REPORT

DECISIONS DECISIONS DECISIONS

third
annual
supervisory
board
conference

LAW ENFORCEMENT
ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION
REGION VIII

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DECISIONS, DECISIONS

**Report of a Conference on Decision Making
for Supervisory Board Members in
Region VIII
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration**

**Edited by
Frank Dell'Apa — Bruce J. Martin**

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The Third Annual Supervisory Board Conference, held in Cheyenne, Wyoming, on May 24-26, 1972, was the third of a series of conferences initiated in 1969. The purpose of the First Supervisory Board Conference was to strengthen the administration of the Omnibus Crime Control Act at the state level by bringing together Board members from surrounding states. The objective of the Second Annual Supervisory Board Workshop was to provide further knowledge and guidance for Supervisory Boards in the planning and grant administration procedures required by the Omnibus Crime Control Act, with special regard to the 1970 amendments to that Act.

While both of these conferences were extremely successful, their primary agenda was functionally oriented and dealt with laws, regulations, and procedures required under the Omnibus Crime Control Act. In its discussions of the agenda for the Third Supervisory Board Conference, the Regional Program Planning Committee made the decision to shift from a functionally oriented agenda to a discussion of the conceptual foundations of Supervisory Board operations. The specific topic identified by the Program Planning Committee was "New Perspectives in Decision Making for Improvement of the Criminal Justice System."

In developing the conference theme, the Program Planning Committee identified certain pertinent areas to be covered in the session. These included Effective Communications, Styles of Decision Making, and Decision Making Techniques. The committee also determined that the subject matter would be treated in its broadest sense, rather than only in terms of the Omnibus Crime Control Act.

Having established these general conference objectives, the Program Planning Committee selected the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education to implement the training content and format for the Third Annual Supervisory Board Conference.

I would like to extend my thanks to the members of the Program Planning Committee who conscientiously applied themselves to the task of developing this program. I would also like to thank the staff of the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education for their excellent assistance in making arrangements for the conference speakers, material, and equipment. Finally, I would like to thank the staff of the LEAA Region VIII Office, located in Denver, for their assistance and guidance in funding this series of conferences.

John Rogers, Chairman
Program Planning Committee
Third Annual Supervisory Board Conference

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FOREWORD ════════════════════════════

Governance of programs by lay citizen groups has a long history. Many examples of this are seen at the level of public service in education, welfare, and today quite prominently in law enforcement. To advise, direct, and guide Law Enforcement Assistance Administration programs in the states and regions is a challenging and enormous responsibility. Diversity of board members brings both strengths and weaknesses to the boards.

That there is an unevenness on any board is indisputable. The degree to which this unevenness affects the accomplishment of goals and objectives is directly related to the degree of common understanding. Operationally, this is most apparent in the decision making process—decisions ranging from "housekeeping" matters to basic policy are all subject to similar processes. To understand the decision making process in terms of two factors is crucially important to any board operation. These factors—techniques for decision making and the interpersonal dynamics of decision making—are the basis of the program for the Third Annual Supervisory Board Conference. The process and content are depicted in the following pages.

F. D'A.—B.J.M

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I. HUMAN VALUES IN DECISION MAKING

PERCEPTIONS OF PEOPLE IN ORGANIZATIONS

In his book, *Changing Organizations,* Warren Bennis talks of a system of values which makes it possible to bring about greater organization effectiveness. These values emphasize a climate of beliefs governing behavior, which people are internally compelled to affirm by deeds as well as words. These values, which represent a transition away from traditions of the past, include:

1. Full and free communications regardless of rank and power.

2. The idea that influence is based on technical competence and knowledge rather than on the vagaries of personal whims or the prerogatives of power.

3. A full reliance on consensus, rather than on the more customary forms of coercion and compromise, to manage conflict.

4. An atmosphere that permits and even encourages emotional expression of feelings as well as task-oriented acts.

5. A basically human bias which accepts the inevitability of conflict between the organization and the individual, but which is willing to cope with and mediate the dysfunctional elements of conflict on rational grounds.[1]

These ideas have brought about a shift in organizational values away from the traditional bureaucratic model. The central theme of the bureaucratic model was that man was a rational animal who performed best in a formalized system in which roles and behavior norms were carefully and explicitly spelled out. The model further assumed that man's feelings are essentially irrational and must be prevented from interfering with rational calculations. Consequently it was believed necessary for the organization to be designed in such a way as to neutralize and control feelings and emotion.

During the past quarter-century both the organization and the individual have changed. Technological advances have brought about new ways of performing old tasks and in so doing have created new jobs and new personnel requirements. At the same time, personnel are becoming more mobile and have less loyalty to any particular organization, which results in a migrant work force. The disaffection of the younger generation with the traditional conventions of "the establishment" further exacerbates the problems with which organizations are already confronted, and there are many signs which indicate that these problems will not be resolved without the involvement and participation of the new generation.

Edgar J. Schein, in his analysis of our society, has formulated a model of man which he refers to as "complex man." Schein asserts that

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[1]Warren Bennis, *Changing Organizations.* New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1966.

man is complex and highly variable; he has many motives, which change in importance to him from time to time and from situation to situation. His pattern of motivation is strongly influenced by organizational experience, hence the psychological contract that he negotiates with the organization is a combination of personal needs and organizational experiences.[2] (Psychological contract refers to the implicit and sometimes explicit understandings which evolve between an employee and an employer regarding conditions of work and related expectations. These are seldom, if ever, formalized in employee/worker contract statements.)

Today, organizational values have shifted toward a system of adaptation and involvement. Man's needs and desires are being recognized, and efforts are being made to meet them. Power is based on the concept of collaboration and reason, rather than on the traditional basis of threat and coercion. Organizational values are based on humanistic and democratic values replacing mechanistic ones. Perhaps the most important shift is one which recognizes that work should be organized to encourage personal growth as well as to achieve organizational goals.

In order to cope with these changes, new knowledge and skills must be developed. Particular attention must be given to increasing skills for dealing with people, a process which is initiated by a self-examination and understanding of:
1. One's assumptions about the needs of people.
2. One's perceptions of differences and similarities among people.
3. One's ability to communicate and act effectively in groups.
4. The value of feedback for self-evaluation and personal growth.

Assumptions About Individuals and Organizational Needs

In dealing with people, we base our decisions on combinations of fact and theory. We have little trouble with facts; however, we find that our theories about human behavior reflect our theories or assumptions about the basic nature of man. We cannot act without theories or assumptions.

Three attributes of human behavior can be accepted with some degree of assurance. These are
1. All behavior is caused.
2. All behavior is directed.
3. All behavior is motivated.

The late Abraham Maslow, the renowned psychologist, has told us that man is a wanting animal and that people behave in relationship to their wants and desires. These wants and desires, according to Mas-

[2]Edgar H. Schein, *Organizational Psychology*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

low, become "needs" that are integral to the well-being of the individual. Of importance to management theory is the idea that satisfied needs do not serve as motivation. Man is motivated only to satisfy unmet needs. Maslow classifies these needs or wants in hierarchical order, beginning with a person's physiological and safety needs and extending through the need for belonging and acceptance to the highest need, self-actualization. This highest need is seen as an expression of the individual's desire to be creative, his reach for self-development and realization of his maximum potential.

Individuals become motivated to achieve higher levels of need when they have satisfied lower levels of need. In part, having met the requirements of a lower need level, they are liberated from fear, anxiety, and other emotions which previously prevented movement up the hierarchy of needs. Fear of offending one's superior and fear of failure are powerful dynamics in the work situation that contribute to distortions in communications and impairment of superior/subordinate relationships. Under conditions of fear, workers frequently react in ways that they think will be pleasing to management, a response which may or may not be related to organizational goals and needs. Thus managers who employ fear tactics as a strategy for controlling employees are liable to create more problems than they solve. This is so because fear often leads to hostility and hostility often leads to rebellion, which in turn finds expression in minor sabotage and other forms of work stoppage.

Additional dysfunction comes from situations in which managers create an environment of suspicion and distrust among workers under their supervision. This type of organizational environment generates within employees an attitude of defensiveness and self-preservation. The basic message received by workers is that their success on the job must be achieved at the expense of other members of the work group—a dysfunctional "win-lose" situation. In this type of organizational environment, gains and losses are measured by the balance of power in interpersonal relationships rather than in terms of goal achievement.

There exists a body of knowledge, based upon considerable evidence, that promotes the idea that personal satisfaction and individual creativity find expression when individuals are allowed to seek rewards on their own, without penalties and restrictions. Self-actualization, in Maslow's terms, is the result of growth from fear to trust through a process of self-determination in the pursuit of organizational goals.

Climate for Interaction

Organizations which foster involvement in decision making must first develop an environment in which interpersonal relationships are

productive and individuals within the organization understand each other as people and realize how their interaction affects the organization. The organization must manifest itself as a psychologically safe place for people. It must recognize the feelings of the members of the organization and allow and even encourage the members to express their feelings in a climate that is safe and secure. Trust and openness are encouraged and developed; members are coached in ways and means of relating to one another, using all types of communications. Feelings which are manifest in the process are dealt with as well as tasks. This approach forces the manager and his staff to be honest with themselves and others—something they may not have experienced before. It forces them to confront human issues which they may have ignored in the past. Creating this type of climate is a difficult task, which requires unusual leadership capabilities.

Organizational climate-building, as a new orientation toward the techniques of administration, requires new preparation. Thus administrators need new management skills, behaviors, knowledge, and competencies. They must seek learning experiences which will increase their ability to resolve conflict generated by the many forces confronting them. In addition, they must be able to analyze, assess, and improve their personal style of management, decision making skills, and ability for involving appropriate others in setting organizational objectives. A critical element in this process is the establishment of a communication network which facilitates the feedback of information to and from members of the manager's organizational environment.

Humanistic Value System

A comprehension of and commitment to human values as a legitimate component of decision making must be built upon a conceptual base. The productive manager will look first to his or her own value system. Productive interaction begins as an involvement process that achieves fulfillment through determined, thoughtful application of management principles and philosophy. In this regard, theories of man and human nature must precede decision making and action.

Human values. The process of involvement is most effective within a trustful atmosphere directed toward interaction and cooperative effort. Leadership and administration must be viewed in terms of the power *it releases in others* and not in terms *of power over others*. Human values need enhancement from within, not control from without.

Objective thinking. Too often, organizational decision making is handled on the basis of long-held assumptions relating more to personal opinions than established facts. Instead of objectively analyzing all the information regarding their personnel and community needs, and then

putting themselves in the other person's position, there is a human tendency for managers to make quick, easy, and superficial conclusions that seem to have the right "feel." Open communications and a system of feedback can provide the manager with a framework for more objectively thinking through critical issues.

Hidden potential. Everyone has a deep reservoir of hidden potential, which can be discovered through challenging experiences. One of the most powerful forms of human development is that which occurs in satisfying the need for individual expression. Human dignity is best achieved when individuals can put their own style into the things they do, no matter how routine the situation may be. This is not to suggest the abandonment of unit and design, but to indicate the need to work within the limits of the institutional framework to allow individuals to put something of themselves into each activity.

Flexible patterns. Rigidity is an enemy of creativity. Individual problem solving in organizations is handicapped when situations are stereotyped. When past history is too heavily relied upon as a guide for future action, the manager is left in a fixed position that provides little inspiration for trying new experiences. Unfortunately, the individual can become bound by this system and assume there is less chance for flexibility than there really is. The manager needs to develop and project a philosophy which allows subordinates to feel they are part of an environment of innovation, in which it is safe for them to test ideas.

Behavioral change. Perhaps the most accurate method of discussing the problem of management today is to identify it as a leadership and behavior gap. To overcome present deficiencies, managers must discover their own potential and that of their personnel through study and practice leading to behavioral change. There is a need to help individuals in the organization to acquire, through their own growth, all the attitudes, feelings, ideas, and skills that will make them happier, more creative, and more productive individuals. Skills, knowledge, attitudes, and feelings are the dynamics of behavior, and all require nourishment and self-examination by the manager if the potential of the staff is to be maximized in the pursuit of organizational goals.

Conclusion

Becoming a facilitator for interpersonal activities in decision making therefore becomes a journey and not an event. The method can succeed only to the extent that individuals are flexible and development-oriented. The process is accomplished not through a series of *how tos*, but through an understanding of the methods for stimulating growth and change in others. Managers must incorporate these values and attitudes

within themselves before they can be effective in guiding their personnel through such a process. In this sense they must be action-oriented. The tradition of knowing and understanding the management process must be. accompanied by a commitment to change in which modern theory becomes modern practice.

II. COMMUNICATION
AND PERCEPTIONS
IN DECISION MAKING

INTRODUCTION

I talk and you listen. Then you talk and I listen. That's part of a communications process—the words. But we must remember that different words mean different things to different people. The word "cool" to one person means terrific; to another, it calls for a sweater.

Who we are changes things, too. A ghetto mother may have 20-20 vision, but she sees the world differently than a junior executive. A husband picks a new car that can jackrabbit from 0 to 60 in 12 seconds; his wife picks the same car because it's safe. Each chooses a different product. Both will vacation in the same car.

Perceptions affect decision making. So do communications. Conferees came face-to-face with these realities in the first session.

Seeing is not necessarily believing, they found. A picture of a series of blocks to some, was LOVE to others. A stylish mademoiselle could become an old hag with the blink of an eye.

As for communications, conferees found that two are better than one. Draw the diagram that's described, the instructions said. But no questions. And a monologue began. "You will draw a series of six boxes, all touching each other. Now the first box is . . ." Pencils scraped, minds boggled, and the final pictures looked nothing like the original.

Later, the conferees were allowed to ask questions. "What angle is it? Where does it touch the first box? What do you mean, the angle is from Southeast to Southwest?" These drawings, based on two-way communications, looked very like the original six-box drawing.

An instructor made the point clearly, "We often have to make decisions about things that are at least as ambiguous as the pictures."

PROCESSES IN PERCEPTIONS AND COMMUNICATION

The theme of this workshop is decision making. There are two essential ingredients in any decision making process: one, the style, mode, or technique of decision making itself, and the other, the interpersonal process of influence which occurs between individuals as they interact with one another. I will discuss the interpersonal dynamics which occur during any decision making process.

There are two dimensions to this study. The first dimension is historical. The perceptions that we as individuals bring into any interaction relate to the sum total of our past and present experiences and run all the way from our basic ideas about the nature of man to our idea of why an individual may dress or speak in a certain manner. The second dimension is the communication process itself—that activity in which all of us involve ourselves as we interact or interrelate with one another, either in idle conversation or when we are engaged in decisions about a task or activity.

Let me begin by making a few statements on our perceptions of the nature of man. Human relationships are based on perceptions about people, who they are, what they are like, and what their nature may be. These perceptions can be either implicit or explicit in the way we relate to others. A given person may or may not be able to specify what he believes to be the nature of man. However, a person who has a coherent point of view about the phenomenon of man is said to have a philosophy. Interestingly, however, each of us has, in our relationships with others, a more or less consistent set of perceptions about others and about ourselves. Our philosophies may be inferred by observing us relating to one another.

Different perceptions about what people are lead to different ways of relating to them. An example: a person who has the point of view about people that underlies the statement, "People are no damn good," is likely to behave toward others in 'a suspicious, distrustful way. On the other hand, an individual who assumes that to be loved is an important human need relates to people in a fundamentally different manner.

It is important to be able to assess your perceptions about other people for two reasons. First, and particularly in decision making, it is necessary to diagnose how you are relating to friends, co-workers, and other group members. Second, the assessment will enable you to plan more effectively the interventions that you might like to make into the human systems of which you are a part. The way all of us intervene or interact in our human relationships is based on a set of perceptions about what people are like, but the interactions themselves constitute

a learning experience that is constantly altering our perceptions about our environment. During the conference, all of you will have an opportunity to be involved in an exercise which not only tests your perceptions about people, but which also provides you with some here-and-now experiential data about how differently each of us perceives our immediate environment.

