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The functions of the Institute are: (1) to conduct research in problems having significance to governmental units and agencies, especially state and local, and to publish studies based upon such research; (2) to serve as an information center for those interested in public problems; (3) to encourage and facilitate faculty and graduate student research in the social sciences; (4) to carry on a training program for both students and public officials; and (5) to furnish consultative services in the solution of public problems.

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Municipal Police Administration in Texas: A Survey

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Foreword

Within the past two decades Texas has changed from a rural to an urban state insofar as the residence of its population is concerned. A concomitant development of this urbanization has been an increase in the size and complexity of tasks performed by municipal police departments. Yet, it has been twenty-two years since the last—and only—comprehensive study of municipal police administration was made in this state. The study to which reference is made is R. Weldon Cooper's volume—Municipal Police Administration in Texas—which was published by the Bureau of Municipal Research, predecessor of the Institute of Public Affairs of The University of Texas.

To bring much of the data in the 1938 study up to date and to provide accurate information on current facilities, practices, and procedures in municipal police department, this survey has been made. It was undertaken upon the official request of the Texas Police Chiefs' Association, an affiliate of the Texas Municipal League, in the spring of 1959. In addition to requesting that the study be made, the officers of that association assisted in the design of the original questionnaire and in the determination of the specific data which would be included in the survey. In this connection, it should be pointed out that, from the outset, no attempt was made to include every conceivable facet of police administration as it is carried on in the modern Texas city. The specific data and details included were those which, in the combined judgment of the research staff and the participating chiefs of police, would be of maximum practical value in analyzing and appraising police administration in the cities of this state. Moreover, as indicated by the title of this volume, it should be emphasized that this is a survey of existing facilities, practices, and procedures without exhaustive analysis of all issues and results indicated by the statistical data. The latter was a research task far beyond the manpower and financial resources allocable to this particular project.

As indicated above, the basic data for this survey were obtained from a detailed questionnaire sent to 237 Texas cities and towns of 5,000 population and above. Follow-up questionnaires and direct correspondence were used to complete and verify the initial mailing. Detailed and usable replies were received from a total of 125 cities, including most of the medium-size and large municipalities. Some of the resulting data have been tabulated on an individual-city basis and are given in a number of appendices to this study, while all of the data has been summarized by population brackets at appropriate points in the text. All data included in this study, both in appendices and in the text, were current as of May 1, 1959.

The original planning and conduct of this survey were under the direction of Dr. Woodworth G. Thrombley, former Research Associate on the staff of this Institute. Subsequent to Dr. Thrombley's departure, Mr. Wendell M. Bedichek, Research Assistant in the Institute, was responsible for completing the study under the general supervision of the undersigned. Other staff members of the Institute who participated in an advisory capacity and who read and commented upon the final manuscript were Dr. John T. Thompson, Research Associate, and Mr. James M. Cook, Research Associate.

In addition to Institute staff members who participated in this survey, there are a number of other person whose services were indispensible to the conduct of the project and whose contribution must be recognized. First, are the police chiefs of the 125 cities who answered the detailed questionnaire and thereby provided the basic data for the study. Without their energetic and able assistance, the survey could not have been made. Second, a large share of the credit for whatever merit the study may contain must be given to a committee of the Texas Police Chiefs' Association and other municipal officials who consulted with the staff and who read and commented upon the final manuscript. The police committee serving in this role included Jess L. Cariker, Chief of Police, Odessa and President of the Texas Police Chiefs' Association; R. A. Miles, Chief of Police, Austin; R. T. Runyan, Chief of Police, Corpus Christi; George W. Bichsel, Chief of Police, San Antonio; and Duncan C. Butler, Chief of Police, Tyler. Others who read the final manuscript and made many valuable suggestions for its improvement included Mr. Clifford L. Davis, Director of Civil Service and Presonnel, City of Amarillo; Mr. Stephen J. Matthews, Executive Director, Texas Municipal League, Austin; and Mr. C. C. Crutchfield, Field Consultant, Texas Municipal League, Austin. It goes without saying, of course, that the review by each of the above-mentioned individuals does not ascribe to any of them any errors or other shortcomings which may exist in this study. The latter are appropriately a responsibility of the Institute staff.

