CHAPTER 4

Organization and Management

The quality of an organization can never exceed the quality of the minds that make it up.

—Harold R. McAlinden

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading the chapter, you should be able to:

- Elaborate on specific aspects of police administration.
- Describe the levels of administration and supervision.
- List and explain principles of organization and police administration.
- Understand basic organizational theory.
- Explain and describe crime analysis and COMPSTAT.
- Describe police collective bargaining.

KEY TERMS

- active supervisor
- administration
- appointment based on qualifications
- arbitration
- chain of command
- classical organizational theory
- collective bargaining
- communication
- COMPSTAT
- contingency management
- contract negotiations
- country club leaders
- crime analysis
- documentation

INTRODUCTION

Police administrators have specific duties when managing their departments. In essence, an organization is a collective that is brought together to accomplish a mission. Formal rules, division of labor, authority relationships, and limited or controlled membership distinguish organizations from other groups of people. Generally, the functions associated with administering police departments can be categorized as organization or management. Sometimes people use the terms “administration,” “organization,” and “management” synonymously. Each of these terms, however, has a distinctive meaning.

Organization refers to how a department is structured and shaped. By evaluating community needs, police administrators develop specialized units such as patrol, criminal investigation, traffic, or drug units. The establishment of these and other units dictates a department’s structure. Determining the size and placement of these units within a police department is the act of organizing.
The police administrator must organize the department in the way that most efficiently balances competing community needs and interests. For example, if a community is fairly small and is not experiencing a significant drug problem, it would be a waste of personnel to create a drug unit. As a department grows in size, organization becomes more important, because additional specialized units are added to the department. Organization is not critical in a small department consisting of five officers, but it is important to the New York City Police Department, which has almost 40,000 officers. Police executives in large departments must take great care in the manner in which they structure their departments.

Management is the processes that occur within the structure. Police administrators and supervisors must constantly make decisions, plan for activities, motivate subordinates, communicate information to various units and personnel within the department, and provide the department with leadership. All of these activities are managerial activities. How administrators and supervisors perform these activities establishes the managerial patterns for the department. Management style or technique should match the department’s needs.

The combination of organization and management embodies administration; that is, administrators are routinely involved in both organization and management decisions. They must decide whether the department’s structure contributes to the effectiveness of the department, allowing it to meet the challenges put forth by the community, or, if not, how to restructure the department. Administrators must also decide the best ways to motivate, communicate with, and lead their subordinates. Organization and management are constant, interdependent considerations for the effective police administrator.

### THE SPECIFICS OF POLICE ADMINISTRATION: POSDCORB

An early student of administration, *Gulick* (1937), postulated that administration consisted of seven activities. These activities form the acronym POSDCORB and are described below:

1. **Planning**—Development of a broad outline of what needs to be done and how the organization will accomplish the recognized purposes or objectives

2. **Organizing**—Establishment of a formal structure of units and people through which work is coordinated and accomplished
3. Staffing—The personnel function, including the recruitment, selection, training, and placement of people within the organization

4. Directing—The continuous process of making decisions; developing policies, procedures, and rules of conduct; and generally leading the organization toward the accomplishment of its designated mission

5. Coordinating—An organization creates an increasing number of specialized units as the organization becomes larger, and it is important that units work together toward common objectives

6. Reporting—The process of ensuring that everyone in the organization is aware of all other activities, generally accomplished through communications and record keeping

7. Budgeting—The task of fiscal planning for the organization to ensure that resources are available to implement programs necessary for the fulfillment of the organization’s mission

These seven functions, broadly speaking, comprise police administration and outline how police administrators structure and manage their police departments. All seven functions must be constantly considered and effectively implemented; if any function is neglected, the organization will certainly suffer or become less efficient. Within this context, organizations consist of numerous parts and activities that must work together to achieve a predetermined mission, and this objective is accomplished through administration.

LEVELS OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Administration occurs throughout the police department. Box 4.1 depicts the administrative structure that generally occurs in police agencies. At the top of the organizational structure are the administrators. These administrators have the broad-based responsibility of deciding upon the department’s mission, devising programs by which to achieve goals, procuring fiscal and other resources from government, and generally ensuring that the department meets the needs of the community. Administration within a police department generally includes the chief, assistant chiefs, and majors.

Middle managers are the second tier of administrators within the police department. Middle managers generally have the rank of captain or lieutenant in larger departments and possibly sergeant in smaller agencies. They have the responsibility of commanding or administering specific units; for example, a captain in charge of a patrol shift or a lieutenant commanding a family violence unit would be considered a middle manager. The middle managers formulate strategies to accomplish objectives assigned to their units by the department’s administrators, and they manage and control their units to ensure that the objectives are met (Figures 4.1–4.3).
Sergeants are the first-line supervisors in a police agency. They also are administrators from the perspective that they are responsible for managing officers and ensuring that work is completed correctly and timely. Sergeants generally are assigned to most units in a police department and have responsibilities such as supervising a squad of patrol officers or supervising subunits within larger specialized units (e.g., forgery unit within the criminal investigation unit).
FIGURE 4.2
Max Weber (1864–1920) was the first person to outline the principles of organization (c. 1894). Photo courtesy of Wikipedia.

FIGURE 4.3
Newly appointed Houston Police Chief Charles A. McClelland, Jr, smiles as Houston Mayor Annise Parker affixes the chief’s badge to his uniform during a swearing-in ceremony in Houston in April 2010. Photo courtesy of AP Photo/Houston Police Department.
Another way to understand police administration is to examine the nature of its relative positions. Box 4.2 shows a typical police administrative structure in terms of the types of responsibilities assigned to officers at the various levels. Sergeants are more personnel and task oriented, whereas police administrators are more mission and goal oriented. Here, sergeants have the responsibility of directly supervising officers and specific tasks; for example, a sergeant might be given the responsibility to supervise five detectives assigned to a sex crimes unit. The sergeant would monitor the quality of investigations, assign cases, and ensure that all cases were adequately investigated.

