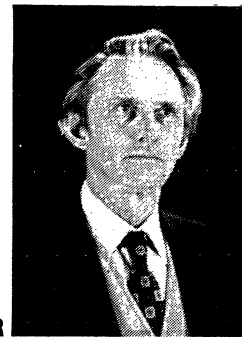




INTRODUCTION TO POLICE ADMINISTRATION

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Editorial Note:

About the Authors: Mr. V.M. Barlow, Q.P.M., A.F.A.I.M., J.P. progressed through the ranks of the Queensland Police Force and was appointed to the position of Assistant Commissioner of Police (Administration) where he served for some considerable time on that rank prior to his retirement. On a number of occasions he was Acting Commissioner of Police during the absence of the Commissioner. In 1971 he was awarded a Churchill Fellowship Scholarship which resulted in him undertaking a tour of the United Kingdom and United States of America where he studied Police Administration in those countries. Mr. Barlow, a long time financial member of the Australian Crime Prevention Council, was also the foundation Hon. Secretary of the Queensland Branch of the Council.

Mr C. Proctor, B.A. (Hons. Psych), M.A.Ps.S., M.A.C.E., F.A.I.M., is a qualified practicing psychologist with experience in both business and government, including a period as Principal (Academic) of the Queensland Police Academy before moving into private practice. In addition to having been a clinical psychologist working in psychiatric hospitals and clinics and other institutions, he has worked in the industrial area as a management consultant in Sydney, and was for some years Senior Staff Development Officer of the Queensland Public Service Board's Department. He was foundation Chairman of both the Queensland Branch of the Australian Institute of Human Relations and the Queensland Group of the Australian Institute of Training and Development. He is the author of "Management of Personnel in Australia" McGraw-Hill, Sydney, and is a member of the Australian Crime Prevention Council and the National Panel on General and Financial Administration of the Productivity Promotion Council of Australia.

Messrs Barlow and Proctor have kindly consented as co-authors of a manuscript on Police Administration to allow the Australian Crime Prevention Council to publish it by way of a series of articles. The manuscript has been modified in such a way to permit it to be printed in chapter form (on a different subject) within future issues of the A.C.P.C. Forum. Some of such articles have already been previously published in the Australian Police Journal with the written approval of Messrs Barlow and Proctor. In releasing same for reproduction within referenced publications they have retained total copyright. Therefore, this article, and others yet to follow, cannot be reproduced in any form without their prior written permission.

Authors' Note: In this series of articles the use of the words "he" or "policeman" is intended also to refer to "she" or "policewoman" except where reference to the male sex is specifically intended and clearly made. In addition the word "administrator" is used in relation to top levels of the Department where government policies and Cabinet and Ministerial Decisions are put into effect, while the words "manager" and "managing" are used below the highest departmental levels in relationship to day-to-day activities of "internal" administration. The word "supervision" is used to describe the situation in which a more senior person oversees the activities of less experienced or more junior persons, assisting them to learn and to perform to the best of their ability, and reports on their performance; i.e. an officer who is responsible for overseeing the activities of one or more persons with a view to helping them to be more effective, without necessarily being responsible for other aspects of "management".

CHAPTER V

ADMINISTRATION, MANAGEMENT & SUPERVISION

The word 'administrator' properly belongs to the top levels of a department where government policies and Cabinet and Ministerial decisions are put into effect. Below the highest departmental levels the use of the words "manager" and "managing" appears to be appropriate, since the day-to-day activities of "internal" administration resemble similar activities in business management. At times the job of the manager-level officer may have an administrative component as when he puts forward a submission which goes "to the top" and ultimately helps determine policy, or when he answers requests regarding his needs for budgeting and planning purposes.

The traditional formula of management Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Co-ordinating and Controlling does not fully apply to this type of management; "organize" has little application since the organisation structure and procedures have already been established by government decree and arrangement, the pattern of recruitment has been decided, and much of the planning has already been done when policy decisions were made. What is left for the "managing" levels is day-to-day planning, decision-making, delegating and team-building, communication, and directing, controlling and leading.

The word "supervision" is used in this paper to describe the situation in which a more senior person oversees the activities of less experienced or more junior persons, assisting them to learn and to perform to be best of their ability; and reports on their performance. The senior member of a patrol, or any experienced person working in a guiding, controlling or training capacity with junior personnel can be said to be acting as a supervisor. A supervisor could thus be defined as an officer who is responsible for overseeing the activities of one or more persons with a view to helping them to be effective.

Where a supervisor has responsibility for one or more persons who have recently joined the force and have limited experience, a considerable proportion of his time, in comparison to what he would spend with experienced people, will be spent here. In the demands of a busy life more experienced people may have less supervision given than best circumstances would warrant.

A manager in addition to supervisory duties has procedural and other administrative duties which go beyond reporting on the progress of persons being helped and supervised. The word manager can be used where there is responsibility for men, money, materials, procedures and equipment. A senior sergeant in charge of station is more than a supervisor; he is in a managerial situation, since he has to deal with people, with rosters, with ordering, allotment and care of material and equipment, with reporting and with overall control of the working unit.

Principles of Management

Police management is based on well-known and widely accepted principles which apply to all areas of human endeavour in the work situation; these principles being modified to suit the particular situation in which policemen are required to operate.

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Difference between police management and management in any other human are (in addition to limits described earlier) lie not in these basic principles but in the nature of police duties and involvements.

Like all managers the senior police officer has to use what resources are available in the most efficient and effective way, and is continuously called upon to deal with problems, endeavouring to do his job effectively within the constraints of a budget which is all too often inadequate, and procedures or circumstances which may seem to restrict him unduly.

It is a mistake to consider that a procedure or technique which is found effective in other government areas, or in the area of business, is of no use in police work. All areas of human enterprise can learn something from each other.

Supervising'

In supervising, the responsible officer should have or seek to gain a thorough knowledge of his subordinates, and should show an interest in them, having some understanding of the pattern of their private life and personal aims and goals as well as of their work situation. He should be known to be available at all times for subordinates to confer with him or gain counselling from him.

If he is responsible for a large group of men, he should hold regular meetings of his senior supervisors so that he may stimulate interest in and keep over-sight of these seniors. He would instil in them a good knowledge of their responsibilities both to him and to their subordinates. He needs to be a man of integrity and set a high standard of appearance, deportment and behaviour, being fair and just and encouraging good work. He should attempt to instil in his men a pride in their job, their uniform and in the Force.