Publication of this study is in furtherance of the Institute's assigned function of conducting factual research on subjects of significance to state and local governmental officials in Texas. In undertaking and publishing this study, neither the University nor its Institute of Public Affairs takes any official position or makes any endorsement with respect to the data, conclusions, or interpretations which are contained herein. All statements and views expressed are those of the Institute staff who accept the customary responsibility therefor.

Lynn F. Anderson Acting Director

Austin, Texas May, 1960

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Organization and Staff

The purpose of all organization is to relate the efforts and capacities of people engaged in a common task. Generally, the greater the size and complexity of the task, the more necessary it becomes to employ such concepts as specific duty assignment, allocation of responsibility, span of control, and co-ordination of effort. Thus it is with police work. In a small city, where a policeman must be versatile and perform a myriad of duties, the police chief can participate in and oversee directly the work of his department. In larger police departments, sheer size alone—plus the highly specialized nature of the work involved—makes it impossible for the chief to supervise personally all of the activities of the force. Well-established concepts of organization therefore become vital to efficient performance of police duties in all but the very smallest of municipalities.

Police departments are organized to attain the basic objective of protecting life and property, and attempt to achieve these specific goals: (1) prevention of criminality; (2) repression of crime; (3) apprehension of offenders; (4) recovery of property; and (5) regulation of noncriminal conduct. Three major tasks are performed in pursuit of these goals (with various subdivisions of each): (1) law enforcement; (2) traffic regulation; and (3) crime prevention. The detailed activities which must be performed in carrying out these tasks are usually classified into three broad categories: (1) line (or primary); (2) auxiliary (or secondary); and (3) administrative. Line functions include crime investigation, patrol, juvenile-crime control, traffic control, and vice control. Auxiliary functions include records management, property maintenance and control, communications, jail duties, laboratory services, and similar housekeeping activities. Management tasks that are involved in the administrative function are planning, direction, control, finance, personnel, training, and public relations.

¹ Municipal Police Administration (Chicago: The International City Managers' Association, 1954), p. 1.

² Benjamin Baker, *Urban Government* (Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1957), p. 457.

³ O. W. Wilson, *Police Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), pp. 22-25.

BASES OF POLICE ORGANIZATION

As is true in all kinds of organized effort, there are several bases upon which police activities and duties may be organized. These include purpose, method, clientele, time, and location.4 To a degree seldom found in other fields, however, all of these bases are used in arranging and structuring police activities into a cohensive and efficient entity. The basic line activities of a police department are, of course, organized on the basis of purpose; examples are the traffic and vice control divisions. Within the major divisional breakdown on a purpose basis, time and location bases are employed. Larger cities, for example, are divided into geographical districts for administering the patrol force, and in some cities district police stations are established. Since police work, especially that of the patrol division, is a continuous, around-the-clock operation, police departments organize on a time basis into platoons or shifts.⁵ Finally, organization of activities on the basis of process or method is recognized in the formation of centralized, auxiliary units to handle such related services as records, personnel, property management, and equipment maintenance.6

Organization of police departments into major-purpose divisions is prevalent in all large cities in the United States and has proved effective in accomplishing departmental functions. "Middle-size" departments have also benefited from allotment of responsibility and authority on a divisional basis, but there is no clear-cut rule as to how large a department must be before formal division organization becomes a necessity. In Texas, formal organization by division is much more common in the larger municipalities, although some cities in the lower population categories also have this degree of organizational refinement. A total of 32 cities in this survey (26 per cent of the respondent cities and 25.6 of the total survey sample) reported formal divisional organization and supplied pertinent details thereon, Ten of the 11 cities having 100,000 population or more use this method, as do 12 cities (48 per cent) in the 25,000-99,999 population category. In smaller municipalities, the number of cities organizing by divisions decreases rapidly. Only five cities (10 per cent) in the 10,000-24,999 population bracket have divisions, while in the smallest population group, 5,000-9,999, only five (12.8 per cent) have divisions. Details on the personnel complements on a division basis in Texas departments is presented in Appendix

STRUCTURE OF TEXAS DEPARTMENTS

To indicate the structural elements of Texas municipal police departments, an organization chart is presented in Figure 1. This simplified plan is not designed to encompass the intricacies of all police organizations in the state, but is a composite chart drawn from actual plans in several of the larger Texas cities. By using the larger cities' formal charts, the diversification of police department work is made more evident. Smaller cities, of course, do not have such complex plans, but even in those cases the general aspects of organization are often the same. For instance, the four main divisions—patrol, investigation, service, and traffic—are evident in small as well as large cities, although they may be combined in some of the smaller departments.