Process of Communication

The process of communication affects and is affected by an individual's perception of the world.

When two people, A and B, are attempting to communicate with each other, their communication is distorted by a screen composed of their personalities, attitudes, values, belief systems, biases, historical experiences, backgrounds, and numerous other items. A's communication to B flows through A's screen and through B's screen. When B responds to A, B is in fact responding to A's intent as he perceived it, rather than to whatever A might actually have intended. B's perceptions are filtered through a highly individualized screen of attitudes and values. When we receive messages through our screens, they are often confused and distorted. We add to what we hear, and to what we fail to hear, and we distort messages according to the modes that are used to convey these messages.

When we are attempting to transmit our meanings or to talk with one another, we utilize three different modes of expression. We communicate symbolically, verbally, and nonverbally. These three modes are used to tell people who we are, how we experience the world, and the meaning we attach to our experience.

Symbolic Communication

We communicate a great deal to one another about who we are and how we are and how we experience the world through symbols. The symbolic communication mode is essentially passive, and messages transmitted in this way are very easily misinterpreted.

What are some examples of the symbols we use? Our choice of clothing can tell a great deal about who we are, what our values are, what our status is, how conservative or how liberal we are. We associate differences in occupational status with different uniforms: the banker wears a suit, the hod carrier wears overalls, and so on. The radical student wears colorful, loose clothing, the so-called straight professor wears a sportcoat with patches on the sleeve. Another symbolic form is that of jewelry. Married people, for instance, often wear wedding rings; some people wear beads; other people wear highly expensive jewelry. These are passive messages that are given continuously to other

people. For instance, a flag in the lapel, a peace symbol around the neck, an earring in one ear say many things to other people. Another form of symbolic communication is the choice of automobiles. The business executive who drives a sports car is giving out a different message to the world from that of his colleague who drives an ordinary family car. An additional mode is the choice and location of our houses. Social status is directly related to the type and location of one's dwelling. Another category is the geography of our living space: this forms a symbolic communication. *We are continually producing a stream of signals to other people about our meaning and our existence through the symbols that we choose to surround ourselves with and invest ourselves in. These symbols are all essentially passive; however, they are a very real part of our communication. We are thus communicating both when we are talking and when we are not talking.*

Verbal Communication

The second and perhaps the best-known communication mode is verbal interchange. We rely heavily on this process to carry a meaning from one person to another. Anyone who has thought about it has come to realize that there are enormous difficulties involved when one relies totally on words to communicate meanings. History is full of examples of misunderstandings among people who relied on words alone to carry messages. Perhaps the most significant finding to come out of this historical experience is that words themselves do not have meaning. Rather, people have meaning, and words are simply tools that we use for trying to convey meanings that are idiosyncratic to one another. One of the difficulties of words is that we attach to them different experiential and emotional connotations. Words are not always associated with similar experiences or similar feelings on the part of both listener and speaker.

Other difficulties certain to be encountered in using the verbal mode include the use of jargon, the use of cliches, and the use of specialized or personalized vocabularies. It is often said that words have meaning only in context. It is not uncommon, for instance, to observe people experiencing great difficulty finding the right words to say what they mean. There are some people who, instead of experiencing feelings and sensations, experience language. That is, their experience perimeters are defined by their vocabularies and by how they choose to place their words into sentences and phrases.

One well-known psychologist in the field of learning theory describes the developmental learning process in children in three phases: concrete, imagic, and abstract. As an example, when the little baby first experiences the world, he is incapable of differentiating emotional and sensational experiences. He experiences only distress or delight, and his major inputs are concrete. That is, he touches things; he tastes things; and he sees, hears, and smells things. Later it becomes necessary for him to interact with the world and with significant others in his environment in order to have his needs met. He then develops a fantasy life or imagic experience. He can imagine his mother, for instance, when she is not concretely present. The fantasy life can remain throughout his life. As he develops verbal fluency, he begins to form additional abstractions. His images of present and historical nature are triggered by present environmental stimuli; therefore, he attaches meaning to most situations on the basis of his experience.

The difficulty of adults is that very often they do not let in the awareness of physical sensations which they are experiencing. We adults often mistrust our fantasy lives and tend to be afraid to permit ourselves to dream. We experience the world in an abstract way, rather than in concrete terms. The meanings that we permit ourselves to be aware of are verbal and abstract, and what we abstract from the environment which we experience is dependent upon our vocabularies and our reasoning ability. We are stimulated consciously and subconsciously by what we perceive and assume to be occurring in the environment. It is important that we remember that meaning cannot be transmitted from one person to another through the verbal mode only.

Nonverbal Communication

Very recently, a number of psychologists and people in the human potential movement have turned their attention to the nonverbal ways in which we share meaning with one another. The science of nonverbal communication is called kinesis. One's nonverbal communication or body language is usually involuntary, and the nonverbal signals that one emits often are a more valid source of information than the signals which one expresses verbally and symbolically. The majority of us are not in touch with our own nonverbal body language or that of others.

There are a number of forms of body language. I will give some examples. Ambulation is how one carries one's body; whether you swish or stomp tells a great deal about who you are and how you are experiencing your environment. We associate different meanings with the different ways in which people carry their bodies from one place to another. Another form of body language is touching. This is perhaps the most expressive nonverbal communication form. We can communicate anger, interest, trust, tenderness, warmth, and a variety of other emotions very potently through touching. People differ, however, in their willingness to touch and be touched. Some people give out nonverbal signals that they do not want to be touched, and there are other people who describe themselves and are described as "touchy-feelies." In our western culture there are many taboos associated with this form

of communication, particularly in the male environment. Persons learn about their own personalities and self-concepts through exploring their reaction to touching and being touched. The skin is the body's largest organ, and through the skin we take in a variety of stimuli. Eye contact is another form. We tend to size up one another in terms of trustworthiness through reactions to each other's eye contact. Try a little experiment with yourself. Remember the last time you were driving down the road and passed a hitchhiker? The odds are very high that you did not look him in the eyes if you passed him. Conmen and businessmen understand the power of eye contact and use it to good advantage. Counselors understand that eye contact is a powerful way of communicating understanding and acceptance. Speakers understand that eye contact is important in keeping an audience interested in their subject. A final example of a body language form is distancing. Each person is said to have a psychological space around him. If another person invades that space, he may become somewhat tense, alert, or jammed up. We tend to place distance between ourselves and others according to the kinds of relationship that we have and our motives towards each other. The reasons for establishing distance are not always displayed openly, but the behavior is nevertheless interpreted.

Perceptions and the Communication Process

What are the prerequisites, then, for communication, which we might bring to any interaction? For a complete interchange to occur, there must be a two-way exchange of feelings, ideas, and values, and systematic symbol transfer. One-way communication is highly inefficient, because there is no way to determine whether it is heard and, if it is heard, whether the intended message has been relayed. The office memorandum, for example, is one form of communication and perhaps the least effective medium for transmitting meaning. A second requirement, particularly in the decision making process, is that it is necessary that there be a feedback process for true communication to be experienced —an opportunity to check back with one another to see if our intended meaning has in fact been perceived. There is a need to have a continuous flow back and forth among people attempting to communicate. The third requirement is that the individual become acutely aware of the range of signals which he is emitting at any given moment. He can learn this by soliciting feedback from other people with whom he is attempting to share meaning. The perception that we bring to any interchange and the communication modes which we elect to use in that interaction are directly related to the effectiveness of our communication. Our perceptions and the communication processes that we bring with us to any interaction directly affect the cooperative efforts which are demanded in the decision making process.

Summary

These three modes of communication—symbolic, verbal, and nonverbal—are used by every person. Symbolic and nonverbal signals are continuous just as experiences of the world in concrete and imagic ways are. A steady stream of symbolic signals is being emitted by each of us. Constantly, our bodies voluntarily and involuntarily give out a continuous stream of messages to other people. Those messages, of course, may be different from what we intended them to be. They may be either transmitted inadvertently or received through the screening process differently than we intended. When we are interacting with each other, we are giving out all three kinds of signals. These signals may not be correlated with each other: our mouths may be saying one thing and our bodies saying another and our symbols saying a third. True communication results when people share a common meaning experience. When there is consistency among the modes that one is using to share meaning, this communication is much more likely to occur. Communication, then, is understanding.

THE. TRAINING PROCESS

PERCEPTIONS AND COMMUNICATION: An exercise in understanding perceptual conflicts in the communication process.

Purpose

A. Assist participants to examine their perceptual distortions and assumptions about others' behavior.

B. Stimulate a communication interchange in which feedback is (a) absent and (b) present.

Group Size

Six to 10 persons in each group is optimum for maximum interaction.

Time Required

A. Perceptual distortions: 10 minutes per item; two items used in this exercise.

B. Communication interchange (total of 50 minutes): Twenty minutes per exercise. Two exercises used: (a) feedback absent and (b) feedback present. Ten to 15 minutes for group discussion comparing the implications of each exercise.

Materials Required

Chalkboard or newsprint and perceptual pictures (see Figure 1) and rectangle pattern (see Figure 3).

Figure 1
Perceptual Distortions
Hag or Young Girl
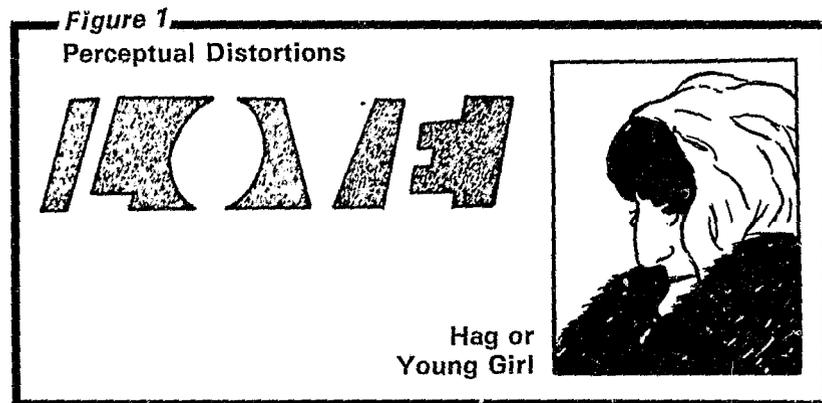
Process

A. Perceptual Distortion: Example of a perceptual distortion is shown to each group, and group members are asked to respond to their visual or auditory responses to the stimulus. Discussion is then facilitated to accentuate difference in perceptions of various group members.

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B. Communication Interchange: The "arc of distortion" lecturette is given the group. This is basically a concept which states that confused communication can be viewed in terms of the arc of distortion (Figure 2). If A intends to communicate a certain message to B represented by line a, but B receives another message, line b, the angular difference between a and b is the arc of distortion. In order to reduce this distortion, feedback from B must be encouraged.

Figure 2
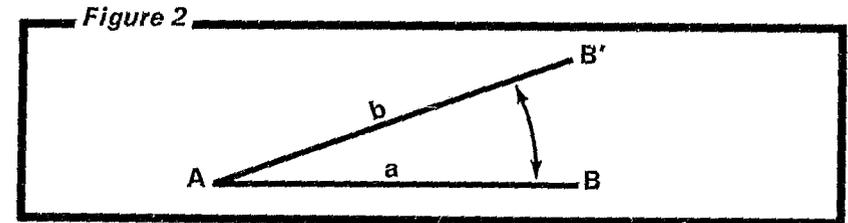
Without feedback, distortion tends to be greater than with feedback. Exercises (a) feedback absent and (b) feedback present provide a potent means for participants to experience this and compare the experience.

Feedback Absent: A person from the group is asked to be the communicator. He is to give these instructions:

1. Give the audience blank sheets of paper so that they can listen and draw exactly what you are communicating. With your back to them, ask them to try to draw as accurate a picture of the pattern of rectangles (Figure 3) as possible.

Figure 3
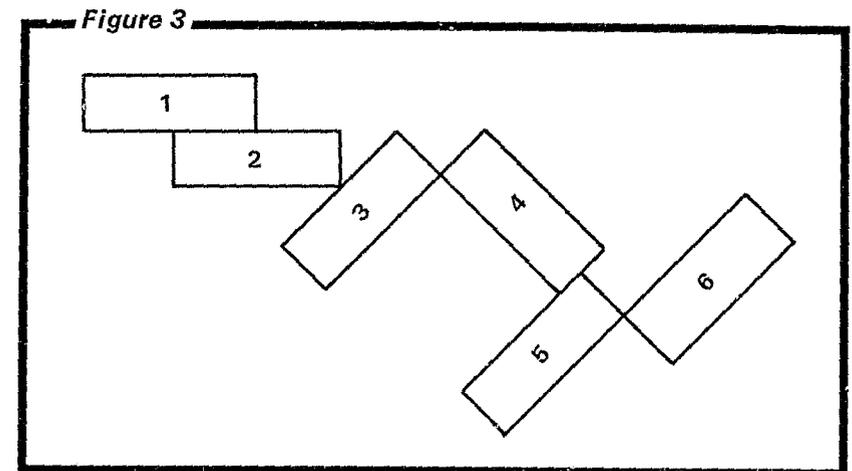
To clarify, you can state the following:

Assume that the rectangles touch each other at "sensible" places —at corners or at midpoints along the line. There are *no* touch points at

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any unusual places. All the angles are either 90 or 45 degrees; there are no odd ones. This pattern of rectangles is an idea comparable to a set of instructions you may have to give a subordinate.

2. Describe the pattern of rectangles to them *in words* as fast as you can. *The audience is not permitted to ask questions,* or laugh, or sigh, or in any other way to communicate back to you any information about what it is receiving.

Time it, check the accuracy of your communication by determining whether or not your audience has drawn what you have described. If they received what you tried to send, so that their pictures match the test picture, then you have communicated. To the extent that their pictures do not match the one in the drawing, you have not communicated.

Feedback Present: The same procedure is followed with a similar test pattern (Figure 4).

Figure 4
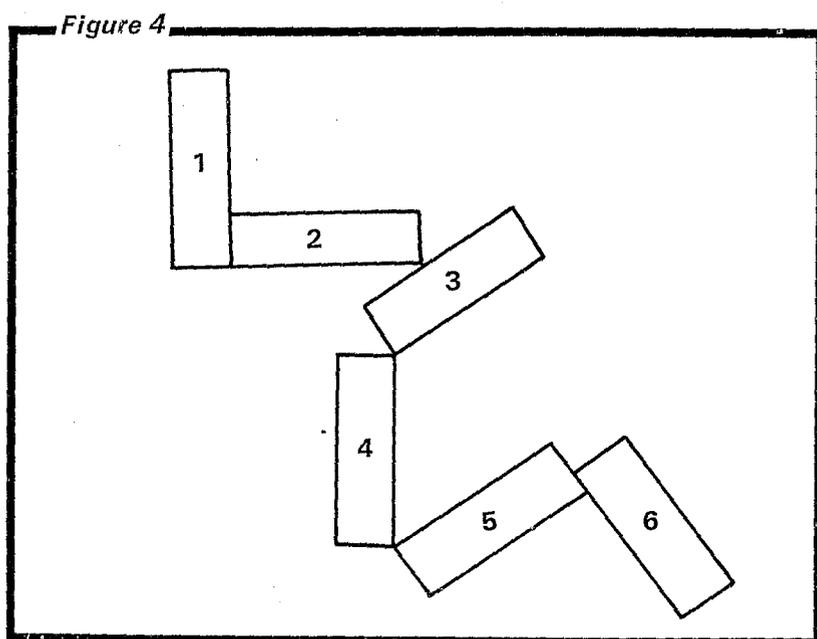
This time, the basic job is to describe the pattern verbally so that the people who are listening can draw it, with these differences:

1. You may face your audience.

2. They are allowed to interrupt and ask you any questions they want to at any time they want to.

Following the exercise, some time should be used to discuss the meaning and implication of the exercise and compare feedback present and feedback absent procedures.