Managing'

*"... management is about understanding people."*³

"Managerial techniques to be successful must reflect a philosophy of attunement to people within and without the organization, sensitive to their norms, attitudes, values, and motivating forces. Within the organization, management is concerned with the maximization of human and physical resources to effectively fulfil agency goals as well as providing the climate for individual growth and development."⁴

In managing the responsible officer has to delegate effectively and use correctly the chain of command, instructing his men in the proper use of this as well as the correct use of procedures so that most effective work can be done by all levels.

He has to do all that is in his power to provide adequate training and equipment and see that training methods are kept up to date and that equipment is effectively maintained and cared for.

As part of training he would, in addition to encouraging his men to undertake courses or higher studies, ensure that there were regular lectures available for them and that he himself made an appearance at at least some of these. He desirably should be continuing his own studies in management.

On the job he tries to practise job rotation despite the difficulties involved in this, so that he gives men and women under his command an opportunity to learn through variety in duties the important element of flexibility, and gain wide knowledge of people and their environment. The decision on how much rotation must be arranged rests upon the needs of the organization, the community, and the training and development needs of the officers themselves.

As part of objective-setting he would confer with senior supervisors on his staff to find out how people under his charge can best contribute to the attainment of objectives. This would involve gaining their interest and assistance in planning a practical programme to be adopted by all persons under his command. If they participate in planning and are involved in the carrying out of the plans, they are more likely to give support and demonstrate desired performance.

Care has to be taken in task allocation to younger and junior

policemen and policewomen. To give to the most junior person recently arrived from recruit training only the most routine or demeaning task is unproductive both in the short term and long term, since the person to whom these duties are given, however conscientious and dedicated initially may eventually come to feel demeaned.

More importantly, that person is not being given the "uplift" of morale which comes from being associated, if only on the fringe, with more responsible or exciting duties. Even more importantly, that person is not receiving the training appropriate to his needs and the requirements of an effective police force.

One of the difficult tasks for the police manager is to continue to stimulate enthusiasm and do what he can to provide job satisfaction for the people for whom he is responsible, at all levels. His greatest burden is that he, despite whatever he may delegate in the way of tasks, responsibility and authority, carries the final responsibility himself.

One area of conflict for the manager arises from the need to attend both to "people" work and "paper" work. Many officers have to work hard to avoid giving preference to that aspect of their work which they favour. Some officers have a dislike of "paper work" preferring to spend time with their men and in the field; others can become too easily and too strongly involved with more "non-human" aspects of administration.

One of the greatest problems the policeman may have to bear as he becomes more senior and takes increasingly high levels of rank is that he must learn supervising, managing and then the wider process of administration. It is therefore not enough just to be a "good police officer"; more is required of him.

The process of administration in total cannot be understood by people who prefer to "let things ride", who believe that everything will sort itself out given time; it is something which has to be worked at and made to work. Considerable effort is involved in both short-term and long-term effort. The thing that distinguishes good administration from poor is the addition of long-term awareness and objectives, with long range and continuing planning being done.

FOOTNOTES

1. See "Effective Supervision in the Police Service", R.J. Allen, McGraw-Hill Police Series, McGraw-Hill U.K., 1977.
2. For further reading on Management see Part 6 "Police Management" in "Local Government Police Management", Ed. Bernard L. Garmire, The International City Management Association, U.S.A. 1977.
3. "Effective Supervision in the Police Service", R.J. Allen, page 3, McGraw-Hill U.K. Ltd.
4. Page 46 "Effective Police Administration" (San Jose, California: Justice Systems Development, Inc.), Harry W. More, Jnr. 1975.

CHAPTER VI DECISION-MAKING Gathering Information

Care needs to be taken by every administrator or manager to avoid colouring or selecting information for planning or decision-making according to his own preferences. Fact is fact, however unacceptable or upsetting it may be. There is no profit and no performance to be achieved in ignoring unpalatable truths. If, for instance there is resentment or hostility in junior ranks, until this is looked at and dealt with, there is little point in going ahead with a proposal which if it is to be effective needs the support of all concerned.

Police officers are well aware from hard experience, that information cannot be idly accepted without being checked as thoroughly as possible. Not only is rumour and self-interest likely to give distorted information, but persuasive people can in all sincerity urge ideas or put up proposals or make statements which are not sufficiently practical, comprehensive or accurate.

One difficulty which faces the administrator or manager in gathering information is that of how much should be gathered. Some officers are driven to record the utmost detail, even when a general picture of a situation or a brief statement of what is real and factual is sufficient. Highly detailed information gathering is appropriate only to research surveys or to gathering data on criminal behaviour and activity where as much information as can be gained however apparently minor or trivial is important.

This need for careful organising refers to all information, whether it be concerned with personnel record, with information on criminal offences, or with giving details of car registration.

In all information gathering, it is essential that the method of recording information be as effective as possible. Few administrative procedures cause more annoyance and frustration than forms which are difficult to fill in or are inadequate for the purpose. Constant review has to be made of recording methods to ensure that information which at times may be gathered at some cost in time and effort, and perhaps with some cost to an officer's safety, be recorded as clearly and easily as possible and be as accessible as possible. This double requirement of recording and accessibility can mean a careful decision being needed as to the most practical type of recording e.g. on forms, on dictation tapes, in computers etc.¹

Routine information contained in files such as personnel files, is difficult to classify and record in a manner that will make it easily available to those officers who require it for administrative purposes.

The problem is made worse by the fact that it is difficult to adopt and maintain a control procedure which ensures that files are kept track of and are returned to the appropriate sections of the recording system, and not mislaid or lost. The best mechanical or control system cannot function effectively if the level of human error is too high, and officers keep files overtime without notification, or pass them on to other officers without notifying 'records', or place them away where they become forgotten.

It is desirable that in the early training of police officers matters such as recording and budgeting be given a significant degree of emphasis, so that all officers are at least knowledgeable about the importance of these activities, and the need to operate in those areas as effectively and economically as possible.

Making Decisions

No decision-making can ever be perfect, but the best possible decision should be aimed at, and it must be realistically made on the basis of the resources available. A 'safe' decision achieves little; it is not really a decision at all but an abdication; it does not have the essential element of forward movement. This sort of decision is usually based on fear of making a mistake and thus losing status in other people's eyes or of being reprimanded by a superior or of in some other fashion prejudicing one's future. Decision-making can have several elements —

- (a) assessing and analysing the situation
- (b) seeing the apparent effective alternatives
- (c) comparing these alternatives for best promise
- (d) selecting the most promising.

