and innovation to policing, if that mission is to be directly and effectively pursued over time.

As the Foundation approaches the end of its decreed decade of existence, an item of speculation in Washington's fiercely competitive criminal justice community is whether it will continue past the 10 year mark.

POLICY

The original statement of purpose underpinning the Foundation's creation, that is, to effect improvement and innovation in the American police service, provides only the broadest indication as to what should be done. The process of determining and selecting options is usually a divisive process in the best of organisations. During the Foundation's formative stages a major rift developed among staff and board members concerning approaches to effecting change.

One view, held principally by board members, was that broad spectrum approaches such as the creation of a police academy and wide ranging experimentation and evaluation were appropriate. This view was obviously geared to the intended limited life span of the Foundation. If an academy could be established and develop a viable existence independent of the Foundation, long term gains could be attempted despite the Foundation's intended short life. Similarly, the usefulness of lessons learned and principles established from experimentation and evaluation could continue after the Foundation's planned demise. As it happened, the idea of an academy was not pursued, but experimentation was quickly commenced. The Dallas police experiment was an early effort in support of this view, in which massive change was attempted within a cooperative police department. The general idea was that the changed or reformed Dallas police department would then act as an example to others.

The second basic view, held principally by the then president and staff was to effect change primarily through the combined impact of action and research programs. This latter view was in accordance with an early concept paper written by a consultant to the Ford Foundation when the idea of a police foundation was being developed. Such a policy presupposed a longer term approach in the hope of incremental gains. While both perspectives contended, the former tended to predominate, at least during the early stage of the Foundation's existence.

So great was the conflict created by internal policy differences during the first few years of the Foundation's existence, that in 1972 President Rogovin resigned. Thomas McBride acted as president until he was succeeded, in 1973, by Patrick V. Murphy. Murphy resigned the commissionership of the New York City Police Department to take the position. Albeit belatedly, a senior, respected, and reform-oriented police administrator had been made head of the Foundation, a measure which obviously should have been taken in the first place. The irony of appointing a lawyer as the Foundation's inaugural president was apparently wasted on those responsible. Certainly, no other action could be so surely designed to ensure an adverse reaction on the part of police chiefs, many of whom share an anti lawyer bias.

Under Murphy's astute and subtle leadership, policy inspired tensions within the Foundation have been reduced. Part of the Foundation's activities remain concerned with experimentation and evaluation. The remainder are concerned with research and action programs of various sorts. The emphasis has, however, been slowly and surely altered from the former to the latter. About a year after taking over in 1974, President Murphy made a statement which reflected the Foundation's new dualism.² This statement provided a sound basis for operational policy formulation, although it appears not to have had much effect until the 1978 internal policy review.

The Foundation has achieved an

international reputation through its experimentation and evaluation activities. But, over a period when it has been reduced substantially from grantor to grantee status, action programs have become an increasingly important area of activity, particularly in view of their revenue-producing capacity.

During early 1978, a concern with the Foundation's limited policy formulation during its formative stages, the informal evolution of policy during the intervening years, and its changed circumstances, prompted a comprehensive review of policy with a view to rationalisation and the creation of clear guidelines for future operations. Suggested changes of direction, or philosophy, in an organisation can be most unsettling. It is a tribute to Murphy's ability that the Foundation's internal stability permitted the 1978 policy review without trauma.

One disadvantage associated with policy reviews is that future activities tend to be shaped by past events. Should past events have occurred randomly, arbitrarily, or in some other undesirable fashion, their impact - although diminished - may nevertheless continue into the future. Few organisations will risk a complete break with the past. Attempts to do so completely run the risk of negative reactions by staff possessing an emotional commitment to past policies and actions. However, the Police Foundation, given its changed circumstances and equilibrium is, in fact, in an ideal situation to institute radical policy changes. Indeed, change is

essential to the organisation's future. It is sometimes possible to 'muddle through' successfully when there is plenty of money available. It is a different matter entirely when one is a supplicant. In such an event, one needs a very clear idea of what one is about and where one is going.

ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION

The Police Foundation is headquartered on K Street NW in Washington, DC. Field offices are maintained at different locations throughout the country in accordance with project needs. In the light of the Foundation's present applicant status, its Washington location is particularly suitable. The ability to routinely meet and talk with officials in the major grant-conferring agencies offers great advantages.

Reporting direct to the president are three directors and a controller (see figure 1). The three directors between them cover all operational functions and communications, including publications. The controller is responsible for administering the Foundation.

The president is supported by a personal secretary and personal assistant. This latter officer not only assists him with his various daily activities which are numerous and wide ranging, but is also responsible for liaising with and looking after visitors from all over the world. Her efficiency, personality, and kindness have played no little part in establishing the

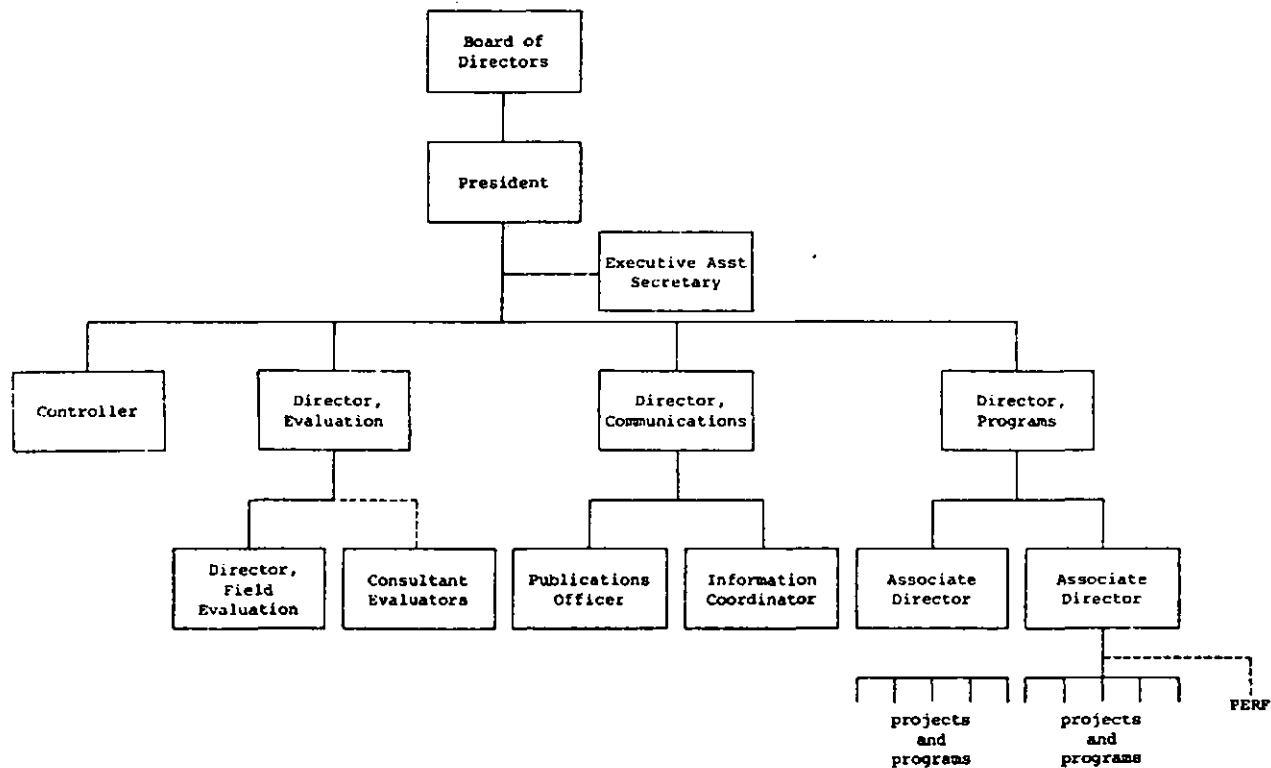
Foundation's widespread reputation for hospitality and efficiency.

The administration of the 47-person strong Foundation is performed by *four* people - the controller, staff coordinator, book keeper, and receptionist/telephonist/typist. The controller is an unusual person in that although a chartered public accountant, he is helpful and constructive - qualities not normally associated with an accountant. As a result of the competence and supportiveness of the administration team, the line/staff friction that exists so frequently in other organisations is, delightfully, largely absent from the Police Foundation.

The Evaluation Division is solely occupied with experimentation and evaluation, primarily the former. Research is not solely confined to this division, as will be seen from figure 1. The division is small in terms of permanent staff. Like the remainder of the Foundation, it emphasises the temporary hiring of quality staff for the life of a project or on some other temporary basis.

The Program Division has two sections, each headed by an associate director. One section is basically operational in orientation, the other being basically service oriented. This distinction is fortuitous and is becoming increasingly blurred. A number of the programs are described as action programs. Those like the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) have potential for a separate existence. In fact, PERF already has an independent legal

FIGURE 1
POLICE FOUNDATION, ORGANISATION



existence, being funded separately and paying (nominal) rent. The remaining programs are research programs.

The Communications Division has a twofold role. One, it provides a speech-writing and media relations service. Two, it is responsible for the Foundation's successful publishing enterprise. Actual printing is contracted out but, all editing, design work and distribution, together with the running of a small library, is performed by two permanent staff members supported by a typist. A list of publications is shown at Annex A.

The comparison, in terms of support personnel, with Australia is marked. Although one should not generalise from single instances, it is my impression that American organisations successfully operate with far leaner administrative staff structures than is normal elsewhere.

RESEARCH

Public interest in Police Foundation experimentation really commenced in 1974 with the exposure of a number of fallacies of police folklore in the Kansas city preventive patrol experiment.³ Not unnaturally, a good deal of resistance and criticism was generated within the police community. Former Chief Edward Davis, of the Los Angeles Police Department, who was then president of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, was a major critic. Such criticism, one gathers, was

not entirely disinterested but linked to police community politics. The path of the innovator is not easy!

Successive research reports have been published by the Foundation over the eight years of its existence, and most of these have created a great deal of interest and respect in the wider criminal justice community. The competence and rigor of Foundation research has been the basis upon which its professional reputation is founded. Obviously, not every post has been a winner, but the consistently high standard of research performed has been sufficient to keep the Foundation in the forefront of criminal justice research organisations. All Foundation research reports are notable for their rigorous application of method and honesty. For example, the report of the Dallas police experiment⁴ frankly admits that very little return was achieved on a \$2.3 million investment and that, in human terms, considerable harm was done. It is significant that Murphy was not president of the Foundation at the time the Dallas experiment commenced. An administrator of his experience and competence would have known intuitively that such a high focus on short term change within a complex organisation would hold the potential for trouble. Even so, the frank discussion of the experiment's shortcomings and gains is of considerable value to both police administrators and researchers. In many ways, there is just as great a need to know of experiments which are unsuccessful as those which (to some degree) are successful.

At the time of writing, the Evaluation Division has a number of experiments at various stages of completion. They include, the New Jersey Foot Patrol Experiment, the Birmingham Plain Clothes Apprehension Project, and the San Diego Criminal Apprehension Program.

As previously noted, not all Foundation research is performed in the Evaluation Division. The Program Division also undertakes research in addition to action programs. An interesting piece of research commenced in 1978, with joint Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) and National Science Foundation (NSF) funding. It was a study of police arrest characteristics. The purpose was to gain insights into police arrest activities, particularly with a view to identifying weak spots in the process.

The products of the Foundation's various research undertakings have provided valuable data for its program activities. Indeed, research and action programs have a symbiotic relationship.

It is difficult to speculate on the impacts of Foundation research on the police service. Probably, very little has been achieved overall in any direct sense. This does not mean that it has all been wasted effort. A major consequence of research is that it invariably creates more questions than it answers. The Police Foundation is no exception to this rule. Consequently, research findings have not placed the Foundation in the position of being able to give definitive answers to police chiefs as

may have been originally hoped. It has been possible, though, to acquaint chiefs with a range of factors, ignorance of which could lead to defective planning. After all, research is ultimately but an adjunct to planning.⁵ The explosion of occupational axioms, such as that faster response times necessarily result in significantly greater apprehension rates, hold great importance to administrators willing to use such information. Additionally, although experiments such as the one conducted in Dallas were not judged as being 'successful', neither were they total disasters. Some gains were made, such as improved personnel management and raised educational standards. More than all this, though, is the slowly increasing body of police knowledge. As hard data and rational positions slowly replace the old intuitive police wisdom, the quality of police planning, administration, and operations will improve. The process is so gradual as to make measurement extremely difficult. It nevertheless exists. The Police Foundation is proving a substantial contributor to the body of knowledge now being made available to police administrators.

PROGRAMS

Over the last few years, the emphasis on programs, particularly action programs, has increased considerably in the Police Foundation. The Program Division, in a sense, is now *the* critical component of the Foundation. There is a certain irony in this fact, as the first president resigned

due to his support of this form of development having been unsympathetically viewed by the board of directors.

An interesting recent addition to the Division's activities has been the resurrection and expansion of the Kansas City Police Department's annual review of police administrative and operational data. From now on, the project will be jointly undertaken between the Foundation and Kansas City Police Department.

There is a feeling within the Foundation that action programs probably represent the best chance for achieving change within the police service. Examples of such programs are the Police Executive Program (PEP), Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), *Police Magazine* and, the Commission on Higher Education for Police.

PEP is now in its fourth year. As currently devised, it offers courses for 25-28 students at a time, all being chiefs or executives of larger (by US standards) police forces. Courses comprise one week units and are held at different locations throughout the country. Students attend any permutation of units desired.

Competition to attend PEP courses is now such that student applications to enter exceed vacancies. Most students are university graduates. Units are designed for the development of managers, not the training of technicians. As mentioned previously, an axiom of the Police Foundation is that innovation and reform in the police service will only be achieved through enlightened

chiefs. Thus, programs such as PEP are designed to attract chiefs of larger departments who still have some years of service ahead of them, and promising executives on the way up, that is, those who have a contribution to make.

An extension of the program is planned for 1979. The Foundation intends to take a class of PEP students to England for six days, followed by brief periods in Amsterdam and Frankfurt. British police will instruct the class, probably at Bramshill, in addition to visits being arranged to other major police establishments. Accommodation will be provided, where appropriate, by British police personnel. It is noted that the Foundation is building strong ties with British Home Office Research Unit officials. Such liaison permits imaginative undertakings of this sort and is the springboard to further cooperation in a number of ways, for example, joint international research projects.

The Executive Director of PEP is prepared to assist in running a course for Australian police personnel either in the USA or Australia. Such a proposition holds promise, as I have no doubt that 28 Australian State and Territory police personnel of or above the rank of inspector (perhaps even down to senior sergeant level) would be prepared to attend such a course at their own expense - even in the USA. The question arises as to which is the appropriate body to institute such initiatives. The Australian Police Commissioner's Conference seems the obvious choice. However, the problem of federal agencies trying to dominate such a

proposal needs to be considered. An individual police force would possibly be prepared to take up the initiative of its own accord. Perhaps, thought could even be given by the Criminology Research Council to calling for proposals with a view to funding a police department interested in taking advantage of such an offer. In any event, attendees should be selected with a view to their suitability and willingness to subsequently pass on the knowledge and experience gained to other police on their return to duty.

PERF started as a cooperative enterprise between the Police Foundation and certain major city chiefs. It is designed to encourage discussion of fundamental issues, to exchange information, and to design and undertake research of critical issues. This program is very much an operationalisation of the premise that significant police reform will necessarily come only from trained major city chiefs. PERF is an independent legal entity as it is now incorporated. The umbilical cord is not yet entirely severed, however, in that it occupies low rent space in Foundation premises and has access to Foundation facilities. The potential, subject to financial sufficiency, of the Forum can hardly be exaggerated.

Recently, the Forum has become active politically. For instance, it supported the establishment of a Bureau of Justice Statistics within the Department of Justice. Some members have given testimony before Congress, others have promoted the Forum by writing about it, and yet others have

attempted to achieve voting reform in the International Association of Chiefs of Police.⁶

The *Police Magazine* was conceived in the Foundation's Communication's Division. It has been taken up by a commercial publisher, and promises to be a top seller among police. It is pitched very precisely at the level of interested and aware policemen. The standard of journalism is good, although somewhat emotional at times. The independent nature of the publication provides it the ability to be critical, an advantage official journals lack.

The Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers was established during 1977 under the guiding hand of Warren Bennis. Assistant Professor Lawrence Sherman, of the State University of New York at Albany, was the Commission's Executive Chairperson. The project was designed to study the quality of higher education received by police officers.

Public hearings were conducted by the Commission at a number of locations, including Cincinnati, San Francisco, and New York City. It also commissioned a number of monographs on various aspects of police higher education. The Commission's final report, submitted in mid-1978, draws from both sources.⁷

THE NEED FOR A POLICE FOUNDATION

One problem faced by the Police Foundation in respect of many of its

programs, is the fact that it is working in an already crowded and competitive field. This fact makes the need for sound policy and goal formulation all the more imperative. Other organisations working in the police field, although not always in conflict include: the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP); the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (NILECJ); the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), the School of Police Administration, Louisville (SPA); the Michigan State University (MSU); the Social Development Corporation (SDC); and the American Institutes for Research, Public Systems Evaluation (AIRPSE). The list is a long one. Most of these organisations sensibly try to carve out a section or function (or both) of the police community for their own purposes. The Foundation is no exception, concentrating on major chiefs and their executives. In the field of executive training, for example, the IACP concerns itself mainly with a large number of two day courses (often end to end), held at a variety of locations around the country. The target population is junior and medium level personnel in the smaller departments. This approach reflects the predominating influence of small departments within the IACP itself. The FBI, through its National Executive Institute (NEI), addresses itself to major chiefs, but is largely enrichment oriented, for example, it relies largely on guest lecturers of repute such as Herman Kahn. The NILECJ (to 1978) concentrates on one major course a year, for example, management, patrol function, and takes it around the country. Thus, while

there is apparently not total overlap, one has to question the addition of yet another agency in the training field, even though there is no coordinating body possessing the power and authority necessary to rationalise the situation.

There is, of course, the argument that the police community in the USA is so vast that all additions to the field of research and training are welcome. Certainly, when one considers the quality of its employees and the imagination and competence of its programs, the Foundation has earned a moral right to contribute.

IMPACTS

The Police Foundation is a productive organisation with a deserved reputation for rigorously planned and executed research and action programs. It has successfully locked itself into the segment of the police community it is interested in influencing. Certain of the Foundation's administrators and senior personnel are tapped into the community's 'old boy' network. Visits are exchanged, talks are given, advice is sought, for example, suggestions to fill a chief's vacancy. Senior Police Foundation staff clearly enjoy this professional acceptance and work to further it. The advantages of such involvement and cooperation are that the chances of occupational acceptance and being *asked* to do something, for example, running a conference, are greater.

On the other hand, there is the traditional problem of the reformer being imperceptibly molded by the very ones he is trying to change, that is, who, in the long run, is changing whom?

An equally important problem is one of factions. Most societies have competing factions, and the police community is certainly no exception. Big departments are contemptuous of small departments. Third tier government departments are resentful of second tier departments. Reformers conflict with traditionalists. East coast styles are different from west coast styles. Management is in conflict with labour. The dimensions of conflict are endless.

By involving itself with the affairs and concerns of the police community, the Police Foundation is inevitably drawn into the existing web of conflict. The only way of totally avoiding conflict would be to be all things to all persons. The field is too vast and resources too limited to attempt such an approach, even if it were desirable. Thus, by being associated with a particular group in the police community, that is, reform minded major chiefs, the Foundation automatically alienates other factions. The danger here is of goal displacement; not by staff intent on preserving their jobs, but by the Foundation operating in support of its own faction and in so doing losing sight of its own goals. A situation has already occurred in which tension exists between the Foundation on the one hand, and the FBI and IACP on the other. Both these latter bodies resent another organisation in the field and operate in part to counteract the Founda-

tion's growing influence. Both energy and resources are unfortunately wasted in such antagonisms.

It is too early yet to attempt to assess the impact on the police service of Foundation programs such as those outlined here. Clearly, some have greater potential than others. But, quite apart from questions of time, the measurement of change in the police community is a most complex matter. If the Foundation is serious about its goal of effecting improvement, it must surely attempt to build evaluation provisions into its overall plan of operations. Given the lack of selectivity that will operate in respect of the Foundation's future operations due to the increasing necessity to obtain outside funding, this will prove no easy matter. Nevertheless, the issue should not be neglected.

In this respect, two factors need to be heeded. One, a commitment to 'change' is not necessarily consistent with a commitment to 'improvement'. Admittedly, there are tremendous conceptual problems associated with attempting to define something as abstract as improvement. Even so, the task must be undertaken in any policy reformulation. The reason this point is raised is that some Foundation staffers have a clear commitment to change in the police community; however, their idea of change is not necessarily synonymous with my idea of improvement. A clear understanding of the Foundation's purpose in relation to all its activities is necessary. A lack of such an understanding is conducive to goal displacement and (even ideological) bias.

Two, the Foundation must avoid giving the impression that it operates primarily as a base of operations for the director and other senior staffers to indulge their participation in police politics. This view is expressed, not only by the Foundation's critics but also by some of its supporters.

IMPLICATIONS FOR AUSTRALIA

Organisations such as the Police Foundation reflect not only the fragmented nature of the American police service but also the opportunity for private involvement in criminal justice matters generally.

In Australia, and elsewhere in the south west Pacific region, the police service is unified and restricted, that is, it is based at either state or national levels of government and the number of departments, as a result, is limited. With relatively few police forces in existence, the police drain on public resources in Australia, for example, expertise and materials, is not excessive. Thus, police can gain a great deal of research and other assistance from within government itself. In addition to governmental resources, the various universities provide a major base for research and even action programs. There is, then, already an abundance of research resources to assist police. Indeed, it can be said there are too many for the mere eight forces which account for the country's police establishment.

Culturally, police services in America

are a matter for local concern. Police, like education, are seen by the public as needing to be based at the level at which they, the public, are personally involved. Because of this, United States police departments are more vulnerable to pressure groups who may wish to influence police policies and performance. In the tradition of British policing, into which category Australia largely falls, and despite police subjection to the law within this tradition, public concern with police performance and reform has always been resisted by police and bureaucrats alike. For instance, if a private organisation, such as the Police Foundation, which was solely dependent upon police goodwill, were set up in Australia with the aim of achieving police reform, a furore would result. Certainly, such an organisation, even if it had substantial funds to disburse, would be resented by government and a majority of the public. The likelihood of its achieving sufficient goodwill in the limited Australian (or even south west Pacific region) police community in order to operate in any substantial way is dismal indeed.

The environment in Australia for the establishment of such organisations is not favourable. Researchers of the excellence of those employed by the Police Foundation would be more usefully employed working directly for individual police agencies, despite the lack of professional autonomy which normally exists in such situations. The police service in Australia is still extremely conservative when compared with many United States departments. This conservativeness is based in part upon

insecurity, and the sorts of intrusions likely to be required by outside research organisations would, in the main, be seen as distinctly threatening.

Unfortunately, the very existence of such external research resources has the effect of inhibiting the development of research and action program expertise within police agencies. In other words, they have the effect of keeping police weak, often in areas where strength is desirable. Fortunately, an avenue exists in Australia through which this shortcoming can be overcome. The solution rests in the creation of a police research establishment. Such an establishment would be an interstate police cooperative venture. It would need to be headed by a senior seconded officer, ideally of deputy commissioner rank. Research scientists of various disciplines together with police researchers could be concentrated within such an organisation on professional terms. They would address matters referred to them by the Police Commissioners' Conference as having interjurisdictional application.⁸ Thus, research sections within individual forces would still be required for matters of purely local application. In such an establishment, formed and run by police, the element of threat would be removed while at the same time preserving professional research conditions. Importantly, a great deal of undesirable overlap, as presently exists, would be avoided. The essential element here is that such an undertaking should be on a cooperative interstate basis and not imposed from above by federal bodies interested only in expanding their empires. Empire building is by no means restricted to

the private sector.

A police research establishment would ideally also provide a range of forensic services to the various state police departments. The two functions would blend well within such an organisation.

The state police commissioners should corporately press for the establishment of an organisation as outlined above, which would be subject to their control and would have the capability of providing a comprehensive range of research and testing services.

The Police Foundation's role in all this speculation is that of an exemplar with regard to the sorts and quality of broad-based research and action programs which could be fruitfully undertaken by a police cooperative research establishment operating in support of the service.

NOTES

¹ 1974. *Toward a New Potential*. Washington, DC: Police Foundation, p.3.

² *Ibid*.

³ 1974. KELLING G.L., PATE Tony, DIECKMAN Duane, BROWN C.E. *Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment*. Washington, DC: Police Foundation.

⁴ 1978. WYCOFF M.A., KELLING G.L. *The Dallas Experience*. Washington, DC: The

Police Foundation.

- ⁵ 1977. SWANTON B. *The Nature and Scope of Police and Police Related Research*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, p.6.
- ⁶ 1978. MURPHY P.V. *Remarks Made Before the Police Executive Research Forum*. Americana Hotel, New York City (10 Oct).
- ⁷ 1978. SHERMAN L.W. *The Quality of Police Education*. San Francisco, CA: Rinehart.
- ⁸ 1977. SWANTON B. *Op.cit.*, pp.37-38.

INTERNATIONAL
ASSOCIATION
OF
CHIEFS
OF
POLICE

The objects of the association shall be to advance the science and art of police services, to develop and disseminate improved administrative, technical, and operational practices and promote their use in police work, to foster police cooperation and the exchange of information and experience among police administrators throughout the world, to bring about recruitment and training in the police profession of qualified persons, and to encourage adherence of all police officers to high professional standards of performance and conduct.

Article 1, s.2(a) Constitution

CHAPTER TWO

WITHOUT doubt the best known organisation of chief police officers is the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). The IACP is primarily an American organisation although, as its name implies, it also has foreign members. In addition to being a well known institution within the police community, IACP also exercises considerable influence within that community. An understanding by Australian police administrators generally of its mission, structure, and operations is desirable in order to increase their occupational current awareness and improve their capacity to translate overseas ideas and experience to the local scene.

This outline of the IACPs organisation and functions is presented under seven major headings. These are: History; Organisation; Activities; Future; Annual Conference; Publications; and Implications for Australia.

HISTORY

Most Australian police are aware of the incredibly fragmented nature of the

police service in America. In the days prior to the availability of rapid communications and facsimile transmission, great difficulty was experienced by United States police officials in disseminating information between agencies concerning wanted persons, extraditions, and details of offences. In May 1893, Chief William S. Seavey, of Omaha, proposed a meeting of chiefs to discuss such common problems. Fifty one chiefs met in Chicago and discussed matters of mutual interest for five days. So successful was the meeting that it was decided to repeat the event. Objectives were identified and a constitution was drafted and promulgated. Thus, the National Chiefs of Police Union was born. The Organisation's title was changed shortly after to National Association of Chiefs of Police. It was later again changed to "Chiefs of Police of the United States and Canada" in recognition of the number of Canadian chiefs who joined. Finally, as membership became truly international, the title was changed, in 1902, to that which it bears today.

In summing up the formation of the IACP, a recent publication comments:

By joining together in a voluntary, cooperative association of members; the police chiefs of the nation were able to develop a variety of forms of mutual assistance, which worked to the benefit of all and for the public good, without disturbing the essential organisational structure of American law enforcement.¹

The Association's first major activity was to provide a central clearing house for criminal identification records. This task occupied the bulk of the Association's energies for the first 30 years of its existence. It was not until the 1920s that the Association started to broaden its activities, and it was perhaps not until the mid 1930s that it assumed a form and style we would recognise today.

By 1897, the IACP's first major initiative, the National Criminal Identification Bureau was fully operational. Initially, it concentrated on the Bertillon system which was based on anthropometry. This was an unfortunate artifact of the Association's having been created in the 1890s. Had the Association been formed a decade later, it would have avoided the Bertillon system, thus saving 10 years of largely wasted work. During the early 1900s, the more effective Henry fingerprint system rapidly replaced Bertillonage.

From 1898 on, speakers at IACP annual conferences referred to the need by police of useful crime statistics. It was not until 1922, however, with the appointment of August Vollmer to the presidency, that a uniform crime records committee was formed. As a result of the committee's efforts, criteria were established for classifying and reporting criminal offences. It was another seven years before conference approval was granted for the collection. It commenced in 1930. On 1 September of that year, the collection was absorbed by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI).² This was the second IACP initiative to be

taken over by the FBI in a five year period and there were more to follow.

The 1930s was an extremely busy decade for the expanding but still limited organisation. It was repeatedly called upon by Congress to present the police view in respect of numerous pieces of legislation. The President of the USA addressed the 1934 annual conference, expressing his government's gratitude for this assistance.³ In the same year the *Police Chief* (then known as the *Police Chief's Newsletter*) was first published.

It was in the early 1930s that a permanent director was first appointed. Starting with one clerk, he assembled over the years a professional staff to assist him. This development greatly increased the Association's capacity to contribute to the effectiveness of member departments, particularly in areas of management expertise. Consultant services were made available to clients. Police managements and organisations were closely studied, and a wide variety of services were made available, for example, general management surveys, staff assistance projects, staff studies, implementation programs, planning projects, and police executive examinations and contracts, both within and outside the USA.

It was also in the 1930s that traffic started to become a major urban problem. Although IACP had for many years been in the forefront of moves to unify traffic laws and licence drivers, it did not start its Traffic Safety Division until 1936. This

move was undertaken in conjunction with Northwestern University. IACP-designed traffic bureaus were installed by many police departments, including those in the major cities of Detroit, Chicago, Miami, and Los Angeles. To this day IACP maintains a responsibility for traffic, and many police forces still incorporate Association policies and recommendations in their planning.

World War II found IACP deeply involved in the preparation and promotion of its 11 point mobilisation plan for emergencies and disasters. IACP-developed guidelines and procedures on the handling of espionage, sabotage, planned disorders, and major disaster were adopted by law enforcement officials at all levels of government. Military road movement plans were also prepared by the Association.

Later, during the postwar reconstruction period, the IACP was involved in training overseas police at the request of the American Government's International Cooperation Administration (later titled Agency for International Development). These training activities resulted in the formation of the International Police Academy, an organisation since terminated.

The mid 1960s to the early 1970s saw tremendous pressures placed on police authorities in the USA, and elsewhere, too. These pressures are reflected in the largest single period of growth in the Association's history. Additional specialists were recruited. New initiatives 'included studies of police role concepts, crisis

intervention, juvenile delinquency causation, sociology training and education'.⁴

It was in the 1960s, too, that the IACP began a campaign to introduce minimum standards for police training. This campaign has been largely successful and most states now have legislation specifying minimum training standards. Conveniently, the National Association of State Directors for Law Enforcement Training has its office in the IACP building at Gaithersburg, Maryland.

Bombing and arson were criminal activities which typified the late 1960s. In 1970, the IACP established a national bomb data centre to obtain, collate, analyse, and disseminate pertinent data. Once it was fully developed, the centre was absorbed by the FBI. That same year, the association also formed the police weapons centre. It was at this time that Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) funds were becoming available. They contributed greatly to the Association's capacity to undertake such activities.

In 1974, the international activities of the Association were suitably recognised when it was accorded consultative status by the United Nations ECOSOC. These events are recorded in the Major Events Time Line (see Figure 2).

The Association's history has been summed up as being that of an independent problem solver. To again quote an Association brochure:

The IACP appears to function best on that difficult terrain where bright ideas of merit are transformed into working systems. Once the organisation and development work is complete, once the vision has been brought into the real world of policing, the accomplishment is turned over to some other agency that is better equipped to handle long term administration.⁵

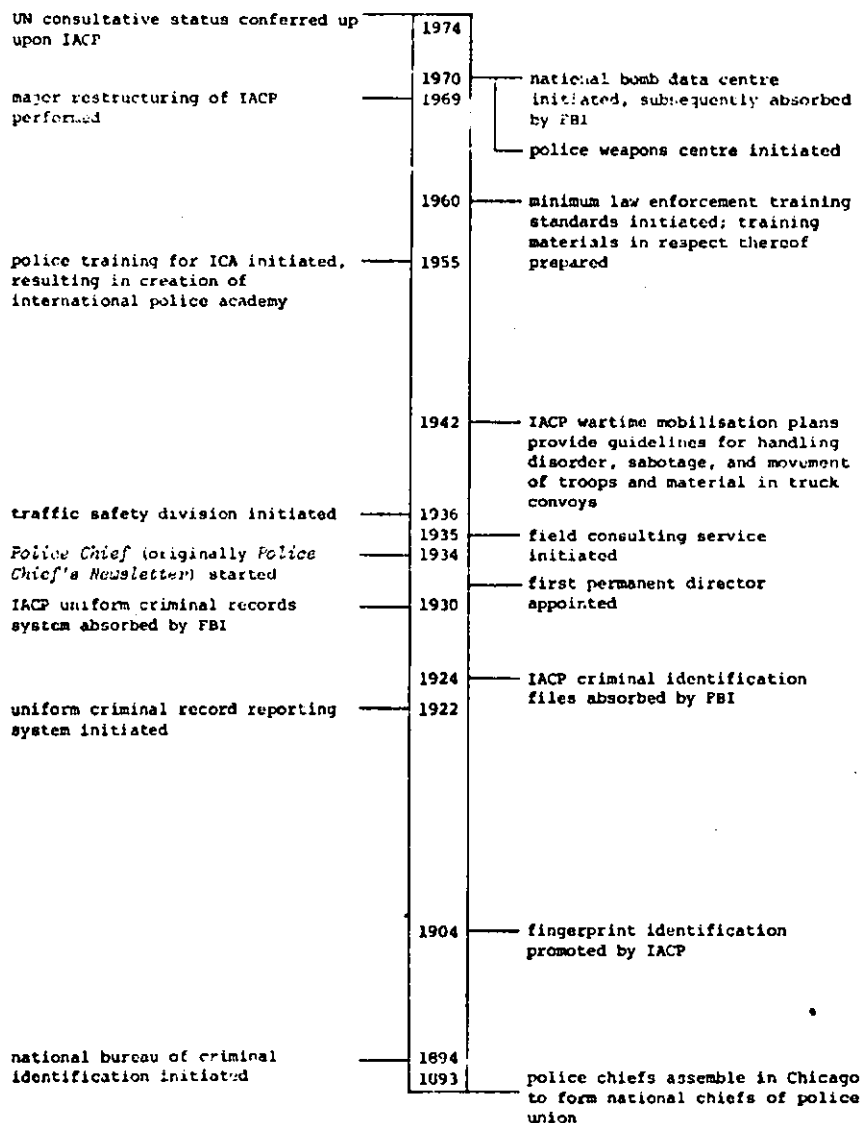
Interestingly, and significantly, the quote continues:

That is the role that the IACP has fulfilled successfully since 1893, and its present leaders seek no change in that basic mission.

The introduction and implementation by the IACP of programs designed to improve police effectiveness is a comment on both the structure of the United States police occupation and also upon the ability (partly due to that structure) of government to respond to such needs. It is strange that an organisation which, whether it likes it or not, occupies a position of occupational hegemony, has not also concerned itself with questions pertaining to the structure and function of the service as a whole. There is no doubt but that the Association operates strictly according to its formal objectives as prescribed in the Association's constitution:

To advance the science and art of police services, to develop and disseminate improved administrative, technical and operational practices and promote their

FIGURE 2
IACP, MAJOR EVENTS TIMELINE



(figure adapted from illustration contained in *International Association of Chiefs-of-Police* (1977), p 3).

use in police work, to foster police cooperation and the exchange of information and experience among police administrators throughout the world, to bring about recruitment and training in the police profession of qualified persons, and to encourage adherence of all police officers to high professional standards of performance and conduct.⁶

Inasmuch as numerous problems attaching to police organisation, operation, and cooperation cannot be solved without restructuring, it can be argued that the Association's objectives are deficient. The same problem exists now as it did in 1893. That is, if the Association were to prescribe restructuring it would be operating against the personal interests of a majority of its members who are small department chiefs. This contradiction represents in my opinion a fundamental and highly significant flaw in the structure and operation of the Association if occupational leadership is to be considered a *bona fide* role for the Association. The comment that no change in basic mission is sought could be considered an abdication of such a role. This fact has had interesting repercussions in other areas of the police community as may be seen elsewhere in this book, especially in the chapters on the Police Foundation and the police occupation.

ORGANISATION

From modest beginnings in the late 19th century, IACP has developed into a

dynamic organisation currently employing some 100 full-time staff. Staff are broadly divided into support and professional categories. Support staff provide the normal range of service functions obtaining in most bureaucratic agencies, that is, registry, maintenance, keyboard, reception, office management, bookkeeping, despatching, public relations. Professional staff members are either analysts of one kind or another or police administration specialists. Ideally, these members combine practical police experience with academic training. This is to say, they are equipped to relate the practicalities of policing to specialist disciplines, such as law, education, psychology, and business and public administration. They have collectively acquired a reputation for excellence in the police community. In addition to the operations of its employees, the Association maintains a number of standing committees staffed by service members which are vital to the formulation of Association policy and administrative matters. Current standing committees include: the Advisory Committee on International Policy; and the Arson, Communications, Crime Prevention, Emergency Planning, Highway Safety, Legislation and Criminal Law and Procedure, Membership, Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs, Organised Crime, Public Relations and Mass Communications, Research, State Associations of Chiefs of Police, Uniform Crime Records, Vehicle Theft, and Youth and Juvenile Justice committees.

In addition to the efforts of these standing committees, as and when appropriate, the president of the Association has the authority to appoint special or *ad hoc*

committees for special purposes not already catered for.

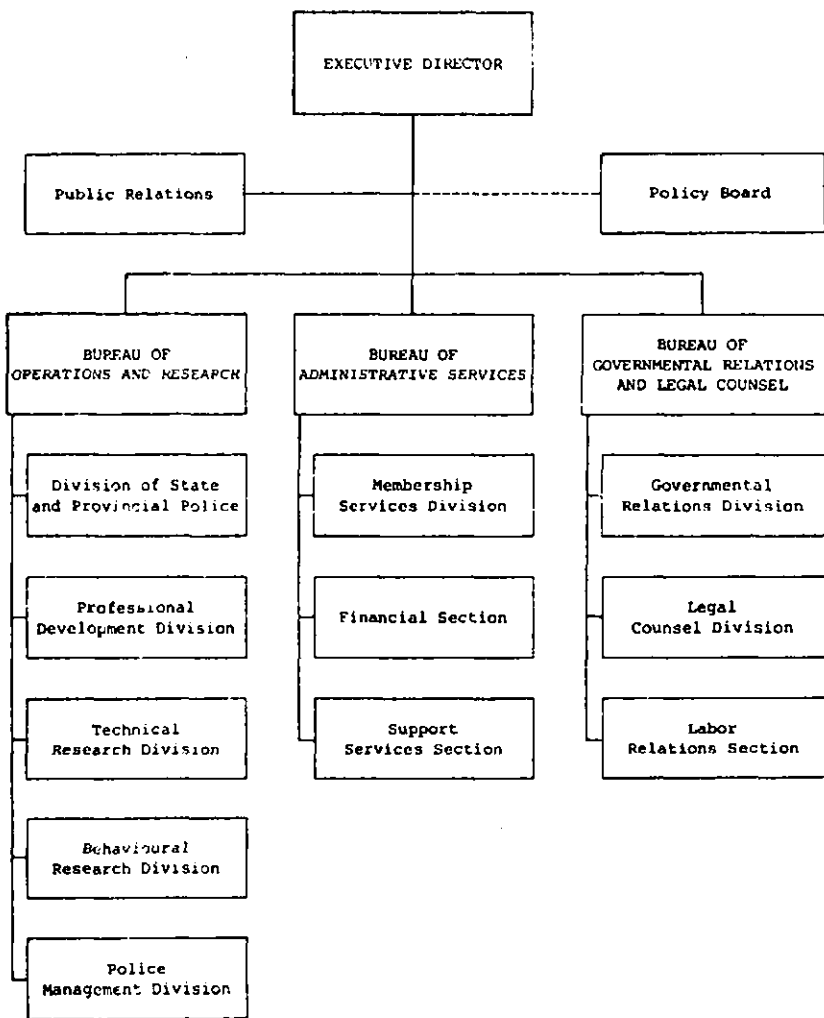
The Association's permanent staff support all these committees together with the president, the board of officers, and the executive committee. The IACP staff work to the executive director who is both chief executive officer and corporate secretary of the organisation.⁷

In order to implement its mission the IACP is functionally organised into the following three bureaus: Operations and Research; Governmental Relations and Legal Counsel; and Administrative Services (see Figure 3).

The Bureau of Operations and Research is responsible for providing most of the Association's consulting services. It is primarily occupied with developing, disseminating, and implementing operational aspects of police work. 'It is their task to keep abreast of new trends, new concepts, to develop new solutions to old or new problems or to improve operational concepts and take these concepts to the practitioner in the field.'⁸

The Bureau of Governmental Relations and Legal Counsel provides specialised research in the legal field, publishes a broad range of materials, and advises police agencies on legal matters. It maintains a watching brief on the actions, inactions, and directions of all agencies impacting the police enterprise. To fulfill this vital function a special liaison unit has been

FIGURE 3
IACP, ORGANISATION, BY FUNCTION
 (as at April 1977)



(adapted from figure provided by IACP)

formed to optimise information flow and monitoring practices generally.

The Bureau of Administrative Services is primarily the Association's housekeeper, although it also has an operational role. It maintains membership records, and staffs and operates the business office, distribution centre, and other support services. It is also responsible for the massive task of organising and running the IACP annual conference. Just to make sure Administrative Services Staff have no spare time, the Bureau has the additional responsibility of producing the *Police Chief*. A comprehensive, high-quality library is also situated within Administration Services.

In common with most other similarly structured organisations, the IACP possesses a body of elected officers which corporately exercises a general responsibility, on behalf of the membership, for the good management and operation of the Association. This body, known as the Executive Committee, comprises 27 members together with a number of past presidents. The practice of automatically placing past presidents on the executive committee was terminated with effect from 1968. The Executive Committee represents a broad spectrum of police, law enforcement, and protective security interests. For example, in addition to police chiefs, under the constitution of the Association a number of nonpolice federal agencies are represented, such as the Federal Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms, the Drug Enforcement Agency, the United States Secret Service, the FBI, and the Army's Criminal Investigation Command.

Although it is not claimed this nonpolice representation is necessarily influential in the development of IACP policy, it is odd when considered in relation to the Association's objectives as stated in article 1 of the constitution which are concerned exclusively with police. The Association, according to one of its recent publications, considers that:

The diversity within its membership has contributed over the years to IACPs enviable record for stability and longevity within the international law enforcement community. Today, its diversity of membership provides the association with a unique capability to fairly address an extremely broad range of law enforcement interests and concerns.⁸

This failure to distinguish between policing in particular and law enforcement in general is evident from both the Association's constitution and publications. It is a significant shortcoming as there is considerable conflict between the best occupational interests of police and non-police law enforcement agencies. The presence of certain such agencies at the highest policy-making levels within the Association suggests a fundamental flaw in the conceptualisation and constitution of the Association. In addition, of course, the equating of police with law enforcement generally has the potential for massive goal displacement. It would take a more detailed study than this, however, to determine if such a form of goal displacement has actually occurred. However, bland state-

ments concerning the benefits of diversity as shown above should not be afforded any great credibility. Without any suggestion of deceit or malice, it seems unlikely that federal agencies would encourage within the councils of the IACP policies that, while making police more effective, may make their own positions less tenable, for example, the promotion of regional anti-crime units or improved police intelligence centres.

In addition to the Executive Committee, the Association has a number of office bearers. These officials comprise a president, an immediate past president, six vice presidents, a treasurer, and the General Chairman of the Division of State Associations of Chiefs of Police.

The IACP is now located in Maryland, 20 miles from Washington, DC. From its initial rollcall of 51 members it has grown to a membership of approximately 11,200. Voting membership of the Association is limited to persons holding command rank in police agencies. There is, however, no attempt to define or accredit police agencies. Thus, an organisation bearing the title of police, for example, a state police force but which in fact cannot meet all the criteria of a functional police force, may nominate voting (and thus potentially office-bearing) members. Nonvoting membership is also provided for. The IACP is essentially a private organisation with the self-declared aim of representing the interests of its members and supporting positions held by chiefs of police.

ACTIVITIES

The IACP is active in a great number of areas in pursuing its major purpose of improving police services through professionalisation. These activities may be classified as: advisory; services; and projects. They are briefly discussed accordingly.

Advisory

IACP counselling functions are divisible into four major categories: legal assistance; traffic safety; public information; and legal advice and counsel.

The Association's legal research personnel maintain liaison with both the criminal law section of the American Bar Association and the National District Attorney's Association. IACP staff attorneys also provide a wide range of advice to the legal advisers to client police departments.

Advice relating to traffic safety is normally provided in the form of suggestions designed to improve police effectiveness in terms of highway safety program management. IACP maintains close liaison with other agencies and parties concerned with traffic safety. The Association was closely involved with the development of the highway safety standards enacted in the *Highway Safety Act* 1966.

The Association maintains an active public speaking program in which qualified

staff place the police view before the public. By this and other means IACP tries to both enlighten the public on issues concerning police and to respond to opposing views on behalf of their membership.

Staff representatives also testify before and give advice to a number of governmental and congressional bodies on matters pertaining to crime and police. Congressional and other national and regional leaders also actively seek out specialist staff for advice.

Services

A large number of services are supplied to client agencies, particularly field services. Major services provided are: Management Services; Public Safety Labour Relations Centre; Equipment and Technology Centre; UCR Auditing Service; Police Discipline Service; Assessment Centres; and Clandestine Tactics and Technology Centre.

Management services are mainly provided by means of consultations. Subscribing departments submit requests for organisational surveys. IACP professional staff study the client department in terms of structure, administrative and management practices, personnel and training considerations, allocation and distribution of manpower, field operations, communications, records, buildings, equipment, and relationships with other agencies. Analysis of the data so gained is used to identify areas in need of reform or remedial measures.

Naturally, advice is given as to how best approach such reform or remedy. A management consultancy of this kind is particularly useful to police administrators, as the Association's staffers have an inside knowledge of police procedures and operations. Most police administrators are aware of the pitfalls attaching to the employment of civilian consultants because of their lack of familiarity with police needs, practices, and procedures.

The Public Safety Labour Relations Centre monitors the police labour relations scene and provides field assistance to agencies wishing to implement structural and/or procedural provisions related to labour relations. Centre staff develop model collective bargaining clauses for use by agencies. Staffers not only assist in preparing management cases for arbitration but, if so desired, also help present cases.

The Equipment and Technology Centre provides an important clearing house for data pertaining to police. Selected information pertaining to types of equipment, standards, costs, and safety factors, is disseminated among subscribing departments.

Although the FBI now compiles the national crime data collection, IACP still retains an auditing function at the local level. Collections of this nature are totally dependent on the quality of the contributed data. The fragmented state of the police service in America and the indifferent calibre of many of its smaller

departments provide an ideal environment for error. Thus, the Association's UCR Auditing Service plays a vital role in helping to maintain acceptable standards of accuracy in the collection.

Subscribing agencies may request the IACP Police Discipline Service to advise it on matters pertaining to discipline. Where necessary, staffers conduct surveys to ascertain personnel attitudes within the client department. Discipline Service staffers then develop new rules and disciplinary procedures best suited to the department's needs and, where necessary, advise both rank and file officers and supervisors regarding their implementation.

In addition to its numerous roles performed in support of police management, IACP also provides a service to police employing authorities, for example, city council, board of supervisors, mayor, or police commission, wishing to appoint a new chief. If so requested, staffers will assist in the screening and selection of candidates and, also, prepare and score examinations; as well as conduct in-depth interviews. Assessment Centre activities normally conclude with the short listed candidates being interviewed by a panel of IACP consultants. Recommendations concerning appointment are then submitted to the employing authority.

The Clandestine Tactics and Technology Centre provides selected officers in subscribing agencies with tactical and technical information concerning active and violent revolutionary groups both in the

United States and elsewhere. Advice is also given to agencies concerning the acquisition and maintenance of equipment as well as the employment of tactics.

Projects

Projects are in effect embryo services, being still in the development stage, sometimes consisting of part research/development and part service. They are also at a stage when their financial viability has not been ascertained. Thus, not all projects develop into fully fledged services. With the large amount of LEAA research and development funds available in the early to mid 1970s some projects were undertaken in a purely research capacity without high regard for revenue-earning service potential. Current projects include: Child Abuse and Neglect; Maximum Speed Limit Enforcement; Crime and Senior Citizens; Police Physical Fitness; and Multi-agency Narcotics Units.

With regard to the unknown potential of a project, a particular case in point is the Association's Child Abuse and Neglect Project. This project is funded by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The subject is one that poses many problems for operational police as well as being a particularly objectional form of behaviour. The study is designed to increase the amount of knowledge available in the area. Hopefully, this knowledge will then be applied by police agencies to update and improve their practices in the juvenile area.

With the introduction of a national maximum speed limit on American highways, it has been realised that police need a great deal more knowledge concerning enforcement methods. The IACP is conducting a three year study of regulation techniques employed at different locations throughout the USA. The study will hopefully culminate with the production of data and enforcement guidelines for use by police and other traffic authorities.