III. INTERPERSONAL STYLES IN DECISION MAKING

INTRODUCTION

Who should survive? Atomic explosions rip the earth. Only 15 people hidden in a bomb shelter live through the blasts. Now only seven can survive on the remaining food. Eight must go out to die in the atomic fallout. But which eight?

This is an exercise in decision making. Conferees had to decide, as a group, who would live and who would not. They were given a list of 15 names and descriptions, including an eight-year-old girl, a college professor, a priest, a doctor, a prostitute, a hippie homosexual, and nine others.

Each group member had his favorites among the 15. They discussed, cajoled, argued, and in some cases relented. The object of the exercise was not to reach "the right conclusion," but to understand the process of group decision making.

Decisions are made in a variety of ways. Here are some examples.

Plop is a decision by lack of response, demonstrated by one conference participant, who said, "We've decided to let the species vanish."

Authority rule means that one person hears the evidence, then makes a decision. The board members allowed no godfathers in their group, even if the decisions would have been quick and efficient.

One conferee suggested, "Maybe we should have a leader." The group said no, and that was seconded by a man who said, "I think the only one qualified to make a decision is the Lord Himself."

Decision by minority is when a small vocal group railroads through a decision.

At one point, a conferee grabbed the initiative and spoke for a foursome that had met just previous to the full group session. "We've agreed," he said, speaking for the foursome, "to keep number one, number four, number seven . . ." and he read on down the list of fallout shelter survivors.

For a while the list-reader held the group's attention and chugged ahead, propelled by comments such as "That's a good point," and "I can buy it." But very soon, group members caught on and flagged the minority to a halt.

Decision by majority rule—voting or polling—is a popular process, and used broadly by hand-raisers in small groups to ballotcasters in national elections. One problem with majority rule is

that, while there are winners, there are also losers. One conference group deadlocked over Chicana prostitute Mrs. Garcia—to save her or not to save her:

> First man: John says he can't buy it [saving Mrs. Garcia].
> Second man: He doesn't like Chicanos?
> First man: Either that or he had a bad experience with a prostitute.
> Third man: You've got the whole group held up now, John.
> John: Okay, I buy Mrs. Garcia.
> First man: Okay, we agree on Mrs. Garcia.
> Second man: John, did we agree?
> John: Yes.
> Second man: We just beat John into submission.

Decision by consensus is general agreement, although it may not be completely wholehearted. One conference participant captured the consensus flavor with the comment, "I didn't vote for them (before), but I will now."

Unanimous consent marks that special time when everyone truly agrees on a decision. The bomb shelter exercise was so cleverly constructed that unanimous consent was not possible—the conferees were unanimous on that.

INTERPERSONAL STYLES IN DECISION MAKING

Outcomes of decision making range from *decision by lack of response* to *decision by unanimous consent*. At the point where a decision seems appropriate, groups may "block," ignoring the need for a decision. At other times, they may make quick decisions which have little in them to stimulate follow-up action. Then, of course, groups sometimes make sound decisions to which all those involved are committed. Though there may be no ideal process for making decisions, some processes tend to lead to better decisions than others. Here we don't intend to recommend any one style, but rather to explore the advantages and disadvantages of several. Participants will have an opportunity to observe actual decision making and to discuss the relative merits of several styles.

Decision Making

Decisions are usually based upon some combination of fact and theory. A decision is a choice, then, based upon things observed and things believed. In most decision making, the people making the decision are reasonably well aware of the beliefs they are using to interpret the facts they observe.

The facts used may or may not represent a problem. However, data gathering is important to the decision making process, as is the information which is constructed out of the data. Though appropriate facts and subsequent information are not automatically available, they can be made available for the purposes of decision making. Beliefs being used to interpret facts may present a more difficult aspect of decision making. For instance, all of us in work organizations subscribe to basic theories of human behavior as expressed in theoretical assertions, such as: people are basically lazy, kindness begets kindness, employees need to know exactly what their jobs are, employees work best when they can make their own jobs, etc. These beliefs play an extremely important part in decision making. They are the filters through which facts must pass so that they can have some impact on the decision.

In addition to these considerations, we should note that while decision making is, indeed, a process, it also involves content. *What* the group is discussing is content—the preferred approaches to crime prevention, for example. How they *handle* (proceed with) the discussion is process. Process observations answer such questions as: Does one person dominate the conversation? Do participants follow the train of thought or do they spiral off into other thoughts? Is there some kind of leadership in the group? Are group members addressing each other with more than the words they use?

Styles

Styles of decision making vary greatly. For our purposes (though there are different perspectives which can be used), we might think of interpersonal styles in decision making as ranging along the continuum shown in Figure 1. This continuum will not, of course, stand up under rigorous scientific investigation. We are using it only to indicate that there are a number of different ways in which decisions are made. Each is different from all the others.

Figure 1

Decision by lack of response   Decision by unanimous consent

Decision by majority vote
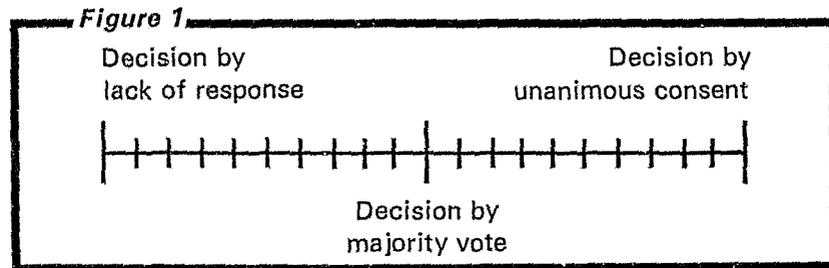
Decision by lack of response. At the left-hand extreme of the continuum, the style shown is that of making decisions by not responding to the need to make decisions. Thus, the suggestion (idea) for which a decision is required has "plopped," and hence the decision making style is often referred to as PLOP. Sadly, this is a prevalent style of decision making.

Decision by authority rule. Another prevalent style of decision making is that in which there is a certainty that the person in ultimate authority (the chairman) will make the decision. This style assumes that the person in ultimate authority is a good listener and has heard the other inputs and is relatively free from his own biases—assumes this or rationalizes it. This is a highly *efficient* way of making decisions. Whether or not it is *effective* can only be judged by the ultimate *output* to which the decision leads.

Decision by minority. There are times when "vocal" minorities "railroad" a decision through; when a small percentage of the group forces the consent of the majority. A chairman is in an excellent position to do this. Rather than reserve the right to make the final decision, he literally intimidates the group, and they do what he wishes. It is a manipulative style which may ultimately have serious negative consequences.

Decision by majority rule; voting or polling. This *may* well be the most popular decision making process. Decision by majority rule is highly acceptable in that it reflects our entire political system. If 51 percent of the participants in the decision making opt for alternative A, alternative A is the way to go.

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Many of us have negative feelings about this as a decision making process—especially within the bureaucratic organization—mainly because it often leaves a minority of up to 49 percent without any investment in the decision. This style also tends to divide the group participants into two clearly defined *opposing* camps. It may set the stage for internecine warfare.

On the other hand, voting may create a climate in which members feel they have had their day in court and feel obligated to go along with the majority decision.

Decision by consensus. Consensus is difficult to describe. It is not the same as majority rule, nor is it the same as *unanimity*. It is a state of affairs wherein all group participants feel that they have some piece of the action; wherein all participants feel that they have had an opportunity to influence the decision. A group member describing consensus might say: "I understand what most of you would like to do. Personally, I would take another course, but I feel that you understand my alternative and have adjusted your position because of it. As a result, I will give my support to carrying out the decision."

Decision by unanimous consent. The logically perfect, but rarely attainable decision, occurs when everyone truly agrees on the course of action to be taken. For certain key decisions, unanimity might be sought. The cost of such decisions, however, may be so great that it is a style which we can seldom afford.

Decision Making Styles and Leadership

Ideally (again, only to indicate an extreme), a group charged with making a decision would be composed of *members* of *consummate interpersonal skill*. One can be trained to behave as a constructive group member, and attempting to be one is a worthwhile endeavor. However, it is far more popular to speak of leadership, for it is popularly believed that with a skilled group leader, decisions will be better.

With this concept we have no serious quarrel; moreover, we personally subscribe to the idea that improving group leadership leads to the employment of improved styles of leadership which, in turn, leads to improved decisions.

The literature on the subject—and our personal experience—suggests there are a number of functions which should be carried out in the decision making process. If not shared by group members, they can be provided by a group leader, and include:

> *Initiative contributing:* Suggesting new ideas or a changed way of regarding the approach to a decision.

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Information seeking: Asking for clarification, for information and facts pertinent to the issue under discussion.

Opinion seeking: Seeking clarification of the beliefs by which group members are applying the pertinent facts.

Information giving: The group leader offers data and information which he has accumulated in his own experience.

Elaborating: By suggesting the need for clarification, the group leader can expand upon ideas which have been introduced.

Clarifying: The leader suggests, in a succinct manner, what the issue at hand is, allowing for others to contribute also.

Process observing: The leader reports to the group how he feels they are progressing toward a decision.

There are other functions that a group leader, or a group member, may perform. What they might be depends on who is enunciating them. But whatever they are, they assist the group in making a decision leading to pertinent results. A good group leader speeds the process.

Other Considerations

Decision making in an organization is both overstressed and severely understressed. There are many minor decisions made during the work day which should be made unilaterally within the delegation to members of the hierarchy. On the other hand, too many decisions are made in a cavalier fashion.

Therefore, it seems important to first consider culling out all those decisions which should be delegated and not reserved to a decision making group. Important to the individual decision maker, but more important to the group making major decisions, are these considerations:

- Clearly define the question for which a decision is required.
- Give appropriate attention to the decision making *process* and don't concentrate solely on the content.
- Be sure to thoroughly explore alternative decisions.
- Don't try to make a decision when the group is too large to arrive at a decision.

THE TRAINING PROCESS

INTERPERSONAL STYLES IN DECISION MAKING: An exercise using videotape to highlight personal styles and group interaction in decision making.

Purpose

A. Develop an awareness of individual decision making styles in a group.

B. Provide an understanding of group processes in decision making and one's role in this process.

C. Reinforce these understandings through a video playback of a group problem-solving session.

Group Size

Eight to 10 is ideal—more than 15 reduces the audiovisual time for each member and increases the time allotment for the exercise.

Time Required

The exercise, including preliminary lecturette and scoring, will take approximately three hours.

Materials Required

Lecturette on interpersonal styles in decision making (see preceding pages), handouts on What To Observe in a Group, Interpersonal Check List and Interpersonal Check List scoring sheet, television camera, recorder, and monitor. A problem, such as the NASA exercise or the Richard Rehr Bomb Shelter can be used.

Process

1. The group leader commences the session with a lecturette on interpersonal styles in decision making. Fifteen to 20 minutes.

2. The group is given handouts. Discussion of the lecturette and handouts is encouraged for 15 to 20 minutes.

3. Group facilitator then introduces the problem-solving exercise.

4. The video equipment is demonstrated and participants are encouraged to talk about any anxiety which is present.

5. The Interpersonal Check List to describe oneself is introduced and scoring instruction given. Each participant scores self and papers are collected and saved until the end of the exercise, when a post-test is given for comparison.

6. The group problem-solving incident is provided and the task is made clear.

7. The group is videotaped—a time limit of 30 minutes is set.

8. Upon completion of the exercise, the videotape is reviewed and discussed, stopping at appropriate "plop," "authority," etc., points.

9. The Interpersonal Check List is again scored by each participant and the pre-tape and post-tape results are transferred to a rating

wheel graph. Each participant can then compare his pre-tape and post-tape ratings. Usually a substantial difference is noted, and discussion is encouraged. Special attempts should be made to focus on modes of decision making and interpersonal styles. (Total time about three hours —no set time for the various tasks.)

IV. MODELS FOR DECISION MAKING
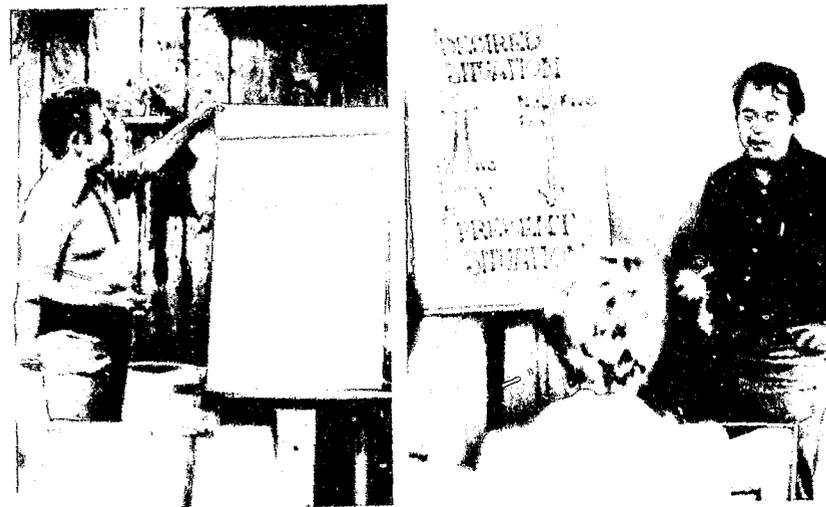
INTRODUCTION

Once you know how, decision making still may not be easy. But it can be easier. And the same is true for many aspects of management.

For this reason, a mini-university or series of classes was set up on the second day to supply some tricks of the decision making trade. The morning brought forth quickie courses on force field, management by objectives, and consensus.

Force field was based on psychologist Kurt Lewin's theories of force field analysis. A problem is described in terms of forces for a desirable situation stalemating with forces for an undesirable situation in a position that is unsatisfactory. The idea is to strengthen the desirable forces and weaken the undesirable forces.

The example was Judy. Judy was overweight. That was the problem. Or, in terms of force fields, the fat forces had won against the lean forces. Solution: weaken the fat forces by cutting out between-meal meals; strengthen the lean forces by buying her a calorie counter.

Management by objectives was essentially a short discourse on deciding where you are going before you choose how to get there.

Consensus gives everyone a piece of the decision, which allows for involvement, the best selection of all ideas, and the nearest thing to happiness for everyone.

The afternoon courses covered synectics, systems analysis, and evaluation.

Synectics is a Greek word meaning to join together different and apparently unrelated elements. The idea is for the manager to bring together his staff in a setting of open expression, flexibility, support, and acceptance. The result should be creative problem solving.

Systems Analysis is a way of looking at an organization to see whether or not it is functioning for the best possible results in the best possible way.

Evaluation is the process of figuring out what you are doing in countable terms and then attempting to assess whether or not you have done it well.

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Our solutions to problems are to a great extent dictated by our definitions of the problems involved. Yet, more often than not, we overlook the effects of problem definitions on proposed solutions. By overlooking the influence of the definition of the problem on the procedures selected to solve it, we often select approaches to problem solving which are grossly inefficient or totally ineffective. This brief presentation contains one approach to problem definition and problem solving designed to improve the efficiency and quality of solutions.

When we begin a change process by stating that we have a problem, the implication is that something is wrong. Therefore, it is logical to assume that the first step is to find out what is wrong, the second is to find out how to correct it, and the final step is to make the necessary corrections. In general, this is not an undesirable procedure, and it usually leads to some change and possibly an improved situation. It has a serious drawback, though. It assumes that what is wrong is part and parcel of the people involved. It may not be the case, and the statement of both problem and solution must go beyond the individuals. For this reason and others, I would propose a considerably different procedure that to a great extent sidesteps the entire concept of a problem by concentrating on the *desired situation* rather than on what is wrong at present. This method is based on the work of Kurt Lewin and is generally referred to as force field analysis. Although it was first proposed over twenty years ago, it seems to be gaining more popularity recently than it held when first introduced.