Then follows the communicating of the decision, the allotment of tasks and responsibilities and of related resources, and supervision for best performance.²

Decision making is not only an administrative function, but is also an integral part of the life of the police officer, when he must decide if he will arrest a person, what charges he should prefer, what his attitude should be towards bail, and what he may say in mitigation of the penalty after the person has been convicted. Police actions "have a profound influence upon the entire criminal justice process. Police decisions not to invoke the criminal process largely determine the outer limits of law enforcement."³

Police administrators can give support to all ranks indicating

how police discretion can be used most effectively and in fairness to all, knowing that their decisions have a bearing upon every phase of the criminal justice system from then on.

Discretion cannot be lightly exercised and is a considerable worry to the conscientious police officer because it can result in loss of money, reputation, or liberty to an otherwise or previously blameless citizen. Despite severe constraints on their performance because of legal and Court situations and social pressure groups, police officers still have considerable power.

The skill and competence with which policemen use their powers of discretion results from a long line of action by others than themselves, beginning with the proper concepts of recruiting, the type of training, supervision and guidance received, and the excellence of the administration of the force and department.

Books Received

(The mention of a book in this section does not imply that no review will appear in a subsequent issue.)

Protection Against Terrorism. By H.H. Yallop. Published by Barry Rose (Publishers) Lts, Little London, Chichester, West Sussex, PO19 1PG England, 1980. 92pp. 8.75 (soft cover).

Police — Force or Service? By John Avery. Published by Butterworths, 586 Pacific Highway, Chatswood, NSW, 2067. 1981. 95pp. \$9.50 (soft cover only).

FOOTNOTES

1. See 'Information Systems' pp. 452-458. 'Police in Australia: Development, Functions, Procedures' Kerry L. Milte. Thomas H. Weber, Butterworths, Sydney, 1977.
2. For further material on decision-making see 'Management of Personnel in Australia'. Craig Proctor, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Sydney, 1977.
3. Page 244, Chapter 12 Police Discretion, 'Police in Australia: Development, Functions, Procedures', Kerry L. Milte, Thomas H. Weber, Butterworths, Sydney, 1977.

CHAPTER VII DELEGATING

Delegating¹

To delegate means to give jobs or tasks to other people, usually one's subordinates; one can only justifiably do this if he has authority over the other persons. There may be exceptions as in 'temporary' circumstances where two people are of the same rank with one person having authority as 'project leader'. The officer engaged in delegation has a responsibility to:—

- state clearly what the tasks are and within what time they are to be completed:
- give some indication of how they might be done and best results achieved, with indication of people or aids to be used: and
- indicate when and how often subordinates are to report progress.

In giving responsibility and information he should give sufficient authority to the other person to enable him to carry out these tasks, but at the same time holding himself responsible to his own superiors for success or failure of the group he commands. He cannot put blame on the shoulders of his subordinates or other persons working under his control; he can only reprimand them for any deficiency or delinquency in carrying out those tasks.

Why delegate?—

1. to get today's work done today, and
2. to develop people for tomorrow's work.

A manager will delegate to get today's work done because:—

- he has not the time himself to do all that needs to be done;
- it is less costly to get someone at a lower salary to do that part of it that can be done by a person of lesser experience and status; or
- the subordinate may have some special knowledge or skill which the supervisor does not have (e.g. some clerical or driving or technical skills).

In addition to saving time and money, proper delegation:—

- gives satisfaction to the subordinate and helps to develop his self-reliance and his decision-making skills; and
- enables the supervisor to take on responsibilities more appropriate to his rank (including planning, supervision, evaluation and re-planning).

Requirements for effective delegation are seen as being willingness to:—

- trust subordinates to make the decisions;
- learn to work through other people;
- establish and exercise broad control;
- allow others to experiment and make mistakes, and exercise tolerance when those mistakes are made;
- recognise the capabilities of those to whom work and authority is delegate, and the limitations of their skills and initiative.

It is necessary to define the limits of the authority which is given to others, if need be by written direction. Channels of communication need to be kept open so as to receive feed-back which becomes part of control. Through proper feed-back trouble can be located and dealt with early.

Procedures to be followed are:—

- (a) define the task;
- (b) select the person;
- (c) assign the task;
- (d) delegate sufficient authority to carry out the task; and
- (e) have a clear understanding of accountability, accepting the fact that final accountability cannot be delegated.

Barriers to effective delegation are seen as:—

- fear of loss of authority or position;
- fear of damage to the person's ego;
- fear of taking a chance on a subordinate's ability;
- having poorly defined goals, or poor communication;
- inadequate or 'erratic' supervision, particularly where there is failure to give proper encouragement and training to subordinates so that they are able to accept and carry out delegated tasks.

Appropriate delegation followed by credit being where it is due uses the resources, energy and talents of the people to the greatest advantage to the organisation.

A manager should give the following information to the person to whom he is delegating:—

1. the facts about the job;
2. the relevant importance of the job, and its place in the larger task or project;
3. the people with whom he has to deal;
4. the fact that the manager is confident of his subordinate's ability to do the work successfully; and
5. the manager is to be called on if needed.

The amount which the senior officer delegates at any one time depends upon the ability of the subordinate person and the circumstances in which he is placed. Initially firm control can be exercised which can be relaxed as circumstances permit. These circumstances would include a degree of acceptance of the task and the responsibility by the person to whom they are delegated, and the degree to which they are competent to discharge these duties.

At no time should the manager 'over-supervise'; a degree of trust must be shown in the person to whom he has delegated tasks. Although being human he may experience anxiety he must remember that delegation does not mean disaster; neither does it

mean abdication.

The officer who does not learn to delegate appropriately can never hope to be appropriate to senior command and become an effective manager or a top-level administrator.

Delegation In Project Activity

A project, whether long-term or in the nature of a sudden emergency, can be said to be broken down into four elements:—

1. objective;
2. plan;
3. operation;
4. 'clean-up' and review.

The objective is not delegated to any other person; the senior officer describes and clarifies the result which he wishes to achieve. However he may delegate the planning or part of it to a subordinate or subordinates, depending upon the size of the exercise. He would assist this person or these persons only where they are limited in ability and experience.

When the planning stage is completed, if time permits, the superior discusses written plans in detail with the subordinate(s) and approves them, asking questions when necessary to ensure that his subordinate has clearly thought out all elements including those likely to disrupt the plan or cause it to fail.