In the past, sergeants and, to a large extent, middle managers were seen as conduits through which orders and communications flowed to officers. They were also seen as individuals who controlled subordinates and meted out discipline when officers failed to perform adequately. The contemporary police supervisor and middle manager, however, must possess significant human relations and organizational skills. Superiors at the lower levels of the police organization must not only supervise officers and tactics but also involve themselves with the community (Peak, Gaines, & Glensor, 2010). The strategic activities of top managers today are delegated to lower-level managers. These managers must in turn manage the police and citizen activities in their geographical area.

Interestingly, supervisors develop styles as they deal with subordinates and their responsibilities. Engel (2001) identified four distinct styles of supervision. Traditional supervisors encourage officers to produce large numbers of tickets and arrests. They see bean counting as good police work, although large numbers of tickets or arrests are not always good police work, unless the effort...
is directed at solving a problem. *Innovative supervisors* mentor their officers, encouraging them to get to know citizens and focus on police and community problems. Innovative supervisors are best suited for community policing. *Supportive supervisors* attempt to develop positive relations with their subordinates and be “one of the boys.” Supportive supervisors sometimes have difficulty disciplining officers or keeping them directed toward goals and objectives. Finally, *active supervisors* like to involve themselves in police work by answering calls, writing tickets, and making arrests. Their desire to do police work often overshadows their need to direct and supervise their subordinates. Middle managers must monitor their subordinates, sometimes rein them in, and ensure that they focus on priorities and that unit responsibilities are adequately addressed.

**PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION AND POLICE ADMINISTRATION**

Modern police administration has its roots in the London Metropolitan Police Force. Robert Peel created a police force organized along military lines when he established the force in London in 1829. At the time, the military was the best example of how to administer large organizations. This quasi-military orientation was later adopted in the United States, and elements of this initial effort remain a central part of police administration for many police departments today.

The tenets of the military organization are found in classical organization theory. Although numerous newer organizational variations such as community policing, decentralization, participative management, quality circles, and Total Quality Management have been discussed and attempted in policing, classical organization or bureaucracy remains the foundation from which these innovations are attempted (Gaines & Swanson, 1999).

**Classical Organizational Principles**

German sociologist Max Weber, the founder of modern sociology, was the first person to outline the principles of organization. Weber studied the church and army in an effort to understand why complex organizations were effective. As a result of his study, Weber identified six principles that have become the foundation of classical organizational theory and are used in police departments today:

1. The organization follows the principle of hierarchy; each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one.
2. Specialization or division of labor exists whereby individuals are assigned a limited number of job tasks and responsibilities.
3. Official policies and procedures guide the activities of the organization.

4. Administrative acts, decisions, and rules are recorded in writing.

5. Authority within the organization is associated with one’s position.

6. Candidates are appointed on the basis of their qualifications, and training is a necessary part of the selection process.

Myths of Classical Organizational Theory and Policing

Myth: Classical organization and the paramilitary model are the best means for organizing the police because of the similarity between the police and the military.

Reality: The role and the functions of the police are very different than those of the military.

Myth: Classical organizational theory provides the best system for police accountability.

Reality: Classical organization principles may actually cause officers to become resentful of their agency because of the high level of control and because officers often see this form of organization as demeaning.

Myth: Classical organization theory and the paramilitary model is the best way to organize the police because of the nature of police work.

Reality: Policing is a highly complex job that often requires high levels of discretion and good judgment.

Myth: Classical organizational theory and the paramilitary model are designed to reduce discretion and are best suited for work that does not require a lot of judgment on the part of workers.

Hierarchy

The first of Weber’s principles is hierarchy. Within the police organization this principle is the same as a *chain of command*, which means that officers of a higher rank have more authority than subordinates or officers working under them. **Box 4.3** is the organizational chart for the Patrol Division for the Macon, Georgia Police Department. Notice that the city is divided into four precincts, and each precinct is commanded by a captain and staffed with a lieutenant, six sergeants, and about 30 privates or patrol officers. The captains report to a major. In Macon, like in other departments, sergeants have more authority than patrol officers but less authority than lieutenants or captains. Sergeants report to their lieutenant, who gives orders that lead to the accomplishment of the department’s goals and objectives. Sergeants carry out these orders by providing subordinate officers direction. Lieutenants receive their direction from captains and majors. Hierarchy ensures that everyone in the department reports to a superior officer, and all officers know their responsibilities through the issuance of orders and directives. In essence, hierarchy is the lifeblood of an organization because hierarchy is the primary mechanism for controlling and coordinating everything in the organization. **King (2004)** observed that hierarchy distributes power among...
Hierarchy exists in all organizations, and, generally, hierarchy increases as the number of employees increases (Gaines & Worrall, 2011). Problems with hierarchy occur when a department creates too much or unnecessary rank. As the amount of rank increases within a department, fewer people are available to actually perform police tasks, and supervision is much closer. When supervision becomes too close or individualized, subordinates’ creativity, initiative, and morale are stifled. The department becomes more bureaucratic. Police administrators should ensure that the chain of command adequately addresses the needs of the department but at the same time does not become burdensome.

Specialization

As police departments become larger, they must specialize. Specialization, sometimes referred to as the division of labor, is used to divide work among employees so that it can be performed more efficiently and effectively. Larger departments have larger numbers of specialists and specialized units. Box 4.4

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Box 4.4 Organizational Chart for the Chicago Police Department’s Bureau of Detectives

shows how the criminal investigation Bureau of Detectives is organized in the Chicago Police Department. There are five major units. The North Area, South Area, and Central Area investigate property and violent crimes in a section of the city. The Youth Investigations Division investigates and intervenes in youth-related crimes and problems. The Forensic Services Division handles the collection and analysis of physical evidence. The Central Investigations Division investigates bombs and arson and financial crimes as well as having task forces that investigate auto theft and violent crime and apprehend fugitives. The Chicago Police Department’s Bureau of Detectives is rather large, and as such, it has a number of specialized units. This specialization allows detectives to gain expertise while concentrating on a limited number of types of crimes. Specialization brings efficiency and effectiveness to investigations.