Starting from this orientation, we do not really have an entity called a problem. Instead we deal with the concept of *more or less desirable situations*. This may seem like a play on words, but it is an important distinction which has many ramifications. For one, it puts the idea of what we want on an equal plane with the idea of what we don't want. Let's follow a hypothetical case in simplified form as an illustration. People who weigh more than somebody thinks they should are generally considered to have a weight problem. Judy weighs twenty pounds more than she thinks she should; therefore, Judy has a *weight problem*. Instead of saying that Judy has a weight problem, let's say that Judy weighs one hundred and forty pounds when she thinks that she should weigh one hundred and twenty pounds. You may, at this point, be thinking, "What's the difference? She still has a problem." True, but we have introduced three very important concepts:

1. An ideal situation
2. An actual situation
3. The use of measurable terms

The problem now assumes quite different proportions. It is a definition of the difference between the present situation and the ideal situation. It is neither mysterious nor hard to describe. The magnitude of the problem is also immediately apparent; it is the extent to which the present situation differs from the ideal situation. And the concept of measurable terms, combined with the concept of the problem as the difference between the present and the ideal situation, allow us to see immediately whether the situation is improving or deteriorating. Judy has therefore taken some important steps toward the solution of her problem without knowing it. She has described precisely what her present situation is and what she considers an ideal situation. Also, she has described precisely the magnitude of the discrepancy (problem)—twenty pounds.

Moving from this concept of a problem, we need to consider one other point before going on to the application of force field analysis. Why does Judy weigh twenty pounds more than she wants to weigh? At this point it would be easy to get involved in theoretical explanations, which might never lead to action or which might not suggest the most efficacious courses of action. And it would be easy, and probably equally ineffective, to simply say that Judy eats too much and should go on a diet. Let's assume that Judy knows that she eats too much and should go on a diet; why doesn't she? Also, let us not forget, she only weighs twenty pounds more than she wants to. Why doesn't she weigh fifty pounds more than she wants to? We are now approaching the theory that there are forces which push toward Judy weighing more and there are forces which push toward Judy weighing less. In addition, there are forces which retard weight change in either direction. We say that Judy's weight is maintained at its present level, because the forces promoting weight gain and those promoting weight reduction have reached an equilibrium.

Figure 1

| Weight loss 120 lbs.	Present situation Equilibrium Weight 140 lbs.	Weight gain or maintenance
Behaviors reinforcing weight maintenance or weight gain		Behaviors reinforcing weight loss
	Restraining forces : Driving forces	
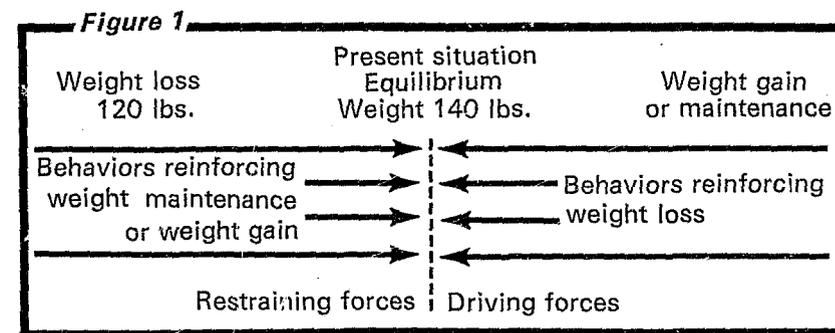
Figure 1 presents the situation in graphic form. The general idea is that there are many forces, some of greater strength than others, which have reached an equilibrium to produce the present situation. Even if the situation were ideal, there would still be forces in operation

which were in effect canceling each other out to maintain the ideal situation. If the balance of forces were changed, it would automatically lead to a shift in the situation away from the ideal. Therefore, to help Judy we need to identify the main forces which are operating to keep her weight at twenty pounds more than she wants it.

The Analysis

The application of force field analysis to an actual situation with an intent to change it involves several steps. As we have described it, the first is a matter of defining the present situation and the ideal situation in measurable terms. The second step is the analysis itself, which consists of identifying the forces which are maintaining the present equilibrium and of determining which forces could be manipulated to alter the balance in the desired direction. Staying with Judy, we can say that she tends to snack and eat erratically, with the result that she eats at least four times a day, thus eating more than would allow her to reduce to the desired weight. This tendency would be considered a *restraining force*—that is, a force in the direction away from the ideal. On the other hand, let's say that Judy is conscious of her weight and the effect of eating so that, although she eats relatively often, she tends to eat nonfattening foods and in moderate amounts—a *driving force*. The net result, however, is that her total food intake is still great enough to maintain her present weight indefinitely.

The third step is to decide what we can do to alter the balance of forces. In this case, we could increase a driving force by showing Judy how to count calories better, eat less, etc.; or we could decrease a restraining force by having Judy eat fewer times. Taking the tack of decreasing a restraining force, we are immediately faced with the task of deciding how to get Judy to eat less often. We could do another *force field analysis* on why Judy eats more often than the ideal number of times. But for simplicity's sake, let's just say that Judy eats as a way of killing time and reducing tension. As a substitute, let's get her agreement that she will drink diet drinks or other nonfattening liquids every time she decides to eat at other than previously designated times.

The fourth step is to get a commitment to action and to set up some way of learning whether the designated procedures are being carried out and whether they are producing the desired results. In this case, let's have Judy call her best friend each morning and say when she is going to eat and report on whether she kept her previous day's eating schedule. As an incentive, it would probably be wise to provide for regular "rewards" to Judy for following her eating schedule.

In summary, the total procedure has four steps. First, the present and ideal or desired situations are described. Then the forces maintain-ing the present situation are identified. Then procedures for altering the situation in the desired direction are identified. The final step involves implementing the procedures and monitoring their progress. This method may be followed in institutional, social, or individual change.

MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

The task of putting forth the idea of management by objectives very briefly is an onerous one—or is it? Though many would want to complicate the idea of management by objectives, the concept is not complicated. Essentially it is an attempt to (1) tie decision making to *overall goals,* (2) tie *objectives* to the *goals,* and (3) to show how objectives form the basis for management.

These three efforts lead to a management approach called *management by objectives.* It is represented in the basic diagram in Figure 1. The term *management by objectives* suggests *objectives* as the key to a particular management style. It is thus important to understand the part objectives have, what the qualities of usable objectives are, and what the relationship of objectives is to the other parts of the management by objectives model.

Figure 1
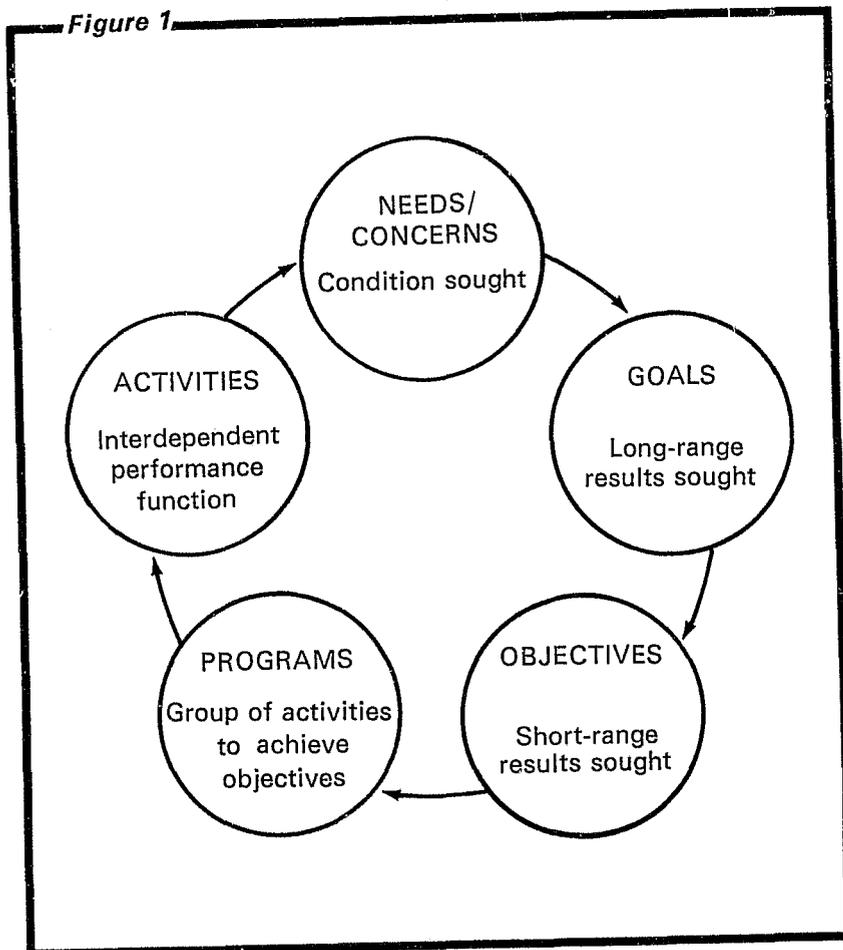
Needs/Concerns

Public need is often defined as a state or condition which shows an inadequacy, lack, or gap in a required or desirable public function: an opportunity to enhance a public good. The definition is workable, though one must be cautioned that public need is *not* present only when there is an inadequacy in a public function. Children five years of age have a need to learn to read and write, for instance, irrespective of the functioning of the schools. For our purposes, however, I would like to stay with this kind of definition, given the particular environmental circumstances within which law enforcement assistance now operates.

Needs suggests that there is data and information from which needs are evident. That data and information may be anything from arrest rate for petty theft to probability of encountering assault in a particular census tract somewhere in Region VIII. We certainly encourage sound data upon which to establish needs, on the one hand, but on the other, we do not wish to discourage the *concerns* (that is the reason for the combined term, needs/concerns, in Figure 1) of the public as being the basis for establishing needs. However, it is important to collect data about those needs, if only by some rather simple survey technique, such as a well-prepared telephone sample.

Goals

Some use the term *goals* and the term *long-range objectives* interchangeably. This may not be of major consequence, though clarity of terminology tends to improve understanding. For sake of clarity, it is suggested that you make a differentiation between goals and objectives, and define *goal* in this manner: goals are broad *results,* or conditions, sought in the distant future. They are more general in nature than objectives, and can be termed perhaps unattainable outer limits. They do, however, set the constraints for objectives and program definition.

A goal, then, really sets up some sort of result we would like to attain, say, five years from now. It may often seem to be just barely attainable, or even unattainable; that is, it can keep us reaching for that which we feel is difficult to attain, but which is something we would like to achieve. An exaggerated goal might be: By June 30, 1977, the number of assaults will have been reduced by 95 percent.

Objectives

As mentioned above, the *objectives* are the very heart of a management by objectives approach. Objectives are usually short-range, as contrasted to the goal, which is long-range. They describe *results* to be achieved within the fiscal year, within 30 days, within 95 days, or within one year. The reason for this is probably obvious, especially in the fiscal-year sort of constraints in which all of us work.

An objective is

- A statement of the result we intend to achieve
- Where possible, quantified
- Time-bound ("by April 17")
- Believable and specific
- Based on *standards* and *criteria* which have been systematically developed

Programs

A program is an identified group of interdependent responsibilities and activities designed and implemented to accomplish *objectives*. This is a description of the *doing* part of the management by objectives cycle. For instance, a program description includes:

- Pertinent historical—including legislative mandate—information regarding the program
- Site(s), facilities, and equipment used or to be used in the program
- Personnel to be used in the program
- Activities of the program (note next subheading)

Many other items can be included in such a listing.

Activities

Activities are included, above, in that portion of the management by objectives cycle called program. Activities are important, but have too long received more than their proper share of attention. An activity is the performance of a function by a program "unit" toward the achievement of stated objectives. Activities should *not* be decided upon until *needs* have been established, *goals* decided upon, and *objectives* determined. All too often activities, more than budgets, are the "tail that wags the dog." Management by objectives shifts emphasis from these *inputs* to outputs, and thus is a *results*-oriented approach. As such it puts activities into a lesser, but not unimportant, position in the scheme of things.

For instance, once it is determined that one of your objectives is a reduction in felonious assault, what should the *activities* be? The answer is not as simple as it is generally considered to be. Too often, the answer given is simply to increase the number of patrol hours in any given area. But aren't there other alternatives to be considered? Are there not a number of other activities which might help reduce the incidence of felonious assault?

Discussion of Management by Objectives

Management by objectives might be subtitled "appraisal of results." The approach has made sizable inroads into management thinking, especially in the public sector, where the public is increasingly stressing *outputs* rather than *inputs*. So, you have increased police surveillance or increased counseling hours for convicted felons, in pursuit of your objectives. What has been the result, or output?

Though a change from an *input* orientation to an *output* orientation is not achieved without a certain amount of travail, those who have given management by objectives a fair chance feel that the rewards exceed the difficulties. Management by objectives has accomplished many things for vigorous, aware managers. It has uncovered basic organizational problems, has unveiled poor managerial performance, has indicated the lack of leadership at policy levels, and so forth.

The adoption of the total management by objectives approach may or may not be politically defensible at this time. If it is not, the idea of adopting a granting technique which is output- or objective-oriented still presents an intriguing and potentially rewarding approach to the granting system for law enforcement assistance.

DECISION BY CONSENSUS

Consensus decision making is a process through which a group seeks to settle on a solution to a problem in a way that maximizes the use of the problem-solving resources of all of the group members. It assumes that the best decisions are most likely to arise from a group process which focuses upon creatively resolving conflicts among the group members in their ideas about the problem and its solution.

Contrary to popular belief, arriving at a group consensus does not necessarily mean reaching the point where all group members are unanimous in personally preferring the decision made over all others possible. From a practical standpoint such unanimity is usually impossible to achieve. What is necessary for a consensus is that all group members be able to endorse the final decision as one which is reasonable, feasible, and above all acceptable to each of them. If even one group member thinks to himself, "In good conscience, I can't live with that decision," a consensus has not been reached.

Research by social scientists has generally confirmed the advantages of group decision by consensus. Consensus decisions are usually more valid than comparable decisions made by individuals or by groups following other decision making procedures. The worth of a decision doesn't rest entirely upon its validity; it is also tested by the commitment of those affected by the decision to work to implement it. Here the advantage of decision by consensus is dramatic. It has been demonstrated over and over again that individuals will commit themselves to a course of action much more vigorously and with much less inclination to sabotage it when they have had a full and active part in the deliberations which led to that decision. Thus, in terms of both the validity of the decision made and the commitment of group members to implement it, more adequate decisions are likely to be achieved through the use of group consensus than through other commonly used decision making strategies. Figure 1 illustrates these findings.

Figure 1

(y-axis: More ... Less) Adequacy of decision

One individual decides | A minority of group members decide | A majority decides, e.g., by voting | Decision by consensus
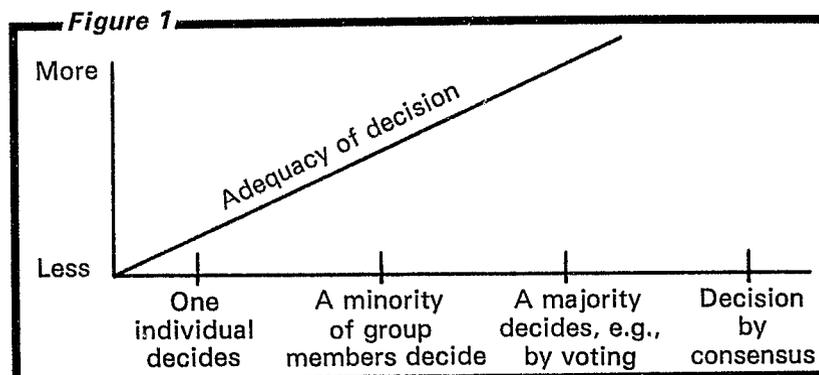
For all of its demonstrated advantages, consensus decision making still occurs only as a relatively rare phenomenon in our organizations. Why? One reason is the fact that decision by consensus is more time-consuming than most other procedures for decision making. Thus it isn't suitable for a great many routine decisions or for those which must be made under great time pressure. Another important impediment to the use of consensus is the tendency to define the manager, supervisor, or boss as *the* decision maker. The American manager typically sees it as his job to arrive at the best decision, one which he can then persuade or order others to implement. This sort of leadership image leaves little room for the kind of reciprocal conflict-resolving exchanges which are the essence of good consensus decision making processes. A third reason why groups don't make more use of consensus is simply that they don't know how to do it. Our society doesn't provide very much consensus decision making experience for individuals in their families, schools, or work groups.