He then plans together with his subordinates the type of control or supervision which seems necessary for that particular project; this may range from regular and frequent checking of what they are doing, to leaving the subordinate to do the total task and bring it to his superior on completion.

In police work however, particularly in emergency situations, time and pressures may not permit following this procedure; the senior officer issues a number and variety of instructions which his subordinate is then expected to carry out immediately to the best of his ability.

After the emergency is past, and as soon as time and circumstances permit, the senior person should then revert to dealing with a project in the manner described above.

After a project is completed, whether it is in the nature of an emergency, or part of every-day duties, there are usually reports to be drawn up. Often there are items of equipment, ranging from records to machines, transport or weapons to be checked, brought up to date or 'returned to store' or otherwise disposed of. This task can be delegated to a few while others go on with the next project.

Where time permits a review or 'post-mortem' on the project should be held, even if only briefly, to check on:—

- effective methods used;
- mistakes made which can be avoided next time; and
- deficiencies in aids and equipment.

By using a check list such as:—

- (a) was the plan ready on time?
- (b) did the plan work?
- (c) if it didn't, what went wrong?
- (d) can it be improved; if so, how?

Delegation in a Station

In recent years the work load of all ranks in police forces had increased greatly; this is borne out by studies carried out by the Planning and Research Branch of an Australian Police Department. In one instance it was shown that the senior sergeant in charge of a station in a large provincial city was so overloaded with desk work that it was decided to provide him with a sergeant to relieve him of some of the load. At this time the senior sergeant had the responsibility for such duties as the enforcement of laws and regulations in his division; for good order, discipline and efficiency of his personnel; preparing, receiving, submitting, and transmitting reports to his District Inspector; preserving records; the proper maintenance of the police station and other buildings

under his control; the government property issued to his subordinate personnel; instructing and training his subordinates; investigation of applicants for licenses and permits; by day or by night to respond to unusual occurrences in nearby divisions where additional police assistance is required; and miscellaneous minor duties.

The need existed for appointment of a sergeant to whom some of these duties could be delegate. What duties could be taken from the senior sergeant without impairing the effectiveness of his control and the operation of the station? It was decided that some of the duties which could be delegate were the daily inspection of the station; daily inspection of all books and records; supervision of clerical work at the station; supervision of applicants for various license and permits (e.g. personal interviews) and supervision of activities of subordinates.

This delegation enabled the senior sergeant to attend to his appropriate and exercise his normal function as officer incharge of the station.

FOOTNOTES

1. See pp 100-104 "Effective Supervision in the Police Service", R.J. Allen, McGraw-Hill (U.K.), 1978.

CHAPTER VIII

DIRECTING, CONTROLLING, CO-ORDINATING AND LEADING

Directing, Controlling, Co-Ordinating and Leading¹

Once proper delegation has taken place there is need to ensure that the work is done through time as competently as possible. Assuming that supervision is effective, and that proper guidance as well as training is given wherever possible, the efforts of the members of the working unit need to take place in a well knit pattern of operation.

Top administrators must always be linking geographic areas as well as various service areas and activities so that the whole Department functions as an integrated whole. This enhances the feeling of people on the staff of belonging to a well-functioning organisation instead of to a loosely knit and unco-ordinated variety of activities.

Effective patterns of co-operative work and systems of reporting have to be installed or maintained throughout the whole Department. The activities of various task groups are related to each other so that they fit rather like jigsaw, with overlap and duplication reduced to a minimum. Information about work done must, in the form of words and statistics, move to increasingly higher levels of command for use in overall reporting (ultimately to Parliament in the Annual Report), for checking and further planning of methods and operations, for budgeting control, for research, and for systematic and comprehensive knowledge of the crime picture.

Involved in this is detailed systematic methodical reporting, which often seems superfluous or useless activity to people at lower levels, but which gives information which finds its place in the total picture. The task of very senior officers and specialist helpers is to put the information together so that it makes sense through patterns established. These patterns may show Statewide police activity or crime trends, may indicate the need for further staff or equipment, or for methods to be changed in some aspect of operations.

For this reason, heavy and continuing stress is laid upon clear and adequate communication. It is the responsibility of officers in supervisory roles to keep pointing out how each person's efforts, or the work done by a group, contribute to the overall work of Force and Department.

Encouragement has to be given to all ranks to work to increase their own competence in reporting, and to be ready to suggest better methods when these appear possible and necessary.

All suggestions should be paid the courtesy of a hearing even though there may be some inadequacy or lack of relevance. When subordinate staff know that they will get a hearing, they feel as though they are seen as responsible people, and tend to become more interested and co-operative. It is appropriate at this point that performance standards be developed, or if available used; individual group efforts and performance can be measured, as in financial matters in meeting a budget, to see if desired standards of efficiency and effectiveness are being maintained and objectives reached.

If results are disappointing, the objectives must then be analysed for lack of relevance or realism. If they are appropriate, the methods being used to reach them should be examined. This would include looking at procedures and work methods, ways of communicating and reporting, the relationships between people, and the attitude and involvements of supervisors.

This can be done at any level and in the smallest group. Continuing evaluation leads to improved participation, and to 'good feeling' within the group — sometimes called 'morale'. This reflects on the leadership of the group, the degree of effective co-working, and identification with the tasks and 'the cause'. This atmosphere or 'climate' leads to more effective work being done, to 'job satisfaction' for the people involved, and is the essence of effective team-building and team performance. This is further enhanced if team members are given 'feed-back' on their individual and group performances in the form of praise when effective, of constructive guidance and direction when not.

A situation of good morale could be said to exist where officers of any rank feel that they can in confidence discuss matters with colleagues or take problems to senior officers, without having statements or deficiencies held against them. It is also indicated by group cohesion, with people involved feeling strong group loyalty and behaving in a manner which shows their pride to persons beyond the group. People above and below have confidence that they will be helped, in that their orders will be carried out if they are senior, and that their interests will be protected and furthered if they are junior, in rank.

A situation of 'good morale' could be said to be the end result of all the measures which are taken to produce effective and competent police officers i.e. recruitment, selection, allocation, training and supervision.

"By virtue of his formal authority, the police administrator is expected to act as a *leader*, instilling in his subordinates an ethic of public service; communicating to them organization goals; stimulating, motivating, and co-ordinating their efforts; and reconciling individual needs with organization goals."²

Dealing with people, particularly in leadership is a very difficult and demanding art.