As noted, larger departments have more specialization than smaller departments. Table 4.1 provides a listing of some of the specialized units for larger police departments and compares 1990 and 2000. Notice that the percentages
have changed over time. In the 10-year period, a number of departments added domestic violence and gang units, but most other types of units declined in number. This demonstrates that police departments are constantly changing their priorities and organizational structure to meet changing demands and needs. As Crank (2003) suggested, police departments are a part of the environment; in their attempt to remain coupled with the environment, they must change to maintain a balance between departmental operations and community needs and desires.

There is no simple formula for determining the optimal number of specialized units or specialists within a particular department. Specialization decisions are generally based on two criteria. First, the police executive must determine the need by examining the amounts and types of work performed by the department; for example, an urban department with a high crime rate would definitely require proportionately more detectives than a suburban department that experiences a low crime rate but has a high rate of calls for services. With all other factors equal, the suburban department would be better served by having a larger contingency of patrol officers. Second, the quality of the department’s personnel is a factor. Better trained, better educated officers are able to accept greater responsibilities, thereby reducing the need for specialization.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Special Unit</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Victim assistance</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime prevention</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat offenders</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prosecutor relations</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic violence</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child abuse</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing children</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juvenile crime</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gangs</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug education</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drunk drivers</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bias-related crimes</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reaves and Hickman (2002).
Oftentimes, departments must continually examine and adjust the levels of specialization to ensure that a proper balance is maintained.

Patrol units are also specialized, but specialization of patrol is based on time (shifts) and geography (beats and divisions or sectors). Police departments deploy officers across a 24-h period by assigning them to shifts. Each shift has a commander and supervisors who ensure that officers properly conduct police business. The commander is responsible for all personnel and activities that occur during his or her shift. Larger departments will divide the city into patrol divisions or sectors that operate as mini-police departments. Each division will have a commander, usually a captain. Each division will have shifts, with the shift commanders reporting to the division commander. Box 4.5 shows the North Central patrol division for the Dallas Police Department. The division has a number of patrol beats with officers assigned to each beat.

**Procedural Guidelines**

Basically, Weber believed that policies, rules, and procedures were an important part of administration. Without rules, there would be chaos in most
organizations, because people would not clearly understand their duties, their relationships with other workers and units within the organization, or how they are supposed to perform when interacting with the public. To this end, most police departments have developed a system of written rules that include policies, which describe the department’s position relative to some problem or area of concern; procedures, which describe how officers are to perform some function such as documenting the storage of physical evidence; and rules or general orders, which explicitly describe what an officer can or cannot do, such as the types of weapons the department will allow an officer to carry while on duty. Police departments often have extensive policy manuals covering almost every aspect of the job.

Police executives are pressured to limit discretion through procedural guidelines. Examples of such pressures include vicarious liability, public outcry, officer abuse of discretion, and political expectations for sound rules and regulations. Indeed, examples of improper behavior on the part of the police abound (Kappeler, 2006a, 2006b; Kappeler, Sluder, & Alpert, 1998; Kappeler & Van Hoose, 1995). As departments attempt to professionalize and adhere to national and state accreditation guidelines, they must do so through the implementation of policies, procedures, and rules. Rules are necessary to provide guidance on departmental goals, procedures, and officer productivity expectations. Alpert and Smith (1994) noted that, although rules can become bureaucratic, they are necessary. The police administrator, when deciding on the degree of discretion given to officers, may want to ensure that critical or high-liability areas have sufficient rules in place, whereas areas that are less crucial may require fewer rules. Further, as departments professionalize and the quality of their officers improves, the need to implement policies is reduced.

Organizational Documentation

The need to document decisions and activities is akin to the need for rules and regulations. Documentation, or ensuring that all or most communications are in writing, serves to inform others about what has previously occurred within the department and to hold people accountable. Police officers write reports and essentially document most everything they do, e.g., they write reports at the scenes of crimes, which often are used in court to document what occurred. In the past, everything was committed to paper. Today, many departments use e-mails and maintain a number of their reports electronically. Excessive dependence on the documentation of activities is generally indicative of extreme bureaucratization; that is, people within the department are overly dependent upon rules and regulations and are reluctant to exercise judgment and discretion. Furthermore, they are more interested in placing blame than resolving problems. Regardless, documentation is important. It allows incumbents to determine what has happened in the past, and it facilitates the collection of
information that can be used in future planning and decision making; however, like policies and rules, documentation can quickly become counterproductive. Today, many police departments depend on e-mails to communicate and document activities. They are retained electronically in servers, and, in some cases, officers retain paper copies to submit with cases.

**Organizational Authority**
Weber observed that an individual’s authority is derived from his or her position or assignment within the organization, rather than from his or her personality, standing in the community, or some other source. That is, a person’s position within the chain of command dictates the amount of authority that person has. Weber believed this was critical in maintaining the organization’s chain of command and controlling and directing the organization. When an individual possesses more authority than is signified by his or her position, conflict and organizational ineffectiveness generally result. An officer’s authority to a large degree comes from policies, as policies often outline each unit’s responsibilities.

**Appointment Based on Qualifications**
Here, Weber believed that only qualified persons should be selected and that the organization had an inherent obligation to train its employees. Positions within the police organization should be competitively filled, with selection being based on applicants’ qualifications. To this end, police departments have developed comprehensive selection and promotion procedures, as discussed in Chapter 3. These procedures often involve a variety of requirements, tests, and practical applications.

All officers and civilian personnel should receive adequate training, regardless of rank or assignment. This requirement includes officers who are transferred from one type of job to another within the department.

Weber’s organizational principles are the primary guidelines used by American law enforcement. They are appealing because they are prescriptive in nature and indicate exactly how the police administrator should organize and manage the police department and, to a large extent, they work (Gaines & Swanson, 1999). Even so, police administrators must be careful to not make the department overly bureaucratic, where administrators focus more on rules and formality than on facilitating work at the officer level. This has been a problem in the past (Moore & Stephens, 1991). Today, many police departments use community policing where officers are expected to solve neighborhood problems and work with people. Police officers need latitude or discretion to do this properly. Therefore Weber’s principles when applied should build this into the organizational structure. Communication, coordination, and shared decision making should be ingrained in the department’s structure.
Police Management

The previous sections examined police organization. The following sections examine police management. Proper management techniques are important since they allow the administrator to facilitate work—they are essential to properly serve the needs of the community.