Another IACP study concerns the problems of senior citizens as victims of crime. Elderly people are being studied in five locations within the country with a view to the ultimate production of crime prevention programs in respect of old people.

Police health has become a major area of interest in recent years. Fitness is an integral component of the health field. The IACP is conducting studies aimed at establishing the relationship between fitness and job performance. If successful, this study could make a major contribution to police health. It could also provide a badly needed scientific basis for police fitness programs - something sadly lacking at present.

Another initiative undertaken by Association staff was the study of the organisational and operational problems of forming multi-agency narcotics units. Their findings have resulted in the production of a manual containing guidelines for the establishment of such units. A number of workshops on the topic have also been held.

Training

Training is, of course, central to the improvement of police services and the IACP devotes a considerable proportion of its resources to that end. Current training efforts are briefly discussed under five heads: training aids; executive development; specialised training; tactical training; and workshops/seminars.

Having set itself the objective of improving the professional status of police, the Association feels itself obliged to provide the means whereby that end can be achieved - particularly through the acquisition of knowledge and skills at a professional level. Training aids represent one such means. The IACP produces a wide range of standard texts, reference materials, training aids, conferences, workshops and seminars, all of which are considered important aids to police learning.

The IACP has developed two discrete initiatives in the area of executive development, which is seen as central to the achievement of professionalism within the service. One, the Association runs a two week course in police management for supervisory and command personnel. Two, the Association conducts a number of three week police executive development programs each year. The course, which is continuously updated, covers all aspects of police administration and management.

The IACP approaches specialised training by means of coordinated conferences, seminars, and periodicals. The Association

identifies areas of particular need within the service, researches them, and then disseminates its findings and recommended solutions. Current topics subject to the specialised training programs are: Labour Relations; Protection of Public Figures; School Security; Bomb Scene Investigation; Crisis Intervention; Juvenile Justice; and Press Relations.

The Police Weapons Centre collects, collates, analyses, and disseminates a wide range of material about police weapons systems, protective equipment, and explosives. Material is also disseminated concerning appropriate tactical applications of the material discussed from the viewpoint of field personnel. In addition to this task, Centre staffers monitor police casualties resulting from armed incidents and, since 1970, have devised risk reduction programs in the light of field experience. Information of this type is imparted to all United States police forces by means of alert bulletins and risk reduction manuals.

The IACP produces numerous workshops and seminars. These seminars are conducted at convenient locations throughout north America. Topics selected cover a wide field, but tend largely to reflect the Association's current research interests, which in turn represent areas of major concern within the police community. Topics of workshops and seminars held in recent times include: Hostage Negotiations; Crisis Intervention; Police-Press Relations; Police Discipline; and utilisation of computerised geographic base files for law enforcement.

Details of the 1979 IACP training calendar are shown at annex C to this book. It gives readers a good idea of the broad scope of IACP workshops and seminars, both in terms of content and location.

FUTURE

The IACP is a dynamic organisation. As such it has to be conscious of the needs of tomorrow just as much as it must deal with the needs of today. To that end, it has already identified areas to be addressed once resources become available. The following list provides, in part, an idea of what the Association sees as important topics of police concern for the near future. They include: recruitment standards; police personnel advancement; crime prevention; traffic control; adequate training for small departments; legislative advice; specialised training aids and services; international assistance; and human behavioural research.

The area of recruit selection has traditionally been fraught with difficulty. Intuition rather than measurement has tended to predominate in selection criteria. Today, with a heightened awareness of race and gender discrimination added to a concern to relate selection standards to the demands of the job itself, it has become apparent that a great deal more research is necessary if sound, objective selection instruments and criteria are to be developed.

Traditional police organisation is

seen as becoming less and less effective in the light of modern demands. Specialist personnel need to be permitted broad discretion in their activities and rapid reactions require truncated command structures. Above all, there is a need to reconcile the position of the present day police officer and the tasks he is required to perform with an appropriate structure, so that more effective career paths can be designed.

Crime prevention is considered central to the police mission. In the past, however, it has been a sadly neglected function. There is now a trend away from the reactive (although it can never be entirely abandoned) to the proactive. It is now held that it is better to prevent crime than to let it occur and then attempt to locate and prosecute the perpetrator. A great deal of work remains to be done in the preventive field, particularly with a view to gauging displacement effects. Crime prevention will no doubt become a high priority area for the IACP in the years ahead.

The increasing problems created by the need to enforce national speed limits and urban traffic congestion require considerable applications of police manpower. This manpower is not yet being deployed as effectively as might be. Research into preventive and enforcement measures, and manpower deployment, will pay considerable dividends by permitting smaller numbers of personnel to be used more effectively.

Many small departments lack the

resources and infrastructure to train their personnel past entry level. The association has long accepted a commitment to in-service training and intends to maintain this responsibility in the future.

In addition to its role of supporting managerial and operational effectiveness, the IACP foresees that the need for it to act as legislative spokesman for police management will continue. The Association considers that the police community cannot remain entirely reactive to legislation affecting it, but that both public and legislators must be informed of the likely effects of legislation pertaining to police and crime control. Thus, the IACP foresees that its role of providing legislative advice will continue.

Many specialised training aids and services for police cannot always be effectively produced commercially, for example, hostage negotiations or interviewing victims of sexual assaults. Organisations such as the IACP will need to continue producing such materials for use by police.

In keeping with its consultative status with the United Nations ECOSOC, the IACP takes an interest in supplying specialist training to police of other nations on request. Such commitments naturally need to take into account the best interests of the USA. But, granted that condition, the IACP is keen to undertake foreign police training commitments - either through the United Nations or the Department of State.

Police trainers and field personnel are now realising that a wide range of police duties, for example, order maintenance, crisis intervention, and hostage negotiations, require a sound knowledge of the behavioural sciences. In keeping with modern demands for police services in the conflict resolution and peace maintenance areas, the IACP intends to increase its research into police applications of the behavioural sciences.

As opposed to specific topics, the Association sees certain broad areas of concern emerging. 'Some substantive areas are:

- * conflict between privacy laws and freedom of information laws
- * technological advances in telecommunications, electronic information processing, as these relate to questions of legal and ethical responsibilities
- * political and economic regionalisation both intrastate and international
- * transnational and international criminality including terrorism and currency fraud
- * human rights and the vexing issue of universal definitions of terms (torture, cruel, inhuman, and degrading treatment) for the world law enforcement community

- * security for the vast distribution systems which feed and supply nations and states.¹⁰

ANNUAL CONFERENCE

Each year the IACP conducts its annual conference, that is, its annual general meeting. These conferences are truly mammoth events and are without doubt the highlight of the United States police year.

Primarily, the conference is designed for the IACP's 11,200 members to meet and conduct their business. The Association has a very sensible policy of grooming its presidents through a series of vice presidencies. After five years as vice president, the president elect has a sound overall knowledge of the Association, its operation, and the needs of its members. Thus, election of the president is somewhat of a formality. The highlight of the conference is the election of the sixth vice president, that is, the person who will be president six years hence. The entire range of Association business is carried out in addition to election of office bearers.

Annual conferences also provide the opportunity for a valuable learning experience by attendees. Speakers of national and international eminence address members on issues of importance to the police community. Numerous workshops are also held on a wide range of pertinent topics. Experts in each field are invited to form panels, deliver papers and lead

discussions with members attending.

The annual conference also provides manufacturers of police products an appropriate venue at which to display their wares. Some 250 manufacturers take advantage of the massive collections of police administrators to show and explain their products. Nowhere else could members see such an assemblage of materials.

As with all such gatherings of people having a common interest, the personal exchanges, meetings, contacts made, etc, provide a most worthwhile experience, particularly for the small town chiefs who normally do not have the opportunity to meet others of such experience and rank. In the words of the Association itself:

The benefits of greater familiarity among the nation's chiefs of police, the possibilities for mutual assistance and cooperative effort, inevitably work to the benefit of the entire nation in the provision of improved and more efficient law enforcement services.¹¹

PUBLICATIONS

To police in the field, that is, the working police, the IACP is probably best known by its publications which address a wide range of police issues and problems. These publications are of a uniformly high quality although, addressed as some are to small departments, they may not always be suited to the needs of large departments.

The IACP also suffers the disadvantage of all police and law publishers in a confederation of states, that is, sometimes approaches have to be extremely general in order to avoid problems of state and agency difference in legal and procedural matters. Despite these built-in difficulties, IACP publications provide a great service to the United States police community. Some of the Association's better known publications include: *Police Chief*; *Police Yearbook*; *Journal of Police Science and Administration*; *Police Labour Review*; and *Training Keys*. A comprehensive list of publications is provided at Annex B. The *Police Chief* magazine has been in existence since 1934. It is published monthly and provides articles and features on every conceivable aspect of police work and administration. It is probably the best known and most widely read of all the police magazines. The *Police Yearbook* is published annually and contains the proceedings of each annual conference. Its particular value to general police readers is that it contains all the papers read at the various workshops and the discussion following them. The *Journal of Police Science and Administration* is certainly the most prestigious journal directed at the police community. It is more technically oriented than the magazine or the yearbook, being directed more to specialists in various fields pertaining to police and police work. It is published quarterly. The *Police Labour Review* provides a monthly roundup of cases and events concerning police labour relations in the United States. Although management oriented, it is equally valuable to employees and governmental authorities concerned

with labour affairs. The *Police Legal Review* provides a periodic roundup of legal cases and decisions pertaining to police prosecutions and investigative procedures. It is invaluable to the small department lacking a legal section of its own. The *Training Keys* provide, on a semi-monthly basis, a six page training bulletin. Each key contains an article on a topic of direct relevance to police, a discussion guide, review questions, and recommendations for further study in the area. As virtually every police training officer in the English speaking world is aware, IACP training guides are extremely useful aids for lesson preparation.

DISCUSSION

We have thus an organisation designed to:

Advance the art and science of police services, to develop and disseminate improved administrative, technical, and operational practices and promote their use in police work, to foster police cooperation and the exchange of information and experience among police administrators throughout the world, to bring about recruitment and training in the police profession of qualified persons, and to encourage adherence of all police officers to high professional standards of performance and conduct.¹²

Despite its international appellation and foreign membership, the IACP should be seen primarily operating within the American

environment. As the largest single association of police chiefs in that country it is widely perceived as the occupation's professional association and collective leader. However, the police occupation in the USA is so fragmented and variable in the sizes of individual agencies that consensus is impossible; there can in fact be no satisfactory overall leadership at present. For that happy state to obtain a massive reduction in the number of agencies will be necessary to produce a manageable service permitting cohesion and consensus.

Thus, to the extent that the Association is committed to exercising police leadership, it is committed to an impossible task. Not only does the inordinate number of small town chiefs give the annual conference an air of unreality rather akin to the United Nations in which tiny countries vote on the same basis as the great powers, but even its basic commitment to policing is not well defined. As Patrick Murphy pointed out in an address to the Police Executive Research Forum, it is absurd to have chiefs of minor agencies dominating professional police commanders and administrators of large departments.¹³ This is, of course, not the fault of the IACP as such, as the position is one that has evolved over many years. However, to the extent that the IACP does politic on behalf of its dominant membership element (and it does) it may do a disservice to the major component of the police service - the city and county police departments.

The IACP's stated commitment to the *status quo* is a cause for concern among all

who wish the police occupation in the United States well. In this same vein, the Association's failure over the years to define and distinguish the police occupation as distinct from the broader law enforcement community has been disastrous. It may be the case that lack of leadership and definition has already condemned the police occupation to the limbo of redundancy. This theme is developed further in the chapter dealing with the police occupation. Thus, within the broader framework of national policy, the IACP appears to have serious defects.

At the level of the Association's field activities - such as promoting information, training, and police excellence - it has, however, been most effective. Its professional staff are outstanding and the quality of its numerous paper, film, tape, and other products is consistently high. It is these products, of course, which tend to get to the line police officer. In a sense, this very efficacy has been central to maintaining a basically unsatisfactory police service; for it is the small departments who benefit most from the products of IACP research and development. Some critics have made the point that by virtue of the excellence of its activities and products, the IACP is defeating the goal of an improved police service by supporting small agencies which should be allowed to go to the wall. That is rather a back handed compliment and is too general for proper application to a complex situation. The criticism is, however, not without an element of truth.

Above all else, the IACP is an association of police executives meeting cooperatively within a confederation of states. This is, in my view, an ideal situation, as there is no role for a federal police service. United States federal law enforcement agencies no doubt concur heartily. Critics have made the point that the FBI, for example, has militated to keep the police service fragmented, and has thereby inhibited the sorts of aggregations capable of challenging its power.^{14, 15} The combination of small department chiefs wishing to maintain their position and federal interests has ensured the continuance of fragmentation within the police service and thus ensured the non emergence of substantial occupational leadership and broad-based effectiveness. We have, in fact, a vicious circle which can only be broken by a reform movement in United States police administration which successfully promotes consolidation as recommended by the National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. Nevertheless, the principle of cooperative effort on a voluntary basis by police chiefs is an extremely important one. It has great significance for Australia as well as for other western confederations.

IMPLICATIONS FOR AUSTRALIA

Australia possesses a number of political characteristics in common with the USA. One such characteristic is that both countries comprise a confederation of self-governing states supporting a national government. With regard to police adminis-

tration however, the two countries differ quite markedly. One such difference reflects the different emphases on local government. In the USA, it is dominant. In Australia, local government receives far less emphasis, state government being dominant.

Thus in America the police service is essentially based on cities, towns, parishes, and counties. In Australia, it is exclusively based at the state level. By accident of history Australia has been placed at an immeasurable advantage over America by having since the turn of the century a unified police service. Problems of cooperation are thus greatly reduced. With only eight police forces, numerous serious police problems experienced in the United States, for example, communications and quality, are far less of a problem in Australia.

In both countries there has been, in recent times at least, no commitment to federal police. Criminals, motorists, process, and a variety of other categories tend to cross state boundaries, however, and there is thus a need for police to liaise and cooperate. It was exactly this point that prompted the first IACP meeting in Chicago in 1893. If the chiefs do not cooperate, share information, and develop joint services, as well as perform a collective leadership role for the police occupation within the country, federal bureaucrats will see, and indeed have seen, the opportunity to fill the gap and expand their empires at the expense of the police service. As a result, the potential for

occupational erosion is always present.

The IACP, in the sense that it represents a cooperative enterprise of police chiefs, including common services, is a guide to Australian chief police officers if they are to stem the occupational erosion that has already commenced in their country. It is also a matter for considerable criticism that they have not been able to get together in previous decades in order to provide mutual help on a continuing and professional basis. A small secretariat has been set up by the police commissioners to service their annual conference. This secretariat could provide the nucleus of an administrative bureau of an association of Australian commissioners of police. Such a move is highly desirable and should be commenced at the earliest possible moment.

The Australian model would be better utilised as a joint command organisation rather than a professional association. The principle of cooperation, of course, still applies. Its permanent organisation should be headed by senior state police officers of commissioner rank on a rotating basis. Such an officer would be authorised to make general statements on behalf of the police occupation as a whole. Membership would be strictly confined to the commissioners of state police forces. The other desperate need at the present is a planning and policy bureau, in which *supra* or interstate perspectives could be applied to broad-based problems affecting the police service. Out of such an enterprise could spring regional squads of various types to which the obstacles of state boundaries could be

simply overcome without the necessity for an unnecessary and costly federal police organisation.

The relevance of the IACP to Australia then, is not so much as an exact model, but as an example of the potential that exists for free cooperation between Australia's state police. In Australia, however, the primary emphasis should be on occupational management and only secondarily on occupational advocacy.

It remains to be seen whether the new breed of police commissioners which has emerged in Australia in recent years is capable of taking up this particular challenge.

NOTES

- ¹ 1977. *International Association of Chiefs of Police*. Gaithersburg, MD: International Association of Chiefs of Police, p.2.
- ² 1968. THOMPSON J.L. 'Uniform Crime Reporting: Historical IACP Landmark'. *Police Chief*, v.35 #2 (Feb): 28.
- ³ Nd. *Advancing the Art of Police Science Around the World*. Gaithersburg, MD: International Association of Chiefs of Police, p.2.
- ⁴ *Ibid.*, p.3.
- ⁵ 1977. *International Association of Chiefs of Police*, op. cit., p.3.

- ⁶ Article 1, s.2(a) constitution of IACP.
- ⁷ 1978. SMITH R.D. 'The International Association of Chiefs of Police, Inc. Its Origin, History, Organisation, and Work'. *Police Studies*, v.1 #1 (Mar): 26-27.
- ⁸ *Ibid.*, p.28.
- ⁹ 1977. International Association of Chiefs of Police, *op. cit.*, p.4.
- ¹⁰ 1978. SMITH, *op. cit.*, pp.32-33.
- ¹¹ 1977. International Association of Chiefs of Police, *op. cit.*, p.12.
- ¹² *Constitution*, Article 1, s.2a.
- ¹³ 1978. MURPHY P.V. *Remarks Made Before the Police Executive Research Forum*. Americana Hotel, New York City, (10 Oct).
- ¹⁴ 1977. MURPHY P.V. *Commissioner, a View From the Top of American Law Enforcement*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster, p.95.
- ¹⁵ 1970. TURNER W.W. *Hoover's FBI, the Men and the Myth*. Los Angeles, CA: Sherbourne Press, p.225 *et passim*.

POLICE BOARDS/ COMMISSIONS

The police-commission structure is found in some part of the United States, and it has several variations in structure and responsibility. One of the versions of the police-commission concept is the small group of part-time officials (usually an odd number) appointed by the city council or mayor. The police commission is often given responsibility for the promulgation of rules and regulations and for the administration of personnel rules, with duties similar to those of a civil service commission. In some cases the police commission is an appeal body only for disciplinary and personnel matters, and in other instances it has direct statutory control over the entire operations of the department. There is little justification for the existence of a police commission if it is given any responsibilities other than those of acting as an appeal board or as a civil service or personnel-regulating body.

Wilson & McLaren, 1972

CHAPTER THREE

BOARDS and commissions as either administrative or control devices have been widely used in American state and local government administration over many years. The wide variety of forms and functions adopted by such bodies over the century and a half they have existed indicates that either the concept is a confused one or that a number of discrete concepts operate under these two labels.

Police commissions were evident early in modern police history. London's metropolitan police force started in 1829 with a two person executive commission, that is, Rowan and Mayne. South Australia's Police force also started with a police commission in 1838 which lasted until 1840 and comprised four persons. In this case, though, the commission was more a political control and policy mechanism as a chief police officer was appointed as executive head of the force itself.¹ In England and Wales, watch committees of the various local government councils generally provided the major early political control mechanisms on police, and this was also the case in America. In England and Wales, these committees have survived in the form of police authorities to the present day but

in America, where they were known as police committees, they were almost totally superseded by police boards by the end of the third quarter of the nineteenth century.

Raymond Fosdick, who has written the only authoritative historical account of police boards in the United States, has speculated that a number of different factors operated to bring about their introduction.² Certainly, boards for schools and poor relief had long existed in both Britain and America. It may be the case that boards were a logical extension of the committee system. Perhaps they were the product of an ongoing process that is not now clear to us. One speculation is that their origin was influenced by the watch committees established in England and Wales under the *Municipal Corporations Act* 1835. This possibility seems rather remote as the British watch committees were directly comparable to the American police committees which preceded police boards. All in all, it would seem that different permutations of factors operated in different locations but, as Bruce Smith makes clear, general dissatisfaction with the political nature of police committees was an important and universal consideration.³

Regardless of the nature of the factors involved, the first reference to a police board in America seems to have occurred in New York in 1844. The reference was contained in a Bill, which was not passed, but which was designed to reorganise the police department. The recommended board was to have consisted of the superintendent, two sub-superintendents, and a

director, that is, one officer for each of the four police districts. In 1850, a similar Bill was successful in Philadelphia where the marshall and a number of lieutenants were required to form an executive police board in order to 'make such useful rules and regulations as may be required and to keep a chief police station in the city of Philadelphia'.⁴ Shortly after the Philadelphia example, police boards became the administrative fashion, although they were almost entirely staffed by nonpolice, except for chiefs sitting in an *ex officio* capacity. New York finally followed suit in 1853. Similarly, according to Fosdick:

New Orleans adopted the plan in 1853, creating a board consisting of the mayor and the recorders of the city. Cincinnati adopted it in 1859 providing for a board of four appointed by the mayor, the police judge, and the city auditor. In the same year San Francisco established a board of three, consisting of the police judge, the president of the board of supervisors and the chief of police serving *ex officio*. Detroit's board was established in 1861, made up of the mayor and two persons appointed by the common council. Boards were established in St Louis and Kansas City in 1861, in Buffalo and Cleveland in 1866, in Richmond, Atlanta and other southern cities in the decade beginning 1870. In the years that followed, with the exception of Philadelphia, there was hardly an important city in the country but that experimented in some fashion or other with a police board. The modifications of the plan were of infinite variety. Boards were

made up of local officers serving ex officio or of outsiders. They ranged in size from boards of two, as in Cleveland to boards of twelve as in Atlanta. They were chosen by popular elections, by district elections, by council elections, and by appointment at the hands of mayors, governors, judges, or groups of officials. Occasionally the law named the specific persons to serve on the board, as in New York in 1864 and Detroit in 1865. In political complexion, boards were partisan, non-partisan, or bi-partisan. In some cases they constituted an integral part of the city government, rising and falling with an administration; in other cases they were independent of any municipal official or their terms of office were not coincident with an existing political regime. The powers of the boards ranged from mere advisory duties to absolute authority. In some cities these powers were measured by the responsibilities imposed; in others full responsibility was exacted, while powers were shared with different branches of the municipal government.

Although police boards became popular administrative and control mechanisms during the nineteenth century, their influence on the development of the American police service is uncertain. This fact is no doubt in part due to their tremendous variety. Indeed, it is impossible to trace any particular developmental theme during this period.

During the 1860s, there developed a trend toward state control of United States

police forces. At the same time, the fashion started of making boards responsible for a variety of city departments, a fashion that continues strongly in California to this day. Numerous police forces were placed under state control either immediately prior to or during the civil war, for example, the police forces in Baltimore, St Louis, Kansas City, St Joseph, Chicago, and Detroit. In each case, police boards of varying composition were created. In some cases, particularly Kansas City and St Louis, the motivation was to ensure control of organisations possessing strong southern sympathies.

After the American Civil War the popularity of state police boards continued and expanded, although such boards were often short lived. In some cases they lasted little more than a year. New Orleans acquired a state police board for nine years starting in 1868. The Cincinnati police department was controlled for three years from 1877 by a state police board. Omaha, Indianapolis, San Francisco and Charleston all followed suit in 1887, 1883, and 1897 respectively. Similar systems operated in 14 Indiana cities from 1897 through 1909. Of the country's largest cities, Boston was the last to receive a state police board, in 1885, although it actually had a city police board from 1878 on. Police was the last of that city's departments to be placed under a commission.⁵ In 1906, the three person board was reduced to one. The surviving commissioner was made the executive head of the department and thus integral to it rather than being placed above it as had previously been the case. The chief of the

Boston police department is styled commissioner to this day.

Reasons for the decline of state police boards varied. They ranged from dissatisfaction with the intrusion of state politics into local police boards to a desire for local control, a sentiment which came to be considered a superior principle of public administration.

According to Fosdick, changes of control from city to state and back again had no effect in reducing political intrusion into, and corruption of, police activities. If partisans are appointed to boards, regardless at which level, 'no mechanical organisation or form of administrative machinery can be made proof against partisan practices if partisans themselves are set to run it'.⁶ There is no evidence to suggest that one type of police board or commission produced better results than another.

Quite apart from the inability of most boards to keep politics out of police affairs, the problem existed of diffusing responsibility for a department's operation among a group of persons of equal rank. Leadership is not easily exercised under such circumstances. This point was an essential weakness of those boards possessing managerial authority. As expressed by Governor Guild of Massachusetts when advocating the virtual demise of the Boston police state board, 'inefficiency if not disaster, follows divided responsibility in the control of any organised body of men, where discipline and *esprit de corps* must be the

mainspring of success'.⁷ By 1917, only 14 of the 52 cities with populations over 100,000, and which at one time or another had some form of board or commission control of police still had them. In all other instances, police organisations had reverted to a single chief executive fully responsible for his agency's performance.

However, since then a number of cities have moved back to one form of board control or another. As Fosdick comments, the history of police administration in America is one of ceaseless change and experiment, unlike the stability that widely exists elsewhere.⁸ However, in later instances, care has generally been taken to have an identifiable chief executive officer who is responsible in defined areas to the police board, where one exists.

The history of police boards is remarkably varied. Some boards have disappeared completely while others have existed for well over a century. Some disappeared, only to reappear later in a different form. Some were designed solely as a form of police control comprising only nonpolice officials. Others consisted of both police and civilians. Yet others were composed either solely of civilians or police officers (or a combination of both) but were administratively responsible for running the police department. It would seem that the title of commissioner, as applying to chief police officers in both England and Wales and America today, descends from the use of commissions, that is, bodies of more than one person designed to either control or administer an agency.⁹

Rowan and Mayne would seem to be the fore-runners in England. It is impossible to say who led the way in USA.

During the time Teddy Roosevelt was a member of the New York Board of Police Commissioners he, in typical fashion, formed strong views on the ineffectiveness of multi-headed bodies exercising administrative responsibility for a police force. His argument, taken to its logical conclusion, favours the efficiency of a single police chief executive officer. This view was, of course, not without its critics who were concerned with police chiefs' immunity from citizen and political influence.¹⁰

Roosevelt's view became increasingly widespread as the twentieth century elapsed, to the extent that many police boards disappeared and those which remained tended to be politically bipartisan control bodies with fairly limited powers. This development has not, however, been uniform and there are marked variations from location to location. Specific incidents, such as the Summerdale corruption scandal in Chicago and trends, such as the increasing emphasis on civil rights and equal employment opportunities which began in the late 1960s, have lent a new life and purpose to some of the remaining police boards. Not unnaturally, police personnel generally resent the presence of police boards and commissions, particularly where they possess the power to intrude into policy-making and even operational areas. John Kenney represents the service view when he refers to police commissions as anachronism in modern administration.¹¹ Wilson and McLaren, as

can be seen from the quote at the beginning of this chapter, see little justification for police commissions other than as appeal boards.¹²

Having looked briefly at the origins and development of police boards or commissions it is now appropriate to look at them, within a contemporary context.

CURRENT SITUATION IN USA

To the best of my knowledge there has been no comprehensive study of police boards and commissions as they operate in the USA today. Thus, a quite arbitrary presentation of major boards/commissions is made by way of six very brief case studies. No claims are made for typicality. Indeed, my main impression when visiting different boards was that of lack of uniformity. Each board or commission seems to have a quite different approach to its tasks, different permutations of responsibilities, and different degrees of impact.

The police boards discussed here are those in Detroit, Milwaukee, Chicago, St Louis, Los Angeles, and San Francisco.

Detroit

The Detroit Board of Police Commissioners is a five person body serving at the mayor's pleasure, subject to city council approval. Each commissioner serves a five year term with one term expiring each year.

The Detroit city charter requires that as nearly as possible the board shall be representative of the total community. Members are paid \$3,000 per annum and the chairperson \$3,500 per annum.

The Detroit police board is vested with supervisory authority over the functions of the police department. The duties of the Board are defined as:

- . in consultation with the chief of police, and with the approval of the mayor, establish policies, rules, and regulations
- . review and approve the departmental budget before its submission to the mayor
- . receive and resolve any complaint concerning the operation of the police department
- . act as final authority in imposing or reviewing discipline of employees of the department
- . make an annual report to the mayor, the city council, and the public, of the department's activities during the previous year, including the handling of crime and complaints, and of future plans.¹³

Meetings of the Board, which are held weekly, are held in both executive and public sessions. Most of the Board's work is settled in public session. Executive sessions are permissible only when business

is of a confidential nature, for example, labour relations, personnel, pending litigation.

The Board is seen very much in Detroit as an avenue permitting community influence in police administration and policy development. Public discussion covers a wide range of issues during the Board's monthly meetings, ranging from subjects such as the training of detention guards, through general orders relating to the disciplinary code, to regulations detailing uniforms and appearance. Community interest groups, based mainly on class and ethnic affiliations, become closely involved in discussions bearing on their interests. The Board does not have the power to direct the chief in his operations, although it may in relation to policy matters. When an impasse occurs between the Board and the chief, a rare event in Detroit, the matter is referred to the mayor for resolution.

The Detroit Police Commission has a small staff of its own which is headed by an executive secretary. This staff has a small staff of independent investigators, a characteristic not present in other commissions. This investigative element ensures the Board considerable independence and effectiveness.

Milwaukee

The Milwaukee Fire and Police Commission is primarily a policy determining body comprising five bipartisan members appointed by the mayor, with common council approval.

Members receive a salary of \$1,320 per annum.¹⁴ Statutory provisions governing the Fire and Police Commission are contained in Chapter 21 of the *Milwaukee City Charter* 1971. The Board's responsibilities include administration, recruitment, personnel selection, citizen complaint processing, and appeal hearings, in respect of both police and fire departments. It also undertakes a general responsibility for research and statistics and criminal justice.

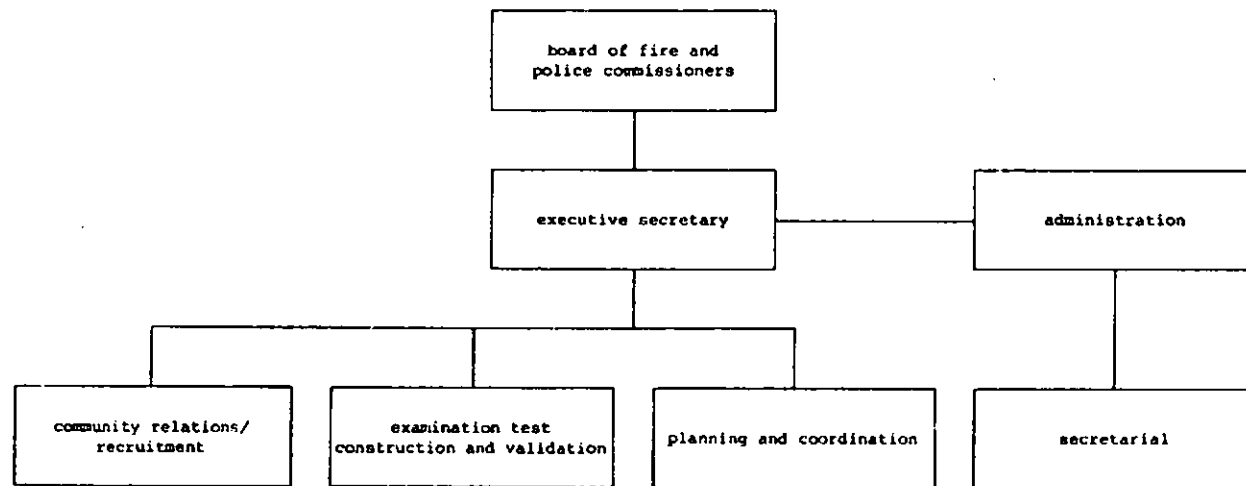
The chief of staff for the Commission is the executive secretary who is supported by a staff of five full-time and a number of part time employees. The Board's organisational structure is shown in Figure 4.

The Milwaukee Fire and Police Commission is historically interesting in that it was established in 1885, which makes it the oldest civil service authority in the state of Wisconsin. The legislation providing for its existence was the first of its kind to be enacted in the United States. As a civil service law, it was preceded only by adoption of the *Pendleton Act* which created the United States Civil Service Commission in 1883.¹⁵

Originally, the Commission comprised four members; it was increased to five in 1911. The Commission has functioned continuously for 93 years, subject to only minor changes in its enabling legislation.

It will be seen from the list of its responsibilities that the Commission is *inter alia* a civil service commission. In order to enable it to consistently and

FIGURE 4
FIRE AND POLICE COMMISSION, MILWAUKEE, ORGANISATION



(adapted from FPC annual report, 1976)

effectively carry out its civil service responsibilities, the Board has adopted rules of procedure. It determines hiring policy, sets standards and qualifications of entry, conducts affirmative action hiring programs, holds entrance examinations where required, and conducts oral interviews. No one may be appointed to either the fire or police department without the Commission's approval.

Recruitment in the USA in recent years has been subject to federal equal employment opportunity legislation. This legislation makes provision for fair living practices with respect to females, ethnic minorities, and other disadvantaged groups. In order that the Board meets its responsibilities in those areas, it has appointed a community relations specialist to assist it. This officer also has a responsibility for investigating complaints against members.

Just as recruitment criteria are now required to be validly established, so are selection criteria for promotion. Recent legal and administrative provisions require that selection devices be job-related and valid. Considerable statistical expertise is necessary in such matters which have to be addressed over a period of years. A research psychologist has thus been appointed to meet these requirements.

When either the positions of fire chief or police chief become vacant, the Board is responsible for determining the qualifications desired, setting the required examination, and deciding upon any other details of appointment. Once confirmed in

office, the chiefs have legal authority to regulate their respective organisations and issue rules for the governance of their personnel and their behaviour. Chiefs can only be fired for cause. In Milwaukee, the chief of police has life tenure.

The Commission also serves as the classification authority for both fire and police departments.

Fire and police personnel discharged, demoted, or suspended for more than five days by their respective chief officer have a right of appeal to the Commission. Appeals are heard publicly, the Board having a quasi judicial function in such cases. Members with successful appeals are automatically reappointed to their previous position. In the event of an unsuccessful appeal, the Board may vary the chief's punishment. The Board's findings and decisions pertaining to appeals are subject to review only by the circuit court.

Provision is made in the city legislation for reputable freeholders to complain against a chief officer or his subordinates with a view to their removal. In such cases, the accused must be suspended by the Commission. The Commission then conducts an investigation and trial in conformity with legal prescription.

Milwaukee electors may make complaints against police and fire officers. Again, the Board is responsible for investigation and trial in conformity with the provisions of the relevant law and its own rules. The Board prepared a special set of rules which

were approved in 1969 and 1970 in order to improve its efficacy in such matters. These rules were further amended in 1972 to provide for conciliation meetings as appropriate within the investigation process. This provision was made in response to a widespread view among electors that public hearings were not always necessary but that conciliation hearings were often sufficient to achieve satisfaction.

The Commission, as an additional service, provides staff support for the mayor's criminal justice coordinating council. This is a body designed to coordinate and rationalise the city's various criminal justice agencies.

Chicago

The present Chicago Police Board is a recent creation within the history of police commissions, being formed only in 1960. Legislative provisions are contained in Chapter 11 of the *Municipal Code of Chicago*. It has the added distinction of being, to the best of my knowledge, the only police board in recent times to have been extensively commented upon in writing.¹⁶

It has the usual five members plus a small staff consisting of a secretary and a clerical assistant. Members are mayoral appointments having staggered terms of office of five years each. No remuneration is afforded members, who meet monthly.

The origin of the Chicago Police Board was briefly referred to earlier in this

chapter. Early in 1960, the Chicago Police Department was rocked by the Summerdale scandal, in which some of its officers were found to have operated a burglary ring. Mayor Daley's response to this embarrassment was to form a committee to locate a new superintendent possessing the capacity to reform the department. Orlando Wilson, a member of that committee, was nominated as the best qualified person. The mayor favoured Wilson's appointment as superintendent but was constrained by an Illinois law which prescribed that Chicago's police superintendent must have resided in the city for 'at least one year'.¹⁷ As told by Frank Knoohuizen:

The problem was solved by passing in March 1960 a new city ordinance governing the police department. The new ordinance created a police board which was given 'power to supervise and control the department and to make and enforce all necessary and desirable rules therefore, and direct the superintendent of police in the management of the department'. The effect of this ordinance was to give the newly created board the power to run the Chicago police department, with a superintendent to act as chief administrator of the department 'under the direction of the board'. Since three of the five police board members were required to be residents of Chicago, the statutory residence requirement for the 'head' of the department was formally met. Under this arrangement the police superintendent was not required to have been a resident of Chicago for a year, that requirement applied only to the

head of the police department, which in this case was the police board. The way was clear for the city to hire Orlando W. Wilson as superintendent.¹⁸

Once Wilson was formally appointed, and he had completed a year's residence in the windy city, the Board became redundant. However, the new superintendent and the city administration decided that a police board had something to offer and so it was reconstituted in terms of responsibilities. These were fourfold:

- when a vacancy occurs in the position of superintendent of police, it shall nominate three candidates to fill the position and submit the nominations to the mayor
- adopt rules and regulations for the governance of the police department of the city
- prepare and submit to the budget director of the city the annual budget of the police department¹⁹
- serve as a board to hear disciplinary actions involving officers and civilian employees of the police department in the classified civil service of the city.²⁰

The legislation goes on to specify that the powers listed above do not authorise the Board 'to administer or direct the operations of the police department or the superintendent of police'.²¹ While this proviso carefully delimits the Board's authority,

its requirement to approve the departmental budget must inevitably give it considerable leverage in the case of disagreements with the superintendent in the event of impasse.

St Louis

The Board of Police Commissioners of St Louis, Missouri, is composed of the usual five members. These members who are appointed by the state governor, receive a \$1,000 per annum honorarium. They are all city residents and serve for a period of four years. Under Missouri law, cities with populations in excess of 500,000 are required to have their mayor as the fifth commissioner. This requirement is important as St Louis has one of the relatively few remaining state-appointed police boards. Altogether, there are three such boards in Missouri. The city nevertheless has to finance the department even though it has no control over its budget. The mayor's presence on the Board thus serves a useful purpose in that it lets him place the city's view during the budget preparation phase. His presence also means that the other Board members serve four rather than five years each.

The Board is supported by a small secretariat headed by the secretary. Under the secretary's control the day to day affairs of the Board are conducted. The Board is responsible for the appointment of the chief of police. Once appointed the chief is only dismissable for cause. Among its responsibilities the Board acts as a departmental trial board. The only appeal

possible against the Commission's decision lies to the city court. The Board is closely involved with police administration, for example, it prepares the budget and reviews departmental policy. Board meetings, which are held monthly, are open to the public and all administrative policies and plans are discussed in open session. Technically at least the Board of Police Commissioners has the final say in all matters in which it exercises responsibility. As a result of personal observation, it is my view that the St Louis police commission exercises considerable influence in the department's policy formulation, administration, and community relations.

Los Angeles

Los Angeles, too, has a five person Board of Police Commissioners - each of whom serves a five year term. Commissioners, who are appointed by the mayor with city council approval, receive a maximum of \$1,200 per annum for attendance at commission meetings. According to a departmental publication the chief of police, who serves as general manager of the department, is immediately accountable to the Board.²²

As indicated previously, boards and/or commissions have not always been confined to police departments. In some local governments, each of a city's departments are placed under the control and management of boards of up to five commissioners. This tradition is strong in California and is enshrined, in the case of Los Angeles police

and other city agencies, in the city charter.²³

The Board of Police Commissioners of the city of Los Angeles is a fairly old institution going back at least to the turn of the century. It is thought by some members of the department that the police board is in part at least a reflection of an old Los Angeles tradition of city involvement in crime prevention and self help in the face of outlawry. For whatever reason, the Los Angeles and other Californian police boards exercise a range of regulatory activities not enjoyed by police commissions elsewhere in the United States.

Under the city's charter, the Board is empowered to supervise, regulate, and control the activities of the police department. In pursuance of these and other aims the Board has numerous responsibilities including the appointment of the chief of police. It may also remove the chief for failure to comply with instructions, incompetence, dishonesty, discourtesy, or neglect of duty. The Board:

... is charged with the responsibility to protect the public's life, property and economic interest. To carry out its regulatory function as head of the department and to ensure adequate police protection, the board of police commissioners may establish training curriculum for the department, devise and enforce rules and regulations, and in general, oversee the activities of the department The board is empowered to and does perform many regulatory functions to

ensure that business activities are conducted in a manner which is both fair and safe for the public. The board does issue, control and revoke various business permits, such as towing operations, auto repairmen, repossessioners, junk dealers, etc. The board appoints hearing examiners who hear citizen complaints regarding business operations. The hearing examiner may make recommendations to the board to issue, deny, suspend or revoke business permits. Additionally, the police commission has an investigative body in the commission investigation division. The commission investigation division routinely investigates business applications and citizen complaints about unfair or dishonest business practices.²⁴

In addition to all the above, commission personnel are responsible for ensuring that citizen complaints against police officers are properly investigated and resolved. A listing of the sources and extent of the authority and responsibility of the Board of Police Commissioners is given in Annex D.

More so than is the case in other states, the Los Angeles Police Board exercises a control over the department which even intrudes into operational spheres. The city's well known basic car plan was jointly implemented by the Board and the chief as a contribution to the department's community relations program.

To support the Board in all its varied responsibilities there is a small secretariat of five persons which is managed by the executive secretary. The secretariat also

has a financial secretary. The commission has its own large investigation division of investigators seconded from the police department. There is a move afoot to provide the Commission with its own investigation staff, as is the case in Detroit, to avoid possible conflict of interest situations for departmental personnel, for example, if the Commission was in an impasse situation with the chief.

The secretariat services the Commission's weekly meetings, prepares materials, schedules matters for hearing, prepares agenda, and runs the office.

San Francisco

Like Los Angeles, some San Francisco government departments are headed by commissions. The San Francisco Police Department is placed under the management of the Police Commission by virtue of s.3.530, *Charter of the City and County of San Francisco* 1932. This has been the case at least since 1878.²⁵ The five person Commission, members of which are paid \$1,200 per annum each, is unique in that it is forbidden, except for the most pressing reasons, to hold executive sessions. This situation is the result of a recent decision by the state's attorney general.

The Police Commission has a seconded sergeant as its secretary. He is supported by an office staff of three. The Commission's broad purpose is to provide the department with general policy guidelines. It has a variety of specific tasks and

powers, such as appointing and - if necessary - firing the chief of police. It also has the power to direct the chief while he is in office.

Regular Commission meetings are held each Wednesday afternoon at the Hall of Justice. While the San Francisco Police Commission's range of responsibilities is nowhere near as great as those exercised by the Los Angeles commission, it nevertheless is empowered to deal with a considerable number of tasks including licensing. The sorts of agenda items likely to be heard by the Commission at one of its weekly meetings include:

- Requests for the installation of parking zones
- Transfers of certificates of public convenience and necessity (taxicabs, limousines, jitney buses, and sightseeing buses)
- Requests from members of the department for:

Leave of absence without pay

Leave of absence with pay

Permission to attend police conferences

Permission to institute civil suit against individuals or companies for injuries received by a member while in the performance of police duty

Permission for members to

accept rewards for services rendered in the performance of police duty.²⁶

The Police Commission is responsible also for acting as a departmental trial board, approving contingent and narcotic unit expenditures, approving the departmental budget, and approving departmental rules and expenditure. San Francisco has recently introduced a radically new scheme of special police patrol officers. While under the jurisdiction of the police department, these special officers are remunerated by individuals and companies on their beat for whom they provide protective services. Whereas regular police officers are recruited by the city and county's Civil Service Commission, the special officers enter employment through the Police Commission.

THE NATURE OF POLICE BOARDS/COMMISSIONS

The reader will by now have gathered that references to police commissions in this chapter have not been to commissions of inquiry such as the Wickersham Commission in the United States or Royal Commissions in the British style. Commissions of this type are formed for a fixed period to address a specific inquiry or problem. Police commissions as discussed here are bodies possessing an ongoing existence and which exercise prescribed responsibilities in relation to the host department.

The terms commission and board have been used here interchangeably as they are

both employed to indicate similar phenomena. Indeed, even the members and staff of the various boards and commissions refer to themselves by either title with equal facility.

In answer to the query raised in the opening paragraph of this chapter it can be said, in relation to the United States at least, that the concept is indeed a confused one as the nature and functions of the various police commissions mentioned vary greatly. Three basic categories of police boards/commissions seem to have emerged over the years:

- 1 Executive boards. These are designed to run a department, usually comprise police or police and city officials, and are integral to the department.
- 2 Oversighting boards. These are designed to exercise limited non-operational functions, often involving civil service commission functions, including policy approval, public complaints and disciplinary appeals. They comprise one or more appointed civilian members and are superimposed on the department.
- 3 Management boards. These are designed to operate in a manner somewhat similar to the board of directors of a commercial undertaking. They comprise one or more appointed civilian members, and sometimes exercise particular

functions in their own right, for example, licensing powers. They are superimposed on the department.

Of course, the latter two categories are not the only form of superimposed control placed upon police forces. In those jurisdictions where town or city managers operate, or departments of public safety exist, the chief of police may be operationally as well as administratively accountable to public officers superordinate to him. However, with regard to the three categories of police commissions itemised above, the first - at a formal level - has to the best of my knowledge become largely extinct in the United States police service in modern times. The latter two categories are still alive and well, operating in and upon most of the nation's major police departments. The third category seems to be specific to California, reflecting styles of local government dominant in that state.

Police commissions are usually associated with larger United States police departments, which means that police commissions are relatively rare within the police service as a whole. Accordingly, the influence of the boards is not widespread. For example, a 1972 survey of cities having a population of more than 5,000 showed that of 1,774 chiefs, only 80 were appointed by independent boards.²⁷ Of course, in some other cities boards would have been responsible for providing the mayor, council, or manager with a shortlist, so that the influence of boards in the police service is not entirely measured in terms of their

ability to appoint chiefs. Even so, this fact does indicate that they constitute a relatively minor form of police control within the totality of such controls.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF POLICE BOARDS/ COMMISSIONS

Career police officers mostly tend to view police boards and commissions as unnecessary impositions on the managers of police organisations, and as such militating against police professionalism and competence. In California at least, numerous local government departments are subject to commission control although only the police department constitutes both a department and an occupational category at the same time.

Basically, commissions, however they are instituted and however chartered, appear to be maintained for three purposes. First, keeping political influence out of police administration. Second, permitting public influence into police policy making and administration both through the selected commissioners (all of whom are appointed either by mayors or governors) and through the channel they provide to interest groups for making their views known. Third, monitoring police efficiency and ethicality.

How successful police commissions are at achieving these informal ends is extremely difficult to say. Are, for example, such bodies in any way significant in the achievement of efficiency and

ethicality? Are they capable of excluding politics from policing? Do they all have the necessary tools to achieve their aims? Do they in fact meaningfully represent the public interest? Are they, perhaps, merely window dressing?

These and many other questions are not subject to definitive answers in this chapter as a great deal of detailed study would be necessary to provide them. The one study that has been attempted, that is, the Chicago study, judges the police commission in that city to be a failure. However, the method employed in that study is open to considerable criticism, resorting as it did to a great deal of subjective judgment. The best that can be done here is to discuss the subject on the basis of limited observation of the boards presented and discussions with pertinent officials. Thus, any judgments will be no less subjective than those arrived at in relation to Chicago. The reader will, though, it is hoped, have a greater awareness of the subjectivity involved.

First, it must be said that the power to either appoint a chief of police or to limit the appointment to one of three candidates represents a very real situation of power in American local politics. The principle that five good citizens and true (or, four and a mayor in the case of St Louis and several other Missourian cities) are capable of making a relatively politically unbiased selection is suspect. Most commissions, by virtue of their rotating retirement policy are genuinely bipartisan in a political sense. Most mayors and

governors do not remain in office longer than five years. This fact ensures that a significant proportion of commissioners are usually not appointed by incumbent politicians. Thus there may be some benefit in their making certain decisions, such as the appointment of a chief. Of course, it can be argued that normal civil service bodies are better equipped than a group of lawyers and other concerned citizens to make personnel and other decisions. Perhaps so, but civil service commissions too are not always as free of political influence as they should be.

The power of police boards to control or direct the chief of police varies greatly - upon their own sense of purpose and political strength as well as the political and/or public support enjoyed by the chief. For instance, the Los Angeles Police Commission, subsequent to a written examination, appointed Chief Ed Davis in 1969. It was never in a position to control him during his eight year term of office due to Davis' strong political support within the Republican Party. On the other hand, it is said by rank and file members of the department that his replacement, Chief Gates, has had to be more amenable to the Board's control in return for his selection. Chief Gates also lacks the political base enjoyed by Davis. In sum, it would seem from present indications that Chief Gates will indeed be more attentive to the Board's views than his predecessor.

It is my broad impression that police boards generally have little influence on police performance in the field. They have

certainly been unable to prevent graft or overcome incompetence where it occurs. Neither can they necessarily keep local politicians from exercising their influence within a police department. At the same time, some do have a direct influence on the chief, particularly where the jurisdiction has a strong mayor and weak city council structure. Thus, their influence in the administrative area can be considerable. But as all administrators are well aware, there are considerable lags between the 'formal-actual' and the 'informal-actual' in most organisations.²⁸

The Los Angeles Police Department has enjoyed a high reputation for probity and competence for many years. The San Francisco Police Department, which is also controlled by a police commission, has not had such a high reputation for competence and honesty.²⁹ Both departments are subject to police commissions which are viewed as boards of management rather than overseeing boards; and yet one department has a high reputation whilst the other has, at best, a neutral reputation in the police community. Perhaps the calibre of Los Angeles commissioners is collectively superior to that of their northern colleagues. Perhaps not. Who can say? But it can be said, on even this trivial evidence, that police boards *per se* do not necessarily make the difference between high performance and probity and their opposites.