Since the chart in Figure 1 must necessarily be generalized and abbreviated, some terminology distinctions need to be drawn. A division is a functional unit, such as patrol or traffic, and has jurisdiction-wide coverage. The personnel of a division assigned to one shift constitute a platoon: this platoon may serve the entire city or a portion thereof. Divisions that have personnel on duty for more than one shift divide them into platoons on the basis of the hours of the day they are on duty, without regard to the number on duty or the rank of the supervising officer. The duties of some divisions call for additional specilization, and further classification of personnel is accomplished according to duty, without regard to the number on duty or the rank of the supervising officer. Functional units within a division are called bureaus or details. If further specialization within a bureau is needed, the personnel may be divided into sections or offices. Such extensive subdivision is regularly found in larger departments. In a large detective or investigation division, for instance, the personnel may be allotted to a homicide bureau, an auto-theft bureau, and so on. The traffic division may have an accident-investigation bureau and a traffic-engineering bureau. Identification, records, statistics, and property bureaus often exist.7

To simplify the presentation, the composite chart in Figure 1 deals only with functions. The personnel commanding the various divisions and subsections have also been excluded. The chief usually heads the department (a few Texas cities report a commissioner or director) and has various staff and other functions attached to his office. The nature of vice control is such that many departments deem it necessary to locate the vice officer or officers in the chief's office. However, this function is found in one city's investigation division. All cities do not have assistant chiefs of police,

⁴ Ibid., pp. 19-20.

⁵ Charles R. Adrian, Governing Urban America (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955), pp. 354-355.

⁶ Baker, op. cit., p. 457.

⁷ Wilson, op. cit., pp. 13-14.

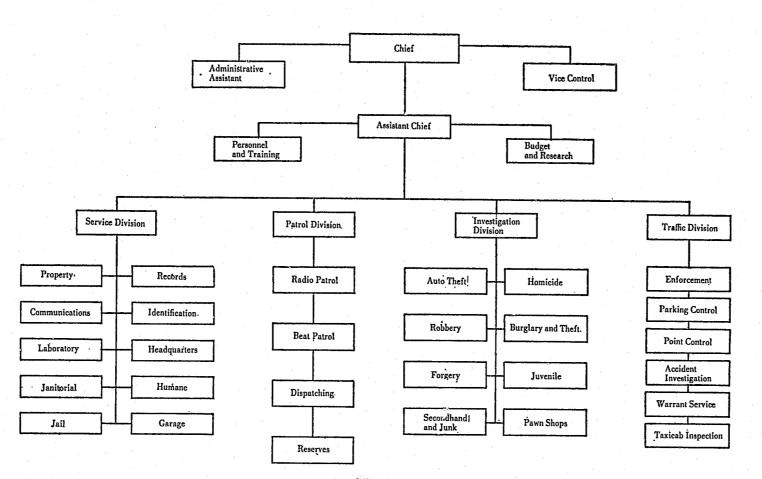


FIGURE 1
COMPOSITE ORGANIZATION CHART OF LARGE TEXAS
POLICE DEPARTMENTS

and the chain of command may run directly from the chief to the operating divisions. In the larger cities, however, the assistant chief is more often interposed between the chief and the operating divisions. In these cases, this position is often vested with responsibility for such staff matters as personnel, training, research, and financial matters as well as serving as an office of command.