Yet even in the absence of well-practiced individual skills in group consensus decision making, it has been shown that work teams can significantly improve the adequacy of their problem-solving efforts by following some guidelines in working to achieve consensus. Here is an example of such guidelines—instructions that individual group members can follow in seeking to arrive at a consensus:

1. Avoid arguing for your own rankings. Present your position as lucidly and logically as possible, but listen to the other members' reactions and consider them carefully before you press your point.

2. Do not assume that someone must win and someone must lose when discussion reaches a stalemate. Instead, look for the next-most-acceptable alternative for all parties.

3. Do not change your mind simply to avoid conflict and to reach agreement and harmony. When agreement seems to come too quickly and easily, be suspicious. Explore the reasons and be sure everyone accepts the solution for basically similar or complementary reasons. Yield only to positions that have objective and logically sound foundations.

4. Avoid conflict-reducing techniques such as majority vote, averages, coin flips and bargaining. When a dissenting member finally agrees, don't feel that he must be rewarded by having his own way on some later point.

5. Differences of opinion are natural and ex-

pected. Seek them out and try to involve everyone in the decision process. Disagreements can help the group's decision because with a wide range of information and opinions, there is a greater chance that the group will hit upon more adequate solutions (Jay Hall, *Psychology Today,* November 1971).

SYNECTICS TO YOU!

"Synectics to you" is not meant to be offensive. It is rather an attempt to throw you a new concept for examination and possible application to your work situation. What, then, is synectics? It is not in most dictionaries, but it is a Greek word for joining together different and apparently irrelevant elements. The adaptation of synectics to organization life is a theory for the development of individual and group creative capacity for problem solving.

In this dynamic age of rapid change and increasing obsolescence, there is no one who can escape being somewhat inadequate as a problem solver. The information revolution has accelerated every aspect of the work situation until it is impossible to achieve our full potential. There is no such thing as complete maximization of effort. Most of us find ourselves "in between" that which we know can be done and our ability to do it. Obviously, to describe all workers in an organization within this broad context would be meaningless. It is useful, however, to deal with those who are nearer the outskirts of productivity.

Although all working people fit somewhere in the continuum of marginal problem solvers, the greatest concern and challenge is those who for one reason or another are marginal in their productivity, whose attitude toward the job appears to be indifference due to a lack of motivation or a feeling that they have been passed over in the race for success. These workers are pressing against a barrier of undue limitation.

A Case Study

In his delightful story, *The Wizard of Oz,* L. Frank Baum presents an interesting case study of problem solving by bringing together different and apparently irrelevant elements—by synectics. We are all familiar with the crisis-filled experiences of Dorothy and her companions as they made their way along the yellow brick road. Yet we have probably never compared these experiences to life in our modern organizations. Although Baum presents imaginary characters facing imaginary situations, there is nevertheless a display of behavior patterns which has much relevance to the work situations of today. Of particular interest is the leadership of Dorothy and her attention to the developmental needs of those for whom she feels responsible.

Dorothy, as leader of the group, is a gentle, perhaps innocent, but determined individual, who goes from crisis to crisis in her search for the Emerald City, an end-of-the-rainbow sort of place—where she thinks she will find the solution to the problem of getting home to Kansas. Her main frustration comes from her efforts to motivate, direct, and support three dependent followers. She might very well be com-

pared to a manager responsible for employees who lack problem-solving skills.

Let's say Dorothy, instead of being the mythical child we remember, is the "manager" of a unit. She has received the responsibility of achieving a certain objective, in this case the Emerald City. Her staff, consisting of a tin woodman, a scarecrow, and a lion, is inadequate. Their production, performance, and attention to duty is marginal. Dorothy, as "manager" within this organization, is caught in a dilemma: her own drive for goal accomplishment conflicts with the realization that those working for her do not seem to be making much contribution toward that goal.

Dorothy, like most managers, is constantly harassed by the wants, needs, and desires of her "employees." The tin woodman wants a heart and uses this deficiency as an excuse for not being more capable. The scarecrow wants a brain and blames all of his weaknesses on this need. The lion wants courage, the lack of which he believes is the deterrent to his development. Interestingly enough, none of the three is aware of the others' problems; and each feels the others should be able to do anything, because they have what he doesn't.

In the end, Dorothy manages to become the real wizard of the story by changing the lives of these insecure and inadequate "workers." By taking a risky but creative problem-solving approach, she saves the tin woodman from rusting in the forest, enables the scarecrow to escape from a life in the farmer's cornfield, and instills dignity in the lion, who was being disgraced in the jungle. The inspiration in this tale comes from the manner in which Dorothy solves this problem.

How does she so effectively mediate among the needs of the individuals and her own "organization" goals? She uses a very simple but risk-taking process. As problem situations arise, Dorothy turns to the scarecrow for advice and he in turn uses his brain. Whenever emotional conflicts occur, she prevails upon the tin woodman, who utilizes his heart. The cowardly lion, of course, is always called on for protection during moments of danger. As a result, he finds the courage he had not realized he possessed.

Dorothy's magic was not accomplished by making decisions everyone disliked, but rather by creating an environment where strange things could become familiar and where participative learning was fundamental. She neither attacked her problem with an authoritarian list of *dos* or *don'ts* nor attempted to control or structure the efforts of those she was leading. Her system of growth was through trust and interdependence.

Who, then, are the scarecrows, tin woodmen, and cowardly lions in organizations today? And what does the Dorothy-type leadership tell us about developing these people beyond their marginal status?

The Problem-Solving Approach in Relation to Decision Making

Problem solving must be done within a trustful, permissive atmosphere directed toward participative interaction and cooperative effort. Leadership must be viewed in terms of the power it releases in others and not in terms of power over others. The rewards must relate to growth and not exclusively to measured production. In short, the approach to problem solving must focus on intrinsic and not extrinsic motivation. Marginal workers need enhancement from within, not control from without. The following items are crucial to such a problem-solving process:

1. **Provide challenges for hidden potential.** There is nothing which elates an employee more than to discover he is better than he thought or better than someone else thought. Everyone has a deep reservoir of hidden potential which can be discovered through seeking challenging responsibilities. Just as the high-jumper continues to move the bar up after each successful attempt, so the worker needs to see the challenge of something greater after each conquest. Employees do their best when continually given a higher mark to hit.

2. **Employees' goals must be understood.** Goals, if properly set and understood, can create within the worker an intense desire for accomplishment. Such goals must be individually made and realistically designed. Regardless of the nature of the goals, they are no better than the commitment given them. Problems are complicated, not solved, when goals lack acceptance and are not attained.

3. **Freedom of expression is essential.** One of the most powerful forms of intrinsic motivation is to satisfy the human need for individual expression. Human dignity is best fulfilled when the individual can put his own style into the things he does, no matter how routine the job may be. This is not to suggest the abandonment of unity and design, but rather to indicate the need to work within the limits of the organizational framework to allow individuals to put something of themselves into each project.

4. **Develop a pattern of flexibility.** Rigidity is an enemy of creativity. Problem solving where people are involved is handicapped when problem situations are stereotyped. When past history is too heavily relied upon as a guide for future action, individuals are left in a fixed position that provides little inspiration for trying new things. Unfortunately, individuals become bound by a system and assume there is less chance for flexibility than there really is. The employee needs to feel an environment of innovation, which tells him it is safe to test ideas.

5. **Encourage any evidence of problem solving.** The more essential people feel, the better they work. This is another way of saying that the closer people are to problem solving, the more problems will be solved. Any evidence of individual involvement in the process of solving a problem is a sign of self-development. Apart from the significance of the problem, the mere investment of energy is likely to release unknown potential, which will give an employee the confidence to pursue much more meaningful tasks.

6. **Don't expect stupidity and failure.** It is impossible to perform well in an atmosphere of negative expectations. Employees who are perceived as being stupid and failure-prone will usually behave in that manner. Positive expectations, on the other hand, will condition individuals toward reaching goals. Alcoholics Anonymous, for example, achieves its success through the use of normal human desires to meet positive expectations.

7. **Take the creative approach.** Creativity, which may be defined as the ability to generate new ideas, is the basic human faculty for solving problems. Creativity is the safeguard against rigidity and the foundation for continuous innovation. Originality of thought is the psychic guidance necessary to assist employees in becoming more resourceful and secure in solving their own problems. Creativity, to be effective, must have direction. It must be triggered by a specific problem and must result in work which helps to solve that problem.

I will summarize by reiterating that decision makers, like managers, must develop within themselves a problem-solving attitude before they can be effective in guiding others through such a process. When synectics is used, all will find the brains, hearts, and courage they never realized they possessed.

The purpose of systems analysis is to improve the efficiency of organizational operations and to improve the power to predict outcomes of organizational behavior.

Definition of a System

A regularly interacting or interdependent group of items forming a unified whole.

Examples of systems:

1. Human body
2. Mississippi river system
3. Criminal justice system (see pp. 50-51)

Subsystems

Subsystems are interdependent parts of systems.

Examples of subsystems:

1. Human body subsystems, e.g., nervous subsystem, cardiovascular subsystem, etc.

2. Division of organizations. Organizational charts describe business firms or other institutions. These charts clearly indicate divisions of an organization, such as manufacturing, finance, and marketing, which are subsystems of the organization.

3. Automotive electrical subsystems.

The key to recognition of these examples as subsystems is that they interact with other subsystems to form the "whole" or the "system."

Input-Output Systems

The various parts of a system must be linked together in order for them to interact and be interdependent. Therefore each subsystem may be thought of as containing elements which receive inputs from other parts of the system and transform these inputs into outputs, which in turn become inputs to some other subsystem.

Figure 1 is an input-output system diagram.

Figure 1

INPUT → TRANSFOR-MATION → OUTPUT
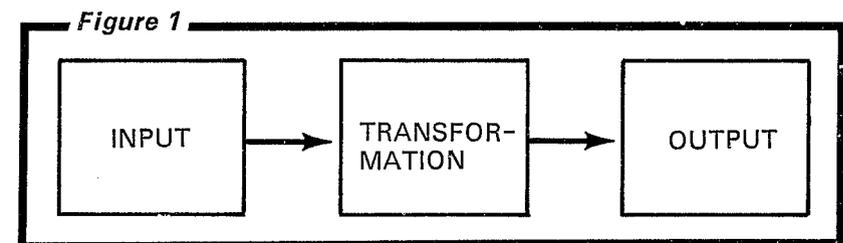
A Simple Systems View of Case Movement Through the Criminal Justice System

Police **Prosecution** **Courts** **Courts** **Corrections**

Crimes Observed and Reported

Out of System

Investigation — Arrest — Booking — Initial Appearance — Preliminary Hearing

Information

Felonies

Misdemeanors

Information

Petty Offenses

Police Juvenile Unit — Intake Hearing

Out of System

Out of System

Arraignment — Trial — Sentencing

Guilty Pleas

Probation

Revocation

Penitentiary

Parole

Out of System

Out of System

Arraignment — Trial — Sentencing

Guilty Pleas

Fine

Probation

Revocation

Jail

Out of System

Out of System

Adjudicatory Hearing

Probation

Revocation

Juvenile Institution

Parole

Out of System

Examples of input-output systems:

1. A stereo system, which transforms electronic signals into audible music.

2. A manufacturing system, which transforms raw materials into component parts for automobiles.

3. An investment decision system, which transforms business information into buy and sell orders for the stock market.

Feedback Control Systems

A feedback control system compares the desired goal of the system to the actual output of the system. Hence, a feedback control system incorporates a monitoring and comparing element in the system.

Figure 2 is a diagram of an input-output system with a feedback control subsystem.

Figure 2
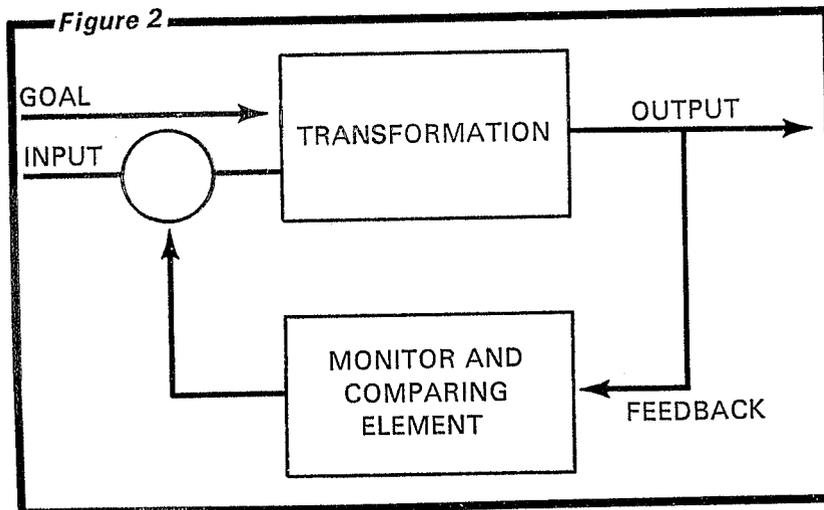
Examples of systems with feedback control:

1. Home heating system. The thermostat setting is the desired goal.

2. An education system. The instructor establishes desired goals and monitors student performance through tests.

3. New York City water system. Water pressure is varied according to the demands on it and the time of day.

Feedback Systems with Memory

The feedback control systems described before have a simple memory capability in that the goal of the system is "remembered." More sophisticated systems are capable of remembering different goals under specified conditions.

Examples of feedback control systems with memory:

1. A computer which monitors production operations and orders changes in process conditions as different items are produced.

2. A justice system which compares various offenses to a set of laws to determine appropriate sentences.

3. Inventory control systems which match desired stock levels against existing stock levels for reorder purposes.

Analysis of Systems

A system is best analyzed by drafting a block diagram containing all elements of the system including input, transformation, output, feedback, and memory elements. All elements may be shown in the block diagram by a rectangle, except decision points in the transformation process. These may be represented by a diamond. Any system can be analyzed using this technique. It will permit improvement in the efficiency of a system, since faults or failures in a system become readily apparent. It also permits a manager to know more about the potential outcomes of a system.

EVALUATION

Evaluation is a slippery concept under the best of conditions. Evaluation of proposals for funding by supervisory boards demands a good deal of projection, with little real basis for arriving at valid conclusions. Simply to decide if a proposal should be funded or not, a whole series of related judgments must be made. These judgments fall into three categories—first, in terms of the proposal itself; second, in terms of the proposal in relation to other proposals; and finally, in terms of the larger criminal justice system in which it will be implemented.

In Terms of the Proposal Itself

Appropriateness: Is the problem selected a priority problem? Is it worthwhile, or are there other concerns which merit consideration? Does the program address enough of the problem, all of it, or too little?

Efficiency: Is the cost of mounting this program reasonable? Are there cheaper ways of addressing the problem? Are you paying more than you ought to?

Effectiveness: Can it do what it says it will do? Is it worth doing, or, more succinctly, will you get your money's worth?

### In Terms of Its Relation to Other Proposals

Which will have the biggest impact in terms of performance?

Which will best fit into the board's overall plans and priorities?

Are there certain characteristics which will have serious detrimental impact—say in terms of political overtones, rights of individuals, attitudes of the community, among others?

In Terms of the Criminal Justice System

A judgment must be made in terms of the interaction of the program with the system within which that program is implemented. For example, what would be the reaction of the corrections process to a program of higher arrest rates? A crowded court docket, an overloaded probation staff, and overcrowded institutions, to name a few. This kind of issue is one that extends beyond the program activity itself and has definite implications for the broader system. Unfortunately, it is too little understood and, as a consequence, often neglected.