If it is public policy that citizen complaints against police should be monitored by some organisation, and that either an outside police trial board is necessary or

that internal trial boards should be monitored then, police commissions are obvious and available (in some locations) bodies to accept such responsibility. Even Wilson and McLaren see no objection to such an arrangement.

The significance of the large number of lawyers present on these boards has, I am sure, not been lost on police. One advantage of the presence of such legal presence is that there is no lack of forensic expertise on police boards. Perhaps arrangements will be made one of these days whereby police officers may serve on bar councils!

A universal responsibility of 'over-seeing' and 'managing' type police boards is that departmental instructions, rules and general orders require the approval of police commissions. This authority represents a very real constraint on the chief in his development and implementation of policy. However, in terms of actual police behaviour and operations, this form of control has little public impact generally. The responsibility to approve budgets is another area in which police commissioners exercise ostensible power, but which, in the light of political and economic realities, is not as great as it appears. Once again, such a responsibility has the potential to serve as a minor constraint on the chief rather than as a fully effective brake. If the chief is corrupt or inefficient, there seems little that most commissions can do. Even if there is a power to fire for cause, such dismissals can be appealed to the city or circuit court and dragged out for years.

All in all, police boards and commissions represent an interesting form of independent control of police departments and an avenue for the introduction of public interest into police policy making. Their conduct and formation varies considerably from place to place. Universally, though, at a formal level, they exercise certain powers which can place a degree of control on the chief of police. In practice, this control does not seem to be widely apparent although there are exceptions. Some commissions also provide licensing or civil service functions, both of which would seem to be more appropriately performed by other, more appropriate and specialised agencies.

The origin of police boards and commissions in the United States reflects the early lack of professionalism in the police service as well as the climate of political jobbery which prevailed last century and well into the present one. But most of them have now existed so long that they can be accused of impeding that very professionalism they were no doubt originally supposed to encourage. Most working police have very little to do with police commissioners. Those who do feel that their influence on departments generally is very limited. I suspect, even so, that their influence is greater than realised but, is still not sufficient to make a poorly performing department perform well, or a dishonest department behave honestly. One police chief remarked to me after attending a police board meeting that he felt rather like D'Artagnan with his back to the wall. He said that: 'Courts are so busy erecting constraints on police, such as commissions,

review boards, complaints boards and so on', that his ability to govern his department effectively was impaired. At the same time, one has to recognise that such constraints are sometimes the result of poor police performance in the first instance. Perhaps, rather than checks and balances, what is needed is more positive governmental encouragement for good police management, such as subsidising the training of police administrators to levels comparable with those obtaining in other occupations.

In this sense, police commissions can be seen to be impeding the growth of police professionalism. Whether, in fact, this and other disadvantages outweigh whatever benefits they achieve is not possible to say. Any judgment on the point which is not based on good empirical evidence must necessarily be entirely subjective. Nevertheless, it is my impression that controlling and managing boards are really interesting anachronisms and that their beneficial functions, such as permitting public access to police policy making, can be better effected by alternative means.

IMPLICATIONS FOR AUSTRALIA

Apart from the one brief experiment in South Australia with what was essentially an overseeing board, Australia has had no experience of police commissions. Controls on police have been largely political, exercised in colonial days by the governor or premier and, in more modern times, by either a minister responsible for police or

a police minister. Legal limitations on police are contained in legislation and the common law.

However, the concept of the executive board, long dead in America, has been widely discussed in recent years in Australia. This Australian interest in commissions appears to reflect three major concerns. First, the problems of accountability facing a single head or chief in the light of all the formal and informal constraints now operating; second, the poor calibre of some chief executives; and third, the complexity of modern organisations and the difficulty of top level decision-making now required to achieve satisfactory levels of organisational leadership and administrative and operational effectiveness. In a nutshell, it would seem, proponents of executive type commissions are saying that committee type decisions are better because inputs are increased and responsibility decreased. Teddy Roosevelt was instrumental in the decline of executive commissions in the United States early this century by reason of his argument that effective organisational leadership cannot be effected by multiple heads. We in Australia are close to going full circle. It should be remembered, however, that Roosevelt's commissioners were civilians operating at a time when issues and organisations were far simpler than they are today. Australian governments have long utilised commissions in relation to services other than police, for example, the Fire Brigades Commission of Tasmania and the New South Wales Board of Fire Commissioners. Both these commissions, though, are of the

overseeing type. Recently, in the wake of a Royal Commission into New South Wales prisons,³⁰ that state's Corrective Services Department was placed under the direct control of an executive commission, comprising three full-time and two part-time commissioners. It has even been rumoured that the New South Wales Police Department came close to being placed under the aegis of an executive commission several years ago. The commission concept generally is now attracting a good deal of interest and it is not beyond possibility that some police departments, particularly those in which top management performance becomes unacceptably poor, will acquire one eventually.

Police opponents of executive type commissions argue that in organisations such as police forces a single head is necessary to provide both clearly identifiable leadership and accountability. Proponents argue that very few Australian police chiefs in fact provide the dynamic leadership style suggested by their opponents, and that most police departments are just as bureaucratic as any other public agency. They also argue that the principle of personal accountability is so rarely exercised in Australia as to be practically meaningless.

Supporters of the status quo respond that police organisations are not solely routine oriented, as are most other government departments, but are also crisis oriented. This latter orientation, they claim, requires a single organisational head capable of making quick operational

decisions when circumstances require. Commission advocates point out that major crises such as the Granville rail disaster, flood rescues, and bush fire control are handled by local commanders and, where necessary, by specialists. Contingency plans exist in relation to most types of crisis and the head of the organisation has no necessary operational role to play. In fact, he is best not involved for a variety of reasons. And, in any case, other emergency services operate under the control of commissions of one sort or another, for example, the fire and ambulance services.

Both sets of arguments are difficult to assess as neither side can be quite sure of its facts. No one knows what police should do, let alone what it is that they actually do. No one knows if the various crises dealt with by police require more than local or specialist leadership. In the absence of such knowledge neither argument has empirical support. If the argument is broadened to include overseeing or management commissions it becomes far more complex due to the problems involved in having non-responsible persons responsible for police policy formulation or approval. This difficulty seems unimportant at present, however, as only the executive type commission enjoys any following at all in respect of police.

But, with regard to the question of executive commissions or boards, the real question is whether police departments would function better with a commission than with a single chief as at present. In the event that it cannot be clearly shown that a

change to commission control would be beneficial, there is no reason to change. Such clear indications are not evident at this time.

It is clear that most Australian and New Zealand police chiefs have recognised the problems of decision-making and coordination in today's complex police organisations. Most, if not all, have frequent meetings of all senior ranks in which most policy matters are fully explored and decisions are usually made on a majority basis. The New Zealand police has gone further and formalised a Police Executive Conference which is held three times each year. The officers who attend this conference comprise a de facto board of management, which is rather similar in style to the management commission, with the exceptions that it is integral to the department and the chief still (nominally, at least) accepts final responsibility. As a single chief he also has the power to determine which matters go before the conference, and so the level of participation in decision-making exercised by his immediate juniors can be fairly easily controlled. The distinction between this mechanism and an executive commission is a fine one and, as departments increasingly use this type of policy and decision-making format, it will become even finer.

Opinion within the police service generally is opposed to the imposition of commissions. There is, though, some minority support for a commission type of government, based it would seem on an appreciation of the complexity of organisa-

tional management today, combined with an understanding of the insulation against community opinion that exists under present arrangements. One recent suggestion made by a serving officer proposed a management type board comprising the commissioner of police, one member nominated from within the force and one member nominated to represent the public.³¹ The contribution to improved police performance of such a body seems to me to be problematical at best.

In conclusion, judging by the performance of United States police boards and commissions, such good as they do is insufficient to warrant their existence. This judgment is admittedly based on the flimsiest of evidence and is obviously open to rebuttal. However, the extremely limited number of police commissions commenced in recent years - I know of only one - is perhaps an indication of their utility. Certainly, many of the things they do, such as their civil service commission and appeal reception functions can well be, and often are, performed more effectively by other specialist bodies.

In Australia, the only type of commission that seems at all likely to be employed in relation to police in the foreseeable future is the executive commission. Police themselves are moving toward this end by their unavoidable use of periodic high level management meetings. It seems that executive commission government in Australian police forces is more likely to occur by incremental means rather than as a matter of deliberate government policy as was the case with the New South Wales Department of

Corrective Services. It is always possible, of course, although not probable, that exceptionally poor performance by a commissioner of police could precipitate an executive commission type of departmental government.

NOTES

- ¹ 1972. *South Australian Police Department: Outline of the History and Function*. Adelaide: Government Printer, p.1.
- ² 1969. FOSDICK R.B. *American Police Systems*. Montclair, NJ: Patterson-Smith, p.76.
- ³ 1960. SMITH B. *Police Systems in the United States*, 2d. New York, NY: Harper & Row, p.183.
- ⁴ 1969. FOSDICK, *op. cit.*, pp.79-80.
- ⁵ 1967. LANE R. *Policing the City, Boston 1822-1885*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, pp.185, 197.
- ⁶ 1969. FOSDICK, *op. cit.*, p.101.
- ⁷ 1977. WALKER S. *A Critical History of Police Reform*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, p.47.
- ⁸ 1969. FOSDICK, *op. cit.*, p.109.
- ⁹ It is noted, though, that Sir John Fielding referred to police magistrates as 'commissioners'; see (1955) PRINGLE P. *Hue and*

Cry. London: Museum Press, p.188.

- ¹⁰ 1977. GOLDSTEIN H. *Policing a Free Society*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Co, p.133.
- ¹¹ 1972. KENNEY J.P. *Police Administration*. Springfield, IL: CC Thomas, p.19.
- ¹² 1972. WILSON O.W., McLAREN R.C. *Police Administration*, 3d. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, p.21.
- ¹³ S.7-1103, *Charter of the City of Detroit* (1974).
- ¹⁴ Nd. *Milwaukee Report*, p.97.
- ¹⁵ 1977. *Annual Report 1976*. Milwaukee, WI: Fire and Police Commission, p.6.
- ¹⁶ 1973. KNOOHUIZEN R. *Chicago Police Board*. Evanston, IL: Chicago Law Enforcement Study Group.
- ¹⁷ Chapter 24, s.9-87, *Illinois Revised Statutes 1961* (repealed).
- ¹⁸ 1973. KNOOHUIZEN, *op. cit.*, p.3.
- ¹⁹ Since amended to read 'review, approve, and submit'; s.11-3, *Municipal Code of Chicago*.
- ²⁰ S.11-3, *Municipal Code of Chicago*; Chapter 24, s.3-7-3.1 *Illinois Revised Statutes 1971*.
- ²¹ S.11-3, *Municipal Code of Chicago*; Chapter 24, s.3-7-3.1 *Illinois Revised*

132 *Police Institutions and Issues*

Statutes 1971.

- ²² 1977. *Historical Highlights*. Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles Police Department, p.16.
- ²³ S.70(a), *Charter of the City of Los Angeles*.
- ²⁴ Nd. *Functions and Responsibilities of the Police Commission*, (roneoed) p.2.
- ²⁵ S.7 *City Consolidation Act 1878*.
- ²⁶ Nd. *Police Commission*, (roneoed) p.2.
- ²⁷ 1972. *Municipal Yearbook*. Washington, DC: International City Management Association, p.276.
- ²⁸ 1975. MYREN R.A. 'The Role of the Police'. Pp.19-47 in H.W. More (ed), *Critical Issues in Law Enforcement*. Cincinnati, OH: W.H. Anderson & Co, p.27.
- ²⁹ 1977. MURPHY P.V. *Commissioner: A View from the Top of Law Enforcement*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster, p.50.
- ³⁰ 1978. NAGLE J.F. *Report of the Royal Commission into New South Wales Prisons*. Sydney: Government Printing Office.
- ³¹ 1978. BROOMBY I.C. *Would Police Boards of Management Improve the Efficiency and Effectiveness of Australian Police Forces?* (Roneoed).

SCHOOL OF POLICE ADMINISTRATION, LOUISVILLE

... the campus must be looked to for the police officers of the future. It is nonsense to state or to assume that the enforcement of the law is so simple a task that it can be done best by those unencumbered by an inquiring mind nurtured by a study of the liberal arts. The man who goes into our streets in hopes of regulating or controlling human behavior must be armed with more than a gun and the ability to perform mechanical movements in respect to a situation. Such men as these engage in the difficult, complex and important business of human behavior. Their intellectual armament - so long restricted to the minimum - must be no less than their physical prowess and protection.

Quinn Tamm, 1965

CHAPTER FOUR

THE School of Police Administration (SPA) at Louisville was established by the University of Louisville's Board of Trustees in July 1969. The School's origins are actually rooted in the Southern Police Institute (SPI), which is now a division of SPA. Prior to 1969, the only police oriented body within the University of Louisville was SPI. At that time, SPI was concerned, as it still is, with training police and other law enforcement personnel.

An accreditation committee of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools suggested in 1965 that SPA be formed within the University of Louisville and invested with degree-conferring powers. More precisely, the committee recommended that SPA implement courses leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Police Administration in addition to continuing SPI's Administrative Officers' Courses (AOC) and seminar program.

Thus, on 1 July 1969, after a four year gestation period, SPA commenced operations. It had at that time two divisions. The original SPI and the Division of Degree Programs. The National Crime Prevention Institute (NCPI) was formed within SPA

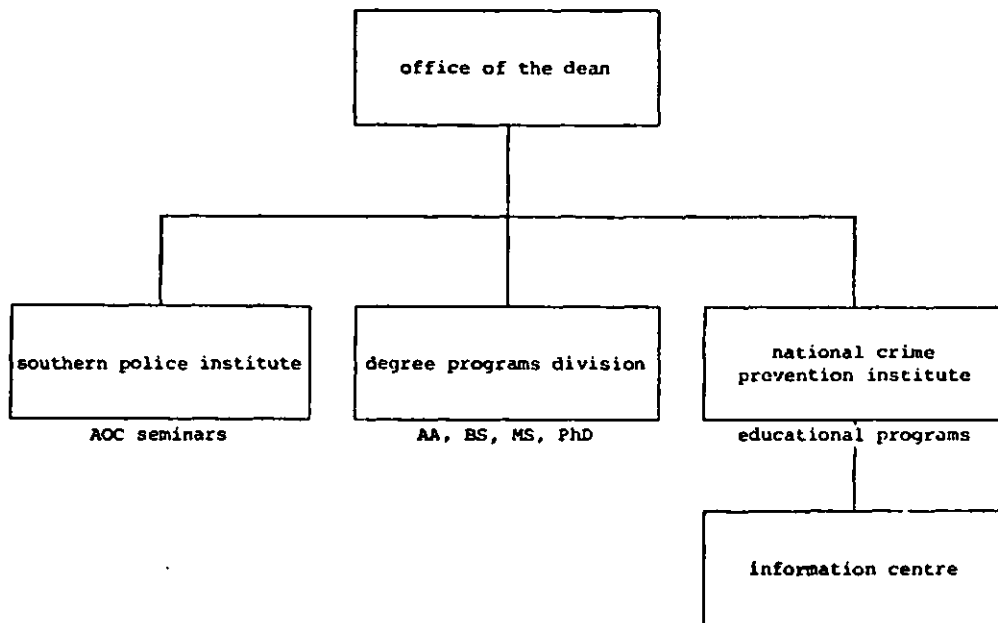
somewhat later, in 1971. SPA's present organisation is outlined in Figure 5. The first two divisions, that is, SPI and Degree Programs, together with the dean's office, are located on the Belknap campus, Louisville. NCPI is located some distance away on the Shelby campus in eastern Jefferson County.

In brief, the SPA coordinates three distinct sub-units: These are: the Southern Police Institute; the Division of Degree Programs; and the National Crime Prevention Institute.

The formal objectives of SPA are:

- To develop among students an understanding of the United States criminal justice system.
- To provide each student with an understanding of the functions of the agencies of criminal justice.
- To develop in each student a professional outlook, ability to cope with, weigh, analyse, and investigate problems in corrections and law enforcement and to make enlightened decisions.
- To stimulate each student's intellectual curiosity to develop the ability to reason logically, and to encourage consideration of ethical principles.
- To provide students with the necessary preparation for continuing

FIGURE 5
SPA, LOUISVILLE, ORGANISATION



future careers in administrative positions in the criminal justice system.

- . To provide a setting in which plans for research can be formulated and carried out, looking forward to the application of this research in teaching.
- . To educate students to maintain efficient law enforcement standards without infringing on the basic rights guaranteed to each individual by the federal constitution and by state constitutions and laws.
- . To assist in enhancing a public interest in the maintenance of professional criminal justice standards and to increase the confidence of citizens in the administration of justice.
- . To work with the faculties and staffs of other units of the University of Louisville toward the goal of making the University an outstanding repository of knowledge in the area of criminal justice.
- . To render services, when feasible and practicable, to agencies in the criminal justice system, so long as those services are consonant with the objectives of the University of Louisville and SPA.

This statement of objectives includes references to criminal justice, law enforce-

ment and, corrections. These basic themes indicate a concern with the preparation and production of professional standard criminal justice administrators, with an emphasis on law enforcement and corrections. Given such an aim, the word 'police' in SPAs nomenclature is rather inappropriate. One would have thought school of criminal justice administration more appropriate, although perhaps not so emotionally satisfying. In fact, the school itself has recommended a change to the university authorities. Technical difficulties have prevented a decision being given at the time of going to press.

With the widespread use of lateral entry being practised in many United States criminal justice agencies, it is not unrealistic to aim directly at the production of administrators through education. Even so, many young graduates, despite high qualifications, must expect to spend their early years in supervisory and executive positions before rising to administrative level.

The SPA has been headed since its inception by Dean J.C. Klotter, a former FBI agent. The Dean is ably aided by the Assistant Dean, R.R. Stevens, a former career provost officer. Together with a small support staff, these two officers are responsible for administering SPA and coordinating the activities of its various divisions.

SOUTHERN POLICE INSTITUTE

The Southern Police Institute commenced operating in 1951. Its first Director was Colonel D.A. McCandless who, prior to taking up his appointment, was Louisville's Public Safety Director. The decision to create SPI lay with a group of concerned persons including McCandless, and city and university officials.

The mission determined for the SPI at its commencement was to provide command, supervisory, and administrative police officers from southern and bordering states 'a thorough social and pedagogical training as well as a technical police training'. The dual emphasis on concepts and skills is interesting. It certainly reflects a realistic approach to preparing police administrators and aspiring administrators. However, many of those attending SPI events are rank and file technicians and some goal displacement would seem to have taken place over the years.

SPI staffers lacked academic status until 1960. Accordingly, no college credits could be earned through successful completion of SPI courses. Originally, financial support was provided from city and university sources and which were supplemented by grants from major foundations. The financial situation changed in 1970 with the introduction of fees and the provision of general university funds. It could well be that the introduction of fees and the necessity of the organisation to pay its way has conduced to the acceptance of rank and file students, that is, the need to fill

student vacancies and so maximise revenue. In any event, from its very first days, SPI has established an international reputation for excellence in police education.

An interesting feature of the SPI is its Alumni Association. The Association was formed by graduating members of the first Administrative Officers Course (AOC) in March 1951. The aims of the Alumni Association are to: support and perpetuate SPI; elevate police standards; and increase public confidence in law enforcement.

More than 75 per cent of AOC graduates are members of the Alumni Association. Annual conferences of the Association are held for both professional and social reasons. These yearly gatherings are sometimes held at locations other than Louisville. In 1977, for example, the conference was held at Atlanta, Georgia; being hosted by the Clayton County Police Department. In addition to the presence of the SPI, SPA, and Atlanta city officials, 500 Alumni Association members attended. The program included a wide range of business, training, and social activities. The Association has two state, one regional, and one foreign chapter.

The SPI occupies two buildings on the Belknap campus. One has a 60 seat classroom, library and offices. The other has 44 other rooms, including bedrooms. A lounge and other recreation facilities are provided to make the quality of student life as satisfying as possible. In recent times demand for dormitory accommodation has been so great that additional space in the

campus' fraternity complex has also been utilised.

The basic item in the SPIs educational repertoire is the Administrative Officers Course (AOC). These courses started in January 1951. Three 12 week courses a year were run with 25 students per course. The course format remained largely unchanged for 11 years. In 1962, a major review resulted in classroom instruction being reduced by nearly 25 per cent. At the same time, instruction in police administration, personnel management and business procedures was increased. Legal and behavioural science content remained constant, however. A greatly increased emphasis was placed on private study. These alterations to the 12 week AOC were designed to meet curriculum committee requirements for academic credits. The move was successful and graduating students were granted 12 semester hours in the College of Arts and Sciences as from 1962. In fact, the AOC became the first university credit-earning police course in the United States, a matter of historic importance within the police community.

Further changes were made in 1967, when class size was increased to 60 and workshop discussions were introduced. Six years later the course was increased to 14 weeks by the addition of a three credit communication course. In the autumn of that same year, an option was offered to students with graduate or senior undergraduate status. The option consisted of appropriate students being able to take six of the 15 hours of course work at graduate level. Additional classroom hours and course

projects were required. The course duration was changed back to 12 weeks in 1977 by the exclusion of administrative detail and guest lecture spots.

The AOC is viewed as a police middle management development course. Plans are under way at the SPI to introduce another management course. It is to be shorter and directed at the development of advanced managers. This new course is expected to commence in 1979.

A Certificate of Police Sciences and Administration is obtainable through the SPI by regularly enrolled students. The certificate comprises a permutation of AOC units. These units include: Criminal Justice Communications; Police Administration; Police Personnel Management; Constitutional Aspects of Police Management; Criminal Justice Behavioural Dynamics; Personnel Management; Constitutional Aspects of Police Management; Criminal Justice Behavioural Dynamics; Personnel Management; Constitutional Criminal Law and Procedure; and Special Topics in Police Administration.¹

The first radical innovation in the SPI's instructional program occurred in 1955 with the introduction of four two week seminars. The seminars were designed to provide 'intensive instruction in specialised areas of police administration and police science' in order to 'fulfill the broad purposes of the institute serving the total police community'. The majority of these seminars were, and still are, conducted at the SPI. However, in recent years, the

practise has arisen of holding selected seminars at other locations, for example, Hawaii, Alaska, Florida, under contract. Seminar contents are continually revised so as to keep them both current and topical.

Topics are changed periodically but all are worth two semester hours of undergraduate credit to those participants enrolled as college students. Seminar subjects, which do not involve hands on technology, currently offered are: Investigation of Sex Crimes; Internal Affairs; Scientific Investigation of Crime; Homicide Investigation; Current Problems and Concepts in Police Administration; and Instructor Training.

Student vacancies in seminars are normally booked out months in advance. More than 6,000 police and other law enforcement officers have attended the seminars since their inception. They have represented all 50 states, various territories and 30 other countries.

DEGREE PROGRAMS DIVISION

The Degree Programs Division (DPD) was formed at the same time as the SPA, on 1 July 1969. As its name implies, DPD is responsible for providing university type education leading to diplomas and degrees in the normal manner.

At the outset, only a BS degree in Police Administration was offered. A number of third year students commenced the program

in 1969. In 1976, a further undergraduate degree, that is, a BS degree in Correctional Administration was added. By mid 1978, 147 students had graduated in Police Administration and, a further eight in Correctional Administration. Student enrolments indicate a ratio of 4:1 favouring police courses over correction courses. In addition to the 122 students currently enrolled at the SPA, a further 300 who are enrolled at other schools within the University of Louisville also have police or correctional administration majors.

Undergraduate offerings within DPD at the time of writing include: Associate in Arts degree in Police Science and Administration (in association with College of Arts and Sciences); Bachelor of Science in Police Administration; and Bachelor of Science in Correctional Administration.

The Associate in Arts degree in Police Science and Administration is a two year full time course. In addition to general subjects such as English, natural and social sciences, humanities, etc, students are required to complete any four of the following DPD units: Introduction to Criminal Justice; Traffic Safety; Criminal Law; Criminal Investigation I; Introduction to Corrections; Police Administration I; and Police Applied Psychology. Those students having successfully completed the SPI's Certificate in Police Science and Administration (and obtained the necessary 12 hours of credit) may substitute that credit for the four DPD units.

The Bachelor of Science degree in

Police Administration is a four year program. In the first year, the only police related subject is Introduction to Criminal Justice. Year two is entirely devoted to general development subjects, such as history, economics, accounting, and behavioural sciences. Years three and four each have a 50 per cent police related subject content.

The four year Bachelor of Science degree in Correctional Administration is rather similarly structured. Year one contains an introduction to criminal justice unit, and year two is composed purely of rounding subjects. In the third and fourth years, roughly 50 per cent of the course load is corrections related.

The DPD's graduate program consists of an interdisciplinary Master of Science degree in the Administration of Justice and, an interdisciplinary Doctor of Philosophy degree in the Administration of Justice. The graduate program was strongly influenced by the 1967 Report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice² which recommended inter alia that high priority be assigned to improving the quality of criminal justice personnel through training and education. It was also stimulated by the forecasted need for qualified criminal justice administrators in Kentucky, that is, 143 personnel possessing doctoral degrees will be required by 1983.

The masters program is so structured as to enable candidates to make a comprehensive study of the criminal justice system's

complex interrelationships. The doctoral degree is aimed at producing skilled criminal justice managers. A high business studies component is included in support of the managerial aspect.

Graduate courses include the following criminal justice subjects: Personnel Management in the Criminal Justice System; Comprehensive Law Enforcement Planning; the Police in our Political and Social Systems; Legal Aspects of Criminal Justice Management; Crime Prevention and Social Control; Advanced Criminal Behaviour: Treatment; Theories of Crime and Delinquency; theoretical Foundations of Corrections; and Administration of Corrections.

Generous loans are available for persons studying in law enforcement areas through the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP). Loans of up to \$1,800 per academic year are available to full-time students in programs leading to degrees in law enforcement related subjects.

The DPD also takes an interest in criminal justice careers for its graduates. Commencing in 1978, employment opportunities are listed and disseminated among students. Also starting in 1978 is the criminal justice careers day. Under this scheme, which is largely organised by students, police and correctional agencies set up booths within the university grounds and discuss career prospects with interested persons. It is not a recruiting exercise so much as an enriching and informational undertaking. So effective was the 1978 careers day that students from many other

faculties also took advantage of the resources and information provided.

NATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION INSTITUTE

Research conducted by Dean Klotter circa 1968 suggested the need for more and improved crime prevention education in the United States. LEAA funds were obtained to finance the task. As a result, the NCPI commenced operations in 1971, thereby becoming SPA's most recent addition. The Institute's charter directs that it provide national training, technical assistance, and perform as an information resource in the field of crime prevention generally.

From 1971 until the end of 1977, the LEAA provided the bulk of Institute funds. The cessation of federal funds in 1977 required student and service fees to replace federal funds as the Institute's principal financial source. In other words, it had to become self-supporting. This fundamental change in financing was successfully implemented. Late in 1978, a federal grant of \$354,000 was received to fund a one year NCPI technical assistance program.

The NCPI conducts a wide range of courses; some of which are conducted at NCPI and others off campus. An example of an on campus course is the four week course for crime prevention specialists, that is, the Crime Prevention Theory, Practice and Management Course. This course provides participants with current information from which to design, develop, deliver, and

manage crime prevention projects and programs. It is directed primarily to public and private agencies with a substantial crime prevention function. The course is essentially designed for persons performing leadership roles and who need the best and most complete technical and program management training available. Topics covered in this comprehensive course include: History of Crime Reduction; Principles of Opportunity Reduction; Risk Management; Program Evaluation; Insurance and Crime Prevention; Alarm Systems; Crime Specific Programming; Locks; Lighting; Doors; Windows; Walls; Fences; Transparent/Translucent Barriers; Physical Planning for Crime Reduction; Crime Analysis; Premises Surveys; Access Controls; Security Cameras, Photoelectric and CCTV; and Senior Citizens and Crime Prevention.

Off campus NCPI activities are normally held on site to meet special needs. For instance, in place seminars on protective security are held, on request, for local government employees. Not only do such events provide a welcome opportunity to spread the crime prevention gospel in the public sector, but they also provide additional revenue for the school. A particularly important offering of the NCPI is its two day course for managers and other city officials. The course emphasises the need for the implementation of sound crime prevention principles in urban development and planning. The long-term results of such courses could well be of considerable significance to United States society. The full list of courses offered shows that NCPI

are extremely active.

So far, more than 4,000 students have attended NCPI courses. They have come from all United States states and from four foreign countries.

A National Crime Prevention Institute Press has been established. Although a separate commercial venture, it works closely with the NCPI. Its first title in the series *The Practice of Crime Prevention* was published in 1978.³ It is an excellent publication and is expected to become a standard crime prevention text. Hopefully, the quality will be maintained in succeeding titles.

Located within the NCPI is a Crime Prevention Information Centre. It is said to be the most comprehensive repository of crime prevention literature and data in the United States. With the termination of federal funding in 1977, what previously had been a free information service changed to a fee for service operation. The Centre also distributes crime prevention packages on a range of topics. These have proven a useful source of income. It also rents crime prevention films but limited demand for the service will result in the eventual cessation of this particular service.

A valuable public service offered by the NCPI is its *NCPI Hotline* publication. As from January 1978, this service was also placed on an economic basis, the subscription being \$10 per annum. The *NCPI Hotline* is rather similar to the IACP Training Keys in format. Each addition is addressed to a

single topic such as 'citizen participation in crime prevention' or, 'retail security'. They are required reading for all practitioners in the crime prevention field. A further venture in the publications field is NCPI's production of information brochures. The first of these, *Plain Talk About Home Burglar Alarms* has proven a good seller, and it is expected that its successors will enjoy similar success. These publications, in addition to earning welcome revenue, have a valuable secondary role in maintaining a high public profile for the NCPI.

Another activity conducted by the NCPI is that of product testing. The NCPI has a well equipped laboratory in which a wide range of physical devices are tested. For example, a grant from the Kentucky Office of Crime Prevention has permitted the impartial testing of a range of locking devices. The results of such testing, which are essential to any effective crime prevention advisory service, are conveyed to police and other concerned groups. Another laboratory testing service concerns the resistability of different types of glass to criminal attack.

Fees to attend the NCPI courses are quite substantial, averaging \$35 per diem. With the introduction of student fees, a scholarship scheme was instituted. The scheme involves the granting of scholarships, that is, course fee payments for police students attending NCPI courses, by commercial and service organisations. So far, the scheme has enjoyed only limited success but more time is needed before its success or otherwise can be determined.

As if the above activities were not enough to keep NCPI staffers totally occupied, the Institute hosted the Inaugural National Crime Prevention Practitioners Conference in November 1978. This was a mammoth event attended by numerous practitioners and manufacturers.

IMPACTS

So far, no independent evaluations have been made of the SPA and its subdivisions. Its general reputation within the law enforcement community is good, but the extent to which the principles, techniques, knowledges and skills, imparted during the various courses and seminars have been applied is difficult to say.

Certainly, if it had not been addressing itself to the felt needs of the law enforcement community over the years, it would not enjoy the reputation it does. Another indirect indicator is the vitality of the SPA's Alumni Association. Were it not considered by graduates as a worthwhile and prestigious organisation, such an association would have few active members.

Reestablishment of federal funding of NCPI training programs is concrete evidence of perceived benefits accruing from activities run by the NCPI.

Thus, in an indirect fashion one may conclude in a very general way that the SPA is effectively meeting a real need. More than that, it combines in a unique although

not entirely rational manner a collection of sub-organisations of value and pertinence to the criminal justice scene in the United States.

IMPLICATIONS FOR AUSTRALIA

Australia has nothing like the SPA. The nearest approaches comprise several certificate and diploma courses in certain non-university tertiary institutions. Even so, there is a long way to go before we can match the breadth and development of the DPD's offerings. This is an area of major need in Australian education, but the limited number of police agencies and the reluctance of our universities to include vocational components in many courses has an inhibiting effect. We are thus left with Colleges of Advanced Education and similar institutes negotiating with individual police agencies for certificate and diploma courses. Police authorities are generally reluctant to commit themselves and the colleges and institutes do not like to proceed without guaranteed student numbers. What is really needed is for Australian universities to independently formulate degree programs with majors in police administration and corrections. The design of the SPA degree programs offers useful guidance in this context.

With regard to the SPI, it is essentially a product of the incredibly fragmented United States police scene. There is little need for such a service in Australia, with its eight police agencies. All

Australian police forces are sufficiently large to provide SPI courses without outside assistance. However, the SPI seminar program is a useful concept. Similar initiatives are taken by the Australian Institute of Criminology although not on quite as formal or lengthy a basis. The Institute's Training Division could well consider undertaking a finite number of seminars for police each year in the manner of the SPA, rather than its present ad hoc approach.

Beyond doubt, the piece de resistance of the SPA is its NCPI. It would appear to be tackling a most pressing need in an effective and energetic manner. People in the criminal justice field in Australia inevitably feel guilty whenever prevention is mentioned. No single, permanent institute in Australia is concerned with crime prevention, and there is a great need for such a body. There is, indeed, a compelling argument to convert the Australian Institute of Criminology itself into an institute of crime prevention. Without doubt, the need is for a substantial body, outside the university environment, solely devoted to crime prevention. Many of the NCPI's activities would be of great interest and practical benefit to such a body were it ever to be formed.

NOTES

- ¹ 1978. *School of Police Administration Bulletin*. Louisville, KY: University of Louisville, p.26.

- ² 1967. *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- ³ 1978. *Understanding Crime Prevention*. Lexington, KY: National Crime Prevention Institute Press.

PART TWO

ISSUES

Police Labour Relations
Police Health Maintenance
Police Occupation

POLICE LABOUR RELATIONS

Collective bargaining is the process by which labor and management representatives negotiate the wages and working conditions for a given employment entity. Bargaining is both an economic and political process. As in the private sector, the bargaining power of public management consists primarily of the ability to manipulate the economic costs of agreement and disagreement to employees. Economic decisions in public sector bargaining, however, have direct relationships to political consequences.

Bowers, 1974

CHAPTER FIVE

LABOUR relations in the USA may be usefully defined as encompassing relations between management and labour concerning 'collective bargaining and contract negotiation, administration of contract provisions, and the handling of everyday problems of grievances'.¹ While these functions and relations are similar to those obtaining in Australia, the style and, in many areas the substance, are very different. This point holds for police labour relations just as much as it does for labour relations in other industries.

Police labour relations in both countries are the product of complex and distinctive permutations of historical, economic, ideological, industrial, and occupational factors. The fact that America and Australia possess significant cultural and demographic differences, inevitably means that approaches to police labour relations in the two countries are distinctively different. It can also be said that considerable differences in police labour relations exist even within the two countries. Man is nothing if not diverse.

Given that no society has a monopoly of ideas, it is always possible that one

society can contribute to the ideas of another. An awareness of the approaches of other societies to common problems may also be useful as an aid to stimulating new lines of inquiry, and in reducing the natural tendency of practitioners to rely on intra-national influences. In other words, a knowledge of the systems and practices used by others in relation to their problems may provide one with an additional pool of ideas and technologies with which to approach one's own problems.

With these thoughts in mind, it behoves students and practitioners of police labour relations in Australia to at least be aware of the experiences and operations of those practising elsewhere, including USA.

This description of police labour relations in America is designed primarily to give readers some understanding of the major aspects of relevant methods and practices in that country. A limited attempt is made also to relate United States factors to those obtaining in Australia.

ORGANISATION

America has a multiplicity of police organisations at all levels of government. Most exist at the third level, that is, the local level. This is unlike Australia, where the police domain is set exclusively at the second, or state, level. The actual number of police agencies in the United States is difficult to assess. It is probably a trifle less than 20,000.² Employed in these agencies are something

like 500,000 policepersons.³ Understandably, in such a large service, styles of policing vary greatly according to location, size, and level of government. This combination of scale and variety inevitably results in extreme diversity. Police employee organisations are similarly fragmented in their organisation and activities.

Most American police forces these days have an employee association, sometimes more than one. Their titles vary according to local history, law, and whim. Some are known as professional, protective, or benefit associations. Others are known as fraternal order of police (FOP) lodges, coalitions and, endowment associations. For ease of reference, they are generally referred to in this chapter as police associations. Some are purely concerned with labour relations, other possess, in addition, a fraternal role. Some associations, such as Boston's Police Patrolmens' Association, remain totally and inflexibly independent.⁴ Some affiliate with local unions, for example, carpenters or civil servants, for purposes of industrial representation. Some affiliate with regional/state association bodies, for example, the Police Conference of New York and Combined Counties Association, which may in turn be affiliated with a national body, for example, the International Conference of Police Associations (ICPA). Some affiliate with unions possessing only a national organisation, for example, the National Union of Police Officers (NUPO) and the International Brotherhood of Police Officers (IBPO). Certain associations affiliate directly with national unions with a non-

police nature, for example, the International Brotherhood of Teamsters (IBT), and the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (AFSCME). The FOP maintains a complete organisation at all three levels of government, although not in every state. To make the situation even more complex, some local associations affiliate with two or more other bodies, for example, the California Organisation of Police and Sheriffs (COPS) and ICPA. Richard Ayres has classified these varied and competing organisations into four categories:

- 1 local independent groups, for example, PBA, POA, PPA;
- 2 state/regional organisations, for example, state PBA, COPS;
- 3 national organisations, for example, FOP, NUPO; and
- 4 organised labour, for example, IBT, AFSCME.⁵

This classification, while it does not provide for all linkages, is extremely useful in placing some order into an otherwise confused situation.

At the national level, the major police employee bodies are FOP⁶ and, until recently, ICPA. These bodies are said to have memberships exceeding 150,000⁷ and 80,000⁸ respectively, although ICPA's has been drastically reduced since the split of November 1978. How many of those members are actually financial is frankly anyone's

guess. The FOP is the nation's oldest police employee organisation operating at the national level. Originally, it was almost exclusively fraternal. Now it is primarily labour relations oriented, although it plays down its union role.

The ICPA, an organisation of more recent origin, projected itself as an international union of law enforcement officers. It was very active in recent years under the presidency of Ed Kiernan, former NYCPBA president.⁹ However, in May 1978, the AFL-CIO offered the ICPA a police charter. Such a charter offered great attractions to the ICPA in that it would save its membership from being raided by other AFL-CIO affiliates, principally the AFSCME. On the other hand, the traditional police anti-union sentiment is still strong in many police associations, and the ICPA realised that the AFL-CIO offer would not be viewed favourably by many of its affiliates. In August 1978 at Toronto, the ICPA annual conference debated the offer.

As foreseen, the issue split the membership down the middle. Apparently, those favouring affiliation were mostly bodies representing small agencies who had a lot to gain and nothing to lose in terms of bargaining power. Those opposing affiliation were, it seems, mostly the larger associations already possessing sophisticated bargaining skills and to which the move merely meant an increase in fees. The Toronto meeting ended with the chairperson casting his tiebreaking vote in favour of affiliation. Thus, for a while the world thought an AFL-CIO police charter was about

to become reality after a break of 60 years. However, one gathers that ICPA's constitution and rules are not clear on such matters of procedure and, as a result of protest, the issue was rescheduled to the ICPA's winter meeting held at Phoenix in December 1978. Accounts of what occurred at Phoenix vary. One version has it that ICPA's major office bearers and members of the faction favouring AFL-CIO affiliation resigned from the ICPA and declared themselves to be the International Union of Police Associations. According to one source,¹⁰ this union will pursue AFL-CIO affiliation. At the time of writing it is not clear whether these associations not favouring affiliation with AFL-CIO will reorganise, go their own separate ways, or be picked off by other police and non-police unions. The situation is certainly dynamic and by the time the reader gets this far, it will no doubt have altered substantially.

Two other major police employee organisations operating at the national level are the NUPO and the IBPO. The former is a subsidiary of (Building) Service Employees International and, the latter of the National Association of Government Employees. The NUPO is said to be strongest in the south-east of the country, whereas IBPO influence predominates in the northeast. Together, they total about 20,000 members, with IBPO probably being marginally the larger organisation.

Federal unions such as AFSCME, with about 10,000 police members located mostly in Connecticut and Maryland, and IBT have shown a sustained interest in recruiting

police members over the past two decades. It is thought by some that even though they continue to recruit some police members their attraction is declining. On the other hand, in the light of present public anti-union sentiment in the United States, and the taxpayers revolt, it may be the case that organisations, particularly those having a reputation for aggressive bargaining, such as the teamsters, may prove more attractive to disgruntled police in search of higher wages.

In addition to the FOP lodges, a considerable number of police employee organisations exist at the state level. Quite often, a number exist even within a single state, for example, California with the FOP, COPS and PORAC, and Illinois with the Illinois Police Association, the Illinois Confederation of Police, the Policemens' Benevolent Protective Association of Illinois, the Combined Counties Police Association, and the FOP. Multiple memberships are held by many local police associations. For example, the Chicago Confederation of Police was affiliated with both the Illinois Confederation of Police and the ICPA.

Regional groupings of police associations also exist. Sometimes these groupings include interested associations within a particular region, for example, in Wisconsin, where one regional association services member associations in the north of the state, and another performs a similar service in the south of the state. In Washington we find a population rather than a geographic distinction, with one aggregate

association representing large city police associations and another representing small city and township police associations. Yet another type of regional grouping is that of state troopers in northeast USA. It is possible that a national coalition of state police employee organisations will develop eventually from that particular grouping. Of course, the ultimate combination would be a national coalition of all police national organisations, that is, FOP, IBPO, ICPA, NUPO, etc. This possibility, however, is remote in the extreme given the present structure of the police service.

If the picture seems complex at the national and state level, it becomes positively opaque at the local level. Not only do some police agencies have more than one employee organisation, but some organisations have members from more than a single agency. Some multiple membership associations combine police and other occupations. For example, the Metropolitan Washington Police Association draws its membership from several organisations - one of which quite definitely is not a police organisation and two others which, while they bear the official designation of police, are arguably not police agencies according to function. The Los Angeles County Professional Peace Officers Association, in addition to senior members of the sheriff's department, has corrections officers and process servers among its members. In situations such as these, according to at least one association president, the desire/need for dues exceeds the desire/need for occupational exclusiveness.

To make matters yet further complicated, it should be realised that in those agencies which have members who belong to a variety of employee organisations, although only one association is the accredited bargaining agent, other associations will continue to represent some members in non-economic matters, that is, grievances and disciplinary matters. In such situations, it is not unusual for individual employees to belong to more than one employee organisation. In which case, in relation to non-economic matters at least, the employee will need to toss a coin to select the organisation to pursue any grievances he may wish to raise.

Associations are often in competition to act as agent for the different bargaining units within a police force. Thus, in Washington, DC, the IBPO is bargaining agent for the Metropolitan Police Department's patrolmen and sergeants, while the ICPA-affiliated Police Association of the District of Columbia represents the lieutenants and captains. In Figure 6, I have attempted to depict some of the intricacies of these inter-organisational relationships.

Some police associations, for example, Boston's Police Patrolmen's Association, firmly resist all affiliations. Only in this fashion, they argue, can total flexibility and independence of action be maintained. On the other hand, most unions recognise that the best hope for increasing their power, including political 'clout' and improvement of conditions, lies in aggregations of local associations using their

In larger forces, a variety of structural formats are utilised. Some chiefs, such as Chief Breier of Milwaukee, steadfastly maintaining at least one foot in the last century, ignore labour relations as best they can. Others, such as Commissioner Jordan of Boston, has a labour relations unit headed by a senior officer. Yet other departments subsume labour relations under the personnel function, for example, Los Angeles or, the legal function, for example, San Francisco.

Almost universally, American police chiefs take a strong line against police unions, with the result that labour relations are often strained. In certain elite police forces, for example, New York State and Los Angeles, fairly good labour relations are maintained. In order to achieve this desirable relationship, it is necessary that the police authority ensure that salaries are maintained at a level acceptable to rank and file employees. It would also seem desirable that management and labour perspectives bear a close resemblance to each other. The more professional the organisation, the easier this is to achieve. The closer such perspectives are, one may reasonably expect, the less the potential for conflict.

In New York, the government makes a point of ensuring that state police are well recompensed vis a vis other state employees. At the same time, commitment of rank and file members to the goals of the division of state police is quite marked. The result of these two factors operating in parallel is a reasonably contented and professional force.

In Los Angeles, a similarly high identification of members with the goals of the department is noticeable. An impartial formula is employed for determining Los Angeles police salaries; a measure which robs collective bargaining in that agency of all heat. San Francisco police salaries were for years determined by a similar wage formula. But, in 1975, the board of supervisors unilaterally refused to abide by it in the face of rising taxes. The supervisors' decision substantially contributed to the San Francisco police strike of that year.

Despite the variety of regional and national organisations, police unionism in America remains secured in the multitudinous local organisations, the majority of which are agency specific. Aggregations of these associations are, at best, rather tenuous alliances and combinations. This grounding of police unions at the local level merely represents the nature of the occupation itself which is extremely fragmented. Although union officials appreciate the benefits that aggregation can provide, political survival is dependent on the local organisation in all but a few cases. It would seem that substantial aggregations capable of independent action and continued survival will have to await a police consolidation reform movement within the United States police service.

In many jurisdictions, the key employer negotiator is not the chief but the city, through its labour negotiator who is often an attorney. When collective bargaining first started in the police industry in the

mid 1960s, many city administrations were overwhelmed by well briefed and prepared attorneys representing employees. A great deal was conceded to employees by way of salary increases, pensions, and constraints on decision-making, that is, managerial prerogatives. Over the intervening years, the cities have increased their negotiating expertise and police employees are now finding it much tougher to make further real gains. In fact, some cities are now trading back managerial rights for acceptable trade offs. This improved bargaining expertise, together with reduced public funds and a large pool of unemployed, has combined to generally weaken the unions' bargaining positions. The results of this emerging situation, particularly in terms of displacement theory, will be interesting to observe.

Both police and city administrations widely use attorneys in their bargaining. This practice forces employee organisations to follow suit. An harassing tactic used by some police and city administrations is to force every issue to a formal negotiation, or even a court hearing, thus putting the relevant employee organisation in the position of having to expend large sums of money on hiring counsel. Official agencies have access to government attorneys and thus do not incur similar costs. The reverse of this tactic is employed when some unions force every little issue to the negotiating table with the view of wearing the police and/or city administration down. All such processes tend to be mutually destructive in the long run, but breaking out of the vicious circle of recriminations, moves and

counter moves once the process has started is extraordinarily difficult.

Unfortunately, many of the proponents of both sides stand to personally gain from maintaining an aggressive posture. Not only will they be seen by their principals as showing a proper competitive instinct, but they may in the short term be successful. They are, unfortunately, never around to reap the fruits of their activities, for example, exhausted pension funds or deepened hostility. What is needed is equity, but the very framework of the collective bargaining process seems to militate against this long-neglected ideal.

INFORMATION

Although the amount of research performed in the police labour movement is not great, a number of the larger police employee bodies, for example, the POAM, ICPA, and the FOP, conduct annual surveys of salaries and conditions in the police services. Research is also undertaken by many individual unions on matters of interest to them. The range of research performed runs from general topics such as moonlighting through issue specific matters such as determining the optimal level at which to terminate a salary incremental scale.

There is not a great deal of sharing of research products between individual unions at the local level. However, surveys and other matters undertaken by the state/

regional and federal bodies are passed on to their affiliates. Union officials, of course, have the same access to material made available from census surveys, Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), the commercial press, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), Labor Management Relations Service, and the Government Employees Relation Report, as do employers and any other interested parties.

City managements have shown even less interest or capacity in coordinating information and materials than employee organisations. Many seem quite happy, at least, to be guided by the IACP in labour relations matters. Others just do their own thing. From time to time the International City Management Association and the National Leagues of Cities-United States Conference of Mayors perform some relevant research. From my own observation, though, none of the city labour negotiators I interviewed utilised such materials, tending to rely almost exclusively on local knowledge and procedures.

Police chiefs are a little more organised. The IACP publishes a good deal of material concerning labour relations in *Police Chief* and elsewhere. It also produces position statements and monographs on the subject from time to time. Another useful IACP publication is a serial entitled *Public Safety Labor Reporter*. In addition to its dissemination function, the IACP also provides a labour relations consultancy to chiefs. Much of the published material, while written for chiefs is, as indicated previously, useful to city (county, state)

negotiators. The Police Executive Research Forum, in conjunction with the National League of Cities, has recently chartered a substantial management oriented analysis of police collective bargaining agreements in large cities; among its analyses is that of identifying those contract clauses which unduly hamper management.¹¹ Research of this nature, if properly utilised by government negotiators, will make employers even more formidable at the bargaining table.

The Federal Bureau of Investigation provides labour relations training to aspiring police managers attending its national academy courses. The instructor primarily responsible for the labour relations unit of the course is Supervisory Special Agent Richard M. Ayres. He has published widely in the field, as well as having coedited a most useful text on the subject.

LEGAL

The two major labour statutes in the United States are the *National Labor Relations (Wagner) Act* 1935 and the *Labor Management Relations (Taft-Hartley) Act* 1947. This and allied legislation, however, applies only to private sector matters.