Police Leadership

Leadership is the process of directing and influencing officers and units to achieve goals (Hitt, Miller, & Colella, 2006). Leadership serves as an interface between the organization and its officers. In order for leaders to influence subordinates, there must be a positive relationship between them. There must be mutual respect and understanding. Coinciding with this relationship is the leader’s understanding of the department’s goals—specifically, what must be accomplished. All ranking officers from the chief down to sergeants have a leadership role. However, there are some differences. Box 4.6 shows these differences for focal points.

Administrators, including chiefs, assistant chiefs, and majors, identify a vision or direction for the department. They must match departmental activities with community expectations. This necessitates that they sometimes shift the department’s focus or direction. When they identify a problem or need, they establish new priorities and goals for units and their commanders. Commanders receive these goals and must translate them into programs and tactics. For example, if the chief advises the patrol commander of a robbery and felony assault problem in an area, the patrol commander examines his or her resources and devises a program or set of tactics to deal with the problem. Patrol sergeants are then given specific directions in terms of what they and their officers are to do, with the supervisors ensuring that officers comply with
the plan. If leadership breaks down at any point in this chain of events, the
department may not successfully deal with the robbery and assault problems.

Previously in this chapter, Engel’s (2001) types of supervisors were examined.
Her research demonstrates that there is variability in how people approach
leadership. The same is true for officers at the command and administrative
levels. There have been numerous theories about what makes a good leader.
The most accepted is the Managerial Grid developed by Blake and Mouton
(1964). They stated that good leadership can be measured on two dimen-
sions, concern for subordinates and concern for organizational objectives.
Some leaders are low in both areas—they do not care about their subor-
динates or the department’s goals. They are bureaucratic and only do the
minimal amount of work necessary. Blake and Mouton characterized them
as impoverished leaders. There are leaders who are high in concern or empathy
for subordinates but low in goal achievement. These leaders try to be friends
with their subordinates but not push them to do or excel on the job (country club leaders).
Their officers often have low productivity. The third type, authority-obedient, concentrate on goals but show little regard for their subor-
dinates. Although they sometimes are successful in accomplishing goals, over
time they have little success because their subordinates are not motivated as
a result of the negative relationship with their leader. Finally, team leaders are
those who emphasize both goals and subordinates. They and their subor-
dinates work as a team getting the job done. This is accomplished through
being honest and transparent with subordinates, setting an example for sub-
ordinates in terms of performance and integrity, supporting subordinates,
and being consensus builders (Fischer, 2009).

Motivation

Another important management process is motivation. Motivation can be
defined as the qualities within the individual that account for the level, direc-
tion, and persistence of effort expanded at work (Schermerhorn, 2008). This
definition implies that motivation is innate within officers and they have dif-
ferent levels of motivation. It also insinuates that their motivation should be
directed toward work activities, which is accomplished through leadership.
Leadership and motivation should be mutually reinforcing. Different people
have variant levels of motivation, resulting in leaders attempting to forge dif-
ferent paths for their subordinates in order to maximize their productivity. A
leader, to be effective, must attend to different officers’ needs.

Although there are numerous theories describing the motivation process,
two of the key theories are examined here. First, Adams’ (1965) equity theory
is discussed. Equity theory states that people examine rewards in relation to
the rewards and efforts of others. If an officer perceives that another officer is
receiving more benefits for doing the same job, the officer will perceive that there is inequity. This will often result in reduced motivation. Fairness plays an important role in workplace motivation.

A second motivation theory to consider is expectancy theory. Simply, expectancy theory states that officers will be motivated when they perceive that their work or effort will be appropriately rewarded (Porter & Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964). Appropriately rewarded means that rewards must be equal to or greater than the effort exerted by the officer. Not all work can be rewarded; officers must perform their regularly assigned duties. However, there should be rewards when officers’ efforts exceed normal expectations.

Police departments are limited in the kinds of rewards they can bestow on officers. Civil service regulations and union contracts strictly dictate when officers are to receive salary increases and how promotions are made. However, superior officers can recognize work that goes beyond the expected by mentioning the work at roll call, thanking officers, recommending officers for commendations, and so on.

Planning occurs at all levels of the police department, as shown in Box 4.7. Police chiefs must ensure the department is responding to community needs, while sergeants often plan assignments for their officers. There is a hierarchy of planning. Chiefs and other top-level police administrators are involved in policy planning as they determine the department’s direction or its goals and objectives by examining factors such as crime patterns, population shifts, economy, politics, and so on. Crime patterns may suggest that new anti-crime programs must be developed. Changes in the population may require the assignment of more officers in an area or unit. The economy affects the department’s budget. Citizens and citizen groups often voice police-related concerns to politicians that must be addressed. Police policy planning establishes priorities for the department.

Policy planning outcomes are then interpreted in the strategic planning process. Strategic planning is where programs or strategies are developed to achieve goals and objectives emanating from policy planning. Unit commanders develop strategies for their units to accomplish the goals. Strategic planning may result in patrol commanders shifting officers from one area to another. It may result in selective traffic enforcement in newly identified area where there is a high volume of traffic crashes. It may result in the creation of a new unit to counter a growing problem. Strategic planning attempts to match resources and activities with community problems.

Finally, operational planning is where sergeants and lieutenants, through supervision, put the strategies into action. This may include shifting officers or giving them...
new duties. First-line supervisors ensure that strategies operate as planned. When this occurs, the department achieves its goals and is responsive to the community.

**COMMUNICATIONS**

Communication in a police department is critical. Simply stated, communication is the process of transmitting information and meaning between or among groups and individuals through a system of symbols, signs, and behavior (Lehman & DuFrene, 2008). Most everything a department does is information based. The unencumbered flow of information is directly tied to a department’s effectiveness.