Leadership can be the means of ensuring good performance even when other elements in the job situation are less than satisfactory, be these accommodation, salaries or retirement conditions.

Good leadership helps to provide good 'ethics' — a set of standards, principles or ideal or values, which if held to will result in personal integrity and acceptable group behaviour.

A police officer who is led by a competent leader who has a clear and high-level set of standards has strong support, and is conscious of this. This support, together with the strength he derives from his own training, experience, and pride in his own ability and continuing improvement, enables him to display 'moral courage' as well as physical courage, under trying circumstances.

Training people for leadership is not easy where change is required in attitude and behaviour. Change of a superficial kind may be accomplished relatively easily if the matters being taught are techniques which will improve the person's status and ready-skills for every-day use. But basic attitude changes are more difficult. It is necessary to realise how deep-seated are people's

basic ideas they have about other people which govern their relationships with others. Each person's personality has a certain degree of rigidity which acts against the possibility of change. This could be seen as a 'hard core' of the person who is protecting his 'psychological self' just as he protects his physical self, and the hard core is very dear to him. The basic values, ideas and assumptions about what people are like and proper relationships with them just mentioned are likely to be part of this hard core.

The problem in leadership development arises when it involves 're-building' the person's attitudes, by breaking down the barriers to change, and persuading the person of the value or benefits or necessity of looking at, evaluating, and where necessary accepting new ideas, a new sense of values, improved ways of approaching and working with people and guiding them. Leadership skills are not superficial matters but are closely related to the essential being of the person.

This is particularly important when people are being trained for 'participative' leadership, where the leader gives up being a strongly directing controller of other people and acts more as a guide and a supervisor.

A leader must be able to interpret signs given by other people; just as when interrogating a suspect or looking for the evidence he must know what indications help him to assess the situation. He cannot rely upon 'hit or miss' or snap judgement; he cannot afford to misinterpret e.g. the white-face and resentful eyes of a junior whom he is reprimanding. He may interpret this as being insolence or inappropriate behaviour of some other kind, without realising that his own manner might be inappropriate, or that he may have forgotten the primary rule of not doing this in front of other people, or that he is in fact being unjust. Unless he has learned that human signs may have several possible causes, he may not be aware that apparent sullenness may not be stupidity or mindless resistance, but may be due to tiredness, resentment, or poor communication on his part.

Every managing or supervising officer is a leader. A senior officer of any rank who is controlling and is responsible for the activities of persons, for however brief a period, is managing the affairs of a small group and is acting as a leader. The most junior constable when called upon to take over a difficult, dangerous or emergency situation is for that period of time, a leader.

One of the difficulties that deters many people from accepting the role of leader, or causes them to become very anxious when called upon to lead, is the knowledge that the consequences of their decisions may have serious implications for themselves and for other people. Every man has to live with his mistakes and the after-effects; those professional or trade workers who deal with materials rather than men and women, can often start again with new material, but a leader's mistakes involve persons. This is particularly so in the case of a police officer charged with protection of human life.

It is essential for a leader to understand the motives and the needs of people under his control. Each person is an individual with his own pattern of personality, a unique pattern different in some way from all other persons. Also a group has its own needs; these can include wanting to be looked up to by other groups as being of special merit, wanting to be well-led, wanting to feel important, and wanting to be occupied on important and meaningful tasks. It is necessary for the group leader to be able to determine which of the needs within the group are most important and attend to them first, just as when dealing with an individual he has to locate the most important driving need and see if it is possible to satisfy it, to enable the person to function better.

Where discipline and punishment is concerned, he must take care, for the sake of the individual person and the group, that all members understand that discipline must be given and taken in the proper spirit. The skilled leader takes care not to make the act of disciplining appear as though it is a rejection from the group, or

that the person or persons involved are permanently unworthy or inferior.

An experienced leader is well aware of the place of humour in his control of other people. An appropriate dry or facetious or otherwise 'funny' remark at the right and proper time can be a most effective means of relieving tension within a group, particularly when used to ease conflict between persons or small sections. Other techniques may well be needed in addition to this; they also would be based upon knowledge of and concern for the needs of individuals and groups. For instance, the leader continually bears in mind that people like to feel important to be recognised for what they have done and done well, to be trusted and to be praised.

He will also constantly bear in mind the differences between people which will lead to his giving praise directly or quietly, coming down heavily or giving encouragement, explaining quickly and briefly or going into great detail. The approach he takes depends to a large extent on the intelligence level of the junior person, his temperament, and his experience to date.

It is of inestimable value for a leader to be able to 'sense' or 'feel' what other people are experiencing, so that as far as possible he can meet their needs and judge their likely reactions.

A manager needs to be flexible. If he proceeds for the full term of his working life on the one set of methods and ideas coping with people and situations will be inappropriate and ineffective, and cause resentment and antagonism or confusion. The competent leader is one who is constantly taking in information including new and better ways of managing people and circumstances. His flexibility gives increased confidence to his subordinates who can rely on his finding a way to cope with administrative and social difficulties which may arise. Whether they are involved in a small local incident centred around a sudden increase in youthful violence or adult criminal enterprise, or in coping with demonstrations and disturbances, his men feel the assurance of knowing that they will not be left in uncertainty and will not share uncertainty with him; he will make an intelligent approach to the problem and will meet the demands of the situation with intelligent thought and not with hasty pre-conceived ideas.

The leadership situation is too complex for a simple division into 'authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire' categories. The personalities that people possess, the varied and demanding situations into which they are placed and the changing administrative and social demands of police work, demand a variety of leadership techniques, even from the one person. It is no longer possible for a man to stay within the particular type of leadership pattern at which he is best; he is now thrown into varied circumstances which can show up his limitations and generate a need for him to improve his performance by training and self-discipline, learning and effort.

Identifying Leadership potential³

To identify skills in management and leadership a number of techniques and services is required. Officers considered potential leaders or supervisors can be formally assessed in a centre set up for such a purpose. The assessment centre is a growing feature of business and government life in many parts of the world, since it provides the means of mapping the capabilities and potential of officers so that individual and group resource may be most effectively used. The officer is observed, tested and otherwise assessed by trained people, not necessarily all senior police officers (some may be educators, psychologists, legal or medical practitioners with specialist knowledge and interest).