These three categories of concern are basic to all initial funding decisions that a supervisory board must make. If proposals before the board are rated in some single, standard way by each of the members, consensus can more effectively follow. An approach to doing so, using

these three areas of concern, follows. If proposals are subject to this initial screening by each member of the board, a powerful impetus to a group decision is provided. A means to do this in a systematic fashion is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Decision making matrix.
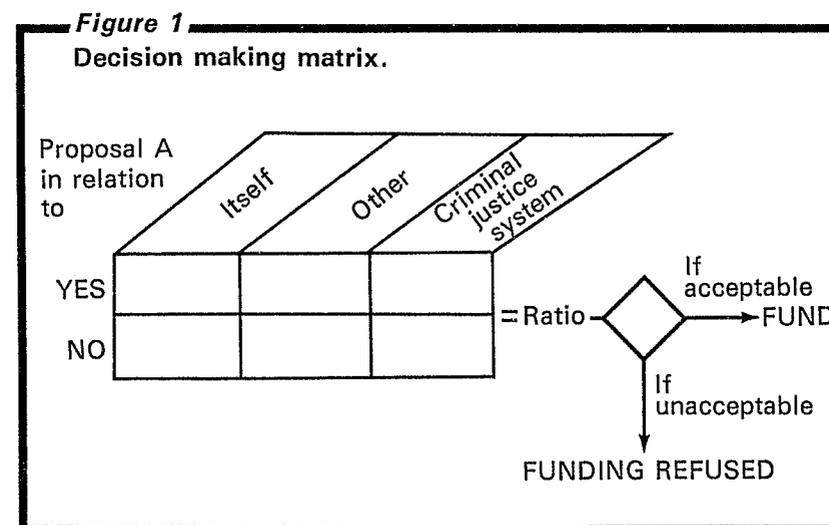
Each supervisory board member ranks each category by dividing a total of 10 points over *Yes* or *No* in each category—in terms of the proposal itself, in terms of its relation to other proposals, and in terms of the criminal justice system. By totaling the *Yes* scores and the *No* scores, a ratio is developed. Individual board members' ratios are grouped, and a mean ratio for the proposal is achieved. Comparison with other proposal values will provide a quantitative basis for funding or refusing funding.

The opportunity to share individual ratings can focus discussion on a more specific level. Changes in ratings may occur, and, because they are reflected in quantitative terms, consensus can be more effectively achieved. A comparison of the entire group's assessment ratios of each proposal will quite effectively assist in deciding which proposals should be funded and which should not.

This method provides two important features: it quantifies individual decision making and provides for focused discussion. This approach relies entirely on individual judgments. It is each individual's perception of the consequences of the proposal that results in placing numbers in the matrix. However, it is the group total of individual preferences that leads to the decision to fund or not to fund a proposal. The approach can utilize expert opinion, and although trade-offs and compromises will be involved, the final decision remains solely a supervisory board prerogative.

Board-System Relationship

As useful as this matrix can be, a critical concern is apparent. This is the crucial need for a clear and explicit understanding of the objective of the board in relation to the criminal justice system and its subsystems. Every proposal's goals and objectives should be linked in a direct fashion to the board's stated understanding of its own objectives.

Any proposal upon which a decision for funding is to be made should fit into the criminal justice schema of mission, goals, and objectives. The proposal must serve the subsystem in which it will reside and which serves the mission of the broader criminal justice system. "Goodness of fit"—how well the proposal serves the subsystem and, therefore, the larger system—is a basic consideration. Because of the general lack of common understanding of objectives, both at the subsystem level and in the larger justice system, this is a clouded scene. Too often, programmatic idealizations pass for objectives. "To control crime" or "to keep the peace" are two such idealizations. They do less to inform and more to maintain a pretense of understanding and agreement. Such statements of function are too abstract and do not restrict the interpretations that can be given. In fact, they serve to justify inconsistent roles, as is clearly seen in the following:

> Police, court and corrections officials all share the objective of reducing crime. But each uses different, sometimes conflicting methods and so focuses frequently on inconsistent subobjectives. The police role, for example, is focused on *deterrence* through arrest and incarceration [incapacitation]. Most modern correctional thinking, on the other hand, focuses on *rehabilitation* and argues that placing the offender back into society under a supervised community treatment program provides the best chance for his rehabilitation as a law-abiding citizen. But community treatment may involve some loss of deterrent effect and the ready arrest of marginal offenders, intended to heighten deterrence, may, by affixing a criminal label, complicate rehabilitation. *The latent conflicts between the parts may not be apparent from the viewpoint of either subsystem, but there is an obvious need to balance and rationalize them so as to achieve optimum overall effectiveness* (Italics added).[1]

The result can only be a tenuous accommodation of subsystems to each other. Programs and staff activities reflect this also at the basic operational level. For example, the juvenile courts have differing general orientations toward delinquency and its control—the helping/

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[1]*Task Force Report: Science and Technology*. A report to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

treatment orientation and the punishing/legal orientation, to name two. Similarly, in probation, parole institutions, and law enforcement, there are basic operational orientations which are in conflict. Accommodation is necessary both within each subsystem program and among programs if the system is to function at all, let alone in an effective manner.

As a result, there is a general reluctance to evaluate/assess effectiveness except on the basis of subjective statements of progress. Citing an example (good or bad), or a case (good or bad), or making broad, authoritative, blanket statements to "prove" effectiveness, are the most often preferred methods of assessment. These allow for accommodation, whereas the use of hard data does not.

To use "hard" data to evaluate program activities of the criminal justice system's subsystems or to evaluate proposals which will be implemented within the system, a clear and explicit statement of objectives is needed. To determine "goodness of fit" of proposals that come before the board, a similarly clear understanding of objectives is necessary.

Objectives, Objectives

To develop appropriate objectives is a torturous task. To reduce these to written statements is equally difficult. It demands discipline and perseverance and, most of all, an understanding of what constitutes an objective. An objective specifies (1) the nature of the situation or condition to be attained, (2) the extent to which this condition is to be attained, (3) the specific target group in which this situation is to be sought, and (4) the time by which this condition is to be attained. Another way to say this is that objectives must be behavioral; that is, observable, specific, measurable, and time-limited.

Language plays an important part in developing statements of objectives. Statements which contain many words that are open to a wide range of interpretation lead to misinterpretation.

Words Open to Fewer Interpretations	Words Open to Many Interpretations
To identify	To know
To list	To believe
To compare	To understand
To contrast	

Some principles in writing statements of objectives are: *first*, identify the condition/situation sought by name—you can specify the kind of behavior that will be accepted as evidence that the program achieved the objective (i.e., reduce the incidence of face-to-face crime

in a certain district). *Second,* further identify the terminal behavior describing the important conditions under which the objectives will be seen to occur (i.e., reduce the incidence of reported face-to-face crime in a certain district by 10 percent in 180 days). *Third,* specify the criteria which indicate the achievement of objectives in numerical terms (i.e., the number, rate, or ratio of reported face-to-face crimes has decreased; the number, rate, or ratio of cases successfully filed has increased; the number, rate, or ratio of reported crimes cleared by arrest has increased).[2]

The degree to which an objective achieves a satisfactory level of specificity is the degree to which these elements are included. It is not necessary to include all three in each objective statement, but it is necessary to include these factors in the list of objectives. This is not done simply for the purpose of including them, but rather to adequately communicate your intended outcome. One good way of determining if you have done so is to see if another person arrives at the same conclusion with the same information.

Mission, Goals, and Objectives

Programs in the criminal justice system—police, courts, probation, parole, and institutions—are composed of resources, activities, and objectives. Each is characterized by one or more objectives which represent the desired end result of the activities of these programs. The degree of attainment of these objectives will determine the degree to which the *goals* of the program are achieved.

For example, law enforcement, a subsystem program of the justice system, is composed of a series of activities—investigation, patrol, etc. Each of these should have specified, measurable, and observable objectives or expected outcomes. In broad terms, the objectives/outcomes of *investigation* must include an increase in the ratio of cleared crimes to reported crimes of a certain type in a certain district. This measures the degree of effectiveness of the investigation unit better than a simple count of investigators on duty or the number of hours of investigation. *Patrol* must reduce the incidence of reported face-to-face crimes in a certain district, the rate of burglaries, and so on. This measures effectiveness of patrol better than a count of man-hours expended, cars in service, or how many nonpolice activities have been accomplished (which may be distantly related). If each activity in the total police program achieves its objectives, the goal of the police program is achieved.

[2]Based on Robert Mager, *Preparing Instructional Objectives.* Belmont, California: Fearon Publishers, 1962, p. 12.

The goal is a somewhat broader objective and is simply a statement of the situation or condition which is intended to result from the activities of the law enforcement program. To write or define goals involves basically the same process as for objectives. Objectives are directly linked to the achievement of goals.

A partial statement of goals for law enforcement might take the form of the following: reduce the opportunity for crime and delinquency to occur and increase the level of citizens' freedom from criminal insult. Patrol does this by serving its specific objective—the reduction of face-to-face crimes in a certain district by deterring criminal acts through the threat of apprehension and incapacitation. Investigation also serves this goal by incapacitating those who have perpetrated reported crimes, through arrests and incarcerations. The degree to which law enforcement has increased the ratio of crimes cleared by arrest to reported crimes is the degree to which the goals of law enforcement are achieved. This is the criterion by which the goal of law enforcement is measured.

The degree of achievement of goals by police (and the other subsystems' program activities) determines directly the degree to which the *mission* of the criminal justice system is achieved. Like objective and goal, mission is a statement of a condition which is sought. Reduction of the incidence of reported and unreported crime is an example of a condition which is desirable. The reduction of the incidence of repeat crime is another.

Conclusions

Every supervisory board decision regarding proposals must evaluate each proposal's consequences in terms of the proposal itself, in terms of other proposals, and in terms of its role in the criminal justice system. A proposal's relationship to this last factor is the most crucial consideration. Proposal objectives must be seen to link with the criminal justice system and its separate subsystem activities in a way which will result in a desirable impact. In the absence of clear understandings of the mission of the criminal justice system and the goals and objectives of its subsystem activities, each board member must intuitively project these for himself. The degree to which there is common understanding of mission, goals, and objectives is the degree to which supervisory board decisions about funding proposals can be efficiently accomplished. The foregoing has sought to provide an evaluative posture to assist the supervisory board member to better assess proposals *in the light of objectives.*

MODELS FOR DECISION MAKING: A mini-university approach to presenting the use of a range of models for decision making. A series of lecturettes coupled with labs.

Purpose

Provide an understanding and a level of experience in using a range of models for decision making.

Group Size

Variable, up to 20 persons.

Time Required

Two hours per model is suggested.

Materials Required

Appropriate lecturette and newsprint.

Process

The group is provided the essential concepts by means of a lecturette. Discussion is encouraged, and this is followed by a real decision making problem. The problem is generated within the group, and the model is applied. The group facilitator assists in the group process to insure the covering of key concepts and avoids substantive inputs.

APPENDIXES

CRIME IN AMERICA

An Address by the Honorable

Richard G. Kleindienst

United States Attorney General

I'm deeply flattered and grateful for the opportunity to participate in this kind of a conference in this part of our great country. I'm grateful because essentially everybody in this room finds himself involved in what I think is the most important enterprise for an American citizen, particularly at this period in our nation's history. That enterprise is the enforcement of the law.

I think that, as a result of the rhetoric of politics in America for the last 10 or 15 years, many of us have lost sight of the fact that the unique thing about America is that, unlike so many other nations, we have a government of law and not of men.

Whether it came about as a result of divine providence, or luck, or the inspiration of a handful of gifted men, some 200 years ago they put together a form of government in this country that made a fundamental commitment to the fact that man's best chance and opportunity for continued improvement and progress was through the law and was not dependent upon the limitations of any one particular human being.

If we are really a country of law and not a country of men, then I think the future holds a great deal of continuing promise. If we are a country of law and respect for the institutions of government that have brought us to this time in history, then we can, with confidence, engage in what I always refer to as the continuing revolution of America. This is a continuing process within the framework of the institutions of government by which we improve ourselves, uplift ourselves, and extend the opportunities and promises of our constitution to more and more of our citizens.

It is because I have faith in the fact that we are a country of law that I support the many programs that address themselves to the long-range solutions to social problems in America. I speak of programs such as Social Security and Medicare—programs calculated to see that each of the securities that free people can provide for themselves is made available and extended to all.

While we are engaged in this process, we must also address ourselves to the rather short-range but continuing problem in America of the enforcement of the law, because if we don't keep the social fabric together through the enforcement of the law, I think that we would all agree, we will lose the means by which to engage in long-range programs for the solutions of social problems in this country.

And if we're talking about the enforcement of the law, we're talking about what you and I do, day in and day out. I think that it is incumbent upon people like ourselves, who are either the elected representatives of our communities or appointed by those who are elected, to have a deep respect for the law.

It is hard to enforce all the laws that are legally and constitutionally enacted, either by the Congress or state legislatures. But it is incumbent upon us to dedicate ourselves to all of these laws, whether they are easy or difficult to enforce, whether or not they are laws which you or I might have enacted if we had been in the legislature, and whether or not they are laws which might be popular at any given time—or very unpopular. As law enforcement officers in the finer sense, it is our duty to respond to the collective will of our elected representatives, who passed these laws.

In the Department of Justice these last few years, if we have had one fundamental concept that has guided us, it has been to enforce the law that the people of this country caused to be passed by their elected representatives. And as we allocated our resources, our programs, and our priorities, we felt that it was also incumbent upon us to enforce these laws in the several areas that were most important and sensitive.

In talking about this country, in talking about these programs in this Administration, under President Nixon and Attorney General Mitchell, I have to talk a bit about the enforcement of our antitrust laws, about our civil rights laws. I have to talk about organized crime, crime in the streets, and about drug abuse in America today. It seems to me that these four or five sensitive, difficult, and controversial areas in one way or another touch upon our total being in America today.

Why do I talk about antitrust laws? It's obvious. One of the things which has given us the gift by which we can do so many things, not only for ourselves but for the world, is our unique economic system. When President Nixon was inaugurated on January 20, 1969, he had witnessed over a period of 10 years a headlong rush toward conglomerate acquisition in America. It was estimated at the time he became President that if it continued on that basis, within six or seven years some 85 percent of the productive capacity of this country was going to be in the hands of 50 to 100 corporations.

Now for those of us who come from the soil of America, for those of us who had pioneer backgrounds and beginnings, this didn't augur well for the great economic experiment and activity that had been our history up to that time. President Nixon's predecessors contended that not until the Congress of the United States amended the Sherman Antitrust Act would the Department of Justice really have the tool by which to deal with this problem.

A man by the name of Richard McLaren, who was one of the outstanding antitrust lawyers in the country, felt otherwise. As the new Assistant Attorney General for the Antitrust Division, he felt that because of the essentially non-competitive practices of some of these large conglomerates, that there was another means by which we could make sense out of all this . . . and he did it.

Having been somewhat involved with our political processes, I've always thought that it was a little ironical that the one controversial situation that has come out of the Department of Justice emanated from one of the most aggressive and determined antitrust enforcement policies that this country has ever known under the Sherman Antitrust Act.

My point is that this aggressive policy has brought this whole problem of large conglomerate acquisitions under the ordinary rules of the game. And I think that you and I, as long as we have an Administration that understands this aspect of the problem, can rest secure in the knowledge that the essential vitality in our economic system is going to continue.

Why do I mention civil rights? In my opinion, the most conservative position that any law enforcement officer can take in this country is the enforcement of

the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States. It is my humble opinion that the sense in which this country is going to be regarded as a great country 100 years from now is going to be pretty much dependent upon the enforcement of the law—that the great opportunities which are the birthright of every American are fully extended to all citizens, regardless of race, color, or creed.

I also believe that if America, 20 or 50 years from now, is just a decaying society, it's going to be because people like you and me didn't have the courage and the basic conservative understanding of what it is to be an American and failed to see that the privileges and opportunities of Americans were extended to everyone in this country.