A widespread movement by public servants for industrial equity developed during the 1950s. By the early 1960s, pressure had built up to such an extent that the United States President appointed a six member task force to study federal public

sector labour-management relations. As a result, in 1972 President Kennedy issued Executive Order No. 10988, *Employee - Management Cooperation in the Public Service*. This order permitted federal public servants to join unions and gave those unions the right to bargain collectively with government agencies.

In the course of its implementation, a number of flaws became evident in Executive Order No. 10988. They were remedied by President Nixon, in 1969, when he signed Executive Order No. 11491, *Labor-Management Relations in the Public Service*. In addition, sanctions were provided for unfair labour practices and a National Labor Council was created.

The impact of these presidential instruments has been wide-reaching.¹² Nearly every state, only Mississippi excluded, has made some provision for the industrial rights of at least some of its public employees. Even so, some of these rights are extremely limited, for example, merely to join a union. Neither, in many cases, have they been extended to police. Where they are so extended, they are sometimes subject to additional constraints, such as binding arbitration.

The actions and intentions of the various state and local authorities in implementing labour relations in their respective jurisdictions have been varied to say the least. In looking at the various pieces of relevant legislation, one is impressed with the tremendous diversity of government in America. To cite a United

States Department of Labor report:

The nature of these laws is as diverse as the states themselves. Some states have placed complete prohibition upon collective bargaining, declaring labor agreements null and void. Other states have enacted comprehensive statutes which afford public employees rights similar to those guaranteed to the private sector by the National Labor Relations Act.

Between these extremes are the states which have chosen to enact lesser forms of bargaining, such as meet-and-confer legislation, or which have chosen to enact separate laws for different groups of employees.¹³

For police, the results of all these initiatives are that they have substantial collective bargaining rights in about 15 states. That is to say, all police within those states enjoy collective bargaining rights of some sort, regardless of the governmental authority involved. In most other states, only some police have collective bargaining rights. Others, for example, Illinois, have none at all. In some states, where no statutory authority exists for police to engage in collective bargaining, certain local authorities nevertheless do enter into labour relations with their police employees. In certain other states, however, for example, North Carolina, contracts resulting from such relations are illegal and void.

In some instances, the only binding requirement on the police employer is to meet and confer, not to decide. Under such

lax requirements, labour relations remain very one sided, to say the least. In yet other states, for example, Texas public employees in jurisdictions having fewer than a given number of citizens, for example, 20,000, are denied collective bargaining rights without a referendum authorising them. It is not difficult to calculate the probability of a small community of taxpayers approving a measure that would inevitably increase their tax burden.

Some states, for example, Illinois, and the federal government, have Bills pending before their respective legislatures which, if enacted, would permit all police and/or all police employees to engage in collective bargaining. There is little chance that any of these bills will be enacted. This prognosis would hold even had Proposition No. 13 been unsuccessful. The greater chance for success, however slim, rests with House Bill HR 777. This Bill provides for amendment to the *National Labor Relations Act* 1935 to authorise all public employers and employees being placed under its provisions. The Bill is currently before the House of Representatives' Education and Labor Sub-committee on Labor Management Relations. In the unlikely event of its successful passage through both houses, a far more equitable industrial situation would result, provided it is not ruled unconstitutional in view of the United States Supreme Court's decision in *National League of Cities v. Usery*.

Lawyers have long exercised a substantial, and largely unhealthy, influence on police affairs in most western countries.

An interesting example of American lawyers' concern with police matters is the American Bar Association's (ABA) statement concerning standards pertaining to the urban police function.¹⁴ Oddly, the ABA recommends that police have the right to collective bargaining, subject to a number of constraints including prohibition of strikes. Although this recommendation possesses no legal value in itself, it presumably has some potential for influence in that lawyers are well represented among legislators and city administrators.

LABOUR RELATIONS PROCESSES

United States police labour relations have two major facets - grievance resolution and collective bargaining. The former is primarily non-economic, and the latter economic. Even though labour relations are subject to this distinction, both elements are deeply interrelated and procedurally defined within a common document, that is, a contract.

As in every other aspect of police administration and organisation in the United States, considerable variation occurs from jurisdiction to jurisdiction as to what constitutes a grievance and the means of resolution. Despite the diversity, certain approaches appear to preponderate. A single example is sufficient to indicate the general nature of a grievance. In the now lapsed, but still largely observed, Memorandum of Understanding entered into between the San Francisco Police Officers'

Association and the city and county of San Francisco, a grievance is defined as:

... any issue, real or imagined, relating to the interpretation, application or enforcement of any provision contained in this resolution [MOU], or any dispute, complaint problem, issue or question arising with respect to conditions of employment or employer-employee relations of any nature or kind whatsoever.¹⁵

The definition is certainly wideranging. It will be noted, though, that it does not include matters relating to managerial control, for example, deployment.

The steps determined in San Francisco are, briefly:

Step 1: complaint to be made by grievant or POA representative orally to an appropriate immediate supervisor.

Step 2: in the event of Step 1 proving unsatisfactory, the complaint be again submitted to the supervisor but in written form.

Step 3: in the event of Steps 1 and 2 not being successful in achieving resolution, the grievance shall then be directed to the chief of police or his designated agent.

Step 4: should the grievant or POA representative still feel

aggrieved at this stage, the matter may be presented to the police chief for consideration.

Step 5: in the event of the previous four steps not satisfying a grievant, an impasse is considered to exist and the grievance is then submitted to final and binding arbitration. In San Francisco, a clause operates to the effect that the parties should meet with the mayor in a final attempt at resolution before going to arbitration. Although not formally stated as such, a meeting with the mayor really constitutes a discrete step in the resolution process.

The process is flow charted in Figure 7. Most substantial grievances are routinely hammered out between association and management representatives at grievance meetings. However, where grievances relate to economic matters, such as whether a member was entitled to a certain overtime rate, employers can be difficult to convince. The arbitration clause which operates in this sense is necessary as it puts teeth into the entire process. Without Step 5, and in the absence of goodwill, the preceding clauses are of limited value.

With regard to collective bargaining, a general process is discernible also in those departments practising labour relations. Where a formal contract exists, it is nearly always incumbent upon the employee organisation to initiate renewal negotia-

tions. If total agreement is reached without hitch, the contract may be quickly ratified and signed by all parties. In the event of an impasse occurring, mediation is utilised. Mediators are third party neutrals who rely on their ability to persuade the parties and suggest new ways of solving problems as a means to achieving settlement.

Agreement means a return to normal collective bargaining negotiations and eventual signing of the contract, that is, resolution. But, should an impasse occur in relation to the mediation, either an arbitrator is utilised, as in the case of Boston (see Figure 8), or a fact-finder is pressed into service as is the case with New York state troopers (see Figure 9). In the latter case, that is, where state police organisations are concerned, further impasse means the dispute being referred to the appropriate committee of the state legislature for resolution. In the fullness of time, the legislature imposes a binding determination. Where other than state police are involved, an arbitrator would be used should a fact finder have been employed and proven ineffective.

Generally speaking, mediators tend to be supplied by the state labour board. Should a panel of state nominees not prove satisfactory to one side or the other, it then becomes necessary for an independent mediator to be mutually agreed upon by the concerned parties.

Arbitrators are nearly always private persons, very often provided from a panel of

FIGURE 7
SAN FRANCISCO POLICE GRIEVANCE RESOLUTION PROCESS

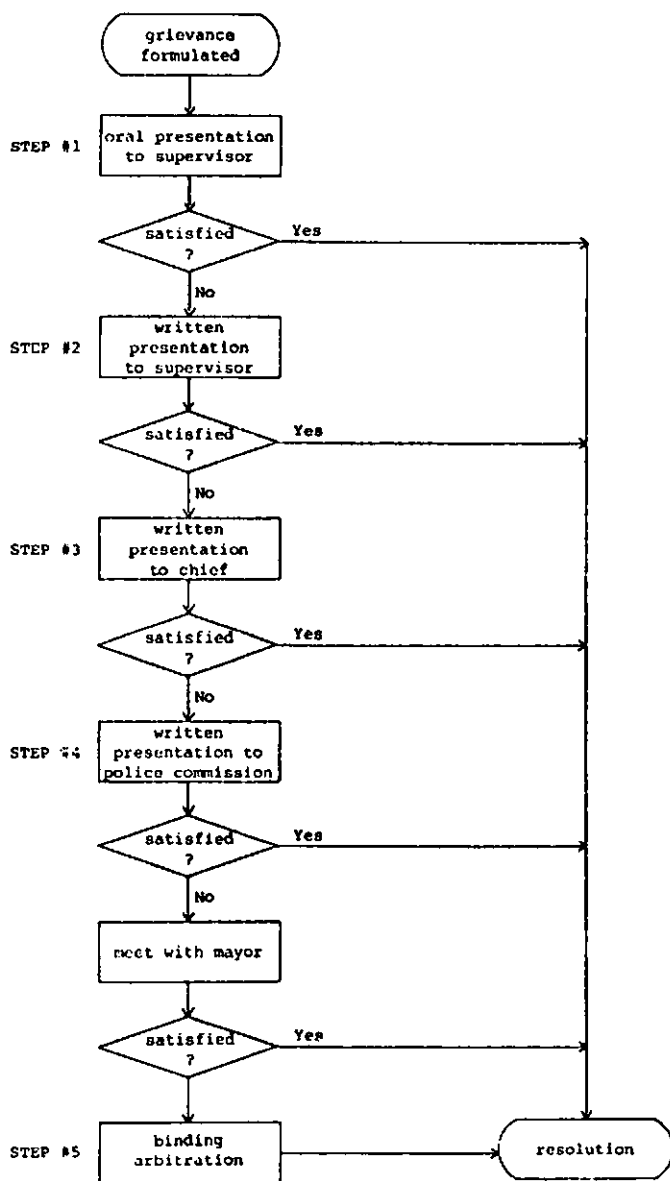


FIGURE 8
BOSTON POLICE COLLECTIVE BARGAINING PROCESS

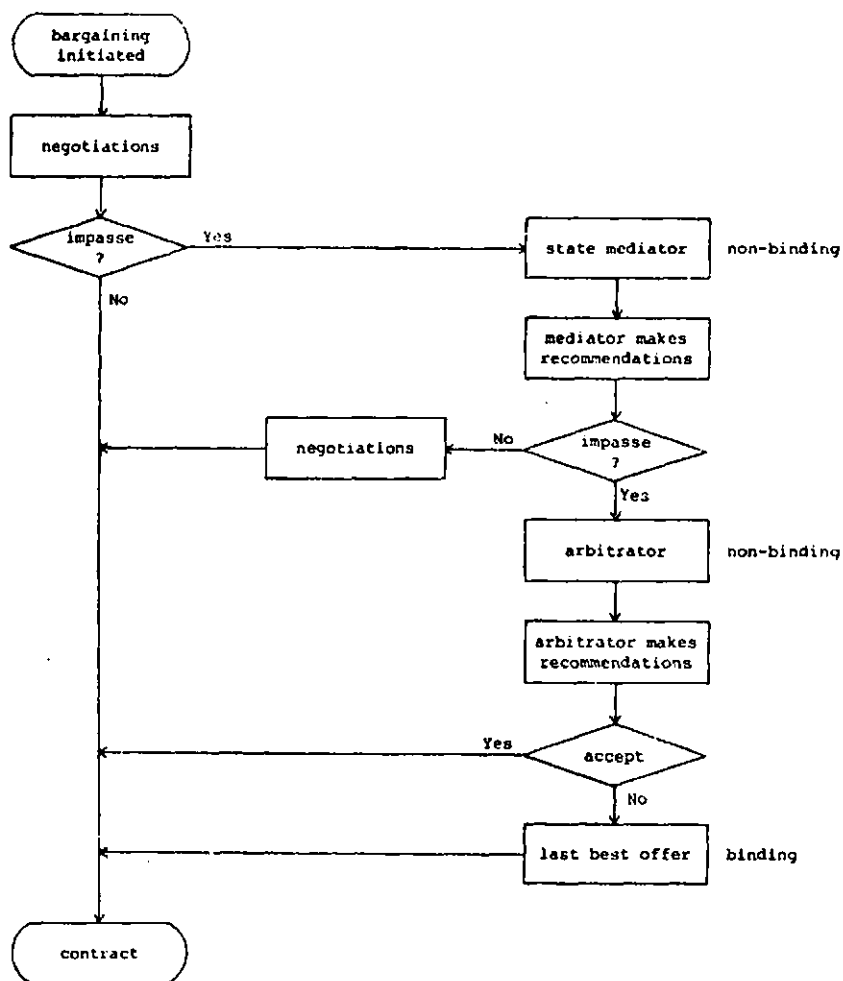
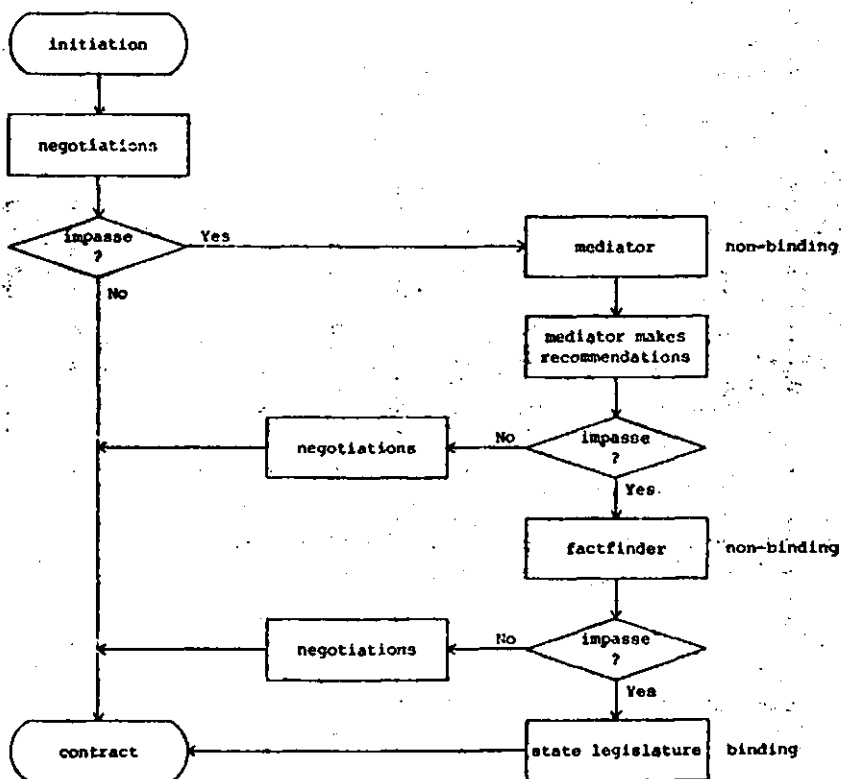


FIGURE 9
NYSP COLLECTIVE BARGAINING PROCESS



prestigious persons submitted by the American Arbitration Association.

A feature of police arbitration, in those jurisdictions permitting the practice, is the principle of last (or final) best offer. As withdrawal of police labour can have particularly serious consequences for a community, many authorities make available last best offer bargaining to the parties in dispute as a final and binding process, once all other avenues have failed.

Under the last best offer system, both parties submit their final negotiating packages to the arbitrator. In some jurisdictions, the arbitrator is bound to accept one package or the other in toto. Elsewhere, he or she may take bits and pieces of each to form a binding synthetic package. The danger with this latter option is that a situation can easily occur in which neither party is committed to the outcome. Police labour relations practitioners disagree as to the respective advantages of the two forms of dealing with final best offers. In either case, the operating principle is that the parties are kept 'honest' for fear of having any excessive proposal rejected in favour of that put forward by the other side to the dispute. Of course, with the sudden death finish situation attaching to the either/or option, at least one party to the contract ends up reasonably happy. Many city administrators are opposed to this form of bargaining on many grounds, including the claim that such settlements are de facto instances of governmental responsibility being usurped by a private citizen; that such settlements are opposed to the true

spirit of collective bargaining; and even that they lead to excessive economic settlements.

In principle, collective bargaining is a desirable form of resolving disputes between employers and employees. Two prerequisites are necessary, however, if collective bargaining is to operate satisfactorily. One, adequate impasse resolution mechanisms are absolutely necessary. Two, good faith is necessary to prevent even the most ingenious procedures becoming bogged down in petty detail. Having looked at a number of jurisdictions employing collective bargaining, it is my impression that good faith is frequently missing on both sides. Certainly, there are exceptions such as labour relations in the New York Division of State Police and the Los Angeles Police Department. But even those situations of relative goodwill are ultimately dependent on members receiving acceptable salaries and conditions.

Salaries are dependent largely on taxes. City administrators are finding it increasingly difficult to obtain the necessary tax revenue to pay acceptable salaries. In some instances, city authorities resort to dubious tactics in bargaining collectively with police employees; such as dragging out negotiations as long as possible so that when a contract is eventually signed, without a retrospectivity clause, considerable savings are made in relation to the period between the expiration of the old contract and the commencement of the new one. As one administrator expressed it to me: 'A day delayed is a day's pay saved.' It is not

possible to say how many authorities behave in this and similarly dubious ways. It is quite certain, however, that the practice is by no means rare. It is said by employee representatives to be quite common. Coming from such a source, allowance must naturally be made for exaggeration.

Some chiefs of police obviously feel completely unthreatened by having an active union within their organisation. Others do feel threatened, and rigorously resist union representations with all means at their disposal. Such deterrent behaviour (particularly where deceitful or otherwise offensive) is designed to increase employee militance.

The other side of the coin, although less apparent, is represented by those police unionists whose concern for militance obsesses their thinking. Among other things, such attitudes reinforce managerial intransigence. In most of the police agencies I visited, an atmosphere of tension was apparent. In places such as Milwaukee and Boston, it was quite overt, rank and file dissatisfaction being made quite clear in the course of their ordinary relations with command personnel. The managerial style of many police administrations in the United States appears to be quite autocratic when compared with British and Australian forces. Some of the powers possessed by United States police administrators possibly conduces to their authoritarian approach to affairs, such as the authority to suspend members from duty.

Whatever the particular constellation

of variables it is that operates in such circumstances, I was unfavourably impressed with the number of United States policemen I met who possessed deep seated grievances against their departments. Lack of promotion was the reason frequently volunteered, but quite clearly such situations are more complex than that. Men with grievances are often attracted to union activity, it being seen as a convenient arena for hitting back at the employer. Some police union officials fall into this category. Oddly enough, the most impressive police unionist I met actually possessed a deep rooted sense of resentment concerning his department's administration and its political style.

A major problem in the emotion-packed arena of United States police labour relations is that once an impasse occurs and perhaps some animus, too, the original cause of ill-will in the dispute is quickly forgotten. But the sense of dissatisfaction continues. A generalised sense of grievance can quickly pervade labour relations, and once established is extremely difficult to dispel. Once the level of good faith descends below a critical state, it can be almost impossible to restore.

CONTRACTS

Labour contracts in America equate with industrial awards, agreements, and determinations in Australia. United States police contracts address many of the same issues as do their counterparts in Australia. In addition, many deal with a range of

matters such as training, seniority, no strike clauses, transfers, discipline and management rights which, in Australia, are the subject of either legislation or agency standing orders. In brief, American police contracts contain far more non-economic provisions than is the practice in Australia.

Contracts, to the extent that they exist, vary greatly according to the legal advantages of management, for example, the requirement to only meet and confer; the advantages of labour; for example, full bargaining requirements, the determination and competence of the respective negotiators; and the level of goodwill existing within an agency. Due to the variety of police contract formats and the provisions which exist therein, it is difficult to make general statements concerning them with any degree of accuracy. Despite this difficulty, a number of studies of police labour contracts have been attempted and major areas of concern identified. One study, performed by the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics,¹⁶ identifies the major areas of contract concern as being:

Administrative Provisions

Including recognition of employee organisation, union security, checkoff, management rights, antidiscrimination clauses, residency requirement, political activities, performing union duties during official time, leave of absence for union business, labour-management committees, safety provisions, housekeeping and related items.

Wage Provisions and Allowances

Including wage surveys, wage adjustment provisions, longevity pay, parity provisions, shift differentials, holiday premium pay, special duty and skill premiums, uniform allowances, automobile allowances.

Hours, Overtime, and Outside Employment

Scheduled weekly hours, reduction in hours, scheduled days of work, overtime pay, emergency overtime, call in/call back and standby pay, equal distribution of overtime, rights to refuse overtime, overtime meal allowances, outside employment.

Paid and Unpaid Leave

Including voting time, holidays, vacations, paid personal leave, sick leave, sick leave conversion, funeral leave, military leave, rest periods, maternity leave, period of absence.

Pension and Insurance Benefits

Including pensions, benefits at retirement, health benefit and life insurance plans, life of duty provisions, disability pay and retirement, survivor's benefits, liability protection.

Personnel Policies

Including probationary periods, selection of work assignments, trading shifts, manning, police reserves, layoff and recall, training, education, promotions.

Grievances, Arbitration, and Discipline

Including scope of the grievance procedure, official time, grievance steps, arbitration, arbitration costs, time limits, disciplinary procedures, no strike provisions.

Negotiations, Negotiations Impasse Procedures

Including savings clause.

It will be appreciated that the above represents a comprehensive pool of items; actual contracts contain only permutations thereof. Certainly no contract would contain provisions concerning all these items. Some contracts are quite brief and simple documents, others are comprehensive and detailed. Australians will find the wide range of issues included in the pool of items above quite surprising in their scope. Admittedly, many items, for example, negotiations, just are not relevant in the Australian industrial environment. Other matters, such as some of those falling in the personnel category, would be considered non-negotiable in most Australian jurisdictions. Many Australians would be surprised, too, that so many United States police

contract matters are not enshrined in legislation, for example, pensions. However, if most Australian police forces were set at the local level of government rather than the state level, such differences would not be apparent.

Probably the most keenly contested areas in United States police labour contract bargaining are the establishment of respective rights, for example, management and labour, and salaries. As mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, most United States police chiefs still see management very much as a unilateral process. Most police employees no longer see it that way. By definition, collective bargaining includes some degree of bilateralism. The employers act to maximise control of managerial action by minimising labour's rights. Labour takes a similar line in acting to maximise control over their working lives at the expense of management. In detailing rights clauses in contracts it is most necessary to clearly spell out the dividing line past which labour cannot move in pursuing its aims; this is to say, it is important that the boundaries of permissible behaviour be clearly understood by both sides.

In addition to establishing contractual rights, labour acts to protect itself from victimising behaviour by management. And so protective clauses are built into contracts, sometimes in the form of police officers' bills of rights. Bills of rights are documents which spell out the rights of members under certain situations, for example, investigations resulting from a

citizen complaint, in which police feel they are subject to sanctions and disciplinary procedures which are not applicable to others in the work force. Police unions frequently operate to have such documents enshrined in legislation or within particular contracts. Police management generally feels that such documents are unnecessary and needlessly complicate accepted procedures. Annex F comprises a typical police officers' bill of rights that has been inserted in many contracts.¹⁷

With regard to salaries, a range of considerations apply. An important factor is the decreasing capacity of local governments to pay. Tax bases are shrinking in many cities as a result of the middle class flight to the suburbs, to say nothing of the increased public unwillingness to be highly taxed. Urban vacuums are, to a great extent, being filled by the poor, the unemployed, the unfortunate and, in many cases, illegal immigrants. Such people not only often lack the capacity to pay taxes but place great demands on health, education, welfare, police, and safety services. Due to the present structure of the police service, those communities in most need of police help are least able to afford them. It is little wonder then that salaries have been the most bitterly contested area in collective bargaining in recent years.

Some contracts contain cost of living adjustment clauses but they are not widely popular with employees. Employers prefer three year contracts. Three year contracts permit orderly and stable city/departmental planning and budgeting. Cost of living

clauses are necessary in a three year contract to ensure that employees are not too badly disadvantaged by inflation. Employees, conversely, prefer one year contracts. This permits the total review of salaries each year not only in relation to inflation but also in terms of increased productivity, changes in the nature of police work, and altered capacity of the government/local authority to pay. Employees are also mindful of the fact that cost of living adjustments are only granted in retrospect so that although workers do not suffer a total lag between salaries and prices, they are nevertheless permanently in arrears under such a provision. One finds many three and one year contracts but most seem to have a two year life, which is probably the best outcome possible between competing interests.

POLICE ASSOCIATIONS

No account of police labour relations in the United States, even one as superficial as this, is complete without reference to police associations. After all, they are central to the labour relations scene. Employers and chiefs have myriad responsibilities, labour relations being only one of them. Police unions are almost exclusively concerned with labour relations. And, not only are unions important, they are, in their relations and affiliations, quite complex. Thus an understanding of police associations is essential to an understanding of the complexities attaching to police labour relations generally.

Needless to say, there are many dimensions of police associations. Here I shall only deal with a few of them.

Under United States labour laws, a union may represent employees if, in the opinion of those employees, as demonstrated by election, it should. While such a law appears just and reasonable, it can, in the competitive United States environment, result in frequent changes. For example, in mid 1978 the New York Division of State Police had two bargaining units. One included noncommissioned officers, investigators, and troopers. The other covered commissioned ranks from lieutenant through major. The State Troopers Police Benevolent Association represented the former, and the Civil Service Employees Association (CSEA) represented the latter. However, during 1973-1974, the bargaining agent for the other ranks unit was local No. 1908, AFSCME. During that time the PBA remained in existence but was not responsible for servicing the contract. In 1974, though, PBA challenged AFSCME as bargaining agent, won the ballot, and was reinstated as bargaining agent. However, in 1978, both the PBA and AFSCME petitioned the state Public Employment Relations Board to alter the unit configurations. As a result, the bargaining units in late 1978 were: one for troopers, one for investigators, and one for sergeants through major. The AFSCME then challenged the PBA for representation in the trooper unit, and the PBA and CSEA contested both the investigator and command personnel units.

It will be seen from this brief

account that unions sometimes have to spend more of their time contesting with other unions than they do with employers. In Australia, the situation is more stable with pirating of members and challenges for the right to represent members being only rarely attempted. However, this stability is fairly precariously poised and from time to time such threats occur within the police industrial movement. Sometimes a dissident group of members may wish to break away and join a non-police union or maybe a group of members, for example, commissioned officers who are represented by a non-police union, may wish to leave that union and join a public union. However challenges can be made if the rules of the challenging union permit it to represent the employees it challenges in respect thereof. Thus, while Australian police union executives can afford to sleep more soundly than their American counterparts, there is no reason why this situation should exist for ever.

Competition between United States police unions to represent police employees is compounded by competition for control within unions. America has traditionally been a land of free enterprise and entrepreneurial opportunity. This material characteristic is evident in every walk of life, even in the union movement. To the foreign observer, not used to such strenuous and sometimes destructive competition, the view is fascinating, even though it tends to be one of extremes.

In larger police associations, elections are held at prescribed periods, often every second year. Having won an

election, a president and his fellow office bearers have about one year in which to satisfy their campaign promises. The second year tends to be largely spent in preparing for the next election. Should an incoming president and his team be newcomers to labour relations, particularly collective bargaining, their first year is very much a learning process. With a one year contract situation they are inevitably forced to employ a labour attorney.

The style of management widely practiced in American police associations, at least those of sufficient size to require substantial administration, is to have an official office with a permanent staff of clerks and typists. The president of the association may be seconded full-time to his union duties. This, for example, is the case in San Francisco. In such cases the department may continue to pay the president's salary or insist that the union reimburse the department. Sometimes the department continues to pay and the union pays the office holder an additional percentage, for example, 50 per cent in Chicago. Occasionally, more than one office bearer is seconded to full-time association duties. In the Detroit Police Officers Association, for example, all executive officers are seconded at departmental expense. In the Boston Police Patrolmens' Association, only the chairman and vice chairman are seconded.

In a vast majority of police associations, presidents and other office bearers are not seconded and have to perform association duties in their spare time.

This means that the offices are often unsupervised, which can be most frustrating to persons wishing to do business with the associations. The dedication of such members is sometimes amazing. In St Louis, for example, the president and executive committee of the St Louis Police Officers' Association spend just about all their non-duty waking hours working for the association. Their motivation is primarily one of resentment at the department's total resistance to the existence of the SLPOA, let alone its operation. In some cases, the entrepreneurial spirit is more apparent, and office bearers are clearly, in part at least, attracted by the emoluments obtainable through union office. Part-time union work is usually paid for at agreed rates, and most larger associations operate liberal expense accounts for their office bearers. The attractions can be very real to a member who, as a patrolman or sergeant, enjoys little occupational prestige or authority. Meals at state capitols with legislators, meeting important visitors, being consulted on an equal basis by senior officials, attending conferences, and so on, can understandably be most ego-gratifying.

All special interest groups in the United States need to pressure legislators and others in favour of their particular cause. Lobbyists make a living by acting as agents for special groups. Police unions, no less than any other groups, try to influence legislators by direct means, such as making their needs known and requesting support, and also by indirectly contributing to legislators' expenses. It is a regrettable fact of life in the United

States that many politicians view their vote as a saleable commodity. Direct payments to legislators are illegal so, to avoid this legal obstacle, legislators hold cocktail parties and dinners. Tickets are sold. Sometimes at a fixed price, sometimes not. The point is that ticket purchasers, for example, interest groups and lobbyists, are not meant to attend or, if they do, the sum paid for the ticket should be well above the cost of the entertainment provided. Such contributions cannot be avoided by groups promoting special interest legislation.

Overall, life for police association officials is rather taxing. Members must be satisfied and elections won. Raiders must be kept at bay. Resentful police departments have to be dealt with and even more resentful governments kept on side, if at all possible. Politicians have to be lobbied. The police occupational image has to be defended, for chiefs themselves will rarely defend it. On top of all this, competitors within the union have to be outwitted. It is not surprising that the turnover of police association officials is high.

The general effect of the style of organisation and management of police unions in the United States is undoubtedly conducive to instability and short-term management. Gains are nearly always short-term because association officials can rarely plan more than a year ahead. Often the skills necessary for sound management and planning of association affairs are not present in small associations due to the

lack of time available for on-the-job learning.

IMPLICATIONS FOR AUSTRALIA

The entire range of similarities and dissimilarities existing between the American and Australian police industrial scenes provides almost endless material for comparison and conjecture.

Both police industrial movements are very much the products of the industrial systems prevailing in their respective countries. They also reflect fundamental cultural differences between the two countries. In America, the commitment to free enterprise and democracy is almost total. In Australia, the commitment to both free enterprise and democracy is far more limited. This variation actually clouds a much more fundamental difference in national psyches. In America or, more precisely, North America, there is a widespread tendency to solve social and economic problems by means of cooperative action. In Australia, the opposite occurs. Problems are invariably referred to government for solution.¹⁸

This basic difference in national psyches appears to be reflected in the arena of labour relations. Collective bargaining, which emphasises people cooperating without coercion, is very much in the mainstream of American labour relations. Conversely, in Australia, while there is scope in most jurisdictions for collective bargaining,

resort is frequently made to governmentally controlled and run conciliation and arbitration services. Once such services are utilised, the parties have no choice but to accept imposed mediators and arbitrators as well as the decisions of the latter.

Most Australian police unionists who have observed the United States practice of mediators and arbitrators having to be acceptable to both parties, as well as the procedure of final best offer bargaining, prefer these approaches. The sense of imposition in the Australian industrial relations system is rather overpowering. At the same time one has to accept that the grass in the next paddock is always greener. No doubt the police in Mississippi, California, North Carolina, and elsewhere, who have little or no access to labour relations processes would be most happy to have the Australian industrial relations system with all its massive superstructure of courts, commissions, tribunals, and committees available to them. It is certainly impossible in the absence of sophisticated comparative research to suggest that one or the other approach has been the more effective.

A point emerging in the growing literature of police stress is the pressure under which urban American police operate both at work and at play.^{19 20 21} This stress can, where operating strongly, for example, in Boston or New York city, lend a particularly fine edge to police labour relations. This is perhaps not without some cathartic value. If so, those agencies not practising labour relations forego the

benefit. In Australia, police are, as a general proposition, not nearly as stressed as their American colleagues. This is probably due in large part to more favourable public attitudes. There thus tends to be less heat in police labour relations in Australia generally, although it can quickly appear should police feel themselves unduly threatened in any given situation, for example, the reactions of Victoria police to the Beach report.

The question of a city's ability to pay is one factor operating in the United States, which is almost entirely absent in Australia. Some cities, such as Detroit, have just about reached the limit of their ability to afford real increases in police salaries. Other cities, such as Milwaukee, have not yet reached their limit, but will most probably do so within the next couple of years. When the city or other local government authority denies ability to pay, labour representatives are required to prove such ability. This particular requirement places a great burden on limited union resources. The obvious solution to such a problem would be to make legal provision for fact-finders to be provided where ability to pay arguments are raised.

As real limits to pay are reached, police unions will of necessity address themselves more to problems of health, job satisfaction, and welfare. This trend is already apparent in both countries. In America, however, in those jurisdictions in which collective bargaining is not practiced, police unions are forced into those areas for lack of anything else to do,

always excepting responsibilities for grievance resolution. The Confederation of Police in Chicago is a case in point, in which a strong leader recently emerged without any collective bargaining responsibilities. He is busy preparing health and welfare packages for members as a means to building up his organisation's membership, relevance, and dues. The union business is so competitive in the United States that officials cannot sit back and rest on their laurels.

Just as unions can be expected to concern themselves more and more with health and welfare matters so, for the same reason, they can be expected to address themselves to other non-economic matters, that is, areas of management prerogative. The implications which flow from such shifts in emphasis are staggering; particularly in terms of occupational leadership.

Styles of association management vary greatly between the two countries. The United States system of elected management, often with the president as manager, is quite different from Australia's. In Australia, office bearers are elected as in the United States; but with one exception - the union secretary is a permanent official who acts as union manager and industrial advocate. The single exception concerns an association in which the secretary is a full-time seconded officer.

American police unionists claim that their system of association government, even subject to rapid turnover of office bearers, is conducive to union officials being

sensitive to members' demands. A permanent, paid secretary, they point out, is not so amenable to members' wishes and thus the situation is not as democratic as it should be. Australian police union paid officials claim that permanent civilian officials.

have a distinct advantage over the elected officials. They are not bound by [police regulations]; they can therefore make public statements and write letters to the press on contentious issues and can afford to be more aggressive in dealing with the minister or the [chief] and his senior officers. In negotiations the elected officers are always at something of a disadvantage, sometimes marked, sometimes psychological, because of the inherent respect for rank which permeates the force.²²

Permanent union officials, as employed in Australian police unions, assert that they are in the labour relations business more than the police business. The primary expertise necessary, they claim, rests in labour law and industrial procedures, not criminal law and police procedures. They also point out that they are increasingly entering fields such as pensions, electronic data processing, and professional development, which are very specialised and beyond the ability of most elected officials to understand. The premise is dependent on professional labour relations practitioners possessing such knowledge and skills themselves, something which is not necessarily the case.

A further consideration is that the

larger unions have the financial capacity to buy advice in the same way any business company does. There are numerous advantages and disadvantages attaching to both viewpoints. Thus, we are not looking at competing systems in the sense that one operates more effectively than the other. Maybe both are appropriate to their own environments. It should be added, though, that in terms of sheer convenience and ease of conducting business on a day to day basis, permanent, paid officials have many advantages. Advantages for those associations which can afford them, that is.

Nowhere is the fragmentation inherent in the American police labour movement more evident than at the national level. In Australia, where the small number of police agencies does not conduce to fragmentation to the same extent, the police labour movement has only one representative voice at the national level, the Police Federation of Australia. It is able to present a united voice on issues of broad impact. At present the Police Federation is rather underdeveloped. Ultimately, as it becomes more mature and active, its potential for cooperative activity and leadership can be expected to increase in the long-term. As a unified body, it *could* have a great influence on the direction of the police occupation in Australia.

However, predictions of this nature are notoriously unreliable owing to the fragile nature of the alliances involved. In America, the division of voices at the national level precludes any possibility of a significant voice for the police occupa-

tion as a whole. Sooner or later one would expect the major national bodies to combine with the smaller ones which are going to the wall. At present, divisions between the major national union bodies are so great as to defy any form of coalition. Should one group obtain AFL-CIO recognition, a focus for unity could be created, but the animus resulting from the move of the ICPA executive and its supporters in 1978 to obtain an AFL-CIO charter suggests that it is not likely in the mid-term. Police unionism in the USA, at its present stage of development, is still very much locally based in character.

The actual negotiation processes employed in the two countries are very different in style. American processes operate in a relatively free environment. A minimum of legal controls are employed. In Australia, the processes are closely controlled by a superstructure of judges, commissioners, and registrars. Nevertheless, most functions are common to both systems. Probably the greatest difference between the two processes relates to arbitration. American arbitrators, where utilised, are private citizens. Considerable problems attach to the sorts of decisions they make. A major criticism rests in the fact that they are instrumental in determining the distribution of public wealth which is theoretically the duty of elected officials and, by delegation, public servants.²³ In Australia, because of the massive system of industrial machinery maintained by state and federal governments, such decisions are in fact made by governmentally employed arbitrators. A massive

price is paid for this dubious advantage in terms of salaries and other recurrent and capital costs associated with supporting and maintaining the industrial conciliation and arbitration system.

Arbitrated awards are normally binding on police in the United States, in view of the undesirability of police strikes. For this reason, a device known as final or last best offer has been developed. Where otherwise irresolvable impasses occur in Australian arbitration pertaining to police, a final last offer mechanism could be used to advantage. Such a measure would go some way to compensating police for their no-strike disability.

By and large, dissatisfaction with police association management in Australia is settled within the union, not by voting in another union as often happens in the USA. Thus, although office bearers are periodically changed at election times, the one association continues as the bargaining agent. Continuity is further increased with the employment of permanent secretaries. The stability provided in this situation, while perhaps not conducive to excellence, has long-term pay-offs in terms of consistency, industrial expertise, and the ability to plan ahead. It is this stability that results in most union office bearers standing for election as individuals rather than as members of teams, as in the United States, a style which reflects a far more competitive, and thus tension-provoking, stance.

In the United States, where most major

association presidents and other office bearers have a relatively short official life, such stability is not widely present. Very few police unions have long-serving executives. However, the Boston Police Patrolmens' Association, which can match Australian associations for consistency and continuity, is an exception.

FUTURE

The future of police labour relations in the United States does not seem particularly promising in the short to mid term. Beyond that one cannot speculate. The prevailing hostility between labour and management shows no sign of abating. Certainly the goodwill necessary for sustaining the present system is not widely apparent. Hostility between the parties could in fact increase as money becomes increasingly difficult to find and unions are diverted more and more into areas of managerial prerogative. Continued and/or increased conflict could conceivably result in greater governmental controls on police labour relations mechanisms in an effort to promote industrial stability, if not harmony. Increased federal funding of police agencies could accompany or precede such measures. Such eventualities would be as unfortunate as they are probably inevitable, for the major flaws presently existing in the system seem to inhere more in the attitudes of practitioners, and the political and membership pressures to which they are subject, than in the system itself. Structural change designed to alleviate

pressures on practitioners seems unlikely, although it may well occur for other reasons.

One route to improved police labour relations may lie in fewer, larger, less localised police units. For police departments, this path rests primarily in consolidation, as suggested by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, and occupation leaders such as Patrick Murphy. Larger units should provide the potential for more sophisticated labour relations units within departments responsible for the entire range of issues, both economic and non-economic. Unions could be expected to mirror consolidations and maybe even anticipate them by way of regional aggregations. This trend has already started, but local constraints ensure that the focus remains at the local level, which to a large extent makes regional bodies paper tigers. In my opinion, the growth of the consolidation movement is historically inevitable. When eventually faced with the prospects of consolidation, police unions will have to at the very least mirror the unification process, and in some cases, perhaps go even further.

Police salary gains in recent years have had the effect of making them expensive public employees. The aftermath of Proposition 13 will no doubt further aggravate the problem in the sense of tax revenue becoming even harder for governments to obtain; thereby making them examine even more acutely the relative values of service and salary. Authorities in some jurisdictions are already replacing relatively expensive

police personnel in positions where a power of arrest or other special police authority or expertise is not necessary.

A number of cities have already replaced traffic pointsmen and cellguards with lower paid workers. Beat policing in San Francisco has gone private, with beat franchises being sold to private contractors. Some staff positions in large agencies are now being filled with better educated but lower paid civilians. This trend to replacement of police personnel by others, which is encouraged by federal equal opportunity employment salaries, is an interesting example of displacement resulting from fiscal constraints. It is likely that this form of occupational erosion will in the near future to be accompanied by a reduction in police services as agencies become more systems oriented. Agencies are already reducing staffs by attrition, for example, the St Louis Police Department's sworn strength has reduced drastically over the last three years while maintaining the same workload, by means of improved rostering and assignment methods. These erosions of the traditional police occupation and the added internal strains to which it is becoming increasingly subjected will place a premium on wise and professional police union leadership in the years ahead. As currently operating among the large departments at least, the system does not encourage longevity of office. Constitutional changes may become necessary to change the situation or, as seems more likely, an increasing emphasis will be paid to professional employees (often former police officers) in the Australian style.

In the event of professionalisation developing within the police service, and current events are conducing to such a tendency for a variety of reasons, the present gulf between the expectations of employers and employees may be expected to reduce. Although I am not in favour of police professionalisation in the classic sense of the term, one beneficial spin-off of such a development could be to improve police labour relations generally by virtue of the lessened hostility deriving from reduced differences in expectations. In fact, whatever the future development of the police occupation reveals, improved labour relations will require the combined efforts of both labour and management. A trite conclusion perhaps, but nevertheless a true one.

NOTES

- ¹ 1977. SALERNO D.A. 'Overview of Police Labor Relations'. In R.M. Ayres and T.L. Wheelen (eds), *Collective Bargaining in the Public Sector: Selected Readings in Law Enforcement*. Gaithersburg, MD; International Association of Chiefs of Police, p.3.
- ² 1975. GRANFIELD J.P. 'Public Funded Law Enforcement Agencies in the United States'. *Police Chief*, v.42 #7 (Jul): 24-26. The author suggests a grand total of 20,113 agencies. However, he includes a number of nonpolice agencies, for example, INS and, questionable bodies such as campus police organisations.

- ³ 1977. SALERNO, *op. cit.*, p.4.
- ⁴ 1976. By law #1, Boston Police Patrolmen's Association, Inc.
- ⁵ 1978. Personal communication (Nov).
- ⁶ There are other bodies, such as the American federation of police, and national police officers association of America. They are not dealt with here as they are not considered significant at the time of writing.
- ⁷ 1974. ICPA information brochure (Nov).
- ⁸ 1972. KIENAST P.K. *Policemen and Fire-fighter Employee Organisations*. Ph.D Thesis, Michigan State University, p.137.
- ⁹ NYC PBA is the patrolmens' benevolent association of New York city's police department; the nation's oldest local police association.
- ¹⁰ 1979. *Police Chronicle*, v.7 #3 (Jan): 1-2.
- ¹¹ 1978. RYNECKI S.A., CAIRNS D.A., CAIRNS D.J. *Police Collective Bargaining Agreements: A National Management Survey*. Washington, DC: National League of Cities.
- ¹² 1975. MADDOX C.W. *Collective Bargaining in Law Enforcement*. Springfield, IL: CC Thomas, pp.12-13.

- ¹³ 1976. *Summary of Public Sector Labor Relations Policies*. Washington, DC: Department of Labour, p.1.
- ¹⁴ 1973. *Standards Relating to the Urban Police Function*. Chicago, IL: American Bar Association, p.11.
- ¹⁵ 1974. *Memorandum of Understanding*, p.7.
- ¹⁶ 1976. NELSON R.R. *Collective Bargaining Agreements for Police and Firefighters*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Labour Statistics.
- ¹⁷ Nd. AYRES R.M. *Police Labor Relations Workbook*. Quantico, VA: Federal Bureau of Investigation (adapted).
- ¹⁸ 1970. ENCEL S. 'Class and Status'. In A.F. DAVIES and S. ENCEL (eds), *Australian Society*, 2d. Melbourne: Cheshire, pp.156-161.
- ¹⁹ 1976. KROES W.H. *Society's Victim - The Policeman*. Springfield, IL: CC Thomas.
- ²⁰ 1976. REISER M. 'Stress, Distress, and Adaptation in Police Work'. *Police Chief*, v.43 #1 (Jan): 24, 26-27.
- ²¹ 1975. HEIMAN M.F. 'The Police Suicide'. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, v.3 #3 (Sep): 267-273.
- ²² 1977. PAGE R.W., McCORMICK J.P. 'Police Unionism'. In A. Bordow (ed), *The Worker in Australia*. St Lucia: University of Queensland Press, p.149.

- ²³ 1978. FEUILLE P. 'Compulsory Arbitration and Police Labor Relations'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v47 #6 (Jun): 8-9.

POLICE HEALTH MAINTENANCE

The importance of improving the health and safety conditions of employees has, increasingly, received the attention of government agencies, business organisations, and labor unions. Not only is the physical and emotional wellbeing of workers an issue of humanitarian concern, but it also has a significant legal and economic impact upon the employer.

E.P. Leonard, et al., 1973

CHAPTER SIX

IN recent years, a body of literature has emerged which deals with such subjects as fitness of police,¹ police stress,² police diet,³ psychological health of police,⁴ and police cardiovascular fitness.⁵ There also have been surveys of police health in relation to work environment.⁶ The underlying concern evident in much of these and other writings is a desire to better understand and improve the health and safety of policemen and policewomen. The volume of health and safety related material now available is sufficiently substantial to warrant it constituting a bona fide police health and safety category in the field of occupational health. However, we first need to create a comprehensive concept of police health and safety maintenance which will not only permit orderly arrangement of relevant concepts and materials, but also provide directions for further research and development.

One may ask: why should we concern ourselves with matters of police health and safety? There are several responses to such a query. Financial savings from improved standards of police health represent a compelling argument. Members who resign, are discharged, or die prior to retirement

have to be replaced. Although the replacement ratio is not one to one - unless a newly-graduated probationer resigns - the training of replacements is still a very expensive business. Time lost through sick leave is also extremely expensive. In one medium sized Australian police department sick leave accounts for 3.1 per cent of all available duty time. The actual loss to the department arising directly from this situation is close to one million dollars annually.⁷ A further massive drain on the public purse comprises disability pensions paid to members prematurely discharged on medical grounds.

In addition, there are considerations of work performance. The proper performance of police work requires the exercise of a demanding range of psychological and physical characteristics. In operational spheres, police work can on occasions even be deleterious to the health of members. It is held that improved health within a department not only reduces the negative impacts of the job upon a member's mind and body, but will lead to improved performance. Although the savings resulting from improved performance due to health programs would be extremely difficult to measure, there can be little doubt that sensible programs would be cost beneficial.⁸ Certainly when the costs of lost time, deaths, and other premature terminations are taken into account, the question lies beyond all reasonable doubt.

Another important issue concerning police health relates to the issue of responsibility. Responsibility rests at three different levels: individuals;

employers; and employee associations.

Legal accountability attaches at the first two levels, more particularly the second. Individual police have a personal responsibility for their own mental and physical health. One only has to look around most police departments to realise that this responsibility is not always taken very seriously by the majority of members, especially those over thirty. This, of course, is in part a reflection of broad societal attitudes. Although, to the best of my knowledge, a suit has not yet been taken against a police man or police woman for failure to perform their duty adequately due to lack of fitness or other preventable state of poor health, it is not beyond the bounds of possibility, particularly in those jurisdictions in which the principle of vicarious liability is not operative.⁹ To the extent that unfitness exists within individual agencies, it also may well indicate inadequate health policies and programs.

Generally speaking, accountability for police performance and the efficient management of a police agency rests with the chief officer. This responsibility is based primarily on legal grounds. It also reflects the fact that a chief executive has access to a greater range of resources and information than anyone else in the organisation. The chief police officer is in a position to not only obtain relevant health information and make it available, but also to institute health maintenance programs.

Many aspects of health are intensely

personal. The results of most physical and mental checks and tests are very private matters. For this reason, all police health programs should be developed in close liaison with employee representatives. Apart from the principle of involving employees in planning programs which affect them so closely, the ultimate pragmatic consideration is that health programs will assuredly fail without rank and file support. Not only will they fail but decreased morale, even industrial action, could result. There is evidence in both the USA and Australia to suggest that police employee organisations are showing greater concern for the welfare of their members than are employers¹⁰ and so, such liaison should not be difficult to effect. But, quite apart from pragmatic considerations, most employee organisations have a lot to offer in the health-welfare area by way of ideas, support, and program implementation. It would seem sensible, subject to considerations of accountability, for employers and employee representatives to combine and maximise resources rather than risk duplication and even mutual obstruction.