Here the functions of the psychologist are used in testing and inter-personal effectiveness evaluation and in the prediction of likely future behaviour, particularly under stress. This method represents a long-term economical way (although initial costs are often very high) of gaining information about persons with potential for management and administrative levels.

In addition to psychological testing, and interviewing by senior police officers, observation by experienced people from a variety of circumstances takes place in ordinary discussion situations as well as in simulated field exercises and in contrived situations designed to show up the person's leadership qualities, his initiatives, his ability to relate to and to control others etc.

The gains from this sort of procedure include a knowledge of what further training is required for such persons, and provides insight into deficiencies within the organisation itself in the recruitment, selection, training supervision cycle⁴.

FOOTNOTES

1. See Chapter 3, "Effective Supervision in the Police Service", R.J. Allen, McGraw-Hill (U.K.), 1978.
 2. Pages 127-8 in Section 5 Police Management in 'Local Government Police Management', Ed. Bernard L. Garmie, The International City Management Association, U.S.A., 1977, and pp.282-3 'Police in Australia: Development Functions, Procedures', Kerry L. Milte, Thomas H. Weber, Butterworths, Sydney, 1977.
 3. See pp. 151-153 'Management of Personnel in Australia', Craig Proctor, McGraw-Hill, Sydney, 1977.
 4. For background on leadership see 'People and Organisations', W.J. Byrt, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Sydney 1971 and 'Management of Personnel in Australia', Craig Proctor, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Sydney, 1977.
For further, more detailed study on this topic see 'Leadership and Effective Management', Fiedler and Chemers: Scott, Foresman and Company, Glenview, U.S.A., 1974.
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CHAPTER IX

COMMUNICATIONS AND COMMUNICATING

In its work as the first line of defence against criminal and anti-social forces a police organisation needs to have the best possible communications network available. Because of the increasing speed of transport in enabling people to move quickly from one point to another, police officers need to be able to use all means to ensure that offenders are traced and apprehended before they become difficult to locate either by submerging themselves in a large population or by moving to a distant place.

Technical skill is needed to operate and maintain present day high-powered and sophisticated equipment. These types of *communications* need trained and alert people capable of making best use of the various methods and equipment, but belong properly to the area of Operations.

However the art and skills of *communicating* are very much the business of Administration as well as Operations.

The areas of *communicating* fall into three groups:--

1. telephone, telex, radio, video, written or spoken message or any other form of communication relevant to 'field' operations, between officers and with members of the public or between administrators, public relations officers and the public;
2. administrative and other support communication of a non-emergency type in the day-to-day running of the Department, involving spoken, written and machine communication; and
3. the informal working communication between ranks and levels and between persons engaged in activities irrespective of levels, mostly in spoken form.

Communicating skills in 1 and 2 above have to be at a high level for effective police communication. The most expensive and complex piece of equipment is worth little unless it is used by staff able to use it effectively in both the technical and the 'being understood' senses.

It is essential that police officers at all levels and in all areas be trained in clarity and ease of communicating. This is important in operations work, in internal communications and in creating a

good impression on the public. A police officer or non-uniformed officer who does not communicate adequately, i.e. courteously and effectively as well as clearly and concisely, fails to gain adequate communication in return, and risks antagonising people from whom he expects information and support. Communicating clearly and adequately is necessary at all phases of police life from recruitment through allocation, induction, training, supervision and management of administration.

The effective officer, whether he or she be supervisor, manager, administrator and trainer should be continuously evaluating whether he or she is 'getting across' to other persons clearly, and accurately. Effectiveness in communicating is one of the major skills which the police officer has to develop and work at improving throughout his career.

Communicating effectively can reduce administrative costs and promote increased efficiency and good human relationships, as well as prevent misunderstandings and confusion, and at times, risk of injury or death.¹

Informal communication, that aspect of communicating which is incidental to the day's work, and is often viewed as idle gossip, can be an important part of work and contribute to morale-building where it results in people working side by side gaining an enhanced feeling of well-being and comradeship. This is often a situation in which information is communicated speedily, often in a distorted fashion, in the form of the 'grapevine'. The astute administrator ensures that appropriate and correct 'news' is fed into this so that undue misunderstanding and confusion, conflict and uncertainty do not ensue.

Attitudes in Communicating

A police officer by virtue of the authority vested in him by the State, and through medium of his uniform, possesses a very significant degree of status and power. It is therefore unnecessary for him to be unkind, aggressive, brash, or 'superior', talking down to or off-handedly to a member of the public.

Very frequently members of the public ask questions which appear on surface to be shallow or stupid. Experienced officers advise newcomers not to assume this since the questions may be asked out of ignorance of a situation or personal anxiety. They may be merely 'conversation openers', with the real question to follow. Where a person is worried the question is in reality a form of seeking for reassurance as well as guidance. A brusque or contemptuous reaction to the initial questions gives no feeling of support or reassurance to comfort the questioner.

Communication by High-ranking Officers

A Commissioner places great reliance on the experience and integrity of his senior administrative and field officers. From them he gains the greater part of the data which allows him to survey the total scene, and which contributes greatly to the effectiveness or otherwise of the decisions which he makes. He also relies heavily on them to promote the best possible image of him, through the memos and instructions which they draw up on his behalf and prepare for his signature. Those officers empowered to send out that material at his instruction, the precise details of that instruction as it is sent out to others, may have a serious responsibility. They need to ensure that the content and indeed the wording of their written and spoken efforts are as accurate as the Commissioner would wish it and that it succeeds in gaining attention and support, not confusing or antagonising members of the Department and Forces.

Administrators, managers and supervisors all need to maintain the utmost care in their spoken and written communications so that they do not use the privilege of being a communicator or convey a distorted picture. This distortion can come about through inadequate understanding of what has to be passed on; it can come from the officer's own bias, giving more weight to a particular suggestion, statement or point than it should otherwise have.

An English police author considers that:—

“... successful communication is the most vital component of successful management”^{2*}

The Importance and Value of Communicating Adequately

Good communication:—

- helps solve problems,
- improves relationships between people, and
- contributes to improved performance.

It has been defined as happening *when an idea is passed from one person to another and is received and understood by the second person exactly as the first person intended it to be.*

It has been said that there are few human activities we:—

- value more,
- understand less, and
- perform worse,

than person-to-person communication.

Despite the great importance of communicating properly, only in recent years has widespread attention been paid to the subject, with a view to systematically improving performance.