Police departments have expansive reporting systems where they collect information about crimes, traffic accidents, arrests, and calls for service. This information is distilled in a crime analysis unit (as discussed in more detail later in this chapter) and is used to direct police planning. This means that units and officers must have information. Patrol officers need information about dangerous locations on their patrol beat; detectives need information about victims, possible perpetrators, and similar cases when investigating a crime; traffic enforcement officers need information about the locations where large numbers of traffic crashes occur; and domestic violence investigators need information about their cases. All this information must be readily available through a communications network.
Police departments have elaborate communications networks. A great deal of information is sent to officers via the Internet and e-mail, with a number of departments having installed mobile communications terminals or notebook computers in police vehicles. There are two general types of information that departments should provide officers. First, officers need information that is operational in nature. This includes information about crimes and crime patterns, criminals and their modus operandi, dangerous locations such as gang or drug houses, and so on. This information is used by detectives and officers to better police the community.

The second general type of information is management related. Officers need to have access to and understand new orders and policies that are issued by police managers. Many police departments post their policies on the Internet, allowing officers to access them at any time. Box 4.8 provides the Minneapolis Police Department’s policy on investigating bias crimes. The policy defines bias crimes and advises that all such crimes are to be investigated. It also provides a road map on how the crime should be investigated and the administrative actions of the responding officers. Policies provide officers guidance in doing their jobs. Policies are supplemented with supervisory direction and leadership.

In addition to management providing subordinates with formal communications, they also enhance leadership by effectively communicating with subordinates. This means that managers and supervisors must attempt to develop professional but friendly interpersonal relations with rank-and-file officers—a feeling of kinship should be engendered. When such relations exist, productivity is increased (Johnson, 2011; Nicholson-Crotty & O’Toole, 2004). Such relations can be encouraged in a police department. One way is through participatory management where officers from lower ranks are allowed to provide input into policies. This can be accomplished through meetings, surveys, and informal discussions. Vertical staff meetings are another vehicle for fostering subordinate input and better relations with managers and administrators. Here, officers from lower-level ranks are allowed to participate in the meetings where policies are formulated. Police administrators, managers, and supervisors must work to develop positive working relations with subordinates through communications and leadership. It results in a department that better responds to community needs.

**Contingency Management**

Contingency management represents a management philosophy rather than a distinct management theory. **Contingency management** assumes that there is no one best way to manage and that managerial decisions should be based on the particulars of the problem under consideration. Thus, contingency management is leadership based. Managers must constantly monitor organizational and environmental activities, and contingency management adds that these managers should monitor activities with a mind to reacting to problems and
potential problems. King (2009) and Giblin and Burruss (2009) observed that police departments alter their operations and structure in response to environmental demands. Leaders should consider internal and external conditions as they pursue organizational goals and objectives, and they must use a variety of leadership styles, the style exhibited by the leader being dependent on the situation and temperament of subordinates. A crisis situation such as a barricaded person or drug raid would require a different style of leadership as compared to organizing officers to direct traffic after a large event such as a football game.

Contingency management is a bottom-up philosophy in that organizational activities are dictated by changes and problems in the environment. Thus, management actions are dictated by activities at the lowest levels within the department. This also means that supervisors and middle managers assume more significant roles in managing departmental operations.

As noted above, management decisions are situationally based. Factors that influence decisions include the problem, the environment of the problem, and the available resources to solve the problem. With regard to the problem, the police manager must ensure that all aspects of the problem are understood. When this occurs, different approaches for dealing with the problem become available. The environment of the problem is important in terms of providing a better understanding of the problem. It is also important to examine the environment to ensure that the problem is not part of a larger problem or a complex set of other problems. Finally, the resources, personnel, equipment, and money that a manager has when dealing with a specific problem will limit the numbers and types of responses. Regardless, when all of these factors are considered, a number of alternative methods by which to approach a given problem become available, and the best approach should be selected.

Contingency management requires that police organizations be flexible. They must be able to quickly identify a problem and, with some immediacy, respond to it. In some cases, problems require that officers be shifted from one unit to another or reassigned to different geographical areas. For example, there may be an influx of gang activity in an area, resulting in an increase in robberies and assaults. The department may shift additional patrol officers to the area and make it a high priority for the gang unit to repress crime. Since some of these crimes may be committed by the same perpetrators, additional detectives could be assigned to these cases so that arrests can be made more quickly. In some cases, the department’s organizational structure may be altered. Operation Ceasefire in Boston (Braga, Kennedy, Waring, & Piehl, 2013) and Operation Peacekeeper in Stockton, California are examples of contingency management where organizational change occurred. Both cities were experiencing high gang homicide rates. In both cities, officers were teamed with probation and parole officers, state and federal prosecutors, and community groups. When a homicide occurred, officers would flood the area and probation and parole agents would investigate gang probationers and parolees. These officers would not only investigate the violent crimes, they also sent a message to gang members that their behavior would not be tolerated. Community-based organizations such as churches were enlisted to send the same message. State and federal prosecutors fast-tracked prosecutions. These concerted efforts resulted in decreases in homicides in both cities. Contingency management often requires innovated alternatives.
MANAGING COMMUNITY POLICING

The previous sections outlined a variety of methods by which to facilitate communications and allow subordinates to provide input into decision making. A number of departments have adopted these methods when implementing community policing, but these efforts have been uneven and in some cases ineffective (Chappell, 2009; Morabito, 2010). To better understand community policing and its implementation, it is informative to examine community policing’s objectives. Terpstra (2010) identified five primary goals: making policing more neighborhood oriented, a focus on problems in the neighborhood, prevention of crime and disorder, cooperation with other criminal justice agencies and community groups, and increased citizen involvement.

If community policing is to be implemented successfully, administrators must alter organizational arrangements to involve lower-ranking officers in the process. Traditional police management is a top-down process, whereas community policing necessitates more of a bottom-up process of decision making and goal setting. If police departments are to achieve the goals identified by Terpstra, policing must be decentralized where officers are able to work more closely with the community.