DEFINITION OF POLICE HEALTH

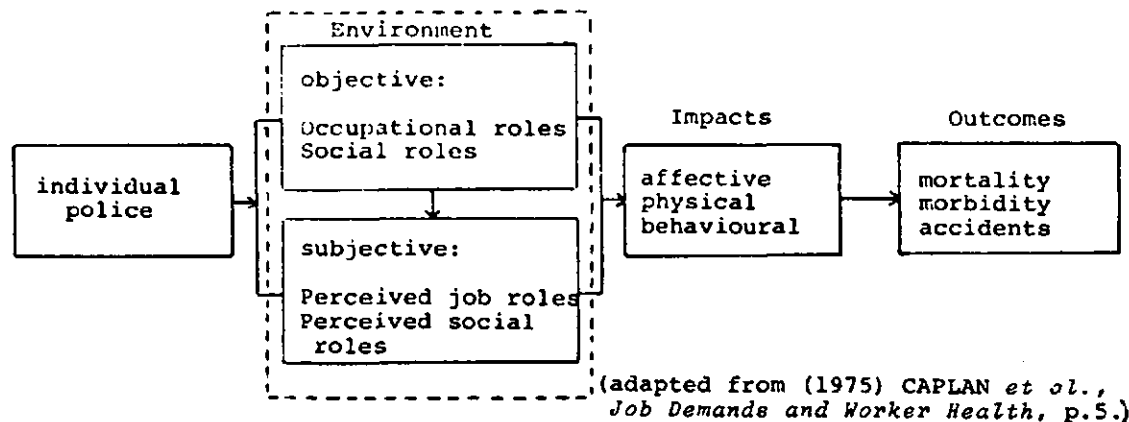
Police health is defined as comprising all factors affecting the psychological and physical wellbeing of police personnel, with special - but not exclusive - reference to their ability to effectively perform their assigned duties under normal conditions. This is clearly incomplete as a working definition. As further thought is directed

to the concept it will no doubt be refined.

As presently suggested, the basic unit of police health is the individual policeman and policewoman. It is their psychological and physical wellbeing that is the focus of attention. Individuals are impacted by their total environment, objective and subjective. This environment includes the whole range of social experience, particularly in the family, the workplace, and friendship groups. Impacts are both physical and psychological. The nature of these impacts can be usefully conceptualised in terms of their fit with their various environments, for example, individual-family environment fit, individual-job environment fit, or individual-societal environment fit. The extent to which fit is good or not or, rather, the extent to which the individual and the particular environment are congruent, determines the level of stress or other adverse impact to which the individual is subjected.

The ability of the individual to cope or adapt to the amalgam of impacts determines the level of strain resulting on and in the individual. In coping with and adapting to their total environment, individuals will manifest affective, physical, and behavioural reactions. These reactions range along a negative-positive continuum. Should coping or adapting mechanisms be inadequate and a preponderance of negative reactions occur, adverse outcomes may well arise in the form of morbidity, mortality, and/or accidents. This process is shown in Figure 10.¹¹

FIGURE 10
PROCESS OF POLICE HEALTH



The maintenance of police health implies the utilisation of all measures capable of: assisting in maintaining good industrial job environment fits; assisting in reducing negative factors in the individual's environment; assisting individuals to cope with or adapt to unchangeable aspects of their environment; and ameliorating the impacts of resultant sickness or accidents or approaching death, preventing accidents, and assisting dependants in the event of death.

Some measures, such as medication and annual physical checks, fall directly within the area of traditional medicine and are easily recognisable as such. Others, such as fitness, weight reduction, and nutrition programs are generally recognisable as having a health connexion although perhaps not belonging to mainstream medicine. Yet other measures, such as family support programs, career development, proper screening, that is, measures largely aimed at improving the individual-environment fit, are not traditionally seen as being relevant to health. As such, they fall substantially into other areas such as personnel administration. Nevertheless, because of their indirect but still very real relevance to health, when compared to traditional medicine which is largely reactive rather than preventive, such matters must necessarily be considered within the total framework of police health maintenance.

A major problem associated with police health maintenance is that the various factors involved in police health fall within a variety of disciplines and

theoretical camps. In the absence of administrators possessing cross-disciplinary skills, coordination is difficult to achieve. Like criminology, police health maintenance must draw entirely upon the product and resources of other disciplines. Really, a new body of knowledge needs to be accumulated as an aid to police administrators. Medicine would be a necessary contributing discipline, but is by no means sufficient to constitute the entire field. Just as war is too important a matter to be left entirely to the generals, so too is health maintenance too important to be left entirely to physicians. Other important contributing disciplines include nutrition, psychology, sociology, human relations, industrial relations, personnel administration, human movement, and economics.

This chapter attempts to place some of the more pressing issues in police health maintenance within a comprehensive personnel administration framework.

ELEMENTS OF POLICE HEALTH MAINTENANCE

Police health maintenance may be classified according to a wide range of categories, and a certain degree of arbitrariness is unavoidable in the delimitation of these categories. For present purposes, the following discussion heads are utilised: the individual; non-workplace relations; workplace; medical services; and non-medical services.

The Individual

Four major considerations suggest themselves for discussion under this head. They are: selection and induction; fitness development and maintenance; job satisfaction; and conditions of service.

Probably the most critical single factor in the entire concept of police health maintenance is that of selection. If poor risks are admitted to the police service, health standards will be lower by the extent to which they are admitted. If poor risks are excluded, health standards will accordingly be higher. More than this, sound recruitment and selection practices are critical to the entire police enterprise.¹² In saying this I realise that no police force has yet empirically established its roles and therefore has no validated performance objectives. Until such objectives are established it will be impossible to develop appropriate selection criteria. Present discussion is necessarily either speculative or concerned with current practices which, to varying degrees, are poorly based - although not entirely without merit.

The major elements currently comprising police selection include psychological, social, and physical considerations. An extensive literature attaches to each of these considerations. It is, unfortunately, far too extensive to review here and only brief reference can be made to some of its more prominent aspects.

Three major areas of concern from the

psychological perspective are: personality assessment; IQ measurement; and vocational aptitude.

Personality assessment is without doubt the most difficult and disputed area in police candidate selection. While it is clearly a matter of concern that psychiatrically disturbed applicants be excluded from police entry, it is not always possible to identify those who are not suited for a police career. The most commonly used pathology-detecting devices used are either self-report or projective. These include: The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI); Rorschach Psycho-Diagnostic test; Thematic-Apperception test; Bender-Gestalt test; and projective drawings.

These tests are variously employed to find evidence of: previous, current or potential psychosis; arrested emotional development; homicidal or suicidal tendencies; marked depressive tendencies, phobic reactions or excessive mood swings; capacity for tolerating stress; homosexuality; and previous or current cerebral pathology.

However, for large police agencies, the application of such tests poses considerable administrative and cost overloads. Although proponents of the various tests claim significant success, all have their critics. Of the tests listed perhaps only the MMPI is nowadays regarded as having any relevance at all for police. The Psychological Services Unit of the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department is

currently engaged in validating selected MMPI items for police use. Guarded optimism exists in some quarters concerning the validation process. Other personality tests of possible value to police, but which are not designed to test for serious pathology, are the California Psychological Inventory and the Cattell 16PF.

Another test of typical performance involves behavioural observation. Situational testing has acquired popularity with a few United States police agencies.¹³ These tests are demanding to stage and are normally beyond the capacity of smaller police agencies to conduct. However, there is a real advantage in being able to observe job-related behaviour. Behaviour under pressure, conflict-resolving ability, and decision making can all be studied to some advantage.

Some commentators have criticised the apparent over reliance placed by some police administrators on intelligence testing on the grounds that test results have not been correlated with field performance.¹⁴ But intelligence testing in conjunction with soundly based performance and personality tests seems most desirable. If it is accepted that the intelligence of individual policepersons should not be below the community mean, then it is necessary that the intelligence of police be quantitatively demonstrated by test scores.

Tests of vocational aptitude are no easier to design than the instruments referred to in the preceding paragraphs. Such tests are often used as mental ability

tests in addition to their job performance prediction component. A major complicating factor is, of course, that some behaviours are impossible to predict. Despite this difficulty, vocational aptitude tests represent the number one priority in police selection research today. One well known American researcher in the field of personnel selection testing left it early in 1978, sadly remarking that he felt no worthwhile instrument would ever be devised. However, all is not lost, as the Queensland Police Department's psychologist, Bruce Bond, is currently working on the long-term development of such instruments. Having an indeterminate number of years ahead of him, some worthwhile results may be forthcoming. However actions speak more accurately than words, and so, the background investigation is a vital part of the selection process. A history of stable and responsible behaviour is considerably superior as a predictor of future responsible behaviour to the assertion of such intentions before a selection board.

In attempting adequate police candidate selection, care must be taken to maintain balance and proportion. Thus, some flexibility in the system is necessary and a view of the candidate as a whole person needs to be taken. Police candidates are expected to comply with certain requirements across a wide range of physical attributes, statuses, knowledges and skills. Included in such selection criteria are minimum standards relating to age, height, citizenship, vision, physique, health, and driving skills.

The police selection system can be likened to a funnel in which those candidates least suited to police work are progressively winnowed out. Each criterion listed by the host force is seen as a hurdle to be surmounted before a candidate can pass to the next. If any one hurdle is failed, then the candidate is failed overall. Obviously, certain criteria must be fixed and immutable. Candidates in poor health or physical condition are clearly not acceptable, but those who possess useful specialist knowledges and skills should, subject to constraints of common sense, be permitted to compensate certain physical shortcomings in favour of the knowledge and skills they possess.

Once a candidate has been selected for police service, he or she enters a period of training and probationship. The literature on the subject, as with selection, is vast. Suffice to mention for present purposes two vital aspects of training and probationship. First, recruits' expectations of police service in this age of Starsky and Hutch are liable to be unrealistic. A basic cause of low job satisfaction during the early years of service is the poor fit between a member's expectations and the realities of his/her job. In turn, low job satisfaction is undoubtedly a major factor in low standards of police health as well as of performance. Thus it is vital that during the early stages of recruit training, pre-existing expectations are erased and more realistic expectations inculcated. Second, the potential for inappropriate behaviours is more difficult to mask over a lengthy period than a short period. Thus supervi-

sion of probationers must be systematic and close. Where remedial measures are either inappropriate or ineffective, probationers should be discharged. There is a reluctance in many police agencies to separate a probationer. This reluctance is unfortunately often reinforced by inadequate probationer assessment measures. In the United States, misfeasance suits relating to the negligent training and retention of unsuitable trainees have highlighted these issues with beneficial results. It is hoped that similar legal actions will not be necessary in Australia before training administrators get their houses in order.

Not only must expectations of newly joining members be reshaped in order to prepare them properly for their careers in the police service and particularly their introduction to the field but also such members should be in a position by the end of their probationship to have an idea of how their particular organisation operates, the avenues of employment open to them, prerequisites for advancement, and inter and intra service mobility requirements. It should be appreciated that adequate career development is part and parcel of expectation development. Despite the obvious necessity of such personnel programs as part of the manpower planning circle, only a minority of police agencies do in fact operate effective career development schemes.

Fitness

The United States National Advisory

Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals Report on Police noted the difficult nature of determining fitness requirements for police. Physicians, bus drivers and other workers know fairly precisely the nature of job-related physical demands that will be placed upon them during the course of their employment. Police cannot do this. For days they may operate at a minimal level of physical exertion and then be faced with a hard run followed by a struggle to arrest an offender. For this reason the Commission recommended that in addition to the usual promotion of sport and games within a police department, agencies 'should establish physical fitness standards that will ensure every officer's physical fitness and satisfactory job performance throughout his entire career.'¹⁵

There is, fortunately, some research evidence to indicate that fitness has a beneficial impact on health.¹⁶ In addition, Clarence Kelley assures us that 'a basic need in the police profession is fitness, not just physical strength or size, but the all-around physical wellbeing that develops stamina and endurance'.¹⁷ There has, however, been little research to establish the relationship between fitness and work performance. The Dallas Police Department has taken a tentative look at possible impacts of fitness on work performance. The department's report guardedly concluded that 'there appears to be a positive relationship between taking part in a formal physical fitness program and performance'.¹⁸ More positively, but without supporting evidence, one writer asserts that 'having good physical fitness and maintaining regular

physical activity can relate to several areas of job performance:

- Basic stamina, strength, and agility needed for shooting ability and for self defense can be improved.
- Basic health level is improved and thus sick time is decreased.
- The negative effects of the sedentary nature of police work relate to certain diseases such as heart disease, lower back problems, and obesity can be counteracted.
- Early retirement and disability can be reduced.
- Tolerance to fatigue permits increased work capacity.
- Citizen respect can be increased by having officers who look trim and fit.¹⁹

The same writer also asserts a positive relationship between physical fitness and emotional and intellectual functioning. While we need to exercise extreme caution in accepting statements lacking scientific support, in the absence of such support we have to exercise our best judgment. Knowledgeable and experienced police personnel would generally accept the broad accuracy of the claims made above.

Quite apart from definitional problems of fitness, there is the massive problem of

converting job requirements to fitness program specifics. It may be argued that fitness programs do not need to be job related. This view would essentially seem to be a cop out by those wishing to avoid the difficult task of translating job requirements into empirically established and related regimens for police employees. For a police employer to insist on his staff meeting certain physical fitness standards he needs to be able to demonstrate the job related nature of those standards, and also the relatedness of regimens to those standards. If an employer is not in such a position he is clearly subject to legal challenge. The Australian Capital Territory police, which to date has employed traditional fitness programs in its recruit training, is now seeking more scientifically based programs due to several injuries having occurred during training. Difficult questions concerning workers' compensation and other claims may arise where unvalidated programs are employed.

In considering the physical fitness of its members, the Ohio State Highway Patrol realised that it had no valid measurement of physical fitness. The organisation's rationale being that 'each officer must keep physically fit so as to be able to readily perform any duty customarily assigned and present an appearance of physical fitness'.²⁶ In trying to establish the level and type of fitness necessary for troopers, it was found that a great deal of duty time was sedentary, that is, spent sitting in vehicles, while at the same time emotional strain was experienced daily. Physically taxing situations were also frequently experienced by

personnel, for example, arrest of resisting violators, pushing vehicles, carrying injured at accident scenes, and riot duties. It was realised that 'to effectively and safely face these tasks, both physical endurance and physical strength are necessary'. It was determined that Kenneth Cooper's aerobics program offered a convenient method of meeting both these needs. Accordingly, all first line personnel are tested twice a year as follows:

- Endurance: time run over a 1.5 mile course
- Strength : situps - 2 minute time limit
- pushups - no time limit but consecutive
- squat thrusts - 1 minute time limit

Provisions are made for age but exceptions are only possible upon advice of a physician. Performance in both tests is converted to performance categories. A minimum acceptable standard is laid down, that is, 'good'. The scoring charts devised by the Ohio State Patrol for test assessment are shown in Annex H.

Of course, administrators are then faced with the further problem of devising programs suitable to the successful achievement of the tests. A great deal of research remains to be done in this area, including the development of a range of appropriate exercises. The conversion of job needs to

individual exercises and physical performance tests is clearly the area requiring greatest priority.

The broad encouragement by agency heads of sport and fitness generally within their organisations is eminently desirable. The United States police olympics and the now discontinued Australian interstate police games are examples of how interest in sport and health may be fostered. Most forces now provide for injuries suffered during officially approved sports to be considered injuries on duty and thereby qualifying injured parties for compensation. The New Zealand Police Force has taken considerable initiative in this area, to the extent that it has a police sports officer who is responsible for coordinating sport and fitness at a national level. The New Zealand police sports officer is also Secretary of the Police Council of Sport.

JOB SATISFACTION

The time police spend at work represents a substantial proportion of their lives. It is not unreasonable to assume that the level of satisfaction derived from their jobs will have a significant impact on the quality of their lives both in and out of working hours. 'Poor levels of job satisfaction may well also contribute to occupational health problems of a mental or physical nature.'²¹ Thus, measures to raise levels of job satisfaction are warranted in the interests of both individuals and the society in which they operate.

There is some evidence to suggest that improvements in performance quality and quantity may result from improved job satisfaction among workers. At the very least, improved job satisfaction among employees may help in reducing or preventing decreases in job performance which might otherwise have occurred. There is certainly no doubting the strong link between job satisfaction and job performance, although it would be naive to see it as a simple causal relationship.

A considerable amount of research has been done on police job satisfaction and this research has produced mixed results. Accordingly, it is not possible to provide police administrators with precise lists of what satisfies or dissatisfies police or to hand them patented therapeutic packages for implementation. However, some understanding can be gained from the research done so far. Alan Arcuri,²² for example, found in a study of New Jersey police that the most satisfying experiences obtained in police work were: helping people; conducting thorough investigations; public gratitude; proper sentencing; instruction; influencing changes in society; and protecting lives.

The least satisfying experiences were associated with: petty offences; appearance in court; paper work; politics; and public abuse.

While such a listing is not a prescription for action, readers will no doubt quickly grasp the implications for selection, training, and career development which exist in such lists. It is also

apparent from the research literature pertaining to job satisfaction that many relevant factors are not subject to manipulation. However, it is not that simple, as objective factors are related to subjective factors. One study by Piliavin et al²³ puts these relationships extremely well. They group the various significant factors into five functional clusters: background attributes; work related attributes; orientations toward police work; general attitudes; and job facet satisfaction.

Some of the factors identified provide greater levels of satisfaction than others, while some provide better predictors of job satisfaction than others, for example, attitudinal variables. Even this well-conducted study concluded with only very tentative and general statements which indicate that a great deal more research remains to be done before we achieve a clear understanding of the relationship between health problems and job satisfaction. In the meanwhile, administrators are forced to rely on such literature as exists on job satisfaction, job enrichment, and motivation - always bearing in mind the axiom that high job satisfaction conduces to better health.

Administrators and others interested in improving the satisfaction of police employees can also look to the literature of job enrichment and motivation for some guidance although, as with the job satisfaction literature, no answers are spelt out in programmable form. In particular, they should be aware of Frederick Herzberg's job

enrichment theory. Herzberg managed to identify intrinsic job factors and motivator factors, that is, factors conducive to job satisfaction. These included: achievement; recognition; work itself; responsibility; advancement; and growth.

Herzberg also identified a number of factors likely to cause dissatisfaction with the job. These factors, which are extrinsic to the job itself, are: company policy and administration; supervision; relationships with supervisors; work conditions; remuneration; peer relationships; personal life; relationships with subordinates; status; and security.²⁴

As with the factors identified in job satisfaction research referenced previously, for example, Piliavin's, it will be readily seen that employers cannot control all factors bearing on job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, but they can influence many of them. Once again, the implications for selection, training, career development, and job organisation are great. In considering all these factors in relation to satisfaction programs, administrators need very much to bear in mind not only the relationships between factors, but their relative importance in terms of impact.

Conditions of Service

Terms and conditions of service have an important bearing on the satisfaction of police personnel with their job. They also have a direct impact on performance in that insufficient salary may lead either to

undernourishment or, more probably, moon-lighting. Either way, underpaid police officers are going to be less rested and/or less fit to perform their jobs.

Herzberg has already identified salary as an important area of concern with regard to satisfaction, and, thus, health. It follows then that proper provisions need to be made in order for police employees to make whatever representations they feel necessary to departmental or government authorities concerning their pay and associated matters. All police forces in Australia have access to arbitration tribunals in which employees and employers may place their respective arguments concerning economic conditions of service and in which, hopefully, an independent decision is possible. In the United States, only a minority of police agencies enjoy such provisions. This is not to say that employees do not have an opportunity to make their views known, but access to arbitration is only partial in that country. In today's industrial climate, employee input into wage determinations is considered a fairly basic 'right'. Those employees not possessing such an advantage are often, and not surprisingly, dissatisfied with their status.

Perceptions of relative deprivation can be potent elements in employee satisfaction. I consider that any police administration which wishes to maintain the sound mental and physical health of its members, should provide an independent arbitration forum for employee participation in remuneration determination. I realise that

legal constraints apply in some parts of the United States, but there are relatively few situations existing in that country in which at least memorandums of understanding could not be achieved with a little goodwill.

Herzberg also identified employee concern with company policy and administration as an extremely important factor conducing to dissatisfaction. In Australia, since the 1975 application of indexation guidelines by the various industrial tribunals, the single greatest cause of industrial disputes in the total workforce has been policy and administration matters. This trend has also been evident in the police service, where disputes over policy and administration outnumber those relating to economic matters.

With this point in mind, administrators need to seriously consider questions of rank and file participation in decision-making and grievance-resolution processes. Although specific research evidence is lacking on the point, no experienced policeman or policewoman would deny the importance of such outlets to police morale. In Australia, employee inputs to decision-making at the departmental level are limited. Some forces maintain a labor-management committee which may on occasions discuss matter of general policy. But mostly employees are not admitted to their agency's decision-making councils. At best, in some states, a dispute may be accepted for mediation by the industrial authorities, regardless of its nature, when it is thought that a job action might result. However, no arbitration power attaches to such media-

tion. A somewhat similar situation exists in the United States, where non-economic matters are generally excluded from negotiation. In some instances, for example, in Boston, employee militancy has been sufficient to enforce substantial reforms required by rank and file members and rejection of management initiatives.

Another outlet for employee grievances relates to particular matters either of an individual or group nature. All Australian and many American police agencies provide some avenue for redress of grievances. In Australia, the forums of redress vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction and are also multiple within jurisdictions. Thus, a complaint of an unfair labour practice may go to an industrial magistrate, a complaint concerning a supervisor's conduct direct to the department, and complaints concerning promotion, postings, etc, may go to a variety of tribunals. In America, a similarly muddled system often operates, although in some United States police agencies employees entirely lack grievance procedures. However, a common American grievance procedure is the three, four, or five step process often defined within a contract or memorandum of understanding. Such a process has much to recommend it, especially because ultimately binding and impartial arbitration is possible. This is something which is entirely lacking in Australia. This matter is touched on at greater length in the chapter on police labour relations.

While the provision of adequate outlets for employees' grievances are

important in terms of police health overall, the obvious preemptive strategy for administrators is to encourage congruence between administration and rank and file views. To do this, of course, administrators must have faith in the potential of their employees to be positively motivated and enjoy their work if appropriately organised. Such faith is the basis of MacGregor's²⁵ theory Y in which it is posited inter alia that: physical and mental effort is natural to humans; commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement; and most humans, given appropriate circumstances, desire responsibility.

One obvious approach to increasing congruency between expectations and goals of administrators and employees is that of management by objectives,²⁶ both long and short term. MBO involves all concerned personnel in the determination of philosophy, goals, and means necessary for the successful implementation of a plan or program. It has the great advantage of being applicable at any level of an organisation. Unfortunately, the implementation of an MBO program requires a great deal of scene-setting within a police organisation, such as deciding what the agency's mission is. This preparation is rarely undertaken.

It will be seen from the very brief glimpse provided here that there is a great deal administrators and others can do to assist employees in becoming not only more satisfied with their jobs but also more productive, happier and healthier. These qualities in turn lead not only to

significant savings, but hopefully, also to qualitatively improved performance.

Non Workplace Relations

There are a number of elements comprising the relationships relevant to police health which occur largely outside the workplace. These elements of course do not occur within a social vacuum. They impact, and in return are impacted, with elements occurring essentially within the workplace. Nevertheless, there is some benefit in considering the two categories separately, if only to assist police administrators, welfare staff, and others with an understanding of the police social environment not immediately subject to official control.

For present purposes, four elements are discussed: family life; patterns of alcohol usage; friendship groups; and rostering.

The interconnectedness of all four items is clearly apparent. Family life does not head the list by chance. The vast majority of police personnel are males and the vast majority of those males are married. And, not only are they married, but they tend to marry early in life. Thus, the family, with all its potential for joy and disaster, plays an important part in the lives of most police. Police personnel experiencing severe problems in their family life may be a hazard not only to themselves and their colleagues but to the very citizens they are sworn to protect.²⁷

If a male spouse is already in the police service when he marries, his wife will normally have some idea of the problems associated with police family life prior to marriage. Thus expectations from the outset tend to be more realistic than those of a couple, when the male party changes his employment to become a policeman. Major pitfalls in police family life are especially associated with the deterioration of family social life and the impact of the job on the husband.

At the outset of a marriage, as John Stratton points out,²⁸ idealism tends to predominate in both partners. But, over time, the idealism fades and the nature of the relationship changes. Often, because of the nature of the job and its organisation, negative pressures predominate and problems can occur. If not ameliorated in some way, either fortuitously or by design, the relationship may deteriorate past hope of salvage. It is in this vital area that helping/service programs can be most effective. Chaplains appointed to Australian police forces report being overwhelmed by members requiring advice and comfort concerning a wide array of marriage-related problems.

Arthur and Elaine Niederhoffer²⁹ have commented on the desirability of 'well-rounded service programs to assure better relations and fuller understanding vis-à-vis police families'. Some interest in the idea has been evinced in several Australian police forces but nothing concrete has resulted to date. Even in the USA, where greater emphasis is paid to welfare matters,

very few police agencies have introduced programs for spouses. It would seem that orientation courses for spouses would be particularly helpful in giving them a realistic understanding of their husbands' jobs, the pressures to which policemen are subjected, and the results of those pressures, for example, displaced anger, lack of communication, and suppression of secret fears and knowledge.

The most progressive and innovative agency in this, and many other areas, is the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, an organisation that can be considered a bona fide police force. Several years ago John Stratton, the department's staff psychologist, introduced an orientation program for police spouses. The program, designed primarily for the spouses of advanced trainees, is held to increase wives' understanding and awareness of the activities and job situations of their husbands. 'Further, it provides actual participation in some of the activities that their spouses will be performing throughout their careers in law enforcement.'³⁰ The program consists of eight sessions which are so constructed as to provide a comprehensive overview of the department's operations and its implications for family life. Brief details of this program are given in Annex G.

Of particular importance in such courses is the involvement of experienced police wives as instructors and guides, and the clear presentation to wives of the services available to them. As the Niederhoffers' have pointed out, quite often

services available within a department are not utilised due to ignorance of their existence by potential clients. In this regard, police wives' clubs can be of great assistance in providing support and understanding to police wives, particularly when rocky spots are encountered in marriage. Two especially successful wives' clubs in this respect which spring to mind are the Police Wives' Club of Victoria, in Australia, and the St Louis Police Wives' Association, in Missouri. There is, unfortunately, a tendency for police wives' clubs to spring up on waves of enthusiasm and then founder shortly after on the rocks of apathy and jealousy. As with any other organisation, wives' clubs need a clear sense of purpose and plenty of enthusiasm. The two organisations referred to have been most successful in avoiding these pitfalls and serve as an example to others.

The St Louis County Police Department is another which has taken the initiative in trying to reduce the stresses of police work on police families.³¹ The department has established a police family program, which is mainly directed at the marriage unit, the police officer and his wife. Great emphasis is placed on the development and maintenance of sound communication between the partners - the basis of all success in a marriage. Participants are also encouraged to maintain social contacts and exchange experiences with those in similar positions. Participants are, in the main, advanced trainees and their wives.

With the increase in female police these days, prohibitions on married police-

women have now mostly disappeared. As a result, marriages of policemen and police-women are now no longer unusual. A degree of sensitivity in the personnel division is necessary in order that such partnerships can remain viable, for example, by coordinating postings and shifts. Such sensitivity is not always forthcoming, although as the phenomenon becomes more familiar, departmental resistance is gradually dying. We now also find police-women married to civilians. Non-police husbands, although a relatively rare breed, would no doubt also benefit from a spouses program.

In this day and age every progressive police department with more than 500 personnel (sworn and civilian) should have at least one full-time physician and one full-time psychologist. A particular problem of administrators is that of persuading governments to provide the necessary funds for physicians, let alone psychologists. Even when funds are available, it is not always a simple matter to find a competent physician interested in taking up such duties on a full-time basis. The term 'physician' in this context means medical officer for personnel purposes. Forensic roles should either be of a secondary nature, or a separate physician should be engaged for evidentiary purposes. Quite often community resources or other government agencies can be usefully employed in this respect. One obstacle to the employment of clinical and helping-type psychologists is physicians themselves. Many physicians see such a role as falling within their jurisdiction and resent the

presence of para-professionals. Certainly, in Australia and New Zealand, police physicians of various types are opposed to the employment of psychologists. Fortunately, this attitude is decreasing as psychologists move more and more into the area of psychological medicine.

Another problem relevant to police family life that will hopefully reduce over time, is the significant objection of police wives to female patrol partners for their husbands. Here two considerations apply. One, that female partners are generally considered by wives to be less able to physically protect their husbands. Two, anxiety concerning possible sexual encounters between the two - it has happened! Anyone, such as the present writer, who has spoken to police wives knows the anxiety they feel concerning this matter. The matter has been well expressed by an American police wife, Dorothy Brandreth:

What I found threatening was the possibility of a woman as my husband's partner. I do not doubt my husband's love for me or the family but spending so much time with another woman creates a certain amount of fear and concern. Also, would she be strong enough to back him in violent situations?³²

Such considerations all need to be taken into account in personnel assignment policies.

A general factor affecting non-work-

place relations (and, for that matter, those in the workplace) widely referred to in the literature of police health is that of alcohol usage.

American research has shown a positive relationship between alcohol usage and certain job specific stressors. Bruce Margolis and his fellow researchers³³ found that employees with high stress jobs drank more on average than those in low stress jobs. Other research³⁴ confirms that drinking is a coping mechanism for many employees subjected to high levels of stress resulting from their job.

Davidson and Veno³⁵ posit that since police are in a high stress occupation consisting of lower to lower middle class members 'who are a semi-isolated sub-cultural group heavily subject to peer pressure ... they can probably be classed as a high risk, alcoholic occupational group'. Although there is no hard proof available on this point, observation both in Australia and America tends to suggest that it has merit - probably more so in the latter country. Certainly, a number of United States police forces - for example, those in New York City, Philadelphia, Boston, Detroit, and Los Angeles County - either have Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) chapters of their own or maintain close links with AA so that police members may be referred to them. Only one Australian police force so far has made formal arrangements with AA for treatment of its members. This low proportion is due not to any variation between levels of alcohol consumption by members of the different Australian police

forces, but to lack of administrative concern. Wherever the established need exists, it is paramount that appropriate counselling measures be made available to alcoholic officers.

A point of particular importance with regard to treatment programs relating to alcohol usage is that of intervention. Clear cut policies need to be established which provide a medical rather than a legal emphasis, thereby decreasing the fear of sanctions implicit in all legal models.

Monsignor Joseph Dunne, director of the New York City Police Department's Counselling Service states his department's policy as:

- Alcoholism is a disease and the alcoholic a sick person requiring skilled rehabilitative assistance.
- Alcoholism is a departmental health problem and therefore a departmental responsibility.
- Each case of suspected alcoholism or 'problem drinking' shall be encouraged to seek adequate medical and counselling advice without delay.
- Support and assistance will be afforded to any employee who cooperates and displays an honest rehabilitation effort.
- Records will be kept strictly confidential.

- 'Problem drinking' will be considered to exist for the individual:

When his duty performance is materially reduced in efficiency and dependability because of drinking.

When such drinking is not an isolated experience but is more or less repetitive.

When such drinking results in recognisable interference with health or personal relations.

- Each commanding officer will be responsible for the early detection of problem drinking on the part of any member of his command and prompt referral for rehabilitative assistance.
- Our primary purpose is to rehabilitate the alcoholic to the status of a sober, reliable, productive employee, thus retaining his skills, training and experience.
- Where all available rehabilitation attempts have failed, termination of employment on a consistent and equitable basis is in the best interests of the department.³⁶

The administrative complications arising from such a policy statement are considerable. Legal objections, industrial loopholes, revamping of the discipline code

to provide for remands to a rehabilitative program rather than sanction, promotion policies, appeal provisions, medical procedures, and staff accountability are only some of the problems that may occur. There are, however, very tangible benefits to such efforts. In a case study of 50 alcoholic New York City policemen treated in accordance with human behavioural principles, it was shown that not only were all the members concerned returned to full duties, but that some \$100,000 were saved in lost time benefits.

However, in terms of the police family, alcoholism is frequently fatal. It can be asserted that in a majority of police divorces, the husband's drinking behaviour plays a significant part. Policemen spend less time with their families than most other husbands due to a combination of shift work and long duty hours. If available family time is impaired by drunkenness or the effects of drunkenness, the effects on the wife and children can be more devastating than is ordinarily the case.

Often allied with problems of drinking is the question of a policeman's friendship group. Policemen tend to associate with other policemen socially. Although the practice appears to be more prevalent in the United States than in Australia, the practice is nevertheless widespread in both countries. The buddy system is certainly more prevalent in United States police agencies than it is in Australia. It is particularly noticeable that buddies often socialise together outside the workplace. Where such socialising includes substantial

alcohol consumption, the family may be even further excluded from the husbands' attention. The shared secrets and experiences, in addition to the avoidance of harassment from citizens unsympathetic to police, all contribute to the male police practice of sharing both their working and private lives. It is absolutely necessary under such circumstances that additional pressures are not placed on the family bond.

Rostering has one of the most significant impacts on non-workplace relations. More than any other occupation, police are required to provide a 24 hour, 365 day per year coverage. This cannot be avoided. Families that cannot withstand the impact of husband/father absence on weekends and public holidays are better off seeking their income in some other industry. However, duty assignments can vary greatly. Few police departments pay adequate attention to the problem. This is cause for serious criticism as not only do the hours of duty have a serious impact on an officer's physical and mental health, but inefficient personnel scheduling can and does cost large departments millions of dollars in overtime payments and salaries of unnecessarily employed personnel.

Manual roster preparation is, as anyone who has had to maintain one knows, extremely difficult. Computers offer one means of maximising effective rostering as they provide the best means of satisfying the conflicting demands of married personnel for weekends off duty with peak workloads on Saturdays. Computer programs can be prepared 'which include procedures for

assuring a maximum number of weekends off, and for spacing them as uniformly as possible over the rotation period'.³⁷ Police field commanders are all aware of the impact of rosters on morale as well as their men's private lives. Where small stations are involved, it can sometimes be fruitful to let employees design, subject to contract and other requirements, their own rosters. If it can be arranged, even fixed rosters can be useful under certain family circumstances. It is, however, often difficult to reconcile the conflicting and competing demands of members for particular shifts and it is not always possible to let employees draw up their own. Circumstances dictate the ideal approach to roster compilation. The major considerations posited here are that schedules should be realistic in terms of meeting job demands and that maximum consideration should be given to the social situations of employees.

THE WORKPLACE

The major impacts of police work upon the health of police personnel are mostly recorded in the literature on police stress. Unfortunately, despite encouraging preliminary work in establishing hard data on the subject, the literature is long on speculation, self reports and assertion, but short on facts. For instance, no Australian police department maintains adequate morbidity records and few even maintain comprehensive mortality data - at least in reasonably accessible form. These facts are an indication of the low priority police

health maintenance occupies in the concerns of police administrators at this time. I hope the newly formed Australian and New Zealand Association of Police Surgeons and Medical Officers will vigorously promote the concept of police health maintenance to police administrators.

In the USA, the situation is generally little better. However, a few major departments have addressed the problem seriously and are really writing the text books as they proceed. It is those departments that provide such stimulus as there is for further efforts in the cause of police health.

There is little doubt but that the single greatest source of factors militating against the good health of policemen and policewomen is the workplace, whether it be in the streets or the station house. Research findings vary greatly as to whether the health of police is more negatively impacted than that of other occupations or the community generally. However, there is no contradiction of the fact that in all cases police health is adversely and significantly effected by the total impact of the job. This is of particular importance to police administrators for the reasons suggested previously, for example, cost and reduced operational capacity.

Job Demands

Job demands themselves fall into three basic categories: administration; job conflict; and shift work.

Police administration basically means management of the means whereby the effective performance of a police force is achieved. William Kroes, a major figure in police stress research, suggests that administrative stress in relation to police has two main aspects. First, policy, which encompasses work assignments, procedures, and personal conduct; and second, lack of backing and support.³⁸

In the United States, available research evidence suggests that rank and file police often perceive their department's administrative policies, and indeed administrators themselves, in largely negative terms. A similar although perhaps less intense situation also obtains in Australia. This largely negative view is in part a reflection of the standard of administration exerted by police officials. Paperwork is also closely associated with administration and levels of required paperwork are universally condemned by police. A survey of South Australian police by the present writer showed that paperwork was second only to remuneration as a cause for employee concern. A nationwide poll of United States police opinion showed similar results.³⁹

Police forces are traditionally organised on hierarchical lines and are bureaucratically administered. Because of the screening effect of the numerous levels of the hierarchy, combined with largely authoritarian management styles, it is difficult for members at the bottom of the totem pole to impress their views on those at the top. Decisions concerning the

welfare of street level personnel are often made by persons remote from the realities of operational police work. The frustration experienced by rank and file members as a result can be stressful in the extreme. Anyone who doubts that considerable frustration exists in all police agencies need only stand in the muster room at any police station to learn the truth. This frustration is frequently compounded by a sense of exclusion from decision-making affecting their own work situations and welfare. Such frustration contributes to the total stress load of each officer. Of course, there are considerable differences between individual police in their ability to cope and/or adapt to such stresses.

Lack of support by superordinates for rank and file members is an almost universal complaint among police in the western world. This complaint poses problems to police administrators, who are often subject to social and political pressures unknown to rank and file members. A further compounding of the situation is that some police, being human, do misbehave. As do most people, police malefactors tend to view their own behaviour subjectively and sometimes resent even justified sanctions.

On the other hand, anyone with police experience knows that many complaints against police are either false or distorted and are motivated by spite or with a view to avoiding prosecution. Unless present at a scene of alleged police wrongdoing, police supervisors are not in a position to know who is telling the truth, or providing the most realistic version of the incident, when

an allegation of misconduct is made. Due to their own subjective perceptions and the knowledge that so many complaints are false, rank and file police demand almost total support from their administrators. The administrators, knowing all this, and also knowing that police do on occasions misbehave, are not in a position to always give the unqualified support demanded by their subordinates. To do so can be quite detrimental to control. The Philadelphia Police Department of a few years ago is held up as a perfect example of a department that lost its critical faculty and which, as a result, lost effectiveness and public respect. But, regardless of the difficulties of providing the right amounts of support and control to maintain an optimal balance of staff morale and good conduct, perceived lack of support by administrators can cause great distress to members.

Job conflict is another well-recognised stressor. Again, the situation is generally not as bad in Australia as it appears to be in the United States. Nonetheless, it is beyond reasonable dispute that substantial levels of job conflict exist in most if not all police agencies, particularly among the younger, more idealistic members of the service. Much of it is, unfortunately, beyond the capacity of administrators to resolve. Many police have seen situations at one time or another when justice was not impartially administered due to corruption, the 'old boy' system, or political or religious influence. Most police have a well-defined sense of justice and strongly resent seeing offenders, be they adults or juveniles, escaping justice

because someone senior to themselves, or perhaps in another branch of the criminal justice system, is not similarly motivated. To see an offender escaping what are considered to be his just deserts is one of the more embittering experiences a policeman suffers, despite the spirit of objectivity that is preached in police training establishments.

There is also the question of how police personnel see their job and the reality of their work. Expectations are everything in one sense of the term. If a young policeman sees police work in terms of dramatic crime-fighting, or providing a necessary service to the disadvantaged and victimised in society, or primarily as helping in the vital tasks of conflict resolution and order maintenance, then the reality of general duties in a quiet suburb or small country town may be far from congruent with the member's expectations. The gap between expectations and reality can be stressful, especially in the early years of service.

While some of the factors discussed here are not susceptible to administrative manipulation, others are. There are great implications here, as elsewhere, for selection, training, career development, postings, assignments, etc. The important broad concept here is the person-job fit. The better a person is suited to his or her job, the better will be his or her fit. It is axiomatic that the better the fit, the less the stress and, the less stress, the less illness and disease which may result.⁴⁰ A comprehensive listing of potentially

stress-producing situations is given in Annex I for the convenience of administrators.⁴¹

Stress in the police workplace provides an unique amalgam of factors. Martin Symonds⁴² a psychiatrist and former policeman sums up some of the more unusual factors rather well:

It is one of the few occupations in which one is feared, sometimes hated, occasionally reviled or even assaulted in the ordinary performance of one's duties. When we consider that most people need and want to be liked, and that the young [policeman] starts his career by seeing himself as an individual who will help and protect others, we can understand what an emotional strain is placed upon him by the uncooperativeness, antagonism and hostility of the public whom he serves.

MEDICAL

The health of police personnel has been the subject of a good deal of comment in recent years. It is quite clear that policemen experience a range of pathological conditions, some of which are job-related. Whether police are significantly worse off in this regard than other workers is difficult to say. As mentioned previously in this chapter, Australian police health statistics are largely inadequate for purposes of making careful comparisons. No doubt a similar situation exists in USA.

Such health-related research as has been done has been of the self report variety and thus has the disadvantages attaching to that particular research method. The study by Caplan et al (1975) found police to be among the most satisfied occupations, along with professors and family physicians. Some psychiatrists, for example, Symonds, Heiman,⁴³ and Nelson and Smith⁴⁴ feel that police are an abnormally stressed occupational group and suffer healthwise accordingly with particular reference to suicide. On the other hand, Fabricatore and Dash⁴⁵ suggest that police officers have a lower than average potential for suicide and psychological dysfunction. Available Australian data suggest that police morbidity rates do not vary significantly from the rates for other males in the same age range.

Police, however, represent the physical cream of society because of the demanding physical selection criteria normally set. It can be argued that if a group of men from the upper end of the physical quality continuum can only manage average morbidity rates then that fact itself is highly significant. These are, however, mere speculations. What is needed is a sound survey of police health involving both self report data and physical measurement. Marilyn Davidson and Art Veno⁴⁶ submitted such a recommendation to the Australia police commissioners at their request. The submission was rejected, partly due to apprehension concerning the industrial potential of such an undertaking, that is, any evidence of significant ill health or mortality experienced by police

could reasonably be expected to result in claims for increased remuneration. By way of contrast, the New Zealand Police Force is at the time of writing in the midst of a substantial survey of police health, a study involving the vital element of physical testing.

In the meanwhile, the outpouring of material placing excessive focus on police health problems is doing the occupation something of a disservice. Subjective impressions are often more important than objective realities.⁴⁷ Thus, if police are persuaded, without adequate evidence, that they are a severely disadvantaged group in terms of occupational health, it is conceivable that police health might be adversely affected as a result. Emotional articles, for example, 'Are Police Allowed to Have Problems of Their Own?' which appeared in the *Police Magazine*⁴⁸ perform a disservice to the cause of police health maintenance by painting an inaccurate and emotional picture through overemphasis. After all, there is no need for emotionalism and overemphasis, the picture is bad enough as it is! Actual deaths, absence statistics, discipline rates, medical boardings, and observed illnesses are sufficient to indicate to any open minded administrator the need to institute health maintenance programs. Even so, the institution of such programs should be preceded by the best research available so as to clearly establish the nature of the problem.

Some discussion is perhaps desirable at this point to indicate the nature of psychological and physical pathologies

involved in police health. There is some disagreement among researchers as to the precise nature of impacts and the factor relationships involved. In the absence of definitive evidence, administrators and others concerned with the promotion of police health will need to make their own best judgments in many instances.

Emotional stress, if extended over a considerable period of time or if it is frequently repeated, is considered to contribute to a number of psychiatric and internal conditions. There can be little doubt that 'a considerable proportion of it is generated by the exposure of man to various aspects of modern working life'.⁴⁹ Behaviour is often the cue to emotional stress. For instance, a policeman may start to drink excessively, womanise, become reclusive, commit suicide, be involved in accidents, become hypochondriacal, lose interest in his work and/or family, lose his temper excessively, become depressed or, more probably, present a combination of such symptoms. Such behaviour is sometimes a form of coping or adaptive behaviour. Sometimes neurosis may develop, more rarely a psychotic condition may result.

The rate of alcoholism among police has been a matter for comment in most countries at different times. While drunkenness is frequently a coping mechanism related to job stress, it has a compounding effect in that family life deteriorates as a result of drunkenness and drink-induced behaviours. Decreased satisfaction from the marriage thus adds to the total stress load of both partners. Continued heavy drinking

also leads to physiological damage which may in turn result in ill health and even death. We have in Australia a few police deaths every year from cirrhosis of the liver.

The incidence of marital discord in police families is another social characteristic of police that excites comment in police circles. Tensions arising from work are inevitably taken home. It takes a keyed up worker a while to unwind. This applies in all occupations. But, as the stress experienced by operational police is often substantial, the unwinding period often takes longer for police than it does for other workers. It is a simple and common matter to aid the relaxation process with doses of alcohol. Many alcoholics are said to start this way.

In reducing psychological stress factors, one also helps reduce the psychosomatic effects of stress. Included here is a whole doctor's bag of conditions variously alleged to include coronary heart disease, diabetes, peptic ulcers, hypertension, and certain allergies. The relationship between the original perception of stress and the onset of a psychosomatic condition is not entirely clear. But a very brief description of some of the body processes involved is useful in gaining some understanding of the nature of the relationship.

We all have a collection of ductless glands known as the endocrine system, three components of which are the pituitary gland (located in the centre of the head), the adrenal glands (positioned over the kidneys), and the hypothalamus (adjacent to the mid-

brain). Due to strains incurred in modern living, man tends to overtax his endocrine system which is better designed to meet the needs of his ancestors rather than those of 20th century man. Negative physical conditions arising from the activities of the endocrine system are said to include fatigue, insomnia, headache, backache, hypertension, anxiety, depression, indigestion, impotence, frigidity, and spastic colon.⁵⁰

In the short term, though, such as in a moment of tension or shock, whether it results from the abusive language of an irate motorist or the immediate prospect of having a large and aggressive drunk dismember one, neurons inside the brain send coded instructions to the hypothalamus. There, electrical impulses are converted to chemical secretions, one of which is released to the pituitary. In turn, the pituitary produces a further secretion which travels to the adrenals. The adrenals produce a number of secretions, one consisting of steroids (or stress hormones) which are released into the blood stream. Another secretion consisting of epinephrine and norepinephrine (catecholamines) is also produced. These secretions are designed to protect the body. The steroids increase coagulations of blood in wounds, create tissue swelling around broken bones, speed up metabolism so that fat and protein are quickly converted into energy, and fight inflammation.

When one is confronted by an emergency or high stress situation, such reactions are necessary to permit survival. But, in modern society, and particularly in the

police service, we have a situation in which men and women are in a state of almost continual stress. Not high-level short-term stress, but low-level long-term stress which has an effect on the endocrine system of making it somewhat like a leaking faucet. Epinephrine released for long periods, even in minute quantities, has the effect of impairing cell regrowth. This particularly applies to the alimentary tract and the formation of peptic and duodenal ulcers.

Certain steroids in excess can disturb womens' menstrual cycles, disturb biorhythmns and cause insomnia, not to mention their ability to induce attacks of colitis, asthma, diabetes, and migraine. When steroids combine with catecholamines (resulting from anger or anxiety), the cholesterol and fat content in the bloodstream is raised with suspected deleterious long-term effects on the coronary artery.

During earlier discussion concerning stressors it was noted that employers cannot control all stress agents in their employees' workplaces. Some, however, can be controlled. This discussion of the health impacts of stress gives a clear indication as to why such preventive efforts are necessary.

Stress reduction measures may be either proactive or reactive. Australian police agencies have been very slow to move into the field and have not yet proceeded past the point of purely oral and written instructions in terms of direct intervention measures. In the United States, some police agencies and in some cases regional

groupings of agencies, have taken concrete stress reduction measures. Reduction measures fall into three basic categories: education; specific support programs; and ongoing support programs.

Most importantly, police need to be made aware of the health aspects of their job and life style at the very outset of their career. Some Australian and American police forces do in fact provide some instruction on matters of personal health and hygiene. Where such training is undertaken it is usually performed from a particular perspective, for example, psychological or medical, and is usually insufficiently comprehensive. There is a great need for police health specialists to devise adequate recruit programs concerning health. Such material should be not only informational but also subject to assessment. Problems of police health administration are desirable elements for police senior officer courses. Some attention is now being paid to stress in such courses but comprehensive advice on health maintenance has generally been slow to emerge. It is noted that the New Zealand and Tasmania police forces have taken this aspect of training seriously and are providing adequate instruction.

Publications of various types are a means of getting the message across. The International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) has produced two training keys on stress which are useful for instructors and trainees alike. The Association has also produced a most useful fitness manual for police. I hope IACP will prepare

further police health material as such material actually gets into the hands of numerous United States police, whereas many other publications do not. For instance, in recent years a number of papers and articles have appeared in the *Police Yearbook* and *Police Chief* (both IACP publications) pertaining to police health, particularly fitness. This material is frequently intrinsically valuable but fails to get into the hands of many police - even administrators. This failure is seen more as an indictment of police administrators and members themselves than of the IACP's promotion of its materials. A periodical recently commenced which has potentially great relevance to police health maintenance. It is the International Law Enforcement Stress Association's journal, *Police Stress*. All concerned parties should support this interesting initiative and so ensure its success.

The publication of books on specific aspects of health such as Sam Berman's *Boston Police Diet and Weight Control Program*⁵¹ and, Bill Kroes' *Society's Victim - The Policeman*⁵² serves a useful purpose. Unfortunately, though, books of this type are even less likely to get into the hands of serving policemen. Not only should such material be brought to the attention of police personnel by their medical and administrative authorities, but those same officials should be more active in promoting health among police.