5

As mentioned before, a typical police department has four major divisions—patrol, investigation (or detective), traffic, and service. The patrol division is the largest division (See Appendix C for a summary of division strength in Texas), and its function is city-wide in coverage and constant in nature. The patrol division is concerned with eliminating opportunities or desires for misconduct, apprehending offenders, investigating offenses, recovering lost or stolen property, aiding lost or distressed persons, and performing numerous other tasks.⁸ Internal functions within the patrol division are relatively few and usually consist of patrol units (both radio and beat), the dispatching of patrolmen, and location of reserve police officers. In some cases, reserves are placed in other operating divisions; i.e., the traffic division may have its own reserve and relief officers.

Work of the investigation division consists of the gathering of evidence relating to serious crimes and the apprehension of those committing them. This division works with and supervises other department members in dealing with such crimes, except in those types of cases which are assigned by department regulation to such special units as the traffic, vice, and juvenile squads. Its subdivisions normally include separate units for robbery, juvenile, homicide, forgery, auto theft, and certain "inspection" tasks, such as pawnshop and secondhand store control. Within this general pattern, there are minor variations from city to city. In one Texas city, for example, juvenile work is situated in the service division, while in another it is under the direct supervision of the assistant chief.

The traffic division is the largest major unit in terms of volume of work. This division deals with the general public in performing three primary functions: (1) accident investigations, (2) traffic direction, and (3) traffic law enforcement.¹⁰ In addition to these three functions, the traffic division is responsible for parking and point control, warrant issuance, and taxicab inspection.

The service division is a unit made up of several auxiliary or secondary services, such as communications, records management, jail duties, janitorial

⁸ Adrian, op. cit., p. 355.

⁹ Wilson, op. cit., p. 115.

¹⁰ Municipal Police Administration, p. 340.

work, laboratory duties, and identification. While these activities generally are—and should be—placed together in one division, in the interests of specialization and efficiency, there are instances in which such services are decentralized. For example, identification work appears in the investigation division of one municipality; jail custody is located in the patrol division in another; records control and laboratory work are placed in the investigation division of one department; and communications appears in the patrol division of one city and in a traffic division of another.

In addition to the composite organization chart in Figure 1, three actual organization plans are shown in Appendix A. These charts, illustrating the organization of the Houston, Waco, and Sweetwater police departments, picture the typical approaches to the problem of organizing police activities in a large, medium-size, and small Texas city, respectively.

DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES

Police department employees have many titles, ranks, and classifications. One basic classification which is frequently found and which is employed in this survey differentiates between police officers and civilian employees. A police officer is described as a member of the force who has taken the oath of office, is authorized to make arrests, and is charged with law-enforcement responsibilities. The term is applied without regard to sex, rank, division, or duty. A civilian employee is a member of the force who has not taken the oath of office and is not authorized to make arrests.¹¹

Another classification is based upon dress—the uniformed force and the plain-clothesmen. The former is popularly referred to as the "police" and the latter the "detectives." This distinction is misleading, however, because many services, especially those of a fiscal and clerical nature, are performed by non-uniform police officers. ¹² Moreover, many police chiefs, assistant chiefs, and other top departmental administrators who are police officers do not always dress in uniform.

The police chief usually heads the department and is charged with overall responsibility. Below this top post, police personnel fall into a general order of rank, although duty and terminology vary in the state. Especially in larger cities, assistant chiefs, deputy chiefs, and night chiefs share some of the top administrative responsibility valieh may be discharged either by staff assistance or by line command.

As an agent of the police chief, the inspector's duties cover many aspects of police work. His job concerns personnel, procedures, materials, and results of police operations; he seeks to improve the quality of supervision and inspection by operating personnel; and he deals with public relations and police morale matters. 13

Captains and lieutenants constitute the second intermediate level of command. In many departments the captains command divisions; in others, captains perform staff duties, have command of shifts, or serve under inspectors or deputy chiefs in large departments. Lieutenants rank immediately under captains and often command platoons or shifts. Sergeants are the direct supervisors, assigning and controlling the activities of patrolmen assigned to beats in the various areas of police service. Detectives, operating in the investigation or detective division, are charged with the responsibility of clearing up crime by arresting the perpetrators, recovering stolen property, and supervising investigations by patrolmen. They are the "plain-clothesmen." 15