Community policing requires a redefinition of patrol operations. Rather than concentrating on a rapid response to calls for service, patrol officers must attempt to attend to the problems that are at the root of the calls. They must identify and solve problems and engage the community. This requires a shift in organizational control from top management to patrol commanders and supervisors (Kappeler & Gaines, 2009). Such a shift results in patrol commanders having more flexibility when deciding on tactics and dealing with crime and disorder problems—they must engage in contingency management. It also requires that unit commanders place a higher priority on problem solving.

It is not easy to transform a police department from the traditional philosophy to a community policing department. Police departments and personnel are resistant to change. Although community policing has been around for over two decades, most police departments have not altered their organizational structure to facilitate its implementation (Zhao, He, & Lovrich, 2003; Zhao, Ren, & Lovrich, 2010). Police departments still cling to the organizational principles discussed earlier in this chapter. Cheurprakobkit (2001) studied community policing officers in one city and found that the officers had reservations about the chief’s ability to adequately implement community policing, demonstrating a strain between the department’s organizational
structure and the need to change to a community policing format. Chiefs and their staffs must make community policing a priority and develop a plan for its implementation. This plan should include a discussion of the department’s organization, unit responsibilities and duties, and training for officers to ensure they have the tools to effectively use community policing tools.

Most police departments have implemented community policing piecemeal. They tend to implement individual programs aimed at some narrow issue or problem. Some of the programs that they have implemented include neighborhood watches, Drug Awareness Resistance Education, bike patrols, curfew enforcement, and citizen academies. However, this is not community policing. These tactics do little to address problems in neighborhoods. If community policing is to be successful, it must be embedded throughout police responses to problems in the community. It should guide patrol and investigative operations.

The most logical method of implementing community policing holistically is to delegate operational control to field commanders. Field commanders, especially in patrol and criminal investigation, should be given the authority to make decisions about police tactics and operational priorities. Today, the most common method of accomplishing this is through COMPSTAT, which is discussed in the following section. Community policing is discussed in more detail in Chapter 11.

**CRIME ANALYSIS AND COMPSTAT**

One of the important technological innovations in law enforcement in recent years has been crime analysis and COMPSTAT. *Crime analysis* is the examination and mapping of crime and calls for service in order to discover patterns. When patterns have been discovered, the police have better information about activities and how to respond to them. *COMPSTAT* is a managerial process that uses crime analysis information. It gives administrators a measure of control as they direct police operations to specific crime and disorder problems such as gang or drug-dealing hot spots. It is a process where administrators, in conjunction with patrol, traffic, and investigative commanders and personnel, examine activities and cooperatively develop plans to address problems in specific geographical areas. It also adds accountability to the mix, as it provides a constant level of feedback relative to the success of operations. In other words, if a problem persists, it means that departmental actions have not sufficiently addressed the problem. Administrators can then discuss the lack of progress or successes with commanders. COMPSTAT provides a continuous examination of crime and disorder and serves to evaluate the department’s efforts.
Crime Analysis
Police departments have been conducting crime analysis for many years; in fact, Harries (1999) noted that New York was mapping crime as early as 1900. It did not become an integral part of policing until the 1970s, though, when the costs of computers and software decreased to the point that they were widely affordable. Police departments began using computers to automate their records and dispatch information. This created a large paperless database that could provide considerable information about crimes, calls for service, and police activities. Over time, the costs of computers have continued to decline, and today there is ample software to allow departments to maintain robust databases. Such software allows officers to map activities by geography, time, and type of activity.

Essentially, crime analysis is the collating or sorting of data to allow officers to visualize or better understand activities. Gaines and Worrall (2011) categorized the several types of data collected:

1. Specific types of calls, across the jurisdiction or within a specific area for a given time period
2. Activities for a particular shift or watch
3. Activities for a particular beat or police district
4. Activities around a “hot spot” or concentration of crime and disorder
5. Concentrations of activities in an area over time
6. Police activities in relation to social and ecological characteristics

Usually this information is provided on a map along with a narrative report detailing the activities on the map. The information can then be used by patrol officers or detectives to direct or concentrate their activities toward a particular problem or problem area.

As an example, Box 4.9 provides a map of juvenile arrests in Redlands, California. Juvenile arrests appear to occur only in certain areas, and some of the areas have large concentrations of these arrests. The patrol, criminal investigation, and crime prevention units can all use this map. The areas where higher levels of juvenile crime occur require more patrol time relative to other areas. Detectives can use the information shown on the map to help them solve crimes committed by juveniles. Finally, crime prevention activities, especially those providing recreational or after-school activities for juveniles, could be implemented in the areas with the highest concentration of juvenile arrests. Crime analysis and mapping can substantially direct police activities.

COMPSTAT
COMPSTAT is an extension of crime analysis in that it incorporates management and crime activities. It is a strategic management tool. It gives decision makers immediate access to information relevant to problems and tactical decisions. Managers have more information about crime and disorder problems, and by closely examining this information they can make decisions about how to best
respond to them tactically. Some problems may require additional patrols, others may necessitate the creation of a special investigative task force, and still others may be solved through crime prevention efforts. The response to a problem can be fashioned after the data are thoroughly examined. When such information is readily available, managers can make more appropriate decisions. Administrators can monitor activities over time in certain geographical areas, such as patrol beats or patrol districts, and determine if police programs are effective in reducing problems. These administrators can also hold unit commanders accountable when conditions do not improve; for example, if the number of burglaries increases in a district, administrators may require the district commander to explain what actions were taken and why the situation did not improve. It also opens discussions about what other tactics may be more effective.

Willis, Mastrofski, and Weisburd (2003) examined several COMPSTAT programs and identified six core elements associated with them:

1. **Mission clarification**—Administrators are able to clarify core objectives for commanders and units and, through supervision, ensure that commanders and units actively pursue achieving these objectives.

2. **Internal accountability**—Operational commanders are held accountable for achieving core objectives and attending to crime and disorder problems (see Box 4.10).
3. Geographical organization of operational command—The focus of COMPSTAT is geographical areas where commanders are given authority and responsibility. This results in one individual being held accountable for what occurs in a particular geographical area.