Specific support programs can play a most important role in promoting police health. For example, stress can be dealt

with in a specifically designed seminar, or it can be touched on in practically every program offered by a department inasmuch as stress is a universal dimension. Regardless of whether a program is one of driver training or community relations, there is always a stress and health aspect to touch upon. A valuable example of the former approach is the stress management training seminar developed by Dr George Komaridis under the auspices of the state of Minnesota Governor's Commission on Crime Prevention and Control. The program's designers recognised that police 'experience significant occupational stress which takes its toll in the departmental, family, and community functioning'. They accordingly developed a seminar designed to: clearly establish the dynamics of stress; sensitise each participant to his/her response to stress; provide attendees with skills in managing stress concerning both themselves and others; and desensitise attendees to stress in general and provide alternative coping behaviours.⁵³

A number of United States police departments, for example, those in Boston and New York City, either run diet workshops or conduct continuing weight reduction programs. The Boston Police Department currently runs a 10 week diet workshop. Hours are designed for the convenience of shift workers. The New York City Police Department insists that members weighing in excess of 40 lbs over the prescribed upper weight limit for their height and age are required to attend the police academy medical section for assistance in getting down to a more acceptable weight under the

direction of the chief surgeon. The object of the program is to convey to members the message that excess poundage can be dangerous to health, for example, it may contribute to heart, liver, gallbladder and circulatory system diseases, in addition to pneumonia, diabetes, and influenza.⁵⁴ In Los Angeles, the approach is more direct, either shape up or be suspended. In the New South Wales Police Department, Australia's largest, all personnel are now screened prior to promotion to sergeant third class. Obese members are counselled appropriately with regard to weight reduction. Promotion is not confirmed until an acceptable weight has been achieved. Obesity is almost universally accepted as a high-risk factor in cardiovascular disease, and such departmental requirements have a sound rationale.

Cardiovascular fitness in the police service, unlike the armed services, does not warrant high priority in administrative policies. And yet, this health facet is probably the most important of all. Surely, for reasons of proper placement of members over 30, all such members should be ECG tested on an electronic treadmill. Remedial exercise regimens can be individually tailored under such circumstances, which can be particularly satisfying for concerned members.

Of course, obesity is not the only significant factor in police cardiovascular disease. Research indicates that in addition to obesity, smoking, high blood pressure, sedentary living habits, and job-related stress are also significant.⁵⁵ One United States research study at the Dallas

Institute for Aerobics Research showed that younger police, that is, those under 30 years were average in terms of CHD risk. But middle-aged officers were higher than average risks and lower in physical fitness when compared with the general population for their age group. Ideally, all major police departments should have access to an aerobics laboratory. Not only can cardiovascular fitness be monitored in such establishments but substantial health gains can be made. For example, a test group of police at the Dallas Institute showed impressive gains after a 20 week fitness course. Significant improvement in all cases was noted in respect of working capacity, cardiovascular function, and muscular endurance and strength. Body fat and waist size were also reduced significantly. The study concluded that:

... future programs for police officers should include a combination of aerobic training, strength training, and motor ability development to prepare the officer to meet the physical demands of the job.⁵⁶

A particularly interesting and impressive example of a police department's investment in cardiovascular fitness and general conditioning is that of the Connecticut State Police. In that agency, all personnel are assessed, medically and physically. In order that members may meet physical assessment standards, a conditioning program is provided. This program takes into account, and with great care, the physical demands of the policeman's job.

Emphasis is placed on flexibility and cardiorespiratory efficiency. The entire program is based on four major premises. First, that regular vigorous physical activity helps reduce emotional and nervous tension. Second, that a physically fit individual is less susceptible to common injuries and, if injured, recovers more rapidly. Third, that associated health hazards such as degenerative heart disease, hypokinetic diseases, and orthopedic disorders are less likely to occur in physically fit individuals. And fourth, that improved health should allow individuals to perform their assigned duties and responsibilities with greater ease and prevent an excessive accumulation of sick days.⁵⁷

A health problem which gives serious concern to many police administrators is alcoholism. Fortunately nowadays alcoholism tends to be viewed by supervisors as a medical problem rather than as an embarrassing nuisance. Younger members today do not appear to drink as much alcohol as their older colleagues, which is a relief provided we are not merely exchanging one drug for another.

American police forces are on the whole more enlightened in their treatment of alcoholic members than those in Australia. Forces such as New York City, Chicago, Boston and Detroit have well-known counselling programs. Two points of particular interest are apparent in the establishment of such programs. The first point is that successful programs must have credibility with clients and potential clients. An

important element in establishing such credibility lies in having alcoholism and other programs located well away from headquarters buildings and regular medical services. There seems to be unanimity among practitioners on the point. The second point concerns the question of whether police or psychologists are best suited to run such programs. There is considerable division between practitioners on this point. Some counsellors, such as Joseph Ravino of the Boston Police Stress Program and Roy St Onge, of the Detroit Police Department's Personal Affairs Unit, strongly argue that police will only relate to other police, that is, peers who know the pressures police work can impose on a person. Such counsellors have an AA background and can deal directly with most members who approach them. In cases where their skills are inadequate they make appropriate referrals. Health and welfare programs being what they are, staff who participate in alcoholism programs on a regular basis are normally also involved in a variety of other forms of counselling. Unfortunately, the AA training which invariably seems to predominate in the repertoire of knowledge and skills possessed by such counsellors, is not always appropriate to problems in which alcohol is not a factor, for example, the young officer with a large mortgage and an unexpectedly pregnant wife. The AA principle that all social problems are alcohol-related just does not hold with all members, particularly younger members.

Professional psychologists, such as John Stratton of the Los Angeles County

Sheriff's Department hold that unqualified personnel running health/welfare programs are dangerous in that their lack of psychophysical knowledge could well lead them to give inappropriate advice and, more importantly, fail to recognise serious psychotic or other symptoms. Such psychologists have trained police working with them to provide peer counselling where appropriate. It is difficult to distinguish between the competing claims. The programs of both are claimed to work well, but only careful evaluation will demonstrate that fact. It may be that the level of professional training is not critical and that both sets of programs can operate equally well, regardless of the counsellor's background. One suspects that personality is probably the critical consideration.

It is becoming more and more appreciated in modern society, as evidenced by the number of publications emerging on stress and fitness, and the emergence of cults emphasising tension reduction and tranquility, that relaxation is a particularly important factor in health maintenance. Where relaxation is promoted in police departments it is usually done within the ambit of a stress-reduction program. This does not have to be the case, of course. The medical section of the New South Wales Police Department has a collection of relaxation tapes which it loans to members in need of some assistance on the matter.

The best point of introduction for relaxation training would seem to be during induction training. It is at this stage

that advice and instruction on a whole range of health related matters, including personal hygiene, nutrition, impacts of stress, emotional control training, diet, etc, should be introduced.

Police tend to be 'action-oriented individuals who are interested in ideas and concepts only to the extent they can be quickly, convincingly, and readily applied to the realities of everyday policework'.⁵⁸ Thus, topics such as relaxation are not readily received by many younger police. Considerable subtlety is needed in introducing such a topic.

Biofeedback is one method strongly advocated both for stress reduction and for improved classroom performance.⁵⁹ The technique is unfortunately expensive in terms of apparatus. The expense would probably preclude widespread use throughout a force. But the locating of appropriate machines at academies would optimise their employment. Claims made for biofeedback techniques include reduced muscle tension, reduction of headaches, retraining of muscles, and improvement in cases of insomnia, hypertension, hyperactivity, drug abuse, functional diarrhea, fecal incontinence, esophageal spasms, and gastric acid secretion.⁶⁰ However, its use among law enforcement personnel has yet to be reported upon.

Transcendental meditation (TM), which derives directly from yoga, is another method aimed at alleviating stress. Essentially, TM helps its practitioners to relax and 'slow down', that is, it encourages

parasympathetic dominance. Any method which can do that deserves consideration. Having practised it, I would recommend the practice but advise, paradoxically, that busy people have trouble finding the necessary 50 minutes a day required for meditation. The considerable fee involved is another negative consideration.

There are numerous other meditation methods which are also effective in inducing relaxation and it may be that between them they have something to offer stressed workers in whatever occupation. Self control through relaxation, including self hypnosis, is a valuable skill for all highly stressed workers. As one writer has said 'deep relaxation could be as necessary to our survival today as quick wits and emotions were to the survival of the earliest and nakedest human beings'.⁶¹ Even a cursory look at the literature indicates a rapidly growing interest in emotional control and stress in recent years.

Quite possibly, in the future, people will routinely use self relaxation methods in order to cope with a wide variety of stressors, thus permitting the dissipation of tension and maintaining their ability to remain calm regardless of the pressures impinging upon them. Inasmuch as stress on police personnel can be confidently expected to increase in the years ahead, and given the fact that performance and health can be improved by relaxation, it would seem a fairly high medium-term priority for police physicians and training officers to identify and/or design appropriate and appealing relaxation programs for police.

A largely unsung group of police are those officers who work 'under cover'. Maintaining a second identity under sometimes dangerous circumstances is one of the most stress-provoking of all assignments. As such, policies should be established to limit the length of time operatives may engage in covert duties. Of particular importance is the provision of medical and psychological care for such members.

The appointment of physicians and psychologists to the administrative staff of police forces is nothing new. At the same time, it is noted that many large forces do not have full-time medical officers on strength. This point applies in Australia just as much as elsewhere, and is one that is in need of urgent remedy. The new Association of Police Medical Officers of Australia and New Zealand can be expected to press for the appointment of medical officers in those forces presently lacking a medical practitioner. In both Victoria and New Zealand police medical officers attend the commissioners' routine management conferences. This level of involvement is essential if medical programs are to be properly integrated with other administrative activities.

Non-Medical Services

Although, for purposes of orderly discussion, a clear distinction is made between medical and non-medical approaches, real life is not always so accommodating. Thus, in practice, a degree of overlap exists. The most significant area in which

this overlap exists is that of welfare. In some police agencies, the welfare function is influenced, although not controlled, by the medical director. This, for example, is the case in New Zealand. In other agencies, a clear distinction is maintained, for example, in Boston and Detroit. A good example of an overlapping factor would be personal problem counselling. Many personal problems have a direct relationship with health, even if they do not relate to the client's personal health. In many agencies, members would prefer to take certain health problems to a welfare-oriented section than to medical services. When establishing such services within a police department, these considerations obviously require close attention.

Other non-medical matters thought to hold significance for the health of members, for example, sound promotion policies, may be considered so remote from direct considerations of police health as to be irrelevant. It could, of course, be argued that absolutely everything which occurs in a police department and that absolutely every experience of every police officer, is relevant to his or her health. I do not take such an extreme view. The problem thus arises as to where the cutoff point should be established. In the absence of detailed research on the topic, a degree of arbitrariness is necessary.

For present purpose four major facets of non-medical services are considered. These are: welfare; personnel; training; and equipment.

As mentioned previously, it is in the welfare area that an overlap occurs with medical services. Care needs to be taken to ensure proper levels of coordination where both medical and welfare sections are separately maintained within a single agency. Physicians can feel very threatened when they perceive paraprofessionals to be excising portions of their domain, for example, in the treatment of alcoholism. To prevent such an eventuality and, more often, in the absence of the availability of other services, physicians sometimes move into what are essentially welfare areas. This is generally seen as being highly undesirable. However, there are areas - for example, relaxation, nutrition, and weight reduction - where a dual domain exists. In such areas, it can be desirable to offer pertinent advice in both medical and welfare sections, so that the client member may take counsel where he or she feels most secure.

Examples of areas in which welfare sections, which should be organisationally located within personnel bureaus, can operate either independently or in conjunction with other services and/or agencies are: individual counselling; group counselling; nutrition counselling; relaxation therapy; family counselling; wives groups; couples groups; assertiveness training; Alanon; Alateen; Alcoholics Anonymous; spiritual counselling (if no chaplain is appointed); retirement counselling; and debt handling and maintenance.

Where problems of a serious nature are presented, or necessary expertise is not available, appropriate referrals should

obviously be made.

A mild, and sometimes not so mild, paranoia pervades many police agencies. In such agencies members will distrust any official initiatives in the welfare area. At the same time, it has been noted how critically important personalities are. For example, the South Australian Police Department employs a welfare officer who is a public servant and who also operates in a professional welfare manner. He has no operational police experience whatsoever. And yet he operates most effectively due to the credibility he has established with members. Many police would argue that it is absolutely necessary to have only police welfare officers/counsellors. But clearly, although no doubt desirable, this is not an absolute prerequisite for success. Most Australian police forces do, in fact, have an appointed welfare officer but, by and large, they appear not to be case-work oriented. New Zealand police have had an excellent scheme of police welfare officers for some 15 years now. This scheme is entirely case work oriented. The welfare officers work exclusively in the field. They are required to have at least 20 years service, have a family, and possess an appropriate personality. They may be at any rank up to and including inspector. While they liaise with district commanders, they are directly answerable to the director of personnel. In practice, most of the welfare officers are senior sergeants who have plateaued. They are located at the country's main centres, forming six welfare regions. They operate in plain clothes and rank is not used. The major objectives of

the welfare officer program are to: provide a channel through which members may receive advice and guidance in an informal manner on any problem, misunderstanding, grievance, perplexity or contemplated resignation; and promote harmony among members and a better understanding of them as both human beings and workers, thereby improving staff contentment and efficiency.

There is little doubt that, over time, this welfare service has contributed significantly to the life satisfaction of members. Resignation due to personal worries and problems have reduced markedly over the years.

An important element in welfare matters is that of union interest. Police unions are naturally very much concerned with the health and welfare of their members. Many police see their unions as a desirable alternative to the department as a source of welfare support. The fear of intimate or personal affairs being recorded in official files is considerable. This is an absolutely vital consideration in the establishment of any health welfare program.

One welfare area in which employers and unions can operate with equal facility is that of retirement counselling. Through well planned retirement counselling programs 'police departments can help to preserve and to enhance one of the community's most valuable resources - that of human ability channelled into useful endeavours'.⁶²

As increases in real wages become increasingly difficult to achieve, unions

will continue to move into the health/welfare role. Some also provide free legal advice, conveyancing services, special insurance rates, travel concessions, holiday homes, camping trailers, and so on. Such services provide a most useful positive input to police lives. The New Zealand Police Association has recently undertaken stimulating studies of early retirement and police families. Some Australian unions, too, are starting to examine their functions with a view to providing greater focus on services. For example, the Police Association of New South Wales now has a welfare officer assigned to retired members of the force, a group largely neglected by the department. In many jurisdictions, the range of services ideally to be provided members is so great that, where relations permit, departments and unions could arrive at sharing arrangements, in which the various services are divided and, where thought necessary, even duplicated.

The personnel division is quite clearly the branch responsible for coordinating all measures pertaining to police health whether they actually occur within its jurisdiction or not. There are, however, certain functions which are considered more central to personnel division responsibilities than others. Several of these have a close relationship with health. They are: selection procedures; manpower policies; career development; postings policy; promotion criteria; and appraisal.

The most obvious point concerning police selection procedures is that poor health risks are excluded from entry. An

associated consideration is that, wherever possible, selectees should be - to the extent that this can be determined - physically and emotionally suited to police work. In other words, to the extent that we can judge, there will be a good person-job fit. Predictions of this nature are admittedly limited. Some behaviours, such as dishonesty, cannot be predicted. Neither can other matters, such as undesirable marriages.

Departmental manpower policies are important in terms of health. Departments not assessing their strength needs well in advance are likely to find themselves understaffed at certain times for no good reason. This can cause workload pressures at street level. More importantly, the relationships of the various ranks needs to be kept in mind. Spurts in recruitment due to poor manpower planning lead directly to shortages of supervisors and executives. The development and preparation of such officials takes considerable time. The early advancement of poorly prepared supervisors can have a marked impact upon the performance of a police agency. Not only are the effects of such measures generalised, but the health of those poorly prepared officials may also be impaired.

The question of advancement, early or otherwise, is also closely tied in with career development. Certainly, within two years of joining a police department of any size, all members should have a clear idea of the prospects available to them, the general directions they wish to pursue, and the selection criteria applied in respect of

advancement. In this regard, assignments are of great concern. Obviously, assignments are determined primarily by the exigencies of the organisation. Subject to that overriding constraint, every effort should be made by personnel directors to place members as conveniently as possible. This is an extremely complex area as a host of competing and often conflicting factors apply. It is unfair to single men that they be sent to the most remote or unpleasant postings all the time, but wives often dislike remote postings or too frequent postings, to the extent that they sometimes leave their husbands. Considerations of expense, inconvenience, education of children and social dislocation all apply. Trying to maintain equity and balance in such matters in both state and national police forces is an almost impossible task. Certainly, considerable dissatisfaction will exist among some members concerning such matters regardless of whatever is done. The major requirement for personnel directors in such matters is to develop adequate equity criteria for assignments and postings, which in turn must pay sufficient attention to career development needs.

Progressive police forces promote primarily on ability. This is an easy proposition to state, but in fact it is extremely difficult to implement. First, proper criteria for advancement need to be established. Second, measures have to be instituted to permit those members interested in promotion to prepare themselves. Third, some objective means of assessing applicants or nominees for promotion are necessary. Here we touch upon an area which

is vital to morale. The problem is compounded by the very human fact that most persons have an unrealistic understanding of their capacity for advancement. Thus, objective ratings frequently result in resentment and even deep dissatisfaction. Those who work in departments where seniority rolls are maintained will appreciate how closely those rolls are watched and how keenly promotion 'out of 'turn' is resented. Thus, not only are sound promotion measures necessary, an extremely difficult task in itself, but a good deal of education is necessary to promote realistic assessments of self capacity.

So deep is the concern of most police in relation to such matters that questions of seniority and promotion are often cause for industrial concern. Thus, as with most other aspects of police health, unions need to be carefully consulted and involved in such matters.

Police training establishments occupy a particularly important role in the non-medical promotion of police health. First, and most importantly, trainers must realistically shape trainees' expectations of the careers ahead of them. The more realistic those expectations, the better the job fit, and the less dissatisfaction and stress will there be. A great deal of research is required in this area. Interesting early work was done in America by Richard Harris.⁶³ In Australia, Gerry McGrath is looking at the interactions of police trainees, and associated factors, in the New South Wales Police Department's

academy at the present time. At the conclusion of McGrath's research it is hoped that hypothesis generation and testing in respect of attitudinal change, adjustment, and resocialisation will be possible.

Only marginally less important than shaping realistic expectations is the academy's task in providing trainees with an appropriate repertoire of knowledge and skills to assist them in performing their street duties as effectively and as stresslessly as possible. Substantial failings exist in this regard in most police departments. I do not intend to discuss these failings here as to do so would be to digress into the infinite subject of police training. However, training cannot be fully effective in their absence. They are thus just briefly mentioned here. One, all training must be directed toward clearly articulated terminal performance objectives. Two, the appropriateness of those objectives to workplace realities must be constantly validated.

The physical safety of police employees is an important aspect of police health and also of police training. In particular, all police should be rigorously instructed in self defence and firearms safety. It goes almost without saying that all police drivers should be trained to the highest standards. In the operational arena, sound tactics should be taught to personnel involved in riot duties, armed offender squads, special patrol group, and such like duties.

Industrial safety officers have a

sound idea of the importance of good equipment and clothing to workers. Accordingly, in industry, such matters are heavily emphasised. In the police service the same safety approach does not operate. It is often left to police unions to protest apparent deficiencies in safety practices. In modern police forces, vehicle safety is of prime importance. Perhaps only those in the police service are aware of how many unroadworthy police vehicles are permitted on the road. A number of young policemen are killed on duty each year as a result of vehicle accidents. Although vehicle roadworthiness does not seem to be a significant factor in these deaths, rigorous efforts must be constantly taken to ensure that it never does. Speed and driving skills appear to be far more significant factors in police accidents. Nevertheless, vehicle safety must never ever be neglected.

Adequate clothing is particularly important. All police take great interest in their uniforms. One only has to note the representations made by the various police unions on the subject to realise this fact. Fortunately, the old days of thick serge uniforms all year round are now past. But some police administrators still have to be cajoled into permitting open necks and shirt sleeve order in summer months. If the level of decision-making displayed on this particular issue is applied across the board to all matters of police administration, we should not be surprised at the deficiencies evident in police personnel administration.

Weapons, pyrotechnics, body armour and other equipment depend to a large extent

upon a department's functions and style. Where used, however, only the highest standards and most appropriate materials should be utilised. Given budgetary restraints, this statement is easy to make but difficult to implement. The guiding principle, however, is that no shortcuts should be taken where health and safety are involved. Where pressures to compromise are brought to bear, police administrators should be prepared to resist.

Administrative Problems

Administration is never easy. Personnel administration is perhaps the most difficult of all administrative areas. When functional responsibilities extend beyond structural boundaries problems are further compounded. General statements are difficult to make because of considerations of scale. Police health concerns are relatively simple in a 10 person department. In a 10,000 strong agency, a highly complex administrative situation exists. Programs have to be cut according to the organisational cloth available.

Disregarding considerations of scale as best we can, the implementation of a comprehensive policy of police health maintenance has certain key problem areas. These are identified as: coordination; resistance; information; unions; pensions; and evaluation.

Some of these problem areas are clearly interrelated. They nevertheless warrant discussion in their own right.

Coordinating policy programs across functional and structural boundaries is always a difficult task. Two administrative ploys exist for tackling such a problem. One is to make a clearly identifiable and very senior officer responsible. In Australia, this would clearly be the assistant commissioner, personnel. Another is creation of a coordinating health and safety committee chaired by that same assistant commissioner. All relevant divisions and interests would be represented on this committee. Such a committee would be responsible inter alia for collecting, collating, and disseminating pertinent information, as well as formulating policy and programs. Key representatives on the committee would obviously be the force medical and welfare officers. Great care needs to be taken in such circumstances to maintain balance and proportion; otherwise an enthusiastic welfare officer, for example, might persuade the committee to emphasise welfare concerns to the extent that medical or, perhaps, operational interests were disproportionately represented.

Most important of all, the purposes and goals of such a committee need to be well researched prior to its establishment, and a clear charter of operation articulated. The structure of the committee and its sub-committees are of great importance to its ultimate success, as operational and operational support personnel often tend to be impatient about matters which are not instantly recognisable as having substantial and direct operational significance.

Just because policies and programs are self evidently desirable it does not automatically follow that their implementation will be welcomed. Operational personnel may perceive health programs as having low priority. Specialists may view them as inessential. All entrenched interests may see them as a form of bureaucratic empire and influence building. Apart from bureaucratic resistance there is the question of rank and file resistance. The 'gung ho' attitude of many young police officers which is normally, within limits, a desirable quality, is for example, anti-thetical to the concern for health and safety which should be manifested in the committee's deliberations. More than this, though, is the very serious resistance of members to health programs such as heart checks. Many older members literally do not want to know if they have a heart condition and do not wish to run the risk of having such a condition noted on their personal file. Provided they feel optimistic about making retirement age, many police just don't want to know. Two points are important in this connection. One, greater education must be undertaken to promote cardiac health. Two, provision must be made for physical examination programs outside the immediate control of the department. The results of these examinations should be private to the individual. Police unions or separate industrial health organisations may well be appropriate agencies in this regard. An important health provision is to make all promotions dependent upon a certificate of cardiovascular fitness. But in terms of annual check ups, privacy is the critical factor.

Resistance could also be expected in relation to the sudden implementation of health policy concerning height-weight ratios. Sensitisation activities would be highly desirable well prior to introduction as would also a fairly liberal application in the early years. Recruits should be conditioned to maintain reasonable weight and waist circumference for their entire working life. Australia has an extraordinary number of fat policemen. It is about time we started to change the image! As with heart checkups, rank and file resistance to weight limitations may be effected through their union. Fortunately, many unions today are highly sophisticated in health matters, and so union objection is not automatic. Ideally, of course, mutual consultation would precede all such initiatives - even to the extent of jointly initiating programs.

It is a relatively simple matter to expound an idea. It is not always so simple to obtain sound objective data with which to support such programs. A particular case in point is nutrition. Virtually every nutritionist contradicts every other nutritionist. Traditional wisdom has long had it that one should start the day with a large meal, with each following meal successively reducing. Now the reverse is being advocated. Once we were urged to emphasise protein in our diets, now we are told that we consume too much protein and that excessive protein levels are dangerous.

Great changes in knowledge are now taking place in human movement studies, stress studies, industrial relations, and

employee expectations, all of which have an impact on both obtaining useful knowledge and its application. A major benefit of developing a comprehensive concept of police health maintenance is that appropriate knowledge from the plethora available can be acquired by interested parties and applied and disseminated in a coordinated and comprehensive manner by planners and practitioners. In other words, knowledge will be more effectively utilised by those with a need for it. Some contributions will be of a broad conceptual nature such as this chapter. Others, more importantly, will address themselves to highly specific issues of fitness, nutrition, problem counselling, etc, which will be of direct, practical value to those directly responsible for health maintenance programs.

Union involvement in police health ventures is highly desirable. Unions are subjected to internal pressures of their own and have to reflect the views of members or at least their active members. If for example, older members in a department object to all or part of a health maintenance program, they could conceivably be instrumental in having the union oppose such a program. Such objections are understandable in human terms. Great feelings of insecurity can be engendered by proposals for periodic checkups of whatever sort. Considerable preliminary education is necessary by both department and union managements to offset such objections. Joint enterprise is highly desirable wherever possible. Fortunately, union-department relations in most Australian police jurisdictions are probably adequate

to permit such cooperation. In the United States, however, this is frequently not the case. In such circumstances, the department must necessarily go ahead on its own, maintaining whatever degree of cooperation is possible.

Retirements to pension is one measure of the effectiveness of established police health maintenance programs. Secure, well designed, government-supported government pension schemes are necessary to ensure that members may live satisfactorily after having given their mandatory period of service to the community. Pensions are an extraordinarily difficult area to understand. In fact, very few people do understand them. In Australia, where all police forces are either state or territory controlled the problem is, fortunately, not serious. All pension funds seem secure and well invested. In the United States, on the other hand, where the police service is primarily municipally based, such security does not necessarily exist. Local pension funds are not necessarily soundly based as we are now beginning to understand.⁶⁴ The earlier retiring age in many United States police forces, plus the concessions made on pensions during contract negotiations by city authorities in the late 1960s, appear to be placing some police pension funds in jeopardy. Some sort of government pension fund guarantee is necessary in each state's legislation as a safeguard. And, at the same time, all police pension funds should be subjected to the scrutiny of state actuaries. Not only is the quality of life in retirement seriously impaired by inadequate pension schemes, but the quality

of life during a member's last decade of service will also be seriously impaired either through anxiety at the prospect of seriously reduced circumstances, or through having to 'moonlight' or engage in other money-raising activities.

Administrators and unions may also jointly consider new initiatives in retirement. There is a trend in western countries for police to serve until 60 years of age. And yet, such a move is clearly undesirable in many cases. Consideration should be given to schemes such as retirement in grade, early retirements, both to pension and in advance of pension (as occurs in Israel, for example), and alternative careers. The Police Association of New Zealand, with departmental support, has already prepared a substantial report on problems of career restructuring.

Police health maintenance programs obviously involve, directly and indirectly, considerable expenditure of public funds. Clearly, some indication of value for money is desirable, that is, such measures should be subjected to whatever forms of evaluation are considered both desirable and feasible. A number of obvious evaluative measures suggest themselves. No doubt others will become apparent as greater thought is applied to the matter. Those measures already apparent are: absence rates; morbidity rates; mortality rates; accident rates; age at death; and premature retirements.

Under each of these broad headings important subheadings occur and it will be a

matter of some thought to determine the actual formats of the various measures.

They will in part depend on local conditions, structures, and community rates. Comparisons with a range of selected occupations would also be of value. In the final analysis it will be extremely difficult to show whether the entire range of expenditure, effort, and program operation is warranted in a general way. On the other hand it should be a relatively simple task to indicate whether a net gain or loss has been made in respect of losses due to absence and premature retirements. There is little doubt in my mind that there will be gains in all large departments, provided programs are capably designed and applied. A vital part of planning preliminary to the establishment of a comprehensive health maintenance program would be to establish current preventable losses in economic terms. Without such calculations, the establishment of precise performance objectives will be difficult.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter I have recommended that all health measures, direct and indirect, within a police department should be coordinated within a comprehensive health maintenance program. Not only should such coordination stimulate greater attention to such matters and require greater interest in their application, but the general concept should induce thinkers, researchers, and others, to contribute their skills, knowledge, and ability to improving police

health in specific areas. Matters considered to be the proper subject of police health programs are: fitness; satisfaction; person-job fit; personal problems; obesity; sickness and safety; career development; adequate job training; safety equipment and training; family problems; group problems; alcoholism; pensions; retirement preparation; and counselling generally.

With regard to those matters not directly related to health and safety, such as promotion criteria in particular or career guidance programs in general, the essential concern from the perspective of a police health maintenance program is that all such measures should be considered *inter alia* for their potential health and safety impact. Where it is thought that adverse health impacts may arise, then the matter should be considered.

It is maintained that if consistent and well designed measures are appropriately applied, a reduction in absences and premature retirements will result. Savings in money overall should also result.

A number of administrative arrangements are essential to the success of such a program. Most importantly, it must have high priority and be made the responsibility of a senior officer. The most appropriate officer is the director (or assistant commissioner) responsible for personnel. He would obviously need to operate in part through the services of a health and safety committee. Education measures will be necessary to preempt rank and file opposi-

tion based on fear of discovery of serious illness and/or obstacles to promotion. Virtually all aspects of health maintenance programs should be considered in close conjunction with union representatives.

Whatever style of program is designed within a police department, performance objectives must necessarily be stated and evaluation measures specified. Sound base-line data should be obtained for purposes of measurement and evaluation. In the final analysis, it will be the evaluation that will indicate if the expenditure and the effort have all been worthwhile.

NOTES

- ¹ 1978. BONNEY L.A. 'The Case for an In-Service Physical Training Program for Police Officers'. *Police Chief*, v.45 #4 (Apr): 44-45.
- ² 1977. DAVIDSON M.J., VENO A. *Multifaceted Aspects of Stress in the Police Service*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.
- ³ 1972. BERMAN S.S. *Boston Police Diet and Weight Control Program*. New York, NY: Frederick Fell, Inc.
- ⁴ 1972. REISER M. *Police Department Psychologist*. Springfield, IL: CC Thomas.
- ⁵ 1977. GAULTIERE W. 'Cardio-Vascular Fitness for Police Personnel'. *Police Chief*, v.44 #10 (Oct): 68-70.

- ⁶ 1975. CAPLAN R.D. *et al.* *Job Demands and Worker Health*. Cincinnati, OH: National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health.
- ⁷ 1977. GILES J.B. 'Comment'. *Guardian*, #5 (Nov-Dec): 3.
- ⁸ Nevertheless, there is a need for considerable additional research in areas such as this.
- ⁹ The principle of incompetence is conceivably at issue in such situations.
- ¹⁰ *Eg*, the ICPA - police foundation survey of police health and job environment in the USA, and its replication in Australia. No employer efforts match such initiatives.
- ¹¹ This figure is influenced by Caplan *et al* (1975), *Job Demands and Worker Health*.
- ¹² 1964. COLARELLI N.J., SIEGEL S.M. 'A Method of Police Personnel Selection'. *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*, v.55: 287.
- ¹³ 1972. ROBERTS E.A. 'Spotting a Good Cop?'. *National Observer*, (11 Nov): 10.
- ¹⁴ 1976. HILDEBRAND J.A. 'A Detective Personality Profile'. *Police Chief*, v.43 #1 (Jan): 40-41.
- ¹⁵ 1973. NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON CRIMINAL JUSTICE STANDARDS AND GOALS. *Police*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, p.501.

- ¹⁶ 1968. ABELSON P.H. 'Physical Fitness'. *Science*, v.161 (27 Sep): 1.
- ¹⁷ 1977. KELLY C.M. 'Director's Message'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v.46 #6 (Jun): 1.
- ¹⁸ 1976. BYRD D.A. 'Impact of Physical Fitness on Police Performance'. *Police Chief*, v.43 #12 (Dec): 32.
- ¹⁹ 1978. COLLINGWOOD T.R. 'Physical Fitness Training Factors'. *Police Chief*, v.45 #7 (Jul): 64-68.
- ²⁰ 1977. REISS A.G. 'Ohio State Troopers Shape Up'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v.46 #8 (Aug): 8-9.
- ²¹ 1975. *Job Satisfaction and the Australian Public Service*. Canberra: Public Service Board, p.3.
- ²² 1976. ARCURI A.F. 'Police Pride and Self-Esteem: Indications of Future Occupational Changes'. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, v.4 #4 (Dec): 442.
- ²³ 1976. PILIAVIN I., LADINSKY J., KELLING G. L., PATE M.A. *The Nature and Determinants of Job Satisfaction Among Police*. (Roneoed).
- ²⁴ 1968. HERZBERG F. 'One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?'. *Harvard Business Review*, (Jan-Feb): 53.
- ²⁵ 1960. MacGREGOR D. *The Human Side of Enterprise*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, pp.33-34.

- ²⁶ 1954. DRUCKER P. *The Practice of Management*. New York, NY: Harper & Row, p.63.
- ²⁷ 1974. DOOLEY R.J. 'Family Life Seminars Or Orientation ... An Aid to Officer's Home Life'. *Law Officer*, v.7 #1 (Feb): 25.
- ²⁸ 1975. STRATTON J.G. 'Pressure in Law Enforcement Marriages'. *Police Chief*, v.42 #11 (Nov): 44.
- ²⁹ 1978. NIEDERHOFFER A., NIEDERHOFFER E. *The Police Family*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, p.131.
- ³⁰ 1976. STRATTON J.G. 'Programs for Spouses'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v.45 #4 (Apr): 36.
- ³¹ 1978. HIGHTSHOE N., HIGHTSHOE R. 'Police Family Program'. *Police Chief*, v.45 #4 (Apr): 36.
- ³² 1978. BRANDRETH D. 'Stress and the Policeman's Wife'. *Police Stress*, v.1 #1 (Fall): 41.
- ³³ 1974. MARGOLIS B.L., KROES W.H., QUINN R.P. 'Job Stress an Unlisted Occupational Hazard'. *Journal of Occupational Medicine*, v.1 #16 (Oct): 659.
- ³⁴ 1975. HURRELL J.J., KROES W.H. *Stress Awareness*. Cincinnati, OH: National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health.

- ³⁵ 1977. DAVIDSON M.J. VENO A. *Multifaceted Aspects of Stress in the Police Service*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, p.46.
- ³⁶ 1974. DUNNE J.A. 'Alcoholism Among Police Officers'. *Law Officer*, v.7 #1 (Feb): 33.
- ³⁷ 1974. HELLER N.B. *What Law Enforcement Can Gain From Computer Designed Work Schedules*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, p.6.
- ³⁸ 1974. KROES W.H., MARGOLIS B.L., HURRELL J.J. 'Job Stress in Policemen'. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, v.2 #2 (Jun): 154-155.
- ³⁹ 1969. WATSON N.A., STERLING J.W. *Police and Their Opinions*. Washington, DC: International Association of Chiefs of Police.
- ⁴⁰ 1975. CAPLAN R.D., COBB S., FRENCH J.R.P., VAN HARRISON R., PINNEAU S.R. *Job Demands and Worker Health*. Cincinnati, OH: National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health, p.200. There is considerable debate on this point, it must be admitted.
- ⁴¹ 1976. KOMARIDIS G.V., MacDONALD K.R. *Stress Management Project for Law Enforcement Officers*. Mankato, MN.
- ⁴² 1970. SYMONDS M. 'Emotional Hazards of Police Work'. *American Journal of Psychoanalysis*, v.30 #2: 155.

- ⁴³ 1975. HEIMAN M.F. 'Police Suicides Revisited'. *Suicide*, v.5 #1 (Spring): 5-20.
- ⁴⁴ 1970. NELSON Z.P., SMITH W.E. 'The Law Enforcement Profession: An Incident of High Suicide'. *Omega*, v.1 (Nov): 293-299.
- ⁴⁵ 1977. FABRICATORE J.M., DASH J. 'Suicide, Divorce, and Psychological Health Among Police Officers'. *Essence*, v.1 #4: 231.
- ⁴⁶ 1977. DAVIDSON M.L., VENO A. *Op. cit.*
- ⁴⁷ 1975. CAPLAN et al, *op. cit.*, p.196.
- ⁴⁸ 1978. BLACKMORE J. 'Are Police Allowed to Have Problems of Their Own?'. *Police Magazine*, v.1 #3 (Jul): 47-55.
- ⁴⁹ 1970. FROBERG J., KARLSSON C-G, LEVI L., LIDBERG L., SEEMAN K. 'Conditions of Work: Psychological and Endocrine Stress Reactions'. *Archives of Environmental Health*, v.21 #6 (Dec): 789.
- ⁵⁰ 1976. REISER M. 'Stress, Distress and Adaptation in Police Work'. *Police Chief*, v.43 #1 (Jan): 24.
- ⁵¹ 1972. BERMAN S.S. *Op. cit.*
- ⁵² 1976. KROES W.H. *Society's Victim - The Policeman: An Analysis of Job Stress in Policing*. Springfield, IL: CC Thomas.
- ⁵³ 1976. KOMARIDIS G.V., MacDONALD K.R. *Op. cit.*, p.5.

- ⁵⁴ 1973. KAISER L.A. 'Weighing In-Facts and Fallacies of Weight Control'. *Spring* 3100, (Apr). The department's weight table is attached at Annex J.
- ⁵⁵ 1978. GETTMAN L.R. 'Aerobics and Police Fitness'. *Police Stress*, v.1 #1 (Fall): 22.
- ⁵⁶ Ibid., p.24
- ⁵⁷ 1978. LEONARD E.P. *et al.* 'The Connecticut State Police Health Maintenance Program'. *Police Chief*, v.45, #7 (Jul): 63.
- ⁵⁸ 1976. LOVITT R. 'Psychological Consultation to a Police Training Academy: Problems and Opportunities'. *Community Mental Health Journal*, v.12 #3 (Fall): 312.
- ⁵⁹ 1973. MULHOLLAND T.B. 'Its Time to Try Hardware in the Classroom'. *Psychology Today*, v.7 #7 (Dec): 104.
- ⁶⁰ 1977. BROWN B.B. *Stress and the Art of Biofeedback*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- ⁶¹ 1974. CAMPBELL C. 'Transcendence is as American as Ralph Waldo Emerson'. *Psychology Today*, v.7 #11 (Apr): 38.
- ⁶² 1978. JOHNSON K.E. 'Missing Link in Police Education ... Retirement Counseling'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v.47 #6 (Jun): 31.

- ⁶³ 1973. HARRIS R.N. *Police Academy: An Inside View*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- ⁶⁴ 1977. FOGELSON R.M. *The Morass: An Essay on the Public Employee Pension Problem*. (Roneoed).

POLICE OCCUPATION

The police function is incredibly complex. The total range of police responsibilities is extraordinarily broad. Many tasks are so entangled that separation appears impossible. And the numerous conflicts among different aspects of the function cannot be easily reconciled. Anyone attempting to construct a workable definition of the police role will typically come away with old images shattered and with a new-found appreciation for the intricacies of police work.

Herman Goldstein, 1977

CHAPTER SEVEN

AN occupation may be defined as a relatively continuous pattern of activity that provides a worker with his livelihood and defines his general social status.¹ However, such a definition requires considerable elaboration before it adequately conveys the full social reality and significance of the concept. In advanced societies, occupations tend to be precisely defined by function, role, and law, and the functions involved are usually limited and of a like kind. For example, physicians do not sell furniture, nor do carpenters guard buildings. Although not all functions and roles are totally exclusive to specific occupations, some are. In some occupations, for example, law and medicine, certain activities are restricted to those occupations exclusively. For example, only attorneys may appear in the higher courts and only qualified medical practitioners may lawfully perform an operation upon a human.²

Conversely, some functions, for example, law enforcement, are common to a number of occupations and classifications. It is generally the case that the more exclusive the functions attaching to an occupation, the higher the prestige of that occupation. Also, as a general rule, the

more exclusive a function is to an occupation, the more demanding is its application and the greater the body of knowledge supporting it. Thus, in order to understand an occupation, not only must its functions per se be studied but also the quality or degree of exclusivity obtaining in respect of those functions. Interestingly, although a high level of occupational identification exists among practitioners of high prestige occupations, there are instances of high identification in lower status occupations such as teaching and police. Both these occupations are complex in application but even that characteristic is not absolutely necessary to high identification as is evidenced by the attitude of printers to their trade.

Occupations, however, are more than just particular permutations of functions and roles. There are questions of form and style which can be almost as important as substance when it comes to determining an occupation's nature. Some occupations are diffuse, that is, they incorporate a wide range of activities and are poorly defined. In such cases, practitioners have low occupational identification, for example, labourers and clerks. At the other end of the list are the prestigious 'professions', which are high in practitioner identification. Despite all these differences, there is one factor common to all occupations in which practitioners identify strongly with their calling, and that is a highly distinctive ethos.

A further peculiarity of the concept of occupation is that although a majority of

occupations are person oriented, a minority are organisation oriented. Police is one such occupation.³ Although a carpenter may be self employed or may work for either public or private employers, a policeman, due to the nature of his oath and certain of his roles, for example, the delivery of miscellaneous services, can only be a policeman when he is a duly attested member of a public organisation providing police services. This has not always been the case. Neither may it always continue to be so, for example, the recent employment of privately paid police in San Francisco.

Like all institutions, occupations are dynamic - they are constantly, although often imperceptibly, changing. Over the years surgeons have promoted themselves from the barber's shop to the operating theatre. Nurses no longer handle bed pans and teachers eschew school yard duty. It can be said that each occupation has its own unique blend of exclusive and general functions and activities, as well as its own distinctive image. Each, too, at any particular point in history is somewhere on a pathway between extinction and professional status. This complex of factors makes it difficult to determine exactly what the functions of some occupations are; where their boundaries are; and, ideally, where their boundaries should be. With a systems oriented society rapidly developing around us, this latter point has particular significance.

In America at present, the police occupation is in a particularly confused state for several reasons. First, the label 'police' has become confused with that of

'law enforcement', that is, they are now employed interchangeably. Second, the term police is not adopted by all police forces, thus some police agencies may be styled by another label. Third, many non-police agencies use the term police in their organisation's title. Fourth, due to problems of scale and distance, fragmentation is occurring even within the bona fide police community. And fifth, because of problems of scale, distance and fragmentation, the police occupation lacks overall leadership.

In citing these reasons it is evident that I make certain assumptions as to what constitutes a bona fide police organisation. With reference to the police occupation in the USA, I accept the function and roles performed by city and municipal police forces as representing archetypal police work. Organisations performing such duties are axiomatically police forces regardless of their label. With regard to Australia, only the state and territory police forces are classifiable as police agencies.

Each of the reasons given above requires brief elaboration:

The label 'police' has become confused with that of 'law enforcement'

Perhaps the best proof of this statement is to read the constitution and promotional material of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the body which claims to represent the police occupation. The two terms are used interchangeably throughout. The FBI in its national

academy course materials, as well as in its *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, consistently refers to law enforcement rather than police. This wider category of law enforcement, of course, places police, FBI and other would-be police agencies in the one occupational group. This deliberate usage has the effect of eroding the concept of police as a distinctive occupation. Indeed, the term law enforcement has become so prevalent in the United States today that it has largely replaced that of police, no doubt altering public perceptions of police in the process. So well entrenched is this usage that police personnel themselves use it without realising its long-term implications.

The term police is not adopted by all police forces, thus some police agencies may be styled by another label

An historic distinction between what was basically distinguished as urban and rural policing in the United States was maintained by the use of the terms police and sheriff. Police became responsible for urban areas and sheriffs looked after county and unincorporated areas. In addition to police functions, sheriff's departments also often maintained jail facilities. Over time, some urban areas have expanded beyond their local government boundaries into the surrounding countryside, that is, county areas. As a result, some sheriff's jurisdictions are now either totally or largely urban or suburban. A prime example of this development is the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department which polices large suburban tracts as well as pockets of county

property within the city boundary. In addition to maintaining corrections facilities, the LA County Sheriff has a major and highly sophisticated urban police function.

On the other hand, some counties have reverted to normal police agencies and the sheriff now only enjoys jail and court functions, rather in the British tradition. The label of sheriff thus connotes a range of law enforcement roles which may or may not include police activities. During the 'fifties and again more recently some townships have opted for the department of public safety as a cost cutting exercise. Under the public safety label, patrolmen are cross trained as firefighters, which adds to the existing confusion concerning occupational functions and boundaries even further.

Many non-police agencies use the term police in their organisation's title

Some state police forces in fact perform exclusively as traffic control and enforcement personnel on gazetted roads. Such duties are marginal within the cluster of functions traditionally associated with the police. Therefore, an agency exclusively concerned with such a function does not warrant the appellation police, although it is certainly a law enforcement agency. A good example of one organisation that avoided the label police is the California Highway Patrol. Even so, most of its rank and file members closely identify with the police role and agitate to acquire increased crime fighting responsibilities within their

jurisdiction. By acceding to such pressures, massive goal displacement may occur. Readers who have either worked as or are still employed as policemen will be aware how emotionally attractive the label 'police' is to many people. Most people in the public security/public safety/law enforcement fields identify strongly with the appellation. Even people in the intelligence community have been known to refer to themselves as 'cops'. It is little wonder, knowing the emotional hunger involved, that the terms 'private police' and 'private cops' are now widely used, even by those outside the private security community. This phenomenon, that is the wish to be perceived as a policeperson, is widespread in the western world. In addition to state traffic control organisations, a host of other non-police agencies use the label either formally or informally. Examples are: university police, parks police, private police, special police, military police, air police, security police, uniform branch of the United States secret service, capitol police, tribal police, housing police, toll way police, transit police, government building police, airport and seaport police. These few examples are sufficient to indicate why the concept of police, and by extension the police occupation, is so confused. They also undoubtedly provide a partial explanation for the relatively low occupational status of police in the United States.

Due to problems of scale and distance, fragmentation is occurring even within the bona fide police community

America is a large country with a large population. The emphasis on local control and local government generally in that country encourages the creation of bona fide police agencies in everyone of the thousands of local government jurisdictions. Thus we have in the vicinity of 20,000 police forces in the country ranging in size from one person to more than 30,000. Inevitably, the diversity of regional and personal interests, personalities, degrees of professionalism, and political control, mean that this variegated community has at least as many differences as similarities. This unfortunate situation ensures that consolidation, essential to a rational restructuring of the occupation, is nearly impossible to achieve; at best we get limited interagency cooperation. Meanwhile, as numerous suburban areas become incorporated, they are busy spawning still more tiny police departments and so further add to the existing plethora of police agencies.

Even within existing departments, fragmentation is increasingly being evidenced by the use of civilians in positions previously performed by police, for example, planning and crime scene searchers. Police cell guards are now being replaced by personnel recruited specifically for the task and CETA employees have taken over control of traffic in many larger cities.

Due to differences of scale, distance, and fragmentation, the police occupation lacks overall leadership

The sheer complexity and scale of the

police service, aggravated by regional and political complications, conspire to produce an occupation lacking common elements at the field level. Theoretically, a one person police agency performs the same functions as a 30,000 person department. In practice, of course, it does not and cannot. Thus it can be argued that the small agencies of fewer than ten members are not really police forces, as their services are necessarily so rudimentary as not to warrant police status. And yet, within the voting procedures of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the chief of a one person agency has equal representation with a major city chief. As there are far more small department chiefs than big city chiefs and because by virtue of scale, their problems are substantially different, the IACP represents basically the small, unsophisticated, marginal elements of the occupation to the detriment of the core professional elements of the police service. This weakness has been noted by Patrick V. Murphy of the Police Foundation who is trying to remedy the situation, but in the absence of major restructuring through consolidation he has little hope of success.

The five reasons cited as contributing to the present disintegration of the police occupation in the USA naturally have great importance for the future of the occupation. If these conditions persist, the police occupation as we know it now will surely become redundant in the United States. The two major possibilities in this regard would seem to be that it will either disappear altogether as new performance goal oriented agencies acquire varying permutations of the

functions previously performed by police, or police will become merely a minor and relatively unimportant category within a broad-based law enforcement or public security occupational category. To the extent these factors hold for Australia, and in my opinion items one, three, and five, to varying degrees are applicable, they are important also to the future of the Australian police occupation.

WHAT ARE POLICE?

The basis of any discussion rests upon the definitions employed. Occupational classification manuals are not much help in defining police either functionally or occupationally for two reasons: (1) they classify positions rather than occupations; and (2) their definitions are based only upon inadequate, subjective, and formal descriptions of functions. Thus, according to the United States Department of Commerce, the classification of public police and detectives includes 'occupations concerned with protecting the public, public and private property, maintaining law and order in a municipality, rural, or unincorporated district, directing and controlling traffic, and maintaining order in court'.⁴ Thus, we find customs officers, sheriff's deputies, metre maids, sergeants-at-arms, special agents, and border guards, listed together with police officers and detectives. The Australian Bureau of Statistics takes advantage of the fairly homogeneous police community in Australia and, in its official classification of occupations, merely lists

selected police ranks and appointments.⁵ Whether for reasons of caution or inadequacy one does not know but, for whichever reason, an occupational definition is not attempted. We need therefore to look elsewhere for a definition of police. The most obvious course is to look for a statement of police functions, for it is functions which constitute the basis of both organisation and occupation.