When we talk about crime in America today, I think that as a result of circumstances in the past, we probably have to divide the subject into two categories, because we have organized crime on one hand, and street crime on the other. This Administration, this President, this Acting Attorney General, and the former Attorney General, have a very definite concept about the proper role of the federal government as it adjusts itself to each of the two aspects of this problem. We take the federal role in organized crime as one thing and we take the federal role in street crime as another. Why the difference?

I've always felt that it really didn't mean much to us to spend billions and billions of dollars of our hard-earned money to provide long-range social welfare programs to ennoble ourselves if we stuck our heads in the sand and refused to acknowledge the existence within our society of a small handful of lustful, avaricious, greedy men who put themselves above the law of God and the law of their country—who would murder, extort, intimidate witnesses; who would conduct any criminal business, prostitution, drug rackets, illegal gambling, loan sharking—and, as a result, would eat away the moral fiber of a free people. With a group of people like that who engage in practices of that kind, who use the means of interstate commerce by which to achieve their ends, it seems to me that our federal government is uniquely equipped to be directly responsible for that kind of problem.

One of the great arguments that existed at the time of the adoption of the Crime Bill of 1968 was whether or not our federal district judges have the power, upon an application from the Department of Justice, to institute electronic surveillance on organized criminals. The Congress debated this very controversial and important subject for months and months. Finally, by a rather decisive vote, they said yes—as a result of demonstrable need, as a result of a clear agreement by everyone on the nature of the menace, that our federal judges should, under their order and supervision, be able to permit the Department of Justice to impose electronic surveillance on this kind of criminal.

I was astounded when the Attorney General, Ramsey Clark, publicly stated that even though the Congress had passed this law, he would not enforce it. I think he had sincere reasons, but to me it was inconsistent with the whole concept of our government that the chief law enforcement officer of the U.S. would refuse to use a weapon that the elected representatives of the people of America charged him to use.

One of the first announcements that Attorney General Mitchell made when he came into office was that he was going to use this tool provided by the Congress, consistent with our due process safeguard. In the last three and one-half years, some 800 of those electronic surveillances have been authorized by our

federal judiciary, and 1,600 indictments have been brought about with respect to organized crime, including more than half of the leadership of the so-called families in this business.

I can say to you tonight that as a result of this effort, of this determination, that organized crime in the United States is on the run. If this country has another four or five years of similar dedication to this kind of enforcement, the whole problem of organized crime will be reduced to an ordinary irritant in our society.

If, on the other hand, out of misconceived concepts of civil liberty which have nothing to do with the actual experience of America, you have people who are not committed to this kind of service, once again this kind of malignant behavior will appear in our society.

So why do I say that there is one response for organized crime and another for ordinary crime—the ordinary murder, the ordinary assault, the ordinary robbery, the ordinary street crime in America?

Again, I think that this Administation has elected the approach that is consistent with Americans' feelings about self-government, because when you talk about street crime, you are talking about what affects each and every one of us in our own communities.

One of the worst things I could think of would be the establishment of 500,000 federal police officers policing every block and every street in our country. The opportunities for abuse by politicians are too enormous to contemplate. And that again was a great debate in Congress in 1968; whether or not some bureaucrat in Washington, D.C.—some omnipotent, all-powerful, all-knowing, triple-degree scientist from some social institution—should be given the power to lay out a formula that was going to affect the lives of everyone in this country. Or whether, on the other hand, the Congress should be willing to appropriate millions and even billions of dollars to bring the whole system of criminal justice up to the '70s, but nevertheless have this money go back to the State of Wyoming or South Dakota, to be spent in a way that the people of those states felt was best to control crime.

I think our Congress made the right decision in 1968 when it approved the block grant formula; when it said that there would be a State Planning Agency in each of the states that would have a proper understanding of the interrelationships among state, county, and city agencies so it can assign priorities and divide these dollars to really improve justice—not the way somebody in New York thinks it should be done, but the way it should be done in Wyoming. The greatest evidence of the wisdom of the Congress in this approach may be seen in our accomplishments in our nation's capital since January 20, 1969.

The President of the United States is the Governor of the District of Columbia, just as Stan Hathaway is the Governor of Wyoming. He goes to Congress to get appropriations to deal with the problem of crime in the District of Columbia. When President Nixon got there, the crime rate in our nation's capital was the highest crime rate in the country, a sad commentary on the seat of government for our people. It also had the fastest-growing crime rate in the country. ·

Today, the District of Columbia has the lowest crime rate of the 60 large metropolitan areas, and it has the fastest-decreasing crime rate of any city in the United States.

How did that come about? It succeeded for exactly the same reasons that the block grants that the Congress is allocating to the various states are also succeeding. All it did was to bring justice up to date in the '70s.

I was astounded to learn when we got to Washington that in 1952 they had tried 2,000 felony cases, and again in 1968 they also tried 2,000 felony cases. The only difference was that by 1968, there were 16,000 felonies committed. They had only 13 judges to address themselves to the problem of felonies in this kind of a community. Tonight, there are 50 judges in the District of Columbia trying felony cases.

When we got there, the police force was 2,700—10 percent of whom were Black in a city that was 75 percent Black. Tonight there are 5,200 police officers in the District of Columbia, and 45 percent are Black officers.

When we got there, there wasn't a meaningful police-community relations program, a program by which the people, particularly in the inner city that was ravaged by crime, have a proper understanding of what it means to have a police officer in the block to protect them. Today the police-community relations program for the District of Columbia is a model for the country.

When we got there, the prosecutor's office and the public defender's office were a shambles. Their size has now been tripled.

Our probation officers are judges, so what we've done is really what you people are involved in doing, and that is to bring money together to provide the means by which we can do something about crime in America. I will predict to you that within a reasonably short period of time, every major metropolitan area in the United States will have an experience similar to ours in Washington, D.C., provided that you continue to elect to Congress and the Presidency men and women who are committed to an understanding of this problem and who have the courage to go forward with it.

Let me conclude by saying something about drugs in America today. I personally believe that the unusual phenomenon of young peoples' experimentation with drugs in the past ten years is a temporary phenomenon. I think our young people, as a result of the failure of their country's politicians, have perhaps had many reasons to be frustrated and alienated and find themselves in despair, and therefore are tempted to drop out from reality. I hope never again in the history of this country will we send off 500,000 young men to offer their lives in a war 8,000 miles away and forget to tell them why we sent them there. I think if our great President has done anything in the last three and one-half years, it has been to make sense out of this whole business of Vietnam and to make the young people of America understand that their country does care.

But in the meantime, regardless of the reasons that brought about drug abuse, you and I as citizens of this country have a responsibility to see that the laws with respect to such abuse are enforced. Because if we don't, and if as a result of any other social theory or any guilt complex that we might have or anything that has to do with generations of young people and old people, we stand by and watch a substantial drug culture develop, then I think you and I would know that the freedom we have inherited would probably be on the way to disintegration.

You and I know that in order for people to be free, in order for them to have the discipline and the self-sacrifice and dedication to put forth the big effort that freedom always demands, we need strong people. We have to have people strong of mind, and body, and soul. So, really, our whole problem with drug abuse in America is to adjust ourselves to mistakes of the past, to correct those mistakes, but in the meantime to see to it, as law enforcement people, that a drug culture does not establish itself in America.

We are making great strides in this area because it's not only law enforcement, it isn't just getting cooperation from Turkey and Mexico, it isn't just helping the customs agent, it isn't just tripling the agents in the Bureau of Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs, it isn't just new legislation, it isn't just more medical treatment—it is a general understanding by the general population of this country that we've almost found ourselves slipping into the abyss and risking the ruination of the country.

So I think this is really as important as the law: we've got to hold our heads very high; we've got to put our shoulders back; we shouldn't be mindful of the accusations, the criticisms, the bitternesses, the complaints. Because as long as you and I are willing to enforce the law in America, then this country is going to continue to be great and free.

If the day ever comes when you and I don't have the courage and dedication and understanding of the concept of our country, then we are no longer going to be free. So I believe what we really have to do is to redouble our efforts, increase our dedication to see to it that those institutions of government which have provided our freedom are going to remain intact so we can pass them on to those who come after us.

LEMONS TO LEMONADE:
DECISIONS SOUR AND SWEET

An Address by Richard A. McGee
President, American Justice Institute

Ladies and gentlemen, I have been asked to talk to you about decision making. I have made a lot of decisions, and at least half of them have been wrong, so I can assure you that even if you know what you're dealing with, sometimes tossing pennies will do quite as well.

I have to explain the title for my speech that was put on the program, and I want to tell you I had nothing whatever to do with that and I don't know what to do with it now. It arose, I think, out of an association I had with Kim Nelson, who is now Director of the School of Public Administration at USC, some years ago. I kept telling him, as well as my other associates, that when something goes bad, don't sit down and cry about it, but go out and make something good come out of it. So that's what it really means—turning lemons into lemonade, I guess, is the way somebody decided to express it. But that's not going to be the subject of most of my comments.

We were admonished this morning not to make apologies, but I do want to apologize for the emphasis that was given to me personally in the brochure that you all received. I want you to know that that was a throwaway piece that we had in my office. It was printed when we employed a man about two years ago who thought he could raise a lot of money from contributors for a nonprofit organization such as the American Justice Institute. That brochure was just one of the things he had printed. I can only report at this time that we spent exactly five times as much raising money as we received as a result of the effort. So I've decided that neither my picture, nor my record, nor the cause of criminal justice is the kind of thing that bleeds very much money out of the people who have it to give away.

I really ought to quit making speeches, having looked on it as a duty of office for many, many years. But every time I'm invited and I do succumb to the temptation, I think of Ben Clark's story. Ben is the Sheriff of Riverside County in California, and an influential member, by the way, of the California Criminal Justice Planning Council, the CCCJ we call it out there. He tells the story of the little town that had a zoo. They wanted to keep the zoo running, but they were running over their budget, which zoos and such things tend to do. Their two prize exhibits were a lion and a gorilla. The gorilla finally died and the lion was pretty toothless. They couldn't afford to buy another gorilla, so they decided to skin the gorilla and hire a man to wear his skin. They reasoned that that would be good enough for the kids, who couldn't get too close anyway. This fellow took the job and he got to enjoying it; he'd get up on the trapeze and swing back and forth, and the kids would scream and clap their hands. But one day he was just overdoing it a bit; when he swung way up, the bar broke, and he flew over the partition into the lion's cage. Whereupon he was frightened to death. He leaped to his feet and started crying, "Help! Help!" and about that time the lion got over close to him and nudged up against him and said, "You damn fool, if you don't shut up we'll both lose our jobs!" Now, I haven't got a job to lose anymore, so I'm only taking a small risk.

The question of decisions, of course, cuts through everybody's life. Here today I think we should emphasize decisions in government, because criminal justice is a public function. I shall emphasize that in any examples which may come to mind from some part of the criminal justice system.

Everybody knows that a decision is a determination to take some kind of action. But one learns that it isn't quite that simple, namely, deciding to do something. Sometimes a far more important decision is to decide not to do something. In fact, the decision that is made more often than any other is neither of these—rather, it's the decision to delay, or to take the issue under submission. I can still hear the accents of the various chairmen of the finance committee of the California Senate over the years. The accents changed from one generation of senators to another, but the effect was the same. They all had the same trick, when they didn't want to make a decision. They said, "The matter will be submitted," which means they didn't make any decision. Sooner or later somebody made a decision, but we seldom knew who did it or just how it took place. So there are many different aspects to the decision making process —and in government they are seldom simple or straightforward.

I want to talk a little bit about kinds of decisions, because there are so many different kinds; a little about who makes them, especially in state government; and some about the constraints on decision making and decision makers. That's one of the things I had to learn after I got into a position of administrative authority. Everybody thought that being the boss meant I could make decisions. I began to find out that my limitations were great indeed, and that most of the decisions that I would have liked to make, I couldn't make, because of legal, political, and policy constraints. And finally, I want to talk about something that has become more and more important, I think, and that is the business of influencing decision makers.

I've listed here about eight or nine different kinds of decisions, some of which are so obvious they scarcely need mentioning. These are the personal decisions, which individuals make and which affect only themselves. And they can carry them out themselves; they don't need to delegate them to somebody else. When you try to think about all the decisions that fall in that category, the only important one I can think of is the decision to shoot yourself. That you can decide to do, and you can do it yourself. Pretty nearly every other decision involves participation by somebody else.

There are a lot of old stories about the decision making process in the family. The one I like best is about the man who was asked how he and his wife divided the decision making. He said, "That's no problem to us at all. I make all the big decisions and my wife makes all the little ones." So he was asked, "Who makes the decision as to which ones are big and which ones are small?" "Oh," he said, "I don't bother with small things like that."

Then there are decisions about policy, and to me the simplest definition of a policy is a kind of a general plan of action. I suppose that a good deal of legislation is policy determination which somebody else has to implement. The decision to declare a war, certainly, is a plan of action of some sort. But the guys that make it are usually not the ones that have to carry it out. There are all kinds of decisions that have to be made that are determinations of where we are going in some particular area of concern.

There's another kind of decision, which is probably the most common, and I know at least one student of public administration who says that it is the only

kind there is. It might be called the legitimation decision, wherein someone other than the administrator really does the work, draws up the plans, and brings it up to the person who has the official power to make the decision. And he, in the terminology of our times, "signs off on it." It then becomes legitimate, not because he formulated the idea, or even participated in the process, but because he approved it; it is now his decision. It's a legitimation process. It has one little hooker in it, of course, and that is that the man who signs off on it also carries the responsibility for the consequences. Subordinate people are often very disgruntled when the boss doesn't sign off on something that seems so good, and they just don't see how he could possibly not approve the proposal. The thing that they forget is that if it goes wrong, the official who puts his name on it is the one who will take the heat.

Then there are stopgap decisions—decisions where there really isn't any solution. In running institutions over the years, you encounter these things frequently. They usually arise from crisis. I remember one incident, in which I was only indirectly involved, where a psychopathic delinquent, so-called, escaped from one of the state mental hospitals and killed an old man in an orchard half a mile away. Well, that community was ready to burn the institution down. There wasn't any really good solution: you couldn't bring the man back to life and you couldn't kill off the kinds of people capable of such acts—we had half a hundred of them in that particular facility. I talked to an old-time city manager who was then the state director of finance. "When you don't know what to do," he said, "make a noise, ring bells, get up on a roof and toot a horn, but don't sit there and do nothing. Do something." So we did something. We had to announce that we were going to do something. It didn't solve anything in the long run. We moved a lot of people out of another institution to make room for these people, and we put them in a different institution. We transferred the problem from one place to another, because of the community heat on that institution. In the long run it wasn't a real solution, you see, just a temporary political solution.

There is a good story to illustrate the point. A man was driving down the road in a panel truck and every time he came to a hill he'd get out, take a shovel out of the cabin, bang the side of the truck three or four times, and then jump back in and drive up the hill. At the next hill he would do the same thing. A highway patrolman coming up behind began to wonder if this fellow was a mental case and should be taken in. So he drove up beside him and he said, "Hey, mister, I don't understand what you've been doing. Is there any explanation for your getting out and banging your truck with that shovel every little way?" "Oh, yes," the man said. "You see, what I got here is a half-ton truck, and inside this truck I have a ton of canaries, and if I don't keep half of them in the air I can't make it up the hill."

Another kind of decision that comes up frequently is the one where there isn't much to choose among the available alternatives. That can happen when you go to a restaurant and look at the menu. It happens in all kinds of other situations in our field of work, where it isn't a question of selecting the right answer, as one of my associates used to say, but of selecting the least wrong answer. When we are faced with limited choices, and none of them is very good, we can't just sit there doing nothing, because it may be a situation where some action must be taken. So we choose the one that seems least wrong, even though we know that there might be better solutions; they aren't available to us. Today, for example, arriving here at the head table, I didn't have any choice at all about what was on the menu. I had two choices—I could eat the food offered or go hungry.