4. Organizational flexibility—Commanders have the flexibility to move officers and change unit structures to respond to crime and disorder problems.

5. Data-driven analysis of problems and assessment of a department’s problem solving—COMPSTAT generates crime and disorder data by geographical subdivision, allowing administrators to track and assess the department’s ability to solve problems.

6. Innovative problem-solving tactics—Responses to problems are based on what works as opposed to what has been done in the past. Innovative solutions can be used, and solutions can be deployed that best match the problem.

For COMPSTAT to be effective it must provide units with information and data that they can use to fashion responses. Henry (2002) examined the use of COMPSTAT in New York and found that three distinct weekly reports were generated:

1. The COMPSTAT Report provides a ranking of the precincts by crime and arrests and allows management to make a determination about each precinct’s problems and the efforts exerted to solve the problem. This

Box 4.10 Five Axed Over Bad Stats

A routine inspection last summer that uncovered an unusually high number of crimes that police in New Orleans’ 1st District improperly downgraded to less serious offenses has snowballed into a scandal that led to the dismissal of five veteran officers in October for allegedly cooking their jurisdiction’s books.

Police Superintendent Edwin Compass fired the 1st District’s commander, Capt. Norvel Orazio, a 29-year veteran who won crime reduction awards in 2002 and 2003. According to an internal audit that scrutinized 690 reports from July 2002 until May 2010, 42 percent were wrongly downgraded from major crimes that should have been reported to the FBI for inclusion in the Uniform Crime Reports. Another 17 percent were questionable, said investigators from the department’s Public Integrity Bureau.

A more cursory check of the city’s seven other precincts, which looked at a fraction of the number of cases, found six that had error rates ranging from 10 percent to 25 percent. Only one district, the 3rd, had an error rate of zero.

A 225-page report issued after Compass announced the firings said that Orazio encouraged the systematic downgrading of incidents in an effort to win the crime reduction awards.

report can also provide information on officer productivity to determine those officers who are making more and fewer arrests and issuing citations. This information would be helpful in identifying officers in need of additional supervision and training.

2. The Commander Profile Report serves as a report card on how managers are dealing with their crime problems and their units. The report contains information on population and demographics for each command area, number of assigned personnel, citizen complaints filed against officers in the command, vehicle crashes involving departmental vehicles, response time to calls for service, number of on-duty injuries to officers, and amount of overtime expenditures. This report allows administrators to examine commanders over time and with each of the other commanders. Such a comparison can identify problem commands.

3. The Crime Mapping Report provides commanders with visual accounts of crime and calls for service in their commands. Various maps can be generated examining individual or all major crimes for a short or extended period. This flexibility allows commanders to discover trends over time or in specific locations. The maps assist the commanders in developing better tactics for dealing with the problems in their areas.

In weekly COMPSTAT meetings administrators discuss these reports and the status of crime and police activity in each of the commands. Administrators query the commanders about their tactics and whether they are effective in dealing with identified problems. The discussions can also lead to commanders considering new tactics when current operational arrangements are not producing the desired outcomes.

Silverman (1999) suggested that the discussion of high-profile cases and crime patterns with commanders reduces bureaucratic entanglements and facilitates communication. It allows for better identification of goals and objectives and a rapid change in tactics to meet evolving problems. It also holds commanders accountable when they fail to resolve high-profile cases or reduce crime in their areas. Although COMPSTAT has received widespread acceptance in policing, it remains questionable if it has reached its full potential. Problem analysis remains primitive or haphazard in many departments and is often superficial. Accountability is often absent, resulting in little or no pressure on commanders to exert more attention and effort to solving problems.

To learn more about COMPSTAT you can watch a video about the Los Angeles Police Department at: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=plTQi6aG4M8
POLICE COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

The previous sections in this chapter examined police administration and management. A thorough examination of this topic cannot be accomplished without examining the impact of police collective bargaining on police management. Collective bargaining is where employees organize in a union or other organization to present their demands and grievances to management. Often, the employees negotiate salaries, working conditions, and benefits through unions. When police officers band together in a union, they have a stronger voice in many of the decisions that directly affect them.

Most people associate collective bargaining with unions; however, police officers in the United States are represented by a variety of organizations. These organizations can be categorized as unions and fraternal organizations. Unions representing the police include the International Brotherhood of Police Officers; the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees; and the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, among others. Fraternal organizations include the Fraternal Order of Police and police benevolent associations. There is no national union; rather, police collective bargaining tends to be locally based, with a patchwork of organizations throughout the United States.

Today, 40% of all police departments have some form of collective bargaining (Hickman & Reaves, 2006). As noted in Table 4.2, most large and medium-size police departments have collective bargaining, while most of the smaller departments do not. A state must pass legislation authorizing a police department to engage in collective bargaining. Many states have authorized it for larger cities but prohibited it in smaller jurisdictions. Other states have authorized it for all police agencies.

Organizations that represent employees are often concerned with: (1) better economic benefits; (2) better job conditions; and (3) a voice in management practices. In some cases, management and labor can cooperate on issues; for example, increases in salaries benefit not only line officers but also the department, as it is better able to attract highly qualified applicants. In other cases, the relationship can be adversarial; for example, the union may want promotions in the department to be based on longevity as opposed to performance on promotion tests. Unions certainly complicate the management process, but they are now present in many jurisdictions, and management must deal with them and their demands. Nonetheless, where deficient work conditions exist it is clear that unions can improve matters, especially in the areas of salary and supplementary compensation (Briggs, Zhao, & Wilson, 2008; Wilson, Zhao, & Ren, 2006).
Table 4.2 Collective Bargaining Authorized by Local Police Departments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population Served</th>
<th>Sworn Employees</th>
<th>Civilian Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All sizes</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000 or more</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500,000–999,999</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250,000–499,999</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000–249,999</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50,000–99,999</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25,000–49,999</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000–24,999</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2500–9999</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 2500</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hickman & Reaves (2006).