There are two basic ways of identifying those functions performed by police. One is to try and synthesise statements as to what police functions either *should* be or are thought to be. The other, which is rarely attempted, is to establish just what it is that police do in the workplace. Both approaches, unfortunately, pose considerable methodological problems and subjective bias is unavoidable. For present purposes I am constrained to take the first approach as the second is not available to me.

Most police legislation in both the USA and Australia is not very informative when it comes to defining police functions. I have therefore looked at the statements of a number of British, American, New Zealand and Australian commentators. In selecting a list of 18 police functions I have exercised judgment in excluding those offered by the selected authorities which are expressed at levels of abstraction greatly dissimilar to those presented. The statements presented are, I feel, sufficient to indicate what the functions performed by police are thought to be, or should be, by the various commentators. Statements have been selected from British, American, Australian and New

Zealand sources as these four police traditions are considered to have much in common despite their apparent differences. No attempt has been made to select commentators from each country in proportion to their police populations or by occupation of those commentators. Frankly, relatively few writers in any country have had anything significant to say on the subject, so I have used the best and most credible material available.⁶

Seventeen functions are shown in Table 1. These functions are not listed in any order of priority but are merely divided into basically coercive and non-coercive categories. None of these categories are totally exclusive. In some categories, functions permit a wide range of activities, but in others they are narrowly delimited. There is overlap between many of these functions, particularly in terms of circumstance. For instance, as Goldstein points out at the commencement to this chapter, many tasks are so entangled they are impossible to separate, for example, the defusion of conflict in domestic disputes or a form of crime prevention often cannot be operationally separated from welfare work. Even so, common sense indicates that all the functions listed are performed by most bona fide police agencies at some time or another. Of course a function such as coping with emergencies consists more of a state of preparedness than actually being operational.

However, it is not enough to establish, even by such unsatisfactory means as this, what functions are performed by police

agencies. We are concerned here with functions *and* their degree of exclusivity to the occupation. For instance, protection of property and persons is widely undertaken in all western and many other nations by private companies. The same applies to crime prevention. Indeed, fewer than 0.5 per cent of Australia's police are by any consideration directly concerned with crime prevention. Private security companies in Australia are close to equalling the total police service in terms of manpower. A high percentage of those private employees are exclusively and directly devoted to personal and property protection. Alternatively, maintenance of public order, at least up to a certain level of disorder, is exclusively a police function in five countries with considerable cultural and legal commonality, that is, USA, Canada, England and Wales, New Zealand, and Australia. Being an exclusive police function, order maintenance is an obvious criterion in distinguishing bona fide police forces from non-police agencies regardless of their label.

In perusing the list of 17 functions in Table 1 it would seem that only three of them are substantially exclusive to police agencies. The performance of these three functions, at a formal level at least, would seem critical for any agency to be classified as a police agency. A further seven functions would seem to be primarily police functions but not exclusively so, that is both other public and private agencies either duplicate police efforts or perform similarly. However, despite this duplication, there is a body of opinion which feels that they are core police functions but,

TABLE 1
POLICE FUNCTIONS

Serial	Function
Coercive	
1.	Maintenance of public order
2.	Detection, apprehension, interrogation of criminals
3.	Preparation of cases for prosecution and giving evidence in same
4.	Prosecution of minor offenders
5.	Control of road traffic
6.	Enforcement of traffic laws
7.	Enforcement of laws (excluding traffic laws)
8.	Regulation of noncriminal conduct
9.	Intelligence gathering
Noncoercive	
10.	Protection of persons
11.	Protection of property
12.	Crime prevention
13.	Performance of inquiries on behalf of government
14.	Provision of public assistance
15.	Coping with emergencies
16.	Recovery of property
17.	Resolution of conflict

without being essential to classification. A third and marginal category of seven functions is one that while frequently performed by police, they are also substantially performed by private and/or other government agencies. It can be realistically argued that these categories are not core police functions. Indeed, police have no special claim to them at all.

According to this admittedly superficial and imperfectly derived classification, we have:

Category 1 A set of exclusive core functions the performance of which (or the preparedness to perform) is necessary for an organisation to be considered as police, that is, public order maintenance, public assistance, conflict resolution.

Category 2 A set of non-exclusive core functions which while traditionally performed by police organisations are also performed by other agencies, that is, preparation of cases for prosecution, catching criminals and putting them before the courts, protection of persons and property, recovery of property, law enforcement, regulation of noncriminal conduct.

Category 3 A set of marginal functions which are sometimes performed by police but are also performed often in greater volume by other agencies and to which police have no special claim or responsibility, that is, prosecution, traffic control, traffic law enforcement, intelligence gathering, crime prevention, performance of inquiries for government, coping with emergencies.

If this classification reflects in even the haziest way the reality of the total police role then it would seem that many organisations either bearing the label of police or which represent themselves as police agencies do not in fact qualify as police. The point is important because most people do not see past the organisational label. For example, when governments and their advisers are engaged in providing law enforcement services, lack of clarity concerning the distinction between police in particular and law enforcement in general may mean the establishment of inappropriately structured and/or labelled organisations. A prime example of such confusion occurred in Australia in 1960 with the introduction of the so-called Commonwealth Police Force. A further complication lies in the fact that personnel recruited into agencies performing only second and third category functions almost invariably demand to be known as police. If a firm line is not taken, and it rarely is, the organisation either becomes inappropriately labelled, as in the case of the Commonwealth Police Force, or rank and file members will maneuver to perform category one functions, thereby ensuring goal displacement.

The myriad organisations which try to present themselves as police agencies proper such as the United States park police, capitol police, the uniformed branch of the United States secret service, military police, railroad police, federal building police, border guards, and so on are all excluded from inclusion in the police occupation because they do not meet the functional criteria of category one. Many

of these organisations perform low level guard and protection functions, the prestige of which is far below that of mainstream police work. Thus, by non-police agencies masquerading as police and being perceived as such by public and government alike, the prestige of the bona fide police occupation is negatively affected. The implications of such influences are massive, ranging from recruiting to service credibility (not normally high at the best of times) at government policy making levels. The potential for confusion in the public and many police minds, too, is greatest when an agency which does not qualify functionally as such bears the label police in its title. United States Capitol Police personnel in Washington, DC, who are little more than tour guides and controllers, are widely perceived as constituting a bona fide police agency, even to the extent to giving evidence as such before congressional committees. It is little wonder that policing is considered a low grade occupation by many Americans when such examples are available to them.

Similarly, in Australia, a federal protection and inquiry agency bears the word police in its title, that is, the Commonwealth Police Force. Many Australians visiting the nation's capital see members of this organisation performing such undemanding protective security tasks as standing outside embassies. They naturally conclude that policing is an undemanding occupation, little realising that they are in fact not observing policemen but non-police employees being publicly presented as police. A particularly serious aspect of non-police

agencies being permitted to incorporate the word police in their titles is that the label not only deceives public and government alike, it also has the effect on those employees of making them feel that they are 'real' policemen. Of course they are not, but possessing a certain legitimacy by way of legal definition, they constantly intrude into bona fide police affairs and politics. Such machinations can have unfortunate consequences for the police community proper. This is the case in Australia, where a bona fide territory police force is, at the time of writing, to be absorbed by a federal (so-called police) agency in order to provide it with some degree of functional legitimacy. This particular instance of maladministration will undoubtedly have serious long term and deleterious implications for the police service proper. It is up to the police occupation proper and its leaders to cohesse and minimise such undesirable intrusions. So far such leadership has not been forthcoming, neither from the senior echelons of the service nor from the employee organisations.

LEADERSHIP

Comments such as those above are easy to state but difficult to justify and action. It might repay us at this point to briefly consider questions of police occupational leadership both in the USA and Australia.

As we saw in the chapter relating to IACP, the FBI and the USSS are represented

on the board of the International Association of Chiefs of Police together with the army's criminal investigation command. All the state agencies, for example, state police, state patrols, departments of public safety, regardless of their functional eligibility are also represented. Thus, while the IACP purports to be the occupational association for police, it is in fact an organisation representing a far wider public security category than just police. We find, then, even within the police occupation's own professional association, a basic misconception of the occupation's nature and substance. The problem is further complicated by the great range in sizes of departments which exists, to the extent that the largest and smallest have nothing in common.⁷ Under such circumstances occupational leadership, with a single voice, is impossible.

Patrick Murphy, President of the Police Foundation, has in recent years taken the IACP to task not only for this lack of occupational leadership but for not promoting those policies which would militate toward a more effective and representative occupational voice.⁸ He has gone further by assisting in the formation of the Police Executive Research Forum, a body restricted to major police chiefs, and which is designed for those chiefs to formulate and promote occupationwide views and policies. Murphy has also publicly criticised the IACP for not refining its voting processes so that major chiefs have a greater say in policy development for the good of the police occupation generally, and minor chiefs are relegated to their proper

status.

But, even without the diversity and fragmentation existing within the United States police service, the mere fact of getting major police chiefs to cooperate is difficult. In Australia, with only eight police forces, the police commissioners have never been able to undertake any cooperative venture of significance. As for providing leadership, or even a single all-encompassing voice for the police service, they are noted more for their reticence to do or say anything likely to be controversial. While individually deploring the criticisms unfairly heaped upon police from time to time, they have rarely acted to put the police service's collective viewpoint to the public in a coherent and continuous manner. This is in direct contrast to certain other professional police representative bodies such as the Association of Chief Police Officers of England, Wales, and Northern Ireland, which has most effective annual conferences, which are well reported, and which are very much concerned to put the service's view on major issues to the public.

Federal governments can do much to promote harmony and effective liaison between the various police agencies. In Australia, such assistance should not be in the direction of forming national or federal police agencies for which no proper role exists, but in the direction of assisting - mainly through funding - in the establishment of cooperative bodies, for example, a permanent police chief's representative body, a police research and

forensic science establishment, a police staff college, and a police information centre, all of which would ideally operate under the corporate governance of the state police chiefs. More than anything else, these forms of state based cooperative enterprise, free of federal meddling, are essential not only to improved police performance but to the integrity of the occupation. For example, in both Australia and America, the national central bureaux which act as Interpol's link with member nations are not located within the police community. In the USA, it is located within the Customs Department. In Australia, it was taken from the Victoria Police in 1975 and placed under the so-called Commonwealth Police. By no means are all Interpol queries and messages exclusive to police, but the majority are addressed to police. It is, therefore, more reasonable to locate the bureau within the police community, provided an appropriate host is available. In Australia, Victoria Police were the host for years as they were the agency instrumental in establishing Australian membership in Interpol. However, to ease parochial jealousies and aid efficiency, a centralised cooperative host is obviously more desirable. Such a host would appropriately be a permanent commissioners' representative organisation.

It is my strong conviction that no police function or role exists at the national level in a confederation of states. Supporters of federal police agencies sometimes refer to the Royal Canadian Mounted Police as an example of successful federal policing. I would suggest that a close

look at the RCMP (an extremely competent body) indicates quite the contrary. One has only to look at the duplication of police agencies in that country, and the arrested state of development of the police service generally, to realise that the influence of the RCMP has not all been good. Through a combination of historical forces the RCMP has assumed a primacy in the Canadian police community which has had, in part, a debilitating impact on police development. Only two provinces have their own police forces. Elsewhere, the various local government jurisdictions either have their own police forces or contract their policing out. The RCMP, which performs contract policing and has responsibility for policing unincorporated areas outside Ontario and Quebec provinces, also polices the north west and Yukon territories. It also performs central services such as running the National Police College and Information Center. Its other duties include drug enforcement, coastguard, airport protection, and customs and excise. Its long and successful history and the fine public image it has acquired as a result, has enabled it to combine all these functions, some of which are quite inappropriate to a police agency in a developed nation, for example, coastguard and, customs and excise. The combining of these unlike functions within a single agency contravenes the important principle that function determines status.

Fortunately, the RCMP itself has always managed to achieve excellence in management and attract a higher standard of

recruit than is generally forthcoming in the Canadian Police Service. These advantages, combined with the public respect it has earned over the years, have prevented its dysfunctions from becoming too apparent. The romantic image this undoubtedly fine organisation projects is sufficient to satisfy the uninformed that perhaps there is a federal role for police. Quite apart from philosophical and political questions concerning the dangers of concentrating so much power in one national organisation, this is not in fact so. Problems of lack of local identity, movement, communication lag, and bureaucracy all indicate that smaller jurisdictions are required for sound policing. I consider this to be so despite all the advantages attaching to the RCMP. In Australia, which lacks a federal police history, the problems attaching to the formation of a genuine federal police force are even greater. Above all else, for the sake of sound occupational development, police agencies must be confined to police functions - not protective security, coastguard, customs duties, etc.

POSSIBLE CHANGES IN THE OCCUPATION

In this very brief look at the police occupation, a so far unstated assumption has been that police occupational development will be in the nature of gradual change to the present structure rather than revolutionary change. This does not have to be the case. Other possibilities exist. Society, being dynamic, will ensure that the police occupation changes

over time without the formal aid of man; it may acquire a higher definition, or it may disintegrate into a law enforcement occupational subcategory as appears to be happening at present in the US. At the same time, persons interested in the occupation, its development and future, may decide in a rational manner what form they would like the occupation to take and work to that end. In fact, if any sort of reform movement is ever to get underway in America it is precisely such which must occur. Pat Murphy has made a start with the Police Executive Research Forum but not surprisingly the main resistance will come from within the occupation's own ranks. This is one reason why the IACP, which has a most professional staff and does an extremely good job in performing management audits and preparing training materials and so on, is so ineffective in promoting the police occupation itself; it could not survive the internecine struggle which would result if a firm and positive policy line were taken. Thus, before the IACP can take up a meaningful role in the development of the police occupation in the US, it has to first of all put its own house in order. Basically, this must be done by carefully defining what currently constitutes the police occupation.

It may well be too late in the US. It may be the case that the police occupation is terminally sick. Maybe the more diffuse category of law enforcement should become dominant - with all that is implied thereby, eg, lowered prestige and lowered identification.

If it is the case that development of the police occupation is unsatisfactory and in danger of losing its unique identity, two options are available to practitioners. One, they can let the current unguided developmental process continue on its way and accept whatever transpires. Two, efforts can be made to change the nature of the occupation, remove much of its ambiguity and create an environment in which the police role remains clearly identifiable and able to withstand intrusions by enviroing occupations. If the second course is followed, two major alternatives present themselves. One, to restructure police organisations. Two, to make the status of police officer dependent upon accreditation rather than organisational membership. It is intended here to briefly discuss the possibilities involved in these two approaches.

The restructuring of police agencies as we now know them offers a number of advantages. Quite apart from, in the British tradition at least, having been assigned conflicting functions to implement in the first instance, police have acquired over the years numerous additional tasks due mainly to the absence of more suitable agencies, eg, traffic control and weights and measures inspection. The accretions of the ages could well stand review in the light of modern public administration and the resources now available to it. Further, incremental change is difficult to implement due to the numerous factors operating in shaping the police role.⁹ Restructuring has the advantage of avoiding the diminuting forces

present in any ongoing situation.

Table 2 shows, *inter alia*, a functional distinction between coercive and non-coercive roles. A reasonable argument has been advanced by chief Bernard Garmire¹⁰ that police departments should take greater notice of this distinction. Police work, he feels, divides basically into law and order duties and those duties having more of a welfare flavour. In fact, these two facets represent polar opposites in many police departments. Garmire recommends that police agencies be divided into two major departments - one to perform coercive duties, and the other to perform non-coercive and welfare-oriented functions. He further recommends that recruitment and career structures be varied to suit the needs of each branch. It is not difficult to appreciate that a gendarmerie role would be suitable for the law and order branch, while a helping role would typify the other branch. Obviously, the two branches would attract different personality types and have different educational and training requirements.

My view is that (should for good reason such drastic reorganisation be decided upon) Garmire's point should be taken a step further and that instead of having two such branches within the same agency, we should aim for two distinct agencies - thereby according with the principle of like function.¹¹ Many argue that it is impossible to disentangle the two roles in the workplace but, in fact, few difficulties would occur.

Those police departments which have always enforced traffic laws generally cannot conceive of a situation in which a separate agency performs that function, because of expected problems of overlap and divided authority. Conversely, those agencies, eg, in New Zealand, which have not routinely enforced traffic laws for many years, want no part of traffic duties.

A similar situation applies to dividing coercive and non-coercive functions, which would produce perfectly workable divisions of responsibility. Indeed, at a time in public administration history when organisations are becoming more and more systems oriented with carefully specified goals,¹² such possibilities make a great deal of sense. In the event of such divisions of police responsibility, the concept of police would require drastic reconsideration. I would regret the passing of the police occupation as we now know it, but I would rather see it reconstituted than be buried within the broader law enforcement category or, equally undesirably, acquired by non-police law enforcement personnel and security personnel. Regardless of these considerations, though, changes of the sort being speculated upon here may occur merely by pressure of circumstances.

A rather different approach to the above is to remove the organisational basis of the police occupation and replace it with accreditation and certification. In this manner, professional police personnel would be identifiable by their qualifications. Architects, veterinary

TABLE 2

CLASSIFICATION OF
AGENCIES/OCCUPATIONS PER

Serial (a)	Function (b)	Agencies/Occupations	
		E+W (c)	USA (d)
1.	Maintenance of public order	police	police
2.	Apprehension, detention, intergration of offenders	police private customs	police private customs DEA FBI USSS BP INS
3.	Preparation of cases for prosecution and giving evidence	police customs port, river police	police customs port police DEA FBI USSS BP
4.	Prosecution of minor offenders	police attorneys port, river police	police attorneys
5.	Control road traffic	police	police private state patrols park police rangers
6.	Enforcement of traffic laws	police traffic wardens	police
7.	Enforcement of laws excluding traffic	police port, river police customs	police park police customs DEA FBI USSS INS USCG BP

POLICE FUNCTIONS

FORMING SAME, BY COUNTRY

performing function(s)			
AUST (e)	NZ (f)	CANADA (g)	CATEGORY (h)
police	police	police	1
police private customs FNB fisheries protection immigration officers	police private customs	police private	2
police customs CAC FNB RTA	police customs DOT	police	2
police attorneys	police attorneys	police attorneys	3
police RTA rangers	police DOT	police	3
police by-law inspectors RTA	police DOT	police	3
police by-law inspectors customs ENB rangers fisheries protection immigration officers	police customs	police	2

TABLE 2 CONT'D

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
8.	Regulation of non-criminal conduct	police private	police private state patrols park police
9.	Intelligence gathering	police MIS	police FBI USSS DIA DEA
10.	Protection of persons	police private	police private
11.	Protection of property	police private	police private
12.	Crime prevention	police private volunteers	police private volunteers
13.	Performance of enquiries for government	police MIS others	police FBI others
14.	Provision of police assistance	police	police
15.	Coping with emergencies	police military CD	police military CD
16.	Recovery of property	police private	police private
17.	Resolution of conflict	police	police

TABLE 2 CONT'D

(e)	(f)	(g)	(h)
police private rangers	police private	police private	2
police ASIO	police NZSIO	police	3
police private	police private	police private	2
police private	police private	police private	2
police private volunteers	police private volunteers	police private volunteers	3
police ASIO others	police NZSIO others	police others	3
police	police	police	1
police military SES	police military CD	police military CD	2
police private	police private	police private	2
police	police	police	1

surgeons, accountants, etc., are all occupationally based in this matter. Occupational control under such circumstances is exercised by a council of practitioners free of political and public service controls. This approach, which is mentioned from time to time in police journals, has advantages in relation to both present and future developments. One characteristic of certain police agencies today is the increased employment of civilians and non-police specialists.¹³ Conceivably, police personnel could end up as minorities within police departments. Regardless of the reasons, such as expense and convenience, for having greater proportions of civilians in police forces, in situations where they become a minority a form of professional identification other than the organisation would be necessary for police personnel. If police duties were to be eventually divided between a number of functionally distinct agencies, again a new form of professional identification would be necessary. It is not difficult to conceive, in the 21st century, agencies employing lawyers, police, and welfare officers as professionals, supported by security and non-professional enforcement personnel.

In the current absence of significant thought by chiefs concerning such matters, it would seem likely that employee associations will become involved by default.

In Australia, by happy accident of history, the atrophy of the police occupation is not nearly so advanced as it is in America. In fact, were it not for the

intended demolition of a territorial police force to satisfy the ambitions of a federal agency, the occupation could definitely be said to be alive even if not exactly thriving.

However, with the introduction of a federal agency possessing non-police functions - the so-called Australian Federal Police - the future is not bright for the police occupation. Given the forces of self interest and bureaucratic expansion at play, it seems highly likely that this new federal organisation will fairly quickly obtain a stranglehold on resources, information, services and funds to the detriment of the states. State police forces will wither on the vine unless their administrators use sound judgment and resolution. Given the fact that these same administrators have permitted the creation of this new body, which poses such a threat to their best interests without public objection, such judgment and resolution seem unlikely to be forthcoming. Ironically, if the worst fears of critics of the new agency are realised and the police service proper declines as a result, this will provide yet further basis for federal intrusion into police affairs.

Australia is currently in the middle of massive expansion by the federal bureaucracy into state affairs, police being just one small part of the whole. The unfortunate lesson of administrative history in confederations, however, is that once the federal bureaucracy assumes a function or responsibility it never relinquishes

it. Thus there is little reason to feel sanguine about the future of the police occupation in Australia. Once federal employees manage to obtain a legitimate federal police agency, albeit largely performing non-police functions, its continued expansion is ensured. Such expansion can only be gained at the price of lowered state police efficacy. As in so many other areas, the unfortunate thought is that perhaps America is just once again showing Australia what the future holds.

CONCLUSION

The police occupation in the US is diffuse and chaotic, suffering the disadvantages of history, fragmentation, self interest, lack of awareness, lack of leadership, and lack of functional definition. Indeed, so many people and organizations are trying to fit behind the police badge that the occupation has in practice become known as law enforcement - a far less specific title. Apart from pressures of self interest, a major reason for the confusion surrounding the police occupation is that its functions have not been adequately defined. In recent years substantial job analyses and Project Star have started to nibble around the edges of a substantial functional definition. But we still have a long way to go. This analysis is made all the harder by the myriad agencies purporting to be police but which are not, most of which detract from the occupation in one way or another.

The Police Foundation is leading the way in a fight to develop some form of police leadership in the US. If it is to be successful, the support of many influential people in addition to police themselves will be necessary, eg, public administrators and politicians. In an effort to establish desirable forms of occupational development, a concept of the police occupation of the future is necessary. Some possible developments have been outlined in the preceding pages. For example, thought may need to be paid to attempting a totally new occupational structure for police based on knowledge and skills, ie, accreditation, rather than organisational affiliation. The implications for public security and welfare of such a change are enormous, involving, as it would, the creation of totally new organisations such as separate protection and enforcement agencies. One useful effect of such reorganisation would be to remove some of the basic functional conflicts which exist within present police organisations.

A similar situation may develop in Australia. Most of the structural and functional ills besetting the police occupation in America, bar fragmentation, also exist in Australia. These ills include lack of leadership and the intrusion of a non-police security and investigational agency into the police community. Although the dangers besetting the police occupation in the USA are far more serious than those obtaining in Australia, future events in that country may provide some clues to possible developments in this

country.

In the meanwhile, it is incumbent upon all police administrators, police commentators, legislators and public administrators to consider the future of the police occupation in relation to community needs, canvas the most likely and desirable options, develop a broad consensus concerning the most satisfactory course available, and organise to achieve that end.

NOTES

- 1 1968. FORM W.H. 'Occupations and Careers'. In D.L. SILLS (ed), *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, v.11 & 12, New York, NY: Macmillan, p.245.
- 2 Subject to the single exception of rabbis performing circumcisions.
- 3 1977. RICE B.R. *Police Professionalism*, Lexington, MA: Lexington Book, p.91.
- 4 1977. Department of Commerce. *Standard Occupational Classification Manual*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, p.151.
- 5 1977. Bureau of Census and Statistics. *Classification and Classified List of Occupations*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, p.135.

- 6 Fourteen sources were utilised in selecting function statements. They are: ROWAN and MAYNE as cited in (1956) REITH C. *A New Study of Police History*. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd, p. 135; (1962) *Report of The Royal Commission on Police*, p.22; (1966) LOHMAN J.D. and G.E. MISNER *The Police and the Community: The Dynamics of Their Relationship in a Changing Society*, v.1, Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, p.26; (1971) BALE J.F. and G.D. EASTMAN 'Police Service Today'. In *Municipal Police Administration*. Washington, DC: International City Management Association, pp.3-4; (1973) WHISENAND P.M. and R.F. FERGUSON. *The Managing of Police Organisations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, LC, p.3; (1956) KENNEY J.P. *Police Management Planning*. Los Angeles, CA: Jack Kenney; (1971) LEONARD V.A. and H.W. MORE. *Police Organisation and Management*. Brooklyn, NY: Foundation Press; (1970) COLUMBUS E.G. 'Management by Systems'. *Police Chief*, v.37 #7 (Jul): 14-16; (1972) KENNEY J.P. *Police Administration*. Springfield, IL: C.C. Thomas, pp.32-44; (1973) *The Urban Police Function*. New York, NY: American Bar Association, part 2; (1974) *Project Star*. Santa Cruz, CA: Davis Publishing Co; (1960) O'BRIEN G.M. *Australian Police Forces*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press, p.2; (1979) LOCKHEAD J.H. 'Recruit Training - South Australian Police Force'. *Australian Police Journal*, v.33 # 1 (Jan): 4; (1974) RUSBATCH S.A. *The Youth Aid Section of the New Zealand*

Police: Its Justification, Performance and Future Development. Dip Pub Ad Thesis. Wellington, Victoria University, pp.12-13.

- 7 1971. WARD R.H. 'The Police Role: A Case of Diversity'. *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*, v.61 # 4: 530.
- 8 1978. MURPHY P.V. *Remarks of Patrick V. Murphy Before the Police Executive Research Forum.* Americana Hotel, New York City (10 Oct).
- 9 1972. MYREN R.A. 'The Role of the Police'. Pp.19-47 in H.W. MORE (ed), *Critical Issues in Law Enforcement.* Cincinnati, OH: W.H. Anderson & Co. pp.20-24.
- 10 1972. RUBIN Jesse. 'Police Identity and the Police Role'. In R.F. STEADMAN (ed), *The Police and the Community.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, pp. 41-43.
- 11 1978. An interesting and well reasoned statement concerning a national or federal police force in Australia, and containing reference to the principle in question, is contained in the editorial column of the *Canberra Times* (1 Aug), under the title, 'A Broken Promise'.
- 12 1978. FARMER D. 'The Research Revolution'. *Police Magazine*, v.1 #5 (Nov): 65.

- 13 1977. SWANTON B. 'Police in Australia'. Pp.179-242 in D. CHAPPELL and P.R. WILSON (eds), *Australian Criminal Justice System*, 2d. Sydney: Butterworths, p.205. The NZ police presently has a policy of civilianisation.

PART THREE

ANNEXES

ANNEX A

POLICE FOUNDATION PUBLICATIONS LIST

- 1977 *The Cincinnati Team Policing Experiment: A Summary Report.*
- 1978 *The Cincinnati Team Policing Experiment: A Technical Report.*
- 1978 *The Dallas Experience: Organizational Reform, Vol. 1.*
- 1978 *The Dallas Experience: Human Resources Development, Vol. 11.*
- 1977 *Domestic Violence and the Police: Studies in Detroit and Kansas City.*
- 1977 *Firearm Abuse: A Research and Policy Report.*
- 1974 *Guidelines and Papers from the National Symposium on Police Labor Relations.*
- 1976 *Kansas City Peer Review Panel: An Evaluation Report.*
- 1974 *Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment: A Summary Report.*
- 1975 *Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment: A Technical Report.*
- 1976 *Managing Investigations: The Rochester System.*
- 1977 *Patrol Staffing in San Diego: One- or Two-Officer Units.*
- 1977 *Performance Appraisal in Police Departments.*
- 1976 *Police Chief Selection: A Handbook*

352 *Police Institutions and Issues*

- for Local Governments.
- 1975 *Police Corruption: A Perspective on Its Nature and Control.*
- 1975 *Police Officer Height and Selected Aspects of Performance.*
- 1976 *Police Personnel Exchange Programs: The Bay Area Experience.*
- 1977 *Police Personnel Management Information Systems: The Dallas and Dade County Experiences.*
- 1978 *Police Practices: The General Administrative Survey.*
- 1976 *Police Response Time: Its Determinants and Effects.*
- 1977 *Police Use of Deadly Force.*
- 1974 *Policewomen on Patrol: Final Report.*
- 1975 *Policewomen on Patrol: Final Report (Methodology, Tables, and Measurement Instruments).*
- 1976 *Random Digit Dialing: Lowering the Cost of Victimization Surveys.*
- 1975 *Readings on Productivity in Policing.*
- 1975 *San Diego Community Profile: Final Report.*
- 1975 *San Diego Field Interrogation: Final Report.*
- 1977 *Selection through Assessment Centres: A Tool for Police Departments.*
- 1973 *Team Policing: Seven Case Studies.*
- 1976 *The Police and Interpersonal Conflict: Third-Party Intervention Approaches.*
- 1976 *Three Approaches to Criminal Apprehension in Kansas City: An Evaluation Report.*
- 1978 *Time Series Analysis.*
- 1975 *Women in Policing: A Manual.*

ANNEX B

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CHIEFS OF
POLICE PUBLICATIONS - SELECT LIST

- 1975 *Boating Accident Investigation Manual.*
- 1971 *Criminal Investigation, vl. Basic Procedures.*
- 1971 *Criminal Investigation, v2. Specific Offenses.*
- 1974 *Crisis Intervention and the Police: Selected Readings.*
- 1976 *Executive Summary. Major Recommendations for Management of Effective Police Discipline.*
- 1974 *National Symposium on Police Labor Relations (with Police Foundation and LMRS).*
- 1976 *Introduction to Police Traffic Services Management.*
- 1973 *Juvenile Justice Administration.*
- 1976 *Managing for Effective Police Discipline.*
- 1976 *Police Administration.*
- 1971 *The Police Role and Juvenile Justice.*
- 1976 *Supervisors' Handbook. Guidelines for Taking Police Disciplinary Action.*
- 1974 *Survey of Police Misconduct Litigation 1967-1971.*
- 1972 *Vehicle Theft Investigation Manual.*
- 1972 *Suggested Basic Police Library.*
- 1977 *Police Chief Executive.*
- 1975 *Robbery Events.*
- 1972 *Directory of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Education.*
- 1976 *Hostage Negotiations.*
- 1976 *Management Case Studies (in 8 vs).*
- 1970 *The Patrol Operation, 2d.*

IACP TRAINING

(adapted from

duration	title
<u>JANUARY</u>	
15-18	Developing Police Computer Capabilities
15-19	Physical Fitness Programs for Police
22-26	Police Facilities Planning and Design
22-26	Developing Administrative Staff Skills
22-26	Operation and Management of Police Training Programs
29-2/1	The Police Executive and the Law
29-2/2	Crowd and Spectator Violence
<u>FEBRUARY</u>	
5-7	Weapon Selection: Body Armor, Weapons and Ammunition
5-9	Management of the Investigative Function
5-9	Protective Services: Meeting the Clandestine Threat
12-16	Police Records and Communications
26-3/1	Police Discipline
26-3/2	Crime Analysis
26-3/2	Management of Police Public Information
<u>MARCH</u>	
5-8	Crime and the Senior Citizen
5-9	Police Corruption Issues
12-16	Police Planning and Research Methods
19-23	The Allocation and Distribution of Police Manpower
19-23	Hostage Rescue Operations
26-30	Police Labor Relations
26-30	Protective Services: Meeting the Clandestine Threat
<u>APRIL</u>	
2-3	Law Enforcement Data Processing Management
9-11	Weapon Selection: Body Armor, Weapons and Ammunition
9-12	The Police Role in Child Abuse and Neglect
23-26	The Police Executive and the Law
23-27	Police Records and Communications
23-27	Productivity Improvement
30-5/3	The Civil and Vicarious Liability of the Police
30-5/4	Crime Analysis
<u>MAY</u>	
14-17	Developing Police Computer Capabilities
14-18	Hostage Rescue Operations
21-23	Assessment Center Method
21-25	Syndicated and Conspiratorial Crime

CALENDAR, 1979

ANNEX C

IACP brochure)

location	tuition	
	IACP member	nonmember
Huntington Beach, CA	\$ 325	\$ 375
Albuquerque, NM	325	375
Atlanta, GA	325	375
Anaheim, CA	425	475
Long Beach, CA	325	375
San Diego, CA	325	375
San Francisco, CA	325	375
Orlando, FL	325	375
Albuquerque, NM	325	375
Hawaii	375	425
Dallas, TX	325	375
Houston, TX	325	375
San Francisco, CA	325	375
Phoenix, AZ	325	375
Seattle, WA	325	375
Phoenix, AZ	325	375
Washington, DC	325	375
Orlando, FL	325	375
New Orleans, LA	325	375
Orlando, FL	375	425
New Orleans, LA	375	425
Orlando, FL	125	
Philadelphia, PA	325	375
Denver, CO	325	375
Salt Lake City, UT	325	375
Williamsburg, VA	325	375
Orlando, FL	325	375
Williamsburg, VA	325	375
Canton, OH	325	375
Dallas, TX	325	375
Seattle, WA	325	375
Washington, DC	325	375
Washington, DC	325	375

356 Police Institutions and Issues

JUNE

4-8	Developing Administrative Staff Skills
11-14	Police Discipline
18-22	Police Planning and Research Methods
18-22	Crowd and Spectator Violence
25-29	Police Juvenile Procedures
25-29	Police Facilities Planning and Design

JULY

9-11	Police Fleet Management: Selection and Maintenance of the Police Vehicle and Auxiliary Equipment
9-13	Physical Fitness Programs for Police
16-20	Police Labor Relations
16-20	The Allocation and Distribution of Police Manpower
23-27	Protective Services: Meeting the Clandestine Threat
23-27	Management of Job-Related Stress

AUGUST

6-9	The Civil and Vicarious Liability of the Police
6-9	The Police Role in Child Abuse and Neglect
6-10	Police Records and Communications
13-15	Weapon Selection: Body Armor, Weapons and Ammunition
13-17	Hostage Rescue Operations
20-23	Developing Police Computer Capabilities
20-24	Police Community Relations
20-24	Crime Analysis
27-30	The Police Executive and the Law
27-31	Police Corruption Issues

SEPTEMBER

10-12	Assessment Center Method
10-14	Management of the Investigative Function
24-28	Management and Operation of Narcotic Units
24-28	Protective Services: Meeting the Clandestine Threat
24-28	Police Facilities Planning and Design

OCTOBER

1-4	Advanced Police Computer Applications and Management
1-5	Police Planning and Research Methods
1-5	Hostage Rescue Operations
15-18	Police Discipline
15-19	Developing Administrative Staff Skills
15-19	Crowd and Spectator Violence
22-25	Crime and the Senior Citizen
22-26	Police Records and Communications
22-26	Administration and Management of Small Police Agencies
29-11/1	The Civil and Vicarious Liability of the Police
29-11/2	Police Juvenile Procedures
29-11/2	Crime Analysis

Williamsburg, VA	425	475
San Francisco, CA	325	375
San Francisco, CA	325	375
Chicago, IL	325	375
Madison, WI	325	375
Southfield, MI	325	375
Nashville, TN	325	375
Milwaukee, WI	325	375
Madison, WI	375	425
Denver, CO	325	375
Montreal, Quebec	375	425
San Antonio, TX	325	375
Portland, ME	325	375
Chicago, IL	325	375
Nashville, TN	325	375
San Antonio, TX	325	375
Hartford, CT	325	375
Philadelphia, PA	325	375
Minneapolis, MN	325	375
Dallas, TX	325	375
Washington, DC	325	375
Norfolk, VA	325	375
New Orleans, LA	325	375
Savannah, GA	325	375
Dallas, TX	325	375
Detroit, MI	375	425
Virginia Beach, VA	325	375
Chicago, IL	325	375
Austin, TX	325	375
Detroit, MI	325	375
Nashville, TN	325	375
New Orleans, LA	425	475
Atlanta, GA	325	375
Boston, MA	325	375
San Diego, CA	325	375
Nashville, TN	325	375
Sacramento, CA	325	375
Phoenix, AZ	325	375
Boston, MA	325	375

NOVEMBER

14-16

Police Fleet Management: Selection and
Maintenance of the Police Vehicle and
Auxiliary Equipment

26-30

Management of Job-Related Stress

26-30

Protective Services: Meeting the Clandestine
Threat

26-30

The Allocation and Distribution of Police
Manpower

26-30

Police Labor Relations

DECEMBER

3-5

Weapon Selection: Body Armor, Weapons and
Ammunition

3-7

Management of Police Public Information
Executive Development

3-7

10-13

Developing Police Computer Capabilities

10-14

Physical Fitness Programs for Police

10-14

Hostage Rescue Operations

Pheonix, AZ	325	375
Charleston, SC	325	375
Washington, DC	375	425
Phoenix, AZ	325	375
San Diego, CA	375	425
Pheonix, AZ	325	375
New Orleans, LA	325	375
Orlando, FL	325	375
New Orleans, LA	325	375
San Diego, CA	325	375
San Antonio, TX	325	375

ANNEX D

**AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE
LOS ANGELES POLICE BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS**
(adapted from Los Angeles Board of Police
Commissioners brochure)

- * The Los Angeles police department is under the control and management of a board of five commissioners. (Article VI, s.70(b) of the Los Angeles city charter)
- * The Los Angeles board of police commissioners may be referred to as a citizens board. (Article VI, s.71 of the Los Angeles city charter)
- * The terms of the police commissioners are staggered. The terms are for five (5) years and one term of office expires each year. The terms run from July 1. (Article VI, s.72 of the Los Angeles city charter)
- * The police commissioners are appointed by the mayor, subject to the approval of the city council. (Article VI, s.73 of the Los Angeles city charter)
- * The board of police commissioners shall meet at least twice a month. All board meetings shall be open to the public. (Article VI, s.74 of the Los Angeles city charter)
- * The board of police commissioners is the head of the Los Angeles police department. (Article VI, s.77 of the Los Angeles city charter)

- * The board of police commissioners has the power to supervise, control, regulate and manage the Los Angeles police department and to make and enforce all necessary and desirable rules and regulations necessary for the proper functioning of the department. (Article VI, s.78 of the Los Angeles city charter).
- * The board of police commissioners has the power to appoint and remove the chief of police. In the event of the removal of the chief of police, charter section 202 must be complied with. (Article VI, s.79 of the Los Angeles city charter)
- * The board of police commissioners has the authority to appoint hearing examiners to conduct investigations of hearings. (Article VI, s.89(a) of the Los Angeles city charter)
- * The board of police commissioners does NOT have the authority to remove a police officer. Article XIX, s.202(1) of the Los Angeles city charter provides that an officer may only be removed by a board of rights. However, s.202 is NOT a limitation upon the power of the board of police commissioners to manage the department. (*Perez v. Board of Police Commissioners*, 78 C.A.2d 638, 646). In addition, the board has the right to review the action taken by the chief of police pursuant to s.202. (Article XIX, s.202 of the Los Angeles city charter)

- * The board of police commissioners has the power to grant, deny, suspend or revoke permits for the following business:

Airplane Loudspeaker, Antique Shops, Arcades, Auctioneers, Auction Sales, Auto Parking Lots, Auto Rentals, Auto Repair, Auto Wreckers, Baths and Massages, Burglar Alarm Systems and Agents, Cafe Entertainment, Card Clubs, Card Schools, Carnivals, Dancing Academies, Discharge of Firearms, Disguises and Wearing of Masks, Escort Bureaus, Figure Studios, Carrying Concealed Firearms, Games of Skill and Science, Handbill Distribution or Posting, Hill Climbing Contests, Identification Cards, Jewelry Auction Sales, Junk Collectors, Junk Dealers, Locksmiths, Masseurs and Masseuses, Messenger Service, Motion Picture Productions, (Use of Streets). (Permits issued by geographic division patrol commanders), Motion Picture Shows, Noise due to Construction, Nudist Camps, Parades, Pawnbrokers, Peace Officers' Organisations, Soliciting for, Pool Rooms, Bowling Alleys, Private Patrols, Public Dances, Dancing Clubs, Repossessors, Rides (Merry-go-Round, etc), Rifle Ranges, Shooting Galleries, Rummage Sales, Sales, Fire and Close-outs, Secondhand Dealers, Secondhand Auto Parts Dealers, Secondhand Book Dealers, Secondhand Jewelry Dealers, Sellers of Concealable Firearms, Shoe Repairing, Soliciting for, Shows (Live), Skating Rinks, Teenage Dances, Toys and Novelties, Sale on Street, Towing Operations. (Article

XIX, s.203 of the Los Angeles city charter)

- * The board of police commissioners has the authority and duty to inaugurate and conduct training for members of the department so that the department may most efficiently perform. (*Administrative Code*, 22.234)
- * The board of police commissioners has the authority and duty to prescribe training in the use of firearms for members of the department. (*Administrative Code*, 22.234)
- * The board of police commissioners has appellate jurisdiction of employee grievances which have been reviewed through the levels of authority, and original review of grievances in emergency situations. (*Manual of the Los Angeles Police Department*, 2/102)
- * The board of police commissioners may grant leaves of absence without pay to officers as it deems appropriate. (*Administrative Code*, 22.237)
- * The board of police commissioners is authorised to establish a schedule of fees to be charged persons other than members of the Los Angeles police department for attendance in the Los Angeles police training program. (*Administrative Code*, 22.239)
- * The board of police commissioners has the power to compel the chief of police to disclose to it confidential informa-

tion. The board of police commissioners has the obligation to maintain the confidential nature of that information. (*Administrative Code*, 22.246)

- * The board of police commissioners has the authority and duty to establish a schedule of fees to be charged for reproduction of reports and photographs for the general public. (*Administrative Code*, 22.262). In addition, the board has the authority to establish a schedule of fees to be charged other law enforcement agencies for various scientific and criminal investigative services rendered. (*Administrative Code*, 22.269)
- * The board of police commissioners has the authority to authorize the department to search its records to ascertain if an applicant has a record of arrest or conviction and to fingerprint applicants and transmit said fingerprints to such persons or governmental agencies as approved by the board. (*Administrative Code*, 22.272). In addition, the board may adopt any rules necessary to implement the above. (*Administrative Code*, 22.274)

ANNEX E

NCPI COURSES

ON CAMPUS

- * Crime Prevention, Theory, and Practice
- * Crime Prevention for Training Administrators
- * Crime Prevention for Police Administrators, Criminal Justice, and Community Leaders
- * Crime Prevention for Public Policy Makers, Police Administrators, and Community Leaders
- * Maximizing Citizen Participation
- * Impact Assessment and Evaluation of Crime Prevention Programs
- * Community Crime Prevention Programming
- * Crime Prevention Seminar for Citizens
- * Special Program: Area Crime Prevention Programs
- * Advanced Physical Security
- * Advanced Electronic Security
- * Crime Prevention for Citizens
- * Crime Prevention and the Elderly
- * Crime Prevention and the Juvenile
- * Evaluation and Assessment Techniques
- * Crime Prevention Theory, Practice, and Management

OFF CAMPUS

- * Crime Prevention Theory and Practice
- * Burglary Prevention Training
- * Alarm Training Program
- * Basic Crime Prevention
- * Advanced Crime Prevention
- * Security Analyst Course
- * Patrol Officers Training Course

- * Basic Crime Prevention
- * Benefits for Patrol and Investigation
- * Crime Prevention for Chief Law Enforcement Executives and Local Government Officials
- * Crime Prevention for Patrol and Investigative Officers
- * Introduction to Crime Prevention

ANNEX F

POLICE OFFICERS' BILL OF RIGHTS

Members of the police service hold a unique status as public officers in that the nature of their office and employment involves the exercise of a portion of the police power of the government.

The security of the community depends to a great extent on the manner in which police officers perform their duty. Their employment is thus in the nature of a public trust.

The wide ranging powers and duties given to the department and its members involve them in all manner of contacts and relationships with the public. Out of these contacts may come questions concerning the actions of members of the force. These questions often require immediate investigation by superior officers designated by the chief of police or the police authority. In an effort to ensure that these investigations are conducted in a manner which is conducive to good order and discipline, the following rules are hereby adopted:

RIGHTS OF POLICE OFFICERS WHILE UNDER INVESTIGATION

Whenever a police officer is under investigation or subjected to interrogation by members of his or any other agency for any reason which could lead to disciplinary

action, demotion, dismissal, or criminal charges, such investigation or interrogation shall be conducted under the following conditions:

- * the interrogation shall be conducted at a reasonable hour, preferably at a time when the police officer is on duty, unless the seriousness of the investigation is of such a degree that an immediate interrogation is required
- * the investigation shall take place either at the office of the command of the investigating officer or at the office of the local precinct or police unit in which the incident allegedly occurred, as designated by the investigating officer
- * the police officer under investigation shall be informed of the rank, name, and command of the officer in charge of the investigation, the interrogating officer, and all persons present during the interrogation. All questions directed to the officer under interrogation shall be asked by and through one interrogator
- * the police officer under investigation shall be informed of the nature of the investigation prior to any interrogation, and he shall

be informed of the names of all complainants

- * no complaint by a civilian against a police officer shall be entertained, nor any investigation of such complaint be held, unless the complaint be duly sworn to by the complainant before an official authorised to administer oaths
- * interrogating sessions shall be for reasonable periods and shall be timed to allow for such personal necessities and rest periods as are reasonably necessary
- * the police officer under interrogation shall not be subjected to offensive language or threatened with transfer, dismissal, or disciplinary action. No promise or reward shall be made as an inducement to answering any questions
- * the complete interrogation of a police officer, including all recess periods, shall be recorded, and there shall be no unrecorded, questions or statements
- * if the police officer under interrogation is under arrest, or is likely to be placed under arrest as a result of the interrogation, he shall be completely informed of all his rights prior to the commencement of the interrogation

- * at the request of any police officer under interrogation, he shall have the right to be represented by counsel or any other representative of his choice who shall be present at all times during such interrogation whenever the interrogation relates to the officer's continued fitness for law enforcement service
- * no police officer under investigation shall be ordered or asked to submit to a lie detector test, blood test or, breathalyser test

POLITICAL ACTIVITY BY POLICE OFFICERS

Except when on duty or when acting in his official capacity, no police officer shall be prohibited from engaging in political activity or be denied the right to refrain from engaging in political activity.

DISCLOSURE OF FINANCES

No police officer shall be required or requested, for purposes of assignment or other personnel action, to disclose any item of his property income, assets, source of income, debts, or personal or domestic expenditures (including those of any member of his family or household), unless such information is obtained under

proper legal procedures or tends to indicate a conflict of interest with respect to the performance of his official duties. This paragraph shall not prevent inquiries made by authorised agents of a tax collecting agency in accordance with acceptable and legally established procedures.

NOTICE OF DISCIPLINARY ACTION

No dismissal, demotion, transfer, reassignment, or other personnel action which might result in loss of pay or benefits or which might otherwise be considered a punitive measure shall be taken against a police officer unless such police officer is notified of the action and the reason or reasons therefor prior to the effective date of such action.

RETALIATION FOR EXERCISING RIGHTS

No police officer shall be discharged, disciplined, demoted, or denied promotion, transfer, or reassignment, or otherwise be discriminated against in regard to his employment, or be threatened with any such treatment, by reason of his exercise of the rights granted in this police officers' bill of rights.