Whether in spoken or written form, whether in formal manner or on personal discussion, whether given in memo news sheets, orders, or through individual instruction, conferences, or on intercom or public address system, clear and effective speech or writing is essential.

The Process of Communication

The two-way communication process from person-to-person (and back again) actually has THREE PARTS:

- A. Sender
- B. Receiver
- C. In-Between

THE SENDER

(i.e. the person 'initiating' the message).

Whether the message is spoken or written, the *SENDER* must be aware of a number of important segments of communication.

(1) Language

What language does the other person speak or read? How well does he understand the language? If English; what sort of English?

(2) Intelligence and Education

Is the person being spoken or written to 'bright' enough to understand the words at the speed of normal conversation? (If not then the pace must be slowed and the words must be simpler.)

Similarly if the person being addressed is of limited education then care must be taken to 'speak to' or 'write to' his or her level i.e. not to use words which are likely to be unknown to him or her.

Intelligence and education are closely linked with — (3).

(3) Experience and Background

The places in which a person has worked and the life he has been accustomed to in his home, go a long way to 'training' him or her in a particular way of speaking.

Country people tend to speak a little more slowly than city people. People who are accustomed to shouting over noise tend to carry the same habit into quieter circumstances. A person coming from a background which bothers little about explanations or a pleasant approach, requires guidance and training to fit into work which involves dealing with the public.

This section together with 1. (Language) and 2. (Intelligence and Education) is closely linked with — (4).

(4) Vocabulary

A person's vocabulary is most important for good communication. Why use words the other person cannot understand? Is this to make the sender seem important? Or is it carelessness — forgetting about vocabulary differences?

One aspect of vocabulary is very important — JARGON. To use jargon to a person who is not of the same professional trade or working area is poor communication. Perhaps it is also discourtesy?

(5) Presentation

This is the manner in which the person 'delivers' the message, spoken or written; it contained the 'flavour' or the sender's attitudes towards people and towards the matter under discussion. In addition to the content of the message is he showing an attitude of superiority, or is he trying to dominate the other person, or is he seeking to be liked and approved?

The method of presentation also illustrates the *SENDER'S*:—

- grasp of language,
 - level of intelligence and education,
 - vocabulary,
- as 1, 2, 3, and 4 above.

(6) Health and Well-being

Communicating with another person or persons can be handicapped by:—

- a sense of frustration and annoyance,
- emotional upsets,
- illness,
- weariness/exhaustion,
- resentment and annoyance,
- hostility,
- unrealised hearing loss, or
- affected eyesight (for written communication).

(7) Prejudice

'Negative' attitudes as well as favourable ones: e.g. dislike of a person's manner of speech and his appearance of clothing, the way he carries himself. Many people who consider themselves to belong to the 'working class' feel an almost automatic resentment against a well-dressed and well-spoken person. The latter person may tend to 'talk down' to a person dressed in working garb. An older person who dresses conservatively may 'talk down to' a young person who is in his opinion scruffily dressed: while that young person may be contemptuous of the other.

The RECEIVER

(i.e. the person to whom the message is addressed, spoken or written.)

All of the 'elements' listed as being those which the *SENDER* must be aware of are important for the *RECEIVER*.

But whether the receiver actually gets to know the content of what has been transmitted to him depends on many factors including.

IN-BETWEEN

(i.e. those things which can impair communication, and which are not necessarily part of *SENDER* or *RECEIVER*.)

The more important areas are:—

Noise. This may be from passing trucks, from telephones ringing, people talking, cars moving in and out of the driveway or parking area, machines working, aircraft flying overhead, weather noise (e.g. thunder); poor acoustics in office, store or shed.

Distraction. Something more interesting going on inside the listener's or reader's head, or happening outside the window or through the door.

Mechanical distortion. This includes the distortion caused by a faulty telephone line, a misinterpreted word in a telegram or telex typing; a faulty public address system.

Poor acoustics. A big room, or a room which causes echoes.

The RECEIVER needs to:—

Speak the language used by the *SENDER*.

Have the mental capacity to understand what is said and the education necessary to support that understanding;

© experience and background appropriate to the message content (including jargon used), and

© a vocabulary sufficiently large and good enough to cope with understanding.

Be able to understand not only the content but also the 'other messages' mentioned later.

Be in good health and with no undue impairment of sight or hearing;

© people when tired, hungry, sick, worried, will not hear or will 'fire up' at any suggestion of criticism or reproach, real or imagined.

Not be dominated by bias or prejudice or emotional turmoil; or they will not hear — or will 'fire up' against what they hear which they dislike.

In addition, a most important question needs to be asked:—

"is the *RECEIVER* interested?

or is he 'switched off'?"

— is he hearing only what he wants to hear?

— is he hearing only part of what is said because of wandering attention?

— is he pretending to understand for fear of being thought stupid if he asks for clarification?

— If all these have been taken care of — and the *SENDER* is still not 'getting through' to the *RECEIVER*, has he forgotten:—

- some people prefer a direct approach,
- some are offended by a direct approach,
- some people like courtesy and respect,
- others prefer hearty bluntness,
- some people like a careful statement, or
- others like an enthusiastic burst of optimism.

Communication takes place at two levels:—

a. the actual statement or information or question 'the sender wants to get across'.

b. *OTHER SIGNALS OR MESSAGES*, not always deliberate; at times in fact occurring without the awareness of the *SENDERS*,

— seldom is 'straight' information given from one person to another; very frequently 'over-tones' are present; e.g.,

- 'I am suspicious of people'
- 'I am afraid you will reject me',
- 'believe me',
- 'like me'
- 'agree with me',
- 'allow me to dominate your thinking', or
- 'join me in furthering my ends', (i.e. help me to try to make money for myself, run the committee, get on in my business, make money etc.)

Frequently, the 'other messages' cues or signals can contradict the actual message being given in words; a person may be saying in words "I like you and value your friendship; I wish to do a deal with you honestly", but the tone of voice or the look on the face or the expression in the eyes contradicts this statement and sends a quite different message i.e. that the intention is unfriendly or dishonest.

A person with experience who has an open mind and ready wit, will be alert to the 'other message(s)' and be warned accordingly — the conflict may spell trouble for him (or at least signals to him to be cautious). The most difficult occasion is when an enterprising person sends a positive shower of signals of good intent, friendship, co-operation and yet unwittingly in some small way betrays, perhaps by eagerness or 'over-doing it', that his intentions are self-seeking and have no thought of benefit to the person to whom he is speaking.