Essentially, there are two basic types of issues: employee benefits and management prerogatives. Employee benefits refer to salary, vacation and holiday time, overtime compensation, fringe benefits such as health and life insurance coverage and retirement plans, and working conditions. Management prerogatives are management decisions that affect the operation of the department, such as hiring and promotion procedures, transfer policies, and the purchase of equipment. In most departments, employee benefits are negotiable, while management prerogatives are not; however, many unions attempt to bring the management prerogatives into the negotiation process. When this occurs, police administrators begin to lose control of their departments (Gaines & Worrall, 2011). When management prerogatives have been bargained away, they are difficult to recover.

The recession beginning in 2007 had a significant impact on police collective bargaining. The recession resulted in significant losses of income for governments at all levels, and this loss of income brought about cuts in government services, especially at the local level. Police departments across the country reduced their numbers of police officers, not replacing officers who left the department, furloughing officers, and laying off officers (COPS Office, 2011). In some cases, cities abolished their police departments. Officials in Camden, New Jersey eliminated its department and contracted with the county police to reduce costs (Laday, 2013). As cities began to look for ways to reduce expenditures, public safety contacts (police and fire) became a focal point, especially retirement and
The concern over police pay and benefits, to some extent, is misdirected or unfounded. First, research indicates that public employees, even with their benefits, are paid less than equally educated workers in the private sector. 

Lewin et al. (2011) found that public employees are paid from about 2–12% less than privately employed workers. Although public employee pensions and benefits often are better than private pensions and benefits, they do not totally make up the difference between the public and private sector in total wages and benefits. Also, Brandl and Smith (2013) studied the mortality of retired municipal employees from Detroit. They found that police officers on average died six years younger than other retirees and had retirements 74 months shorter than other city employees. Once police officers retire, their longevity is much shorter than other workers. This factor should be considered when examining police wages and benefits.

Contract Negotiation

The relations between labor and management are enumerated in the contract. Contracts generally are fairly substantial and address all points in the agreement. Contracts are negotiated for a specific period of time, usually for 1–3 years. Once the contract is agreed upon, it is binding for all parties. The contract serves as the authority for deciding issues that are addressed in it.

Contract negotiations usually begin 6–12 months before the expiration of the current contract. Both sides establish a set of demands to present to the other side. Once negotiations begin, it generally is a quid pro quo process whereby each side gives up or alters demands in order to come to an agreement; for example, the union may request a 10% salary increase over the course of the new contract but management can negotiate the increase to a lower percentage. Generally, both sides will reduce their demands in one area if the other side gives something in another area. The union may reduce its salary demand for an increase in health insurance coverage or other benefits.

In some cases, the two sides cannot come to an agreement. This is called an impasse. When this occurs, there are two options: some type of job action or the use of impasse resolution procedures. In terms of job actions, the union has a number of alternatives, ranging from media press releases and presentations to strikes. Other job actions include the "blue flu" (large numbers of officers calling in sick), demonstrations at police headquarters or at council meetings, letter writing campaigns to elected officials, ticket slowdowns to reduce the city’s revenue, and ticket speedups to agitate citizens. The union will engage in job actions as a method of forcing the government to agree to its contract conditions.
There are several impasse resolution procedures, and their existence in a jurisdiction generally is a matter of state law. The first is mediation, which involves third-party intervention. The mediator works with both sides in an effort to facilitate the two sides’ reaching an agreement. The mediator cannot force a settlement on the participants. Second is fact finding, which is similar to mediation except that a written report is produced. Fact finding places additional pressure on the parties as a result of the written report. Finally, arbitration allows both sides to present their demands, and evidence and documentation supporting those demands, to an arbitrator. The arbitrator, after considering the positions of both sides, has the authority to impose a final decision on the issues in dispute. Arbitration places additional pressures on the parties to come to an agreement, as the arbitrator’s final decision may result in a greater loss compared to what had already been negotiated.

It sometimes appears that unions and police executives are on opposing sides, but for the most part, they generally agree and often work together. Police executives do disagree when unions attempt to become involved in management prerogatives such as hiring and promotion procedures, allocation of officers across units and other assignments, disciplinary actions, or police tactics. However, police executives have a vested interest when unions demand higher salaries and benefits. Gains in these areas reduce the attrition rate for the department and make it easier to recruit high-quality applicants. The relations between chiefs and unions for the most part can be characterized as a partnership.

This chapter provides an overview of classical organizational theory as it relates to policing. It explores a number of definitions and terms that are critical to learning how police departments are administered. Today, the vast majority of police departments use classical organizational theory as their administrative foundation, which is referred to as traditional police administration. Classical organizational theory consists of a number of straightforward principles that are easily applied in law enforcement.

In addition to organization, this chapter provides an overview of police management. Management is the actions that occur within the organizational structure and facilitate productivity. Management includes behaviors such as leadership, planning, communication, and motivation. Police leaders use these processes to spur work. Moreover, these processes must be used effectively by police managers if they are to be successful.

The chapter provides an overview of crime analysis and COMPSTAT. Crime analysis gives police personnel a better understanding of crime and disorder.
in their community. It also provides information on how to best fashion responses to crime and disorder. COMPSTAT is a managerial process whereby authority is delegated to lower-level commanders. Commanders are expected to identify crime problems and devise individualized tactics to respond to the problems. Administrators review commanders’ actions and successes, holding them accountable when problems are not resolved.

Finally, this chapter provides an overview of the police collective bargaining process. Most police officers in the United States are involved in the collective bargaining process. It is a mechanism that allows officers to have input in a variety of decisions that affect the job. Police administrators must be able to deal effectively with police unions if they are to successfully guide the department toward effective goal accomplishment.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Who developed the acronym POSDCORB and what is it used to describe?
2. Describe the basics of organizational theory and its principles.
3. What is the administrative structure that generally occurs in police agencies? From what police force does modern police administration take its roots?
4. Who was Max Weber and what are the principles he identified as the foundation of classical organizational theory?
5. Describe the collective bargaining process.

REFERENCES