LOS ANGELES COUNTY SHERIFF'S DEPARTMENT
SPOUSES TRAINING PROGRAM FORMAT

(adapted from Stratton, *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Mar 76)

Session	Topics covered	Lecturers
1	Orientation to Sheriff's department. Organisational structure and functions. Sheriff's department training procedures.	Sheriff or undersheriff Captain of training academy Department psychologist Academy staff
2	Various functions within department divisions. Special department programs. Tour of custody division.	Chief of custody division
3	Law enforcement's role in the criminal justice system. Tour of sheriff's communications centre.	Sergeant from training academy
4	Marital and occupational pressures. Resources available to department employees and spouses.	Department psychologist Spouses of deputies for over 5 years
5	Investigative techniques, gathering of evidence, ballistics. Sheriff's comprehensive rape program. Methods of self defence.	Criminalist Female deputy from training academy
6	Personal and home firearms safety. Use of the firing range.	Range staff
7	Patrol ride-along.	Patrol deputies
8	Review, summary, and graduation.	Assistant Sheriffs Captain of training academy Department psychologist

ANNEX H

PHYSICAL FITNESS SCORING CHARTS
(adapted from REISS, *See Supplemental Material, Vol. 27*)

ENDURANCE

Fitness Category	AGE			
	-30	30-39	40-49	50+
EXCELLENT	Under 10:15	Under 11:00	Under 11:30	Under 12:10
VERY GOOD	10:16-11:00	11:01-12:00	11:31-12:45	12:01-13:15
GOOD	11:01-12:00	12:01-13:00	12:46-14:00	13:16-14:30
FAIR	12:01-14:30	13:01-15:30	14:01-16:30	15:31-17:00
POOR	14:31-16:30	15:31-17:30	16:31-18:30	17:01-19:00
VERY POOR	16:30+	17:30+	18:30+	19:00+

TOTAL STRENGTH POINTS

Fitness Category	AGE			
	-30	30-39	40-49	50+
EXCELLENT	250-300	225+	190+	140+
VERY GOOD	200-249	180-244	150-189	110-139
GOOD	150-199	135-179	125-149	80-109
FAIR	125-149	110-134	95-124	65-79
POOR	75-124	65-109	50-94	40-64
VERY POOR	0-74	0-64	0-49	0-39

STRESS PRODUCING SITUATIONS

(adapted from Komaridis & McDonald,
*Stress Management Project for Law
Enforcement Officers*, 1976)

JOB AND COMMUNITY**IN ADVANCE**

- * Talks to groups.
- * Problems among officers.
- * Gripes against officers from public.
- * Bar calls.
- * Domestic situations.
- * Calls with limited or no information.
- * Accidents (Injuries and Fatalities).
- * Drunk drivers.
- * Any emergency call.
- * Being called in to see the Chief/
Supervisor.
- * Situations involving weapons.
- * Injured children calls.
- * Being sent to schools.
- * Court cases.
- * Officer needs help.
- * Burglar alarms.
- * High speed chases.
- * Job security.
- * Anticipation of what the day and the
job will bring.
- * Mental commitment hearings.
- * Having to go to too many places in
one day.
- * Gathering information to get a
complaint.
- * Information stating something is going
to happen.
- * Stake-outs.

- * Report writing and booking procedure.
- * Drug busts or raids.
- * Dog calls.
- * Manhunts.
- * Special events or assignments.
- * Hearing through grapevine before actual approach on personal discipline.
- * Incomplete reports.
- * Parents of "perfect" children.
- * Poor or lack of good supervisors.
- * Knowing family members.

IN DURATION

- * Celebrations out of hand - crowd-control - riots - mob confrontation.
- * Officer needs help.
- * Court cases.
- * Fellow officers.
- * Emergencies.
- * Hostility toward authority.
- * Fight situations.
- * Domestic situations.
- * High speed chases.
- * Having a weapon pointed at me.
- * Threats against family.
- * Female arrests.
- * Slow back-up.
- * Bar fights.
- * Burglary in progress.
- * Accident calls.
- * Interrogations.
- * Stake-outs.
- * Drunks.
- * Death - death message - suicide.
- * Job position.
- * Discipline of subordinates.
- * Inspection.
- * Law suits.
- * Murder scenes.

- * Mental patient calls.
- * People's attitudes towards you (no respect).
- * Arrest of numerous people when things are happening too fast.
- * Traffic control.
- * Stopping aggressive females.
- * Calls where there is a need, but by law or policy you can't take action.
- * Other people explaining my actions or deriving conclusions without consulting me.
- * Possible action for or against me with a delay.
- * Getting a reprimand from the Captain/Chief.
- * Fire calls.
- * Interviews involving incest and ex-posers.

IN RETROSPECT

- * Death - death message.
- * Shootings - murder - suicide.
- * Ambulance doesn't arrive.
- * Supervisors.
- * Court decisions.
- * Fellow officers.
- * Reports - paper work.
- * Public reaction to officer's actions and inquiring into things not for public information.
- * Children related emergency.
- * Questionable procedure and arrest.
- * After-effects of fight.
- * Interrogations.
- * Emergencies.
- * Accident victims.
- * Restraining someone.
- * High speed chases.

- * Confrontation with supervisor/sub-ordinate.
- * Misprinted or distorted news release affecting police.
- * Request granted and no action taken - dragging of feet by administration.
- * Friction from within the department as well as from public.
- * Rape.
- * Run aways.
- * Domestic situations.
- * Race problems.
- * Officer needs help.
- * Cases where politics or special considerations are involved.
- * Seemingly endless sentences of criminals to probation, especially after repeated crimes.
- * The answer by a supervisor when asked that the only reason is that he's the boss.
- * Threats on family.
- * Civil suits.
- * Unfair reprimand - not being able to give your side.
- * Rumors.
- * Cancelled vacation or days off.

HOME AND FAMILY

IN ADVANCE

- * Plans made to meet work schedules (Social life - meals - holidays).
- * Jobs that never get done.
- * Carrying home stresses of job.
- * Chance of being called in when plans are made.

- * Law suits.
- * Court dates - worrying about upcoming cases.
- * Family life upset by schedule changes.
- * Bills.
- * Wife's days off and mine don't coincide.
- * Anticipation of graduation.
- * Taxes.
- * Income.
- * Promotion exams.
- * College classes.
- * Too many activities.
- * Working 60 to 70 hours a week.
- * Someone trying to upset your wife.
- * Fear of unknown about close relative becoming ill and having to cover shift.
- * Wife expecting a call home and I don't have time to call.
- * Coming home late.
- * Being unable to maintain normal social relationship with people outside of law enforcement.
- * Phone calls and family threats.

IN DURATION

- * Being called away from family functions for emergency.
- * Attack on family.
- * Income - finances.
- * Work schedule - always a cop.
- * No sympathy from wife or family in regards to a situation or court decision.
- * Calls to your home and not to the police department or sheriff's department.
- * Illness or injury of family members.

- * Attack on my moral conduct.
- * Disagreement over job.
- * General welfare of family.
- * Kids fighting.
- * In-laws calling.
- * Example setter.
- * Lack of sleep creates family problems.
- * Sunday shifts.
- * Generation gaps.
- * Can't live your life as others do.

IN RETROSPECT

- * Too many meetings.
- * Come home late from meeting.
- * Kid broke window.
- * Stress from work carried over to home life.
- * Unscheduled work.
- * Unable to sleep after unusual shift.
- * Finances.
- * Quarrels.
- * Phone calls which threaten family.
- * Not having time to patch up argument before going to work.
- * Disciplining children.
- * Change of attitude towards people.
- * Missing social events.
- * Always a police officer - calls to your home.
- * Concern if things might be better for family if not a police officer.

NEW YORK CITY POLICE DEPARTMENT'S WEIGHT TABLE
(adapted from KAISER *Spring 3100, 73*)

Height	MALES AGE GROUPS					
	21-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-83
5'7"	145-166	151-174	157-181	161-185	162-186	159-17
5'8"	149-171	155-178	161-185	165-190	166-191	163-187
5'9"	153-176	159-183	165-190	169-194	170-196	168-193
5'10"	157-181	163-187	170-196	174-200	175-201	173-199
5'11"	161-195	167-193	174-200	176-205	180-207	178-205
6'0"	166-191	172-198	179-206	183-210	185-213	183-210
6'1"	170-196	177-204	183-210	187-215	189-217	186-216
6'2"	174-200	182-209	188-216	192-211	194-233	193-222
6'3"	178-205	186-214	193-222	197-227	199-299	198-228
6'4"	181-208	190-219	199-229	203-223	205-256	204-235

Height	FEMALES AGE GROUPS					
	21-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-63
5'2"	115-132	119-137	126-145	133-153	136-156	137-158
5'3"	118-136	122-140	129-148	136-156	140-161	141-162
5'4"	121-139	125-144	132-152	140-161	144-166	145-167
5'5"	125-144	129-148	135-155	143-164	148-170	149-171
5'6"	129-148	133-153	139-160	147-169	152-175	153-176
5'7"	132-152	136-156	142-163	151-174	156-179	157-181
5'8"	136-156	140-161	146-168	155-178	160-184	161-185
5'9"	140-161	144-166	150-173	159-183	164-189	165-190
5'10"	144-166	148-170	154-177	164-189	169-194	169-194
5'11"	149-171	153-176	159-183	169-194	174-200	173-198
6'0"	154-177	158-182	164-189	174-200	180-207	177-205
6'1"	158-181	162-186	168-193	178-204	184-210	184-211
6'2"	162-185	166-190	179-210	180-208	180-210	180-212
6'3"	164-189	170-194	174-205	185-213	185-214	184-215

REFERENCES

- ABELSON P.H.
 1968 'Physical Fitness'. *Science*,
 v161 (27 Sep): 1.
- 1973 *Standards Relating to the
 Urban Police Function*. Chicago,
 IL: American Bar Association.
- ANDERSON D.C.
 1978 'The Off-Duty Degree'. *Police
 Magazine*, v1 #2 (May): 29-38.
- ARCURI A.F.
 1976 'Police Pride and Self-Esteem:
 Indications of Future Occupa-
 tional Changes'. *Journal of
 Police Science and Administra-
 tion*, v4 # 4 (Dec): 436-444.
- AYRES R.M.
 nd *Police Labor Relations Workbook*.
 Quantico, VA: Federal Bureau of
 Investigation.
- AYRES R.M. and T.L. WHEELLEN (eds)
 1977 *Collective Bargaining in the
 Public Sector: Selected Read-
 ings in Law Enforcement*.
 Gaithersburg, MD: International
 Association of Chiefs of Police.
- BALE J.F. and G.D. EASTMAN
 1971 'Police Service Today'. Pp.1-8
 in G.D. Eastman & E.M. Eastman
 (eds), *Municipal Police Admini-
 stration*. Washington, DC:
 International City Management
 Association.

382 *Police Institutions and Issues*

BERMAN S.S.

- 1972 *Boston Police Diet and Weight Control Program.* New York, NY: Frederick Fell, Inc.

BLACKMORE John

- 1978 'Are Police Allowed to Have Problems of Their Own?' *Police Magazine*, vl # 3 (Jul): 47-55.

BONNEY L.A.

- 1978 'The Case for an In-Service Physical Training Program for Police Officers'. *Police Chief*, v45 #4 (Apr): 44-45.

BOWERS M.H.

- 1974 *A Study of Legislated Arbitration and Collective Bargaining in the Public Safety Services in Michigan and Pennsylvania.* PhD Thesis. Cornell, NY: School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University.

BRANDRETH Dorothy

- 1978 'Stress and the Policeman's Wife'. *Police Stress*, vl # 1 (Fall): 41-42.

- 1978 'A Broken Promise'. *Canberra Times*, (1 Aug): 2.

BROOMBY I.C.

- 1978 *Would Police Boards of Management Improve the Efficiency and Effectiveness of Australian Police Forces?* (Roneoed).

BROWN B.B.

- 1977 *Stress and the Art of Biofeedback*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

BUREAU OF CENSUS AND STATISTICS

- 1971 *Classification and Classified List of Occupations*. Canberra: Government Printing Office.

BYRD D.A.

- 1976 'Impact of Physical Fitness on Police Performance'. *Police Chief*, v43 # 12 (Dec): 30-32.

CAMPBELL Colin

- 1974 'Transcendence is as American as Ralph Waldo Emerson'. *Psychology Today*, v7 #11 (Apr): 37-38.

CAPLAN R.D., Sidney COBB, J.R.P. FRENCH, R. VAN HARRISON and S.R. PINNEAU

- 1975 *Job Demands and Worker Health: Main Effects and Occupational Differences*. Cincinnati, OH: National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health.

COLARELLI N.J. and S.M. SIEGEL

- 1964 'A Method of Police Personnel Selection'. *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*, v55: 287-289.

COLLINGWOOD T.R.

- 1978 'Physical Fitness Training Factors'. *Police Chief*, v45 #7 (Jul): 64-68.

COLUMBUS E.G.

- 1970 'Management by Systems'. *Police Chief*, v37 #7 (Jul): 14-16.

DAVIDSON M.J. and Arthur VENO

- 1977 *Multifaceted Aspects of Stress in the Police Service*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

- 1977 *Standard Occupational Classification Manual*. Washington, DC: Department of Commerce.

- 1976 *Summary of Public Sector Labor Relations Policies*. Washington, DC: Department of Labor.

DOOLEY R.J.

- 1974 'Family Life Seminars or Orientation ... An Aid to Officer's Home Life'. *Law Officer*, v7 #1 (Feb): 32-34.

DRUCKER Peter

- 1954 *The Practice of Management*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

DUNNE J.A.

- 1974 'Alcoholism Among Police Officers'. *Law Officer*, v7 #1 (Feb): 33.

ENCEL Solomon

- 1970 'Class and Status'. Pp.149-179 in A.F. Davies & S. Encel (eds), *Australian Society*, 2d. Melbourne: Cheshire.

FABRICATORE J.M. and Jerry DASH

- 1977 'Suicide, Divorce, and Psychological Health Among Police Officers'. *Essence*, v1 #4: 225-231.

FARMER David

- 1978 'The Research Revolution'. *Police Magazine* v1 #5 (Nov): 64-65.

FEUILLE Peter

- 1978 'Compulsory Arbitration and Police Labor Relations'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v47 #6 (Jun): 4-10.
- 1977 *Annual Report 1976*. Milwaukee, WI: Fire and Police Commission.

FOGELSON R.M.

- 1977 *The Morass: An Essay on the Public Employee Pension Problem*. (Roneoed).

FORM W.H.

- 1968 'Occupations and Careers'. Pp. 245-254 in D.L. Sills (ed), *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, v11 & 12, New York, NY: MacMillan.

FOSDICK R.B.

- 1969 *American Police Systems*, 2d. Montclair, NJ: Patterson-Smith.

FROBERG Jan, C-G KARLSSON, Lennart LEVI, Lars LIDBERG and Kenneth SEEMAN

- 1970 'Conditions of Work: Psychological and Endocrine Stress Reac-

tions'. *Archives of Environmental Health*, v21 #6 (Dec): 789-797.

Id *Functions and Responsibilities of the Police Commission.* (Roneoed).

GAULTIERE William

1977 'Cardio-Vascular Fitness for Police Personnel'. *Police Chief*, v44 #10 (Oct): 68-70.

GETTMAN L.R.

1978 'Aerobics and Police Fitness'. *Police Stress*, v1 #1 (Fall): 22-24.

GILES J.B.

1977 'Comment'. *Guardian*, #5 (Nov-Dec): 3.

GOLDSTEIN Herman

1977 *Policing a Free Society.* Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Co.

GRANFIELD J.P.

1975 'Public Funded Law Enforcement Agencies in the United States'. *Police Chief*, v42 #7 (Jul): 24-26.

HARRIS R.N.

1973 *Police Academy: An Inside View.* New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

HEIMAN M.F.

- 1975 'The Police Suicide'. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, v3 #3 (Sep): 267-273.

HEIMAN M.F.

- 1975 'Police Suicides Revisited'. *Suicide*, v5 #1 (Spring): 5-20.

HELLER N.B.

- 1974 *What Law Enforcement can Gain from Computer Designed Work Schedules*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice.

HERZBERG Frederick

- 1968 'One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?' *Harvard Business Review*, (Jan-Feb): 53-62.

HIGHTSHOE Nancy, and Robert HIGHTSHOE

- 1978 'Police Family Program'. *Police Chief*, v45 #4 (Apr): 34, 36, 95.

HILDEBRAND J.A.

- 1976 'A Detective Personality Profile'. *Police*, v43 #1 (Jan): 40-41.

HURRELL J.J. and W.H. KROES

- 1975 *Stress Awareness*. Cincinnati, OH: National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health.

- 1974 *IACP Information Brochure*.

Gaithersburg, MD: International Association of Chiefs of Police.

Nd *Advancing the Art of Police Science Around the World.*
Gaithersburg, MD: International Association of Chiefs of Police.

1977 *International Association of Chiefs of Police.* Gaithersburg, MD: International Association of Chiefs of Police.

1972 *Municipal Yearbook.* Washington, DC: International City Management Association.

JOHNSON K.E.

1978 'Missing Link in Police Education ... Retirement Counseling'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v47 #6 (Jun): 28-31.

KAISER L.A.

1973 'Weighing In - Facts and Fallacies of Weight Control'. *Spring 3100*, (Apr).

KELLEY C.M.

(1977) 'Director's Message'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v46 #6 (Jun): 1.

KELLING G.L., Tony PATE, Duane DIECKMAN and C.E. BROWN

1974 *Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment.* Washington, DC: Police Foundation.

KENNEY J.P.

1972 *Police Administration*. Springfield, IL: C.C. Thomas.

KENNEY J.P.

1956 *Police Management Planning*. Los Angeles, CA: Jack Kenney.

KIENAST P.K.

1972 *Policemen and Firefighter Employee Organisations*. PhD Thesis. Evanston, IL: College of Social Science, Michigan State University.

KNOOHUIZEN Ralph

1973 *Chicago Police Board*. Evanston, IL: Chicago Law Enforcement Study Group.

KOMARIDIS G.V. and K.R. MacDONALD

1976 *Stress Management Project for Law Enforcement Officers*. Mankato, MN: Governor's Commission on Crime Prevention and Control.

KROES W.H.

1976 *Society's Victim - The Policeman*. Springfield, IL: C.C. Thomas.

KROES W.H., B.L. MARGOLIS and J.J. HURRELL

1974 'Job Stress in Policemen'. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, v2 #2 (Jun): 145-155.

LANE Roger

1967 *Policing the City, Boston 1822-*

1885. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

1975 *Complaints Against Police*.
Canberra: Law Reform Commission.

LEONARD E.P., J.R. ANTHONY, D.N. CAMAIONE
and C.J. FORKIOTIS

1978 'The Connecticut State Police
Health Maintenance Program'.
Police Chief, v45 #7 (Jul):
58-63.

LEONARD V.A. and H.W. MORE

1971 *Police Organisation and Management*.
Brooklyn, NY: Foundation Press.

LOCKHEAD J.H.

1979 'Recruit Training - South
Australian Police Force'.
Australian Police Journal,
v33 #1 (Jan): 3-17.

LOHMAN J.D., and G.E. MISNER

1966 *The Police and the Community:
The Dynamics of Their Relationship in a Changing Society*.
Washington, DC: Government
Printing Office.

1977 *Historical Highlights*. Los
Angeles, CA: Los Angeles
Police Department.

LOVITT Robert

1976 'Psychological Consultation
to a Police Training Academy:
Problems and Opportunities'.

Community Mental Health Journal, v12 #3 (Fall): 313-319.

MacGREGOR Douglas

1960 *The Human Side of Enterprise*.
New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

MADDOX C.W.

1975 *Collective Bargaining in Law Enforcement*. Springfield,
IL: C.C. Thomas.

MARGOLIS B.L., W.H. KROES and R.P. QUINN

1974 'Job Stress an Unlisted Occupational Hazard'. *Journal of Occupational Medicine*, v1 #16
(Oct): 659-661.

MILTE K.L. and T.A. WEBER

1977 *Police in Australia*. Sydney:
Butterworths.

Nd *Milwaukee Report*.

MULHOLLAND T.B.

1973 'It's Time to Try Hardware in the Classroom'. *Psychology Today*, v7 #7 (Dec): 103-104.

MURPHY P.V.

1977 *Commissioner: A View from the Top of Law Enforcement*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

MURPHY P.V.

1978 *Remarks Made Before the Police Executive Research Forum*.
(Americana Hotel, New York City, 10 Oct).

MYREN M.A.

- 1972 'The Role of the Police'. Pp. 19-47 in H.W. More (ed), *Critical Issues in Law Enforcement*. Cincinnati, OH: W.H. Anderson & Co.

NAGLE J.F.

- 1978 *Report of The Royal Commission Into New South Wales Prisons*. Sydney: Government Printing Office.
- 1973 *Police*. Washington, DC: National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals.

NELSON R.R.

- 1976 *Collective Bargaining Agreements for Police and Fire-fighters*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

NELSON Z.P. and W.E. SMITH

- 1970 'The Law Enforcement Profession: An Incident of High Suicide'. *Omega*, vi (Nov): 293-299.

NIEDERHOFFER Arthur and Elaine NIEDERHOFFER

- 1978 *The Police Family*. Lexington MA: Lexington Books.

O'BRIEN G.M.

- 1960 *Australian Police Forces*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

- PAGE R.W. and J.P. McCORMICK
 1977 'Police Unionism'. Pp.148-183
 in A. Bordow (ed), *Worker in
 Australia*. St Lucia: Uni-
 versity of Queensland Press.
- PILIAVIN Irving, John LADINSKY, G.L.
 KELLING and M.A. PATE
 1976 *The Nature and Determinants
 of Job Satisfaction Among
 Police*. (Roneoed).
- 1979 *Police Chronicle*. (Jan):
 1-2.
- 1974 *Toward a New Potential*. Wash-
 ington, DC: Police Foundation.
- Nd *Police Commission*. (Roneoed).
- 1967 *The Challenge of Crime in a
 Free Society*. Washington,
 DC: President's Commission on
 Law Enforcement and the Admini-
 stration of Justice.
- PRINGLE Patrick
 1955 *Hue and Cry*. London: Museum
 Press.
- 1974 *Project Star*. Santa Cruz, CA:
 Davis Publishing Co.
- REISER Martin
 1974 'Stress, Distress, and Adapta-
 tion in Police Work'. *Police
 Chief*, v43 #1 (Jan): 24, 26-27.
- REISER Martin
 1972 *Police Department Psychologist*.

Springfield, IL: C.C. Thomas.

REISS A.G.

- 1977 'Ohio State Troopers Shape Up'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin*, v46 #8 (Aug): 8-11.

REITH Charles

- 1956 *A New Study of Police History*.
Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd.

- 1962 *Report of The Royal Commission
On Police*. London: HMSO.

RICE B.R.

- 1977 *Police Professionalism*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

ROBERTS E.A.

- 1972 'Spotting a Good Cop?' *National Observer*, (11 Nov): 10.

RUBIN Jesse

- 1972 'Police Identity and the Police Role'. Pp.12-50 in R.F. Steadman (ed), *The Police and the Community*. Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Press.

RUSBATCH S.A.

- 1974 *The Youth Aid Section of the New Zealand Police: Its Justification, Performance and Future Development*. Dip Pub Ad Thesis. Wellington: Department of Public Administration, Victoria University.

RYNECKI S.A., D.A. CAIRNS and D.J. CAIRNS

1978 *Police Collective Bargaining Agreements: A National Management Survey.* Washington, DC: National League of Cities.

SALERNO D.A.

1977 'Overview of Police Labor Relations'. Pp.3-13 in R.M. Ayres & T.L. Wheelen (eds). *Collective Bargaining in the Public Sector: Selected Readings in Law Enforcement.* Gaithersburg, MD: International Association of Chiefs of Police.

SHERMAN L.W.

1978 *The Quality of Police Education.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

SMITH Bruce

1960 *Police Systems in the United States.* New York, NY: Harper & Row.

SMITH R.D.

1978 'The International Association of Chiefs of Police, Inc. Its Origin, History, Organization, and Work'. *Police Studies*, v1 #1 (Mar): 26-27.

1972 *South Australian Police Department: Outline of the History and Function.* Adelaide: Government Printer.

STARK Rodney

1972 *Police Riots.* Belmont, CA:

Focus Books.

STRATTON J.G.

1975 'Pressures in Law Enforcement
Marriages'. *Police Chief*,
v42 #11 (Nov): 44-47.

STRATTON J.G.

1976 'Programs for Spouses'. *Law
Enforcement Bulletin*, v45 #3
(Mar): 16-22.

SWANTON Bruce

1977 *The Nature and Scope of Police
and Police Related Research*.
Canberra: Australian Institute
of Criminology.

SWANTON Bruce

1977 'Police in Australia'. Pp.179-
242 in D. Chappell and P.R.
Wilson (eds), *Australian Crimi-
nal Justice System*, 2d. Sydney:
Butterworths.

SYMONDS Martin

1970 'Emotional Hazards of Police
Work'. *American Journal of
Psychoanalysis*, v30 #2: 155-
160.

TAMM Quinn

1965 Editorial. *Police Chief*,
32 #5 (May): 6.

THOMPSON J.L.

1968 'Uniform Crime Reporting:
Historical IACP Landmark'.
Police Chief, v35 #2 (Feb):
22-29.

TURNER W.W.

- 1970 *Hoover's FBI, The Man and the Myth.* Los Angeles, CA: Sherbourne Press.
- 1978 *Understanding Crime Prevention.* Lexington, KY: National Crime Prevention Institute Press.
- 1978 *School of Police Administration Bulletin.* Louisville, KY: University of Louisville.

WALKER Samuel

- 1977 *A Critical History of Police Reform.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

WARD R.H.

- 1971 'The Police Role: A Case of Diversity'. *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*, v61 #4: 580-586.

WATSON N.A. and J.W. STERLING

- 1969 *Police and Their Opinions.* Washington, DC: International Association of Chiefs of Police.

WHISENAND P.M. and R.F. FERGUSON

- 1973 *The Managing of Police Organisations.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

WILSON O.W. and R.C. McLAREN

- 1972 *Police Administration*, 3d. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

WILSON P.R. and J.S. WESTERN

1972 *The Policeman's Position Today
 and Tomorrow.* St Lucia:
 University of Queensland
 Press.

WYCOFF M.A. and G.L. KELLING

1978 *The Dallas Experience.*
 Washington, DC: Police
 Foundation.

NAME INDEX

A

Abelson P.H., 301,381.
Anderson D.C., 17,381.
Anthony J.R., 390.
Arcuri A.F., 238,301,381.
Ayres, R.M., 164,176,213,215,381,
395.

B

Bale J.F., 345,381.
Bennis W.G., 38.
Berman S.S., 270,299,304,382.
Blackmore John, 304,382.
Bond Bruce, 230.
Bonney L.A., 299,382.
Bordow Alan, 215,393.
Bowers M.H., 159,392.
Brandreth Dorothy, 250,302,382.
Breier H.G., 171.
Broomby I.C., 132,382.
Brown B.B., 305,383.
Brown C.E., 46,389.
Bundy McGeorge, 23.
Byrd D.A., 301,383.

C

Cairns D.A., 214,395.
Cairns D.J., 214,395.
Camaione D.N., 390.
Campbell Colin, 305,383.
Caplan R.D., 263,300,303,304,383.
Chappell Duncan, 347.
Cobb Sidney, 303,383.
Colarelli N.J., 300,383.
Collingwood T.R., 301,383.
Columbus E.G., 345,384.
Cooper Kenneth, 236.

D

Daley R.J., 107.
Dash Jerry, 263,304.

D'Artagnan C.de B., 123.
Davidson M.J., 251,263,299,303,
304,384.
Davies A.F., 215.
Davis E.M., 31,120.
Dieckman Duane, 46,389.
Dooley R.J., 302,384.
Drucker Peter, 302,384.
Dunne J.A., 252,303,384.

E

Eastman G.D., 345,381.
Encel Solomon, 215,384.

F

Fabricatore J.M., 263,304,385.
Farmer David, 347,385.
Ferguson R.F., 345,397.
Feuille Peter, 216,385.
Fogelson R.M., 306,385.
Forkiotis C.J., 390.
Form W.H., 344,385.
Fosdick H.B., 92,93,96,97,130,
385.
French J.R.P., 303,383.
Froberg Jan, 304,386.

G

Garmire B.L., 334,335.
Gates D.F., 120.
Gaultiere William, 299,386.
Gettman L.R., 305,386.
Giles J.B., 300,386.
Goldstein Herman, 11,130,307,
320,386.
Granfield J.P., 213,386.
Guild (Governor), 96.

H

Harris R.N., 287,306,386.
Harrison R.V., 303,383.

400 Police Institutions and Issues

Heiman M.F., 215,263,304,387.
Heller N.B., 303,387.
Herzberg Frederick, 239,240,241,
242,301,387.
Hightshoe Nancy, 302,387.
Hightshoe Robert, 302,387.
Hildebrand J.A., 300,387.
Hurrell J.J., 302,303,387,389.

J

Jordan Joseph, 171.
Johnson K.E., 305,388.

K

Kahn Herman, 39.
Kaiser L.A., 305,380,388.
Karlsson C-G., 304,386.
Kelley C.M., 233,301,388.
Kelling G.L., 46,301,389,393,398.
Kennedy J.F., 177.
Kenney J.P., 98,130,345,389.
Kienast P.K., 214,389.
Kiernan Edward, 165.
Klotter J.C., 139,148.
Knookhuizen Ralph, 107,131,389.
Komaridis G.V., 271,303,304,374,
389.
Kroes W.H., 215,258,270,302,303,
304,387,389,391.

L

Ladinsky John, 301,393.
Lane Roger, 130,390.
Leonard E.P., 217,305,390.
Leonard V.A., 345,390.
Levi Lennart, 304,386.
Lidberg Lars, 304,386.
Lockhead J.H., 346,390.
Lohman J.D., 345,390.
Lovitt Robert, 305,391.

M

Machiavelli Niccolo, 23.
Maddox C.W., 214,391.
Margolis B.L., 251,302,303,389,
391.
Mayne Richard, 91,98,345.
Milte K.L., 16,391.
Misner G.E., 345,390.
More H.W., 132,345,346,390.
Mulholland T.B., 305,391.
Murphy P.V., 17,21,26,27,32,46,
82,88,132,211,317,327,328,332,
346,391,392.
Myren R.A., 132,346,392.

Macdonald K.R., 303,304,374,389.
Macgregor Douglas, 244,301,391.
McCandless D.A., 140.
McLaren R.C., 89,98,121,131,398.
McBride Thomas, 26.
McCormick J.P., 215,393.
McGrath Gerry, 287,288.

N

Nagle J.F., 132,392.
Nelson R.R., 215,392.
Nelson Z.P., 263,304,392.
Niederhoffer Arthur, 246,247,302,
392.
Niederhoffer Elaine, 246,247,302,
392.
Nixon R.M., 177.

O

O'Brien G.M., 346,393.

P

Page R.W., 215,301,393.
Pate M.A., 301,393.
Pate Tony, 46,389.
Piliavin Irving, 239,240,301,393.
Pinneau S.R., 303,383.
Pringle Patrick, 130,393.

Q

Quinn R.P., 302,391.

R

Ravino Joseph, 275.
Reiser Martin, 215,299,304,393,
394.
Reiss A.G., 301,373,394.
Reith Charles, 345,394.
Rice B.R., 344,394.
Roberts E.A., 300,394.
Rogovin C.H., 23,26.
Roosevelt Edward, 98,125.
Rowan Charles, 91,98,345.
Rubin Jesse, 346,394.
Rusbatch S.A., 346,394.
Rynecki S.A., 214,395.

S

Salerno D.A., 52,213,214,395.
Seavey W.S., 52.
Seeman Kenneth, 304,386.
Sherman L.W., 11,17,38,46,395.
Siegel S.M., 300,383.
Sills D.L., 344.
Smith Bruce, 92,130,395.

Smith R.D., 87,88,395.
Smith W.E., 263,304,392.
Stark Rodney, 16,396.
Stead P.J., 11.
Steadman R.F., 346.
Sterling J.W., 303,397.
Stevens R.R., 139.
St Onge Roy, 275.
Stratton J.G., 246,247,275,302,
372,396.
Swanton Bruce, 46,347,396.
Symonds Martin, 262,263,303,396.

T

Tamm Quinn, 133,396.
Thompson J.L., 87,397.
Turner W.W., 88,397.

V

Veno Arthur, 251,263,299,303,
304,384.
Vollmer August, 11,53.

W

Walker Samuel, 130,397.
Ward R.H., 11,346,397.
Watson N.A., 303,397.
Weber T.A., 16,391.
Western J.S., 16,398.
Wheelen T.L., 213,381,395.
Whisenand P.M., 345,397.
Wilson O.W., 11,89,98,107,108,
121,131,396.
Wilson P.R., 16,347,398.
Wycoff M.A., 46,398.

SUBJECT INDEX

A

APL-CIO

see American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organisations.

AFSCME

see American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees.

Accreditation (P)*, 333, 340.

Administration (P), 14, 84, 142, 146, 180, 242, 257-259, 290-297, 298,

see also Organisation and Management.

Administrators (P), 3, 4, 7, 10, 12, 139, 140, 196, 244-245, 257, 259-260, 262, 264, 270, 274, 327-331, 341, 342, 344.

Alcohol usage (P), 245, 250-254, 265, 274-275.

Alcoholics Anonymous, 251, 275.

Alcoholism (P) - Treatment, 252-254, 274-276.

American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organisations, 165, 208.

American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees, 164, 165, 166-167, 197.

Arbitration, Industrial (P), 183, 185, 187, 203, 208-209, 241-242, 242-243.

Armed Offender Squads (P), 288.

Association of Chief Police Officers of England, Wales and Northern Ireland, 328.

Associations (P), 14, 163-174, 196-213, 283, 292, 294, 299, 341.

Associations - New South Wales, 284.

Associations - New Zealand, 284.

Associations (P) - Types, 164.

Australian and New Zealand Association of Police Surgeons and Medical Officers, 257, 279.

Australian Institute of Criminology, 154.

Australian Law Reform Commission, 9.

Australian Police Commissioners' Conference, 36, 86.

B

Beat franchises (P), 212.

Behavioral sciences, 74, 76-77.

Bertillon system, 53.

Bill of Rights, 194-195.

Biofeedback, 277.

Boards of Commissioners, *see* Commissions.

Bombs and bombing, 56, 73.

Boston Police Patrolmen's Association, 170.

Buddy system, 254.

C

CETA

see Comprehensive Employment Training Act.

COPS

see California Organization of Police and Sheriffs.

California Highway Patrol, 314.

California Organisation of Police and Sheriffs, 164, 167.

* (P) indicates subject is police related

404 Police Institutions and Issues

California Psychological Inventory, 229.
Cardiovascular fitness, 219, 272-274, 292.
Career development (P), 4-5, 212, 240, 285-286, *see also* Professionalism.
Cattell 16PF, 129.
Chicago Police Board, 106-108.
Chicago Confederation of Police, 167, 205.
Chiefs of Police, 171, 189.
Child abuse, 70.
Civil disorder, 55.
Civil rights, 77.
Civilian personnel, 212, 316, 340.
Collective bargaining (P), 172-196, 202-205.
Commission on Higher Education for Police, 35, 38.
Commissioners of Police, 263.
Commissions (P), 6, 9, 10, 39-132.
Commissions (P) - Effectiveness, 118-124.
Commissions (P) - History, 89-99.
Commissions (P) - Types, 115-117.
Commissions (P) - Australian, 124-129.
Complaints against police, 8, 259.
Comprehensive Employment Training Act, 316.
Computerised information storage, 73.
Conditions of service (P), 240-245.
Corruption (P), 98.
Corruption, Political, 200-201.
Counselling programs, 274-276, 280-284.
Crime prevention, 74-75, 148-152, 154, 321.
Crime Prevention Information Centre, 150.
Crime statistics, 53, 68.
Criminology Research Council, 36.
Crisis intervention, 73, 76-77.
D
Dallas Institute for Aerobics Research, 272-273.
Dallas Police experiment *see* Police forces - Dallas.

Death, *see* Mortality.
Decision making (P), 242, 259.
Detroit Board of Police Commissioners, 99-101.
Diet, 219, 293.
Disaster relief, 55.
Discharge (P), 219-220.
Discipline (P), 8, 9, 69, 73.
Drivers (P), 288.
Drug control, 70, 71.

E

Education (P), 10, 11, 133-155. *see also* Training
Employee-Management Cooperation in the Public Service; Executive order #11401, 177.
Endocrine system, 266-268.
Equipment (P), 68, 73, 151, 289-290.
Espionage, 55.
Explosives, 73.

F

FBI, 39, 41, 53, 56, 68, 83-84, 176, 312-313, 327.
FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 313.
Family life (P), 245-250, 265-266, *see also* Marriage.
Federal Bureau of Investigation, *see* FBI.
Final best offer, *see* Last best offer.
Fingerprints, 53. *see also* Identification of criminals
Firearms, 288.
Ford Foundation, 23, 24.
Forensic services, 45, 249-250, 329.
Fragmentation (P), 7, 42, 51, 68, 81, 84, 153, 172, 207, 211, 312, 315-317, 328, 342, 343.
Fraternal Order of Police, 163-165, 168, 174.
Fraud, 77.
Freedom of information, 77.
Friendship groups (P), 245, 254.
Functions (P), 319-326, 342, 343.

G

Good faith (Labor relations), 188-190.
Grievance resolution, 180, 181, 190, 193, 204-205, 242, 243-244.

H

- Health (P), 12,14,70,71,204,
217-306,
 see also Physical fitness,
 Health, Psychological
- Health (P) - Definition, 222-226.
- Health (P) - Medical aspects,
232-247,248-249.
- Health (P) - Nonmedical aspects,
279-290.
- Health (P) - Responsibility, 220-
222,291.
- Health (P), Psychological, 219,
228-229,234,264,265.
- Health maintenance (P), 225-226,
226-299.
- Health maintenance programs (P),
221-222,235,264,269-279,290-
299.
- Health maintenance programs (P)
 - Evaluation, 296,299.
- Henry Fingerprint System, 53.
- Hostages, 73,76,77.
- Hours of work (P), 192.
- Human rights,
 see Civil rights.

I

- IACP, 6,7,39,41,49-88,175,269-
270,312,317,327,332.
- IACP. Assessment centers, 69.
- IACP. Bureau of Administrative
 Services, 62-63.
- IACP. Bureau of Governmental
 Relations, 62.
- IACP. Bureau of Operations and
 Research, 62.
- IACP. Clandestine Tactics and
 Technology Center, 69.
- IACP. Equipment and Technology
 Center, 68.
- IACP. Executive Committee, 63.
- IACP. Management Services, 67-68.
- IACP. Police Discipline Service,
69.
- IACP. Public Safety Labor Rela-
 tions Center, 68.
- IACP. UCR Auditing Service, 68.
- IACP - Activities, 65-74.
- IACP - Annual Conference, 78-79.
- IACP - Future, 74-77.
- IACP - History, 51-59.
- IACP - Implications for Australia,
84-87.
- IACP - Organisation, 59-65.
- IACP - Programs, 57.
- IACP - Projects, 70-71.
- IACP - Publications, 79-81,353-354.
- IACP - Services, 67-69.
- IACP - Standing Committees, 60.
- IACP - Training program, 355-359.
- IACP Training Keys, 80-81.
- IBPO
 see International Brotherhood
 of Police Officers.
- IBT
 see International Brotherhood
 of Teamsters.
- ICPA
 see International Conference of
 Police Associations.
- Identification of criminals, 52-53.
- Illinois Confederation of Police,
167.
- Industrial arbitration,
 see Arbitration, Industrial.
- Industrial mediation,
 see Mediation, Industrial.
- Impasse resclution, 188-190,193.
- Insurance benefits, 192.
- Institutions (Non-police), 4,8.
- Intelligence tests, 229.
- International Association of Chiefs
 of Police,
 see IACP.
- International Brotherhood of Police
 Officers, 163,166,168,170.
- International Brotherhood of Team-
 sters, 164,166-167.
- International Conference of Police
 Associations, 163-167,168,170,
174,208.
- International Law Enforcement
 Stress Association, 270.
- International Police Academy, 55.
- Interpol, 329.

J

- Job conflict, 257,260-261.
- Job enrichment, 239-240.
- Job expectations, 231,261.

406 Police Institutions and Issues

Job requirements, 196.
Job satisfaction, 204, 231, 237-240, 263.

Journal of Police Science and Administration, 80.

Juvenile justice, 73.

L

LEAA, 56, 70, 148.

Labor-Management Relations in the Public Service; Executive order #11491, 177.

Labor Management Relations (Taft-Hartley) Act 1947, 176.

Labor relations (P), 12, 68, 73, 159, 216.

see also Arbitration, Industrial,
Collective bargaining,
Mediation, Industrial.

Labor relations (P) - Definition, 161.

Labor relations (P) - Information, 174-176.

Labor relations (P) - US, 161-216.

Labor relations (P) - US - Administration, 191, 196-202, 205-206, 209-210, 212.

see also Labor relations (P)
- US - Organisation.

Labor relations (P) - US - Contracts, 190-196.

Labor relations (P) - US - Future, 210-213.

Labor relations (P) - US - Implications for Australia, 202-210.

Labor relations (P) - US - Laws and Legislation, 176-180.

Labor relations (P) - US - Organisation 162-174, 205.

Labor relations (P) - US - Organisation - Local, 168-170, 169, 172.

Labor relations (P) - US - Organisation - National, 164-167, 169, 172.

Labor relations (P) - US - Organisation - Regional, 167-168, 169, 172.

Labor relations (P) - US - Processes, 180-190, 208-209.

Labor relations officers (P), 170, 175, 177, 199-200, 206, 209, 212.

Labor relations research (P), 174-176.

Last best offer, 187, 209.

Law enforcement, 64, 82, 312-313, 324, 326, 327, 335, 342-343.

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration,
see LEAA.

Law Enforcement Bulletin,
see *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*.

Lawyers, 8, 9, 26, 173-180.

Leadership (P), 316-317, 327-331, 342-344.

Leave entitlement (P), 192.

Legal assistance, 66.

Lobbying, 200.

Los Angeles Board of Police Commissioners, 110-113, 363-364.

Los Angeles County Professional Peace Officers Association, 168.

M

MMPI

see Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.

Management,

see Administration,
Organisation and Management.

Management by Objectives, 244.

Management Services, Consultancy (P), 67.

Manpower (P), 285.

Marriage (P), 245-250, 265-266,
see also Family life,
Spouses.

Mediation, Industrial, 163, 185, 186, 203, 242-243.

Meditation, 278.

Mental health,

see Health, Psychological.

Metropolitan Washington Police Association, 168.

Milwaukee Fire and Police Commission, 101-105.

Minnesota - Governor's Commission on Crime Prevention and Control, 271.

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, 228.

Misconduct (P), 259.

Morbidity (P), 223, 256, 262-263.

Mortality (P), 219-220, 223-256.

N

NCPI

see National Crime Prevention Institute.

NCPI Hotline, 151-152.

NUPO

see National Union of Police Officers.

NYCPBA

see New York City Patrolmen's Benevolent Association.

National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. Report on Police, 232-233.

National Crime Prevention Institute, 148-152, 365-366.

National Crime Prevention Institute. Crime Prevention Information Center.

see Crime Prevention Information Center.

National Criminal Identification Bureau, 53.

National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, 39.

National Labor Relations (Wagner) Act 1935, 176, 179.

National League of Cities v Ueary, 179.

National Union of Police Officers, 163, 166, 168.

New South Wales Police Association,
see Associations - New South Wales.

New York City Patrolmen's Benevolent Association, 165.

New Zealand Police Association
see Associations - New Zealand.

Non-workplace relations (P) 245-256.

Nutrition,
see Diet.

O

Obesity

see weight control

Occupations, 309-311.

see also Police occupation.

Organisation and management, 54, 72, 142-143, 240.

see also Administration
Personnel management.

P

PBA

see Police Benevolent Association

PEP

see Police Executive Program

PERF

see Police Executive Research Forum

POA

see Police Officers' Association

POAM

see Police Officers' Association of Michigan

PORAC

see Police Officers' Research Association of California.

PPA

see Police Patrolmen's Associations
Professional Policemen's Association

Paperwork (P), 258.

Patrol partners (P), 250.

Pensions (P), 192, 295.

Performance (P), 3, 4, 16, 43, 220, 233, 238, 245.

Personality assessment (P), 228-229.

Personnel management (P), 74-75, 142, 193, 284, 236, 290.

Physical fitness (P), 219, 232-237, 270, 272-274, 373.

Physical safety (P), 14, 288-290.

Physicians (P), 249-250, 279, 281.

Police - Definition, 318-326, 342-343.

Police Benevolent Association, 164, 197.

Police Chief, 54, 80, 175, 270.

Police Chiefs

see Chiefs of Police.

Police Executive Program, 35-37.

Police Executive Research Forum, 35-37, 328, 332.

Police Federation of Australia, 207.

Police forces - A.C.T., 235.

Police forces - Boston, 271, 274, 280.

Police forces - Chicago, 274.

Police forces - Connecticut, 273.

Police forces - Dallas, 25, 32, 233.

Police forces - Detroit, 274, 280.

- Police forces - Kansas City, 31,34.
- Police forces - Los Angeles, 171-172,188,272.
- Police forces - Los Angeles County Sheriff, 313,372.
- Police forces - NSW, 272,276, 287.
- Police forces - New York City, 254,271,274,380.
- Police forces - New York State, 171,188,197.
- Police forces - New Zealand, 264,269,279,280,282,335.
- Police forces - Ohio State Highway Patrol, 235,373.
- Police forces - Canada, 330-331.
- Police forces - St. Louis County, 248.
- Police forces - San Francisco, 172.
- Police forces - SA, 282.
- Police forces - Tasmania, 269.
- Police forces - Victoria, 329.
- Police forces, Federal, 16,85, 325-326,329-331,341.
see also FBI.
- Police Foundation, 6,7,21-46, 343.
- Police Foundation - Activities, 26.
- Police Foundation - Administration, 28-31.
- Police Foundation - Development, 23-29,38.
- Police Foundation - Impact, 40-42.
- Police Foundation - Implications for Australia, 42-46.
- Police Foundation - Policy, 24-28.
- Police Foundation - Programs, 34-38,41.
- Police Foundation - Publications, 351-352.
- Police Foundation - Research, 31-34.
- Police Information Center, 329.
- Police Labor Review*, 80.
- Police Legal Review*, 80.
- Police Magazine*, 35,37,264.
- Police occupation, 4,5,15,57,59, 64,82,213,307,348.
- Police occupation - Definition, 318-319.
- Police occupation - Restructuring, 333-340.
- Police Officers' Association, 164.
- Police Officers' Association of Michigan, 174.
- Police Officers' Bill of Rights, 367-371.
- Police Officers' Research Association of California, 167.
- Police Patrolmen's Association, 164.
- Police Research and Forensic Science Establishment, 329.
- Police Staff College, 329.
- Police Stress*, 270.
- Police Yearbook*, 80,270.
- Political corruption,
see Corruption, Political
- President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, 146.
- Press relations (P), 73.
- Pressure groups, 43.
- Privacy, 77.
- Private involvement in criminal justice, 42.
- Private security community, 115, 311,315,321,325.
- Probationship (P), 231-232.
- Professional Policemen's Association, 164.
- Professionalism (P), 5,7,8,10,12, 16,65-66,72,123,171,213.
- Professions,
see Occupations.
- Programs (P), 34-36,41,57.
- Promotion (P), 280,286-287.
- Proposition 13*, 179,211.
- Prosecution, 9.
- Psychologists (P), 249-250,279.
- Public information, 66.
- Public order, 76-77.
- Public Safety Labor Reporter*, 175.
- R**
- Recruitment (P), 74,285.
- Relaxation, 276-278.
- Remuneration (P), 13,171-172,188-189,192,194-195,204,211,240-241.
- Research (P), 11,31-34,43-45,329.
- Resignation (P), 219-220.

Retirement (P), 219-220,283,295.
Riot duty, 288.
Role (P), 3.
Rosters (P), 245,255-256.

S

St. Louis, Missouri. Board of Police Commissioners, 109-110.
St. Louis Police Officers Association, 200.
St. Louis Police Wives' Association, 248.
Salaries,
 see Remuneration.
San Francisco Police Commission, 112-115.
San Francisco Police Officers' Association, 180-181.
School of Police Administration, Louisville, 6,12,133-155.
School of Police Administration, Louisville - Degree Programs Division, 144-148.
School of Police Administration, Louisville - History, 135-139.
School of Police Administration, Louisville - Impact, 152-153.
School of Police Administration, Louisville, - Implications for Australia, 153-154.
School of Police Administration, Louisville - Objectives, 136, 138.
Selection and appointment (P), 69,227-231,240,284-285.
Self defence, 288.
Seniority, 286-287.
Sheriffs, 313-314.
Shiftwork,257.
Sick leave (P), 220,274.
Situational tests, 229.
Southern Police Institute, 135, 140-144.
Southern Police Institute Alumni Association, 141.
Spouses (P), 247-249,372.
Sport (P), 237.
Staff reductions (P), 212.
Stress, 203-204,219,251,256,259, 261-262,263,265-279,287,374-379.
Strikes, Police, 172.
Suicide, 263.
Summerdale corruption scandal, 98.

Support of superordinates (P), 259-260.

T

Trade unions (P),
 see Associations.
Traffic control, 54,74,75,314,335.
Traffic law enforcement, 70-71.
Traffic safety, 66.
Training (P), 5,55,56,71-74,75-76,231-232,240,261,276-277,287-288,329.
 see also Education.
Transcendental meditation, 277-278.

U

USSS
 see United States Secret Service.
Undercover work (P), 279.
Uniforms (P), 289.
Unions (P)
 see Associations
United States Secret Service, 327.

V

Vehicle safety (P), 289.
Victims of crime, 76.
Victoria Police Wives' Association, 248.
Vocational aptitude tests, 229-230.

W

Wages
 see Remuneration.
Watch Committees, 92.
Weapons (P). 73,289-290.
Weight control, 271-272,293,380.
Welfare (P), 14,204.
Welfare officers (P), 282-284,291.
Welfare services (P), 280-281.
Workplace (P), 245,256-262.
Wives' clubs (P), 248.