Another kind of decision making involves the business of selecting priorities; you are all familiar with this. This group, in particular, is familiar with handling applications for funds. You place them in some kind of priority order, and at the point where the money runs out, the list gets cut off. This is a universal phenomenon in public service budgets. "Man's wants are insatiable," I read someplace. I think it was the first line in the economics textbook I studied when I was a youngster. No matter whether you are an individual or a public agency, there's no limit to the things you can think of that you might want or need. There always has to be a cutoff point. There are some traps in this that are worth mentioning, however, and they have to do with the size of the items in the priority list. Suppose you have a list consisting of one horse and one rabbit. If the rabbit takes priority over the horse, you may end up with a rabbit and not a horse. And if you put the priority the other way, you get the horse instead of the rabbit. This is an important issue when making priority lists, and everybody who makes budgets does that. It's important to try to classify the items according to their magnitude. We have done that for years in capital outlay, of course. We say, for example, every item of less than $25,000 or $50,000 is a minor item. These are placed in a different priority list from those of a larger magnitude. If you don't do it that way, you will find that you are mixing items of vastly different values. In a large, complex operation one may need not one priority list, but several—one of large, one of medium, and one of small items.

A philosophical basis for these priorities is also needed. Where are you going to put your emphasis in these priorities in terms of your value system? In this field we have a lot of conflicting objectives or purposes of the criminal law, which we all have some part in carrying out. Do we want to put the principal emphasis on the prevention of crime and delinquency? Do we want to put it on deterrence? Do we want to put it on retribution? Do we want to put it on rehabilitation? Do we want to put it on the cost and what the public will stand for? These things have to be in the back of everyone's mind, when determining choices not just on dollars and available alternatives and all that, but on the basis of where your heart is and what value you really believe comes ahead of another.

Now we come to confrontation decisions, where two opposing forces want exactly the opposite. These are the kinds of decisions that people who run prisons get into when they have a prison riot. One group wants it one way and another group wants it the other, and it has to get settled one way or another. A somewhat similar situation occurs in labor disputes, where you have management on one side of the table and the workers on the other; each wants a larger share of the product of their joint enterprise. You almost always have it in judicial decisions. I refer especially to trial courts, where an adversarial situation exists, with a third party making the final decision. All this, too, is a part of the decision making effort.

Then, of course, we come to one of the biggest decision making arenas, namely, that of the legislative branch. These we all know, of course, in our system: city councils, county supervisors, state legislatures, and the United States Congress. These are group decisions, made by a lot of people on the basis of a democratic process. I want to talk a little later about influencing these decisions, because you almost never get unanimity in the democratic process. You have all kinds of other multimember decision making authorities, such as the state planning agencies represented here. The decision isn't made by one person, it is made by the group—at least that is the way it is legitimated. Sometimes, I know, if you are a member of a group, it seems like one guy has made the decision

for you. Nevertheless, everybody has a right and an obligation to take part in that decision making process. A parole board which is constantly making decisions about what they are going to do about keeping people in or letting them out, or bringing them back, is a multiheaded decision maker. One of the most interesting experiences that I have had in recent years has been sitting on the board of directors of an insurance company, which seems a little bit far afield for a person like me. But there you find the same kind of processes going on—a nine-member board, the president, the chairman, the treasurer, the vice-president, and so on . . . it's in that kind of a group that you begin to learn something that I suppose we all should know, namely, that if there are nine members in a multi-member agency, each one of them in reality does not have one-ninth of the vote. He thinks he does, theoretically he does, the law says he does; but in practice it isn't so. There are some individuals that have the power of more knowledge, or the power of a better position in the organization, or the power of a larger base of people backing them up. There are all kinds of reasons why the arbitrary division of a multiheaded decision maker into small parts will not result in equal parts. Therefore, if you are dealing with a decision making agency with a number of members, it's important to realize that they are separate but not really equal. That's the way they are counted, but it's not the way a decision is actually reached before the roll call.

Now we talked about participative management this morning a little bit, and we heard something of it in the group meetings. I don't think some participation in management can be avoided, even if an executive wants to. He is only one man and he only works a certain number of hours each week, and he has his limitations, as all people do, so that a lot of decisions are made without his concurrence or even his knowledge. On that continuum chart that was drawn here this morning, I think most of us can say that we don't belong on either end of that diagonal line; we belong somewhere in the middle, and you almost have to belong somewhere in the middle if you are going to survive. Because, as Harry Truman used to say, "The buck stops here." The buck has to stop someplace, and with all the participation that you can dream up, and all the systems of communication that you can imagine, in the end the buck stops someplace. Just by the way we organize our lives, it stops with the person or the corporate body that carries the ultimate responsibility.

Now, on the question of constraints on decision makers, I think we know what many of these are, but let us recall some of them just to keep the issues in perspective. We have the law, to begin with: the constitutional law, the statutory laws at all levels—federal, state, and local—and case law. These all place restraints and limits on what you can do and still stay inside the legal ballpark. But there are other kinds of restraints on a public official besides these. One of them is the business of superior executive authority. I have been teaching an eight-day course in correctional administration at the University of Southern California, and once I had one member who was the acting chief of police of Beverly Hills. He was telling what happened to his department's motorcycle patrol unit. They had about 15 motorcycle officers and they all decided among themselves that they were entitled to special differential pay for hazardous duty. So they found out what was going on in other police departments and they put it all together and went to see the city manager. The city manager didn't believe in motorcycle patrols anyway, and he knew that the chief wasn't too sympathetic toward it either, so he called the chief up and said, "Are those guys coming down here with your endorsement?" And the chief said, "No, sir, I didn't even know they were down there. Send them back up here." They came up, and he said, "Now, I'm going to tell you guys something. As of this moment,

this police department no longer has a motorcycle patrol squad. You can go down and report to the commander and be assigned to radio cars." Well, he made an arbitrary decision. He made a decision that he wanted to make, he made a decision that the city manager wanted to make—but a month later they still had motorcycle patrols, because the city council wanted them. There were a lot of mistakes made along the way, you see. First of all, the patrolmen shouldn't have gone to the city manager without informing the hierarchy of authority about what they were up to. In the second place, the arbitrary decision to abolish the patrol shouldn't have been made by the chief before he was quite sure that he wasn't going to get vetoed by the higher authority that hired him. We always operate in a "force field" of authority that some people would like to ignore, but if you want to survive you had better not.

Then there is another kind of field of influence which has to do with non-governmental forces which are relevant to any decisions you may wish to make. For example, I was asked a few months ago why we hadn't built new correctional institutions in California with prison labor, because they do so in another state. It was because we couldn't get away with it. Well, why not? Because the building trades council of the AFL-CIO would not only have been down my throat, they would also have been in the Governor's office; they would have been in the legislature. By political influence they would have cut off my appropriations. That's exactly the way it would have happened in California; that's the way it would happen in New York. In some states it would not happen that way, but my point is that an administrator has to understand what these other forces are and how they operate. For example, suppose you get the idea that you want to make some radical changes in your medical services. You may decide, for example, that much of this work could just as well be done by trained prisoners; but if you are wise you will find out first how the medical association feels about it, or you may end up with no doctor at all, to say nothing at all about appropriations for the program. I merely use these as examples, and I don't have to pursue the idea with this audience because you can think of fifty other kinds of influences out in the community that control, to a large extent, or have it in their power to control indirectly what a public official or agency does.

Then, of course, we are constrained if we don't know how to do something; certainly we can't decide to do something we don't know how to do. We can decide that we would like to do it and look forward to the day that we can do it, but you can't make a decision if the essential knowledge and skill are not available. Another very important constraint is the degree of predictability of the consequences of the decision. This is the place where professionals very often get very disturbed at their political superiors. Here political wisdom is as important as professional skill. You decide on a certain course of action that seems to you to be good, and you feel that it has a better than even chance of succeeding, but you don't know for sure, so you have to appraise consequences of something going wrong. That's one of the things that make people who survive in the public service very conservative. Maybe they are liberal in other respects, but they are very careful and cautious about how far and how fast they move if they want to survive. If they rush into some new program and push it too hard and too far they may end up looking for a job elsewhere.

Another area of constraint relates to the decision maker's knowledge of the facts involved in the case. Thinking about some of the things that LEAA is doing, or proposing to do, it is gratifying to hear that they are going to begin the gathering of baseline criminal justice information, statistics, if you like, not just crimes reported to the police, but all of the kinds of crime information

available to gather, to analyze, and to interpret. Very often, when called upon to solve a problem, you start asking questions that have to be answered with facts but find that the facts are not in evidence. The reason they aren't is because the agency has not been doing a systematic ongoing job of gathering them, summarizing them, analyzing them, and interpreting them.

Then, of course, the commonest constraint is just lack of money. You drive a Plymouth rather than a Cadillac for taste partly, but probably because one is cheaper than the other. You live in one kind of a house instead of another because of the cost. Money talks louder in legislative chambers than any other single constraint known to me. In legislative bodies you can very often get a program accepted as a policy matter in one committee, but when it gets to the finance committee or the ways and means committee they begin asking questions: How much is it going to cost? What are we going to get for our money? If it is going to cost so much this year, how much is it going to cost five years from now if we continue doing it? These kinds of constraints are the most obvious, and they're the easiest to measure because the measurement can be expressed in numbers. You don't have to deal in generalities when you deal with monetary costs.

Another factor which I have touched on already is technology. How much do we know about how to get a job done even if we have the money? Are the skilled people available? The development and transfer of technology through training and communication is essential. Without this, the money is only money.

Another thing we always have to have in terms of resources is time. This is particularly relevant to any program that requires testing over a period of time. For example, we might propose to carry out programs in a certain correctional establishment and we might expect to get certain results. But it may be that we can't prove it in less than five years, so we're only guessing and hoping until that time has passed. You may get some pretty good leads at the end of two years, but doubt is still there until all the results are in. Another place where time is important is in construction. Nobody ever built a correctional institution until after they had already needed it for a few years. After the need is firmly established, one must get the appropriations, then the planning must be done. Then come the construction contracts, and then you have to get the thing built. Our experience in building a score of institutions over the years shows that it takes an absolute minimum of three years and very often ten years from the time that the decision is made to build an institution to the time when people can be moved into it. To repeat, then, time is an important resource. If you don't have it, you are in trouble; alternatives must be found.

Another factor that is a constraint is the effect of a decision on future commitments. In answer to the question, "Can we finish what we start?" I have found that private foundations are particularly sensitive to this, and I assume that criminal justice planning agencies are, too. Sure, we have have money enough to start a particular program at this time and for this year. We can get it started, we can get personnel and material, we have people supporting us, and all of a sudden the money runs out and here we sit with a program that started with a bang and finished with a fizzle. So the importance of taking a look at that question when a decision is made for a certain course of action, I think, should be emphasized.

I mentioned the need to be aware of the constraints of the surrounding force field when I referred to organized labor, organized business, and all the rest of the private sector. The question to ask is, "Who will be affected by this

program, and who cares?" Most of the people don't care, one way or another, unless they are affected in some direct or indirect way.

Now, finally, on the question of influencing decisions. This is the game that most public administrators are really in, anyway. They don't appropriate the money; they only distribute it after they get it. They don't set the tax rate; the; don't make all the decisions that bring the money to them. If they want to have anything to do with these decisions, they have to influence the people who do make them. This is a subject on which somebody could write a book. I'm not going to begin at this late point in the program to elaborate on it, but I will try to bring out some factors that should be uppermost in our minds. One is that if you want to have someone make a decision in your favor, you better have some facts. The time has passed, I think, when you can appear before a legislative body or other public group and make a speech and give two or three good examples about how things are coming out the way you think they ought to come out, and get them to buy it. With individuals you can do it, but seldom with a whole group. Furthermore, more and more legislators are employing professional staff analysts who are taking a sharp look at all of these proposals, and they demand the facts. So, objective information must be at hand. If you don't have to use it, you're lucky; but you had better have it.

Then it's important to know who the interested parties are, who would be for something, and who would be against it. If you know somebody who would be for it, go around and make them aware of the way you want to try to move. And if you think there's a likelihood that somebody will be against it, don't try to surprise them; that won't get you anything, because they are going to hear about it sooner or later anyway. You'd better go and see them, tell them what you propose, and ask them what they think about it. Sometimes you'll get a pretty rough answer, but sometimes you'll get an answer like, "I don't like what you are proposing, but why don't you do this instead?" And you'll very often get alternative suggestions, which will enable you to find your way through the opposition. If you don't learn how to compromise on some things without compromising your principles, you're going to be a very frustrated person.

Another very important factor is the factor of confidence. This operates within the whole society. If a certain person believes that something is good, and other people have confidence in him, they are likely to go along with it for just one reason: Joe Doaks is for it. Conversely, if a certain person or organization is for it, others will be against it. These are the kind of things that one needs to know in order to influence the outcome of the decision. I remember standing in the back of an assembly chamber, just watching what was going on. Someone that I knew quite well came walking by me, didn't even turn his head, and said, "McGee, this bill okay?" I said, "Yeah," and he said, "I thought so, but I don't trust that damn Walter!" It was a matter of trust, that's all there was to it. He trusted me, but he distrusted Walter. These relationships that have to do with confidence and knowledge of each other are very essential.

Then, of course, there's always the question of timing. There are times when certain decisions should be delayed because the timing is wrong. There are times when certain decisions should be brought forward because the timing is right. You can think of many examples of that, I am sure.

And now, at last, we reach the meaning of my speech's title. That is, to take advantage of adversity, to turn disaster into success. If we had more time I could give you many examples of that. I will give you just one. One time a good many years ago, our parole division got into really bad trouble because

one parole agent tried to behave like a policeman. He went into a place in Southern California and arrested a bookmaker at the point of a pistol. Whereupon the assemblyman of that district, who happened to be the speaker of the assembly, asked, "What right did he have to do that? He isn't a peace officer." Well, it turned out that he was a peace officer, but that wasn't the kind of peace officer duty he was supposed to be doing. This provided an opportunity for other people in the legislature to attack the speaker because he didn't have 100 percent support. They practically adjourned the whole legislature for a matter of ten days while they held public hearings, not to pillory the parole service, but to hear the speaker of the assembly who had dared to interfere with a peace officer and to hear the others who had taken the opposite position. Most of the members of the legislature were angry and disturbed that their whole business was upset by this little thing, which was really a kind of detail. I had been trying to get training programs set up for different parts of the service. I was riding up on the elevator with a member of the ways and means committee of the assembly who was griping about what was going on. Couldn't we keep control of these parole agents? I said to him, "Doesn't this indicate to you that these guys need some training?" And he said, "You mean they don't have any training?" and I replied, "Not really." He then told me to bring an amendment in to the committee tomorrow morning and they'd put it in the budget. That's how we got the training program started. We took advantage of an embarrassing and difficult incident to get a program started that is still going after more than 20 years. If the press attacks you, you can run for cover and make all kinds of defensive answers, but remember, you have their attention. While you have their attention is the time you ought to talk to them about things that they and the public ought to know.

Now I wasn't going to close on this note, but one of my friends last night suggested that I do so, because I did once before, and he thought there was a valuable lesson or two in it. What it starts out with is that you can't make decisions, good or bad, unless you survive. If you are going to survive in the public service, there are some rules that need to be followed. Somebody has put these together in a formula, which you can take or leave. First, exploit the inevitable. Something is going to happen anyhow. See that you get credit for it. If something bad is going to happen, see that somebody else gets the credit for it. Exploit the inevitable. Second, don't perturb the parameters. That means, don't disturb one part of the system until you know how it is going to affect some other part of the system. This is the push-down and pop-up phenomenon. If you push down here, something pops up somewhere else. Don't monkey around with that unless you know what you are doing. Third, stay in with the outs, because in this system so many bad decisions are made with the ins that the outs are going to be in before too long. Finally, if you are a wise and careful public administrator, you will not permit yourself, under any circumstances, to get between a dog and a lamp post.

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