The success of the 'con-man' and those who are like him in varying degrees is due partly to his own skill in sending convincing 'other messages' and partly to the fact that in any case few people *listen to or watch for 'other messages'* which are or might be obvious. These signals or 'other messages' are referred to as *NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION* — (sometimes called 'Body Language').

Some authorities estimate that more than half of the meaning significance of any social situation or inter-action is conveyed by the non-verbal elements. It is considered that the major importance is not what a person is saying but what he or she is doing while saying it.

The manner in which a person walks is often a very strong non-verbal communication; people tend to walk and carry themselves not only in a way which reveals their feelings, but basically in a manner which they have been instructed in by their elders or in more recent times by their peers. A person brought up in an aggressive environment and taught to display warning signs indicating that he is ready to combat any aggression which may be shown towards him, shows a certain set of shoulders and a particular way of carrying his arms, together with a pattern of face and eye movement. A person brought up in a more confidence-building environment where emphasis is placed on skills in learning and discussion will tend to walk in a more relaxed manner, showing less apprehensiveness and readiness to react.

A great deal of information is gained from the study of gestures. Anxious and uncertain people, or those people who cannot find the words to express their thoughts tend to use gestures in some variety, including drawing pictures in the air to illustrate what they mean; such as the size of an object, a spiral staircase, the attitude of another person. These are usually accompanying spoken speech, unless the person is deliberately miming an action. Movements of head and eye are similarly frequently brought into play in description, as well as in indicating an attitude when in conversation or confrontation with another person. A pattern or pleasant look in the eyes and on the face, with smile and softened features and head inclined in a respectful manner or in a way describing interest, will be accompanied with a display of relaxed arms or friendship-making gestures, or open palmed to show that there is no intention to attack or be aggressive in any way. In anger changes will take place in the colour of the skin, the posture will be more taut and signals will be flown by face, eyes and manner to indicate hostility and resentment, and may then undergo subtle changes to indicate that the person is considering violence or is about to attack physically.

A pattern familiar to the police officer is that of fear or distress, where the person is white faced and shaking, with eyes staring, speech jumbling or inhibited, where there is much less effective co-ordination of body movements. At such times a person can appear to be physically or mentally ill.

A staff member under criticism may show his resentment and hostility by removing all cues indicating interest, respect and acceptance, with his feelings and thoughts shown by the rigidity of his posture, the set of face and the lack of expression in his eyes. A supportive and enthusiastic staff member on the other hand may give signals showing interest, respect and support for the senior person.

People may indicate displeasure as well as disinterest by arriving late for an appointment or a lecture. This does not mean that every incidence of lateness is to be interpreted in this manner, since external circumstances may prevent even a vigorous and interested person from being present early or at all e.g. illness, accident, traffic delay. However, the experienced manager or supervisor bears the former possibility in mind. During a lecture or a talk restlessness, shuffling of paper, overmuch coughing and movement can indicate specific reactions experienced by the person(s) to the situation.

Other indicators showing attitudes and intentions include the closeness or otherwise which one person stands to another, the willingness or otherwise to make bodily contact whether this be in the form of handshaking, arm touching or back-slapping. In general, close standing appears to indicate a willingness to be with and join in activities with the person or in some way to be associated with or influence him. Standing at a distance can often indicate uncertainty of intention, suspicion of other person's intentions or personal apprehensiveness in general on the part of the person keeping his distance.^{3 4}

Experienced Police Officers, like other people closely engaged with personal behaviour in the medical and psychological areas, learn through experience to gain information from the most subtle clues, as in a change in a person's breathing rhythm, from odours, sudden movements or cessation of movement or other signs, related fear or uncertainty.

Experienced policemen know the importance of not betraying uncertainty and fear, and how reassuring a calm unruffled manner and quiet controlled speech can be, in moments of stress and danger.⁵

An aspect of non-verbal communication of concern to administrators, managers and supervisors because of its effect on public relations is that of appearance. Poor appearance in the form of untidiness, absence of cap, uniform undone and blowing in the breeze or sagging inelegantly, or any form of undue casualness, which whether it arises from resentment or from well-meant informality, fails to impress most members of the public, who derive support and satisfaction from seeing police officers looking smart and if possible well-groomed.

Good Communication

Many elements go together to make good communication. Whether in spoken or written form, good guidelines are: —

- be **CLEAR** — always use words and language the other person will understand,
- be **CONCISE** — too many words confuse people,
- be **COMPREHENSIVE** — cover all the major and important points,
- be **POSITIVE** — positivity helps to get the message across and promotes confidence, and
- be **COURTEOUS** — courtesy is not a sign of weakness but gives the other person the right to be considered a human being.
- Request rather than order wherever possible — use the 'we' approach.
- Be patient to help with uncertainty and answer questions and overcome shyness or lack of confidence in the other person.

- Listen thoughtfully to each question giving it as careful attention as possible under the circumstances.
- Do not take even an aggressive question personally — treat it as an evidence of concern on the part of the questioner and answer it fairly and calmly.

Continuous 'good' communication:—

- ensures understanding,
 - promotes confidence (in the Force), and
 - maintains image (with the public).
- Clear concise simple communication indulged in continually through time is a reassurance to all and is part of stability as well as 'selling' the Force.

Best communication takes place when the 'sender':—

- recognises the 'type' of person to whom he is communicating
- uses the correct way of communicating to that type of person
- makes sure that he speaks or writes clearly and simply
- makes sure that the person receives the message and understands it by questioning or by conducting further discussion.

Developing good communication

AWARENESS 'KNOW-HOW' PRACTICE

AWARENESS — that it is needed, that it is difficult, and that effort and training is needed.

KNOW-HOW — the knowledge of processes — the material in this article.

PRACTICE — regularly through time! and **LISTEN EFFECTIVELY**.

Effective listening demands: —

- a. listening to the words spoken,
- b. listening to and watching for 'other messages', and
- c. having an interest in what the sender is communicating in both (a & b).

Good listening can only take place where there is a desire to enter into a relationship with another person and understand or strive to understand that other person and his ideas and his needs.

3. Argyle, M. 'The Psychology of Inter-personal Behaviour' 1974.
4. Argyle, M. 'Bodily Communications', Methuen & Co. Ltd., London, 1975.
5. See p. 441 'Police in Australia: Development, Functions, Procedures', Kerry L. Milte, Thomas A. Weber, Butterworths, Sydney, 1977.

TO BE CONTINUED

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