The key role of the patrolman involves observation, provision of miscellaneous field services (aid to citizens in distress, assistance to other departments), investigation on patrol, disposition of minor complaints, preservation of physical evidence, arrest of offenders, preparation of reports, and testimony in court. 16 Many cities employ policewomen and have found them quite useful, especially in certain types of work such as juvenile problems and investigation of particular crimes. Women employees are also assigned to duty as parking meter attendants (see later section of this chapter) and as matrons (those employed primarily as jail personnel). The dispatcher locates and assigns police units by radio to specific assignments and location throughout the city, and thereby performs a service used by operating units in controlling members of the force. 17 Many cities use juvenile officers, safety patrol personnel and school crossing guards, and chemists, toxicologists, radio technicians, and photographers are types of personnel employed by departments for specialized work. Civilian employees perform many types of duties of a fiscal and clerical nature.

A total of 6,872 police department employees is included in this survey, with complete information appearing in Appendix A. The importance of the patrol function is indictated by the fact that 3,761 of the total number of police department employees are patrolmen. This is 63.1 per cent of the policemen surveyed and 54.7 per cent of the total number of employees. The relationship of patrolmen to total personnel and total number of policemen by population brackets is as follows:¹⁸

¹¹ Wilson, op. cit., p. 16.

¹² Baker, op. cit., p. 460.

¹³ Wilson, op. cit., p. 74.

¹⁴ Municipal Police Administration, p. 277.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 306.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 256–269.

¹⁷ Wilson, op. cit., p. 51.

¹⁸ For purposes of analysis and comparison, the population categories shown here are

Population Bracket	Patrolmen as Per Cent of Total Personnel	Patrolmen as Per Cent of Policemen	
1 (350,000 and over)	54.3	65.4	
2 (100,000–349,999)	54.5	60.6	
3 (25,000–99,999)	59.8	63.2	
4 (10,000–24,999)	53.5	59.3	
5 (5,000–9,999)	46.1	53.3	

Civilian employees make up the second largest category of police department employees in the state, with 13.2 per cent of the total number of surveyed employees coming in this class.

DUTY ASSIGNMENTS OF POLICE OFFICERS

Whether operating under formal organization or not, departments perform a wide range of tasks. The police officer is called upon to be versatile even though departmental work is specialized. This survey covers 15 types of duties performed in Texas police departments; however, variation exists in duty description and definition from department to department.

Texas cities generally do not use police officers in auxiliary and administrative duties. Questionnaire returns show a majority of cities reporting employ police officers either full- or part-time in four capacities: serving warrants (88.4 per cent of cities reporting); meter checking (80 per cent); radio dispatching (69 per cent); and serving as photography personnel (52.6 per cent). The remaining eleven duty categories are assigned to police officers in less than half of the surveyed cities, the exact percentage of cities being as follows: inspection of taverns, trailer courts, etc., 48.7 per cent; jail guard, 42.2 per cent; record or administrative clerk, 41.5 per cent; dog catcher or dog pound personnel, 39 per cent; vehicle pound personnel, 24.6 per cent; park police, 21.9 per cent; custodian, 12.2 per cent; laboratory technician, 12.2 per cent; radio technician, 6.9 per cent; PBX operator, 4.6 per cent; and mechanic, 3.4 per cent. A detailed breakdown of police officer duties by population groups is given in Table 1.

DUTY ASSIGNMENT OF CIVILIAN EMPLOYEES

Civilian personnel are also employed in many ways, especially in clerical and office work. On the basis of questionnaire returns, the majority of Texas police organizations do not use civilian employees on a full- or parttime basis in auxiliary or administrative duties. The highest percentage of

used consistently throughout this study. In the interest of brevity, many subsequent references will be to bracket numbers only.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS EMPLOYING POLICE OFFICERS IN AUXILIARY AND ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES (EITHER FULL- OR PART-TIME) by Population Bracket

	Number of Police Departments by Population Bracket							
Type of Duty	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100m- 349m	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5m- 9m	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting	
Meter checker	4(4)*	3(7)	21 (25)	39(48)	29(36)	96(120)	80.0	
Jail guard	3(4)	7(7)	14(25)	17(48)	8(32)	49(116)	42.2	
Dog catcher or dog pound personnel	1(4)	0(7)	5(24)	14(48)	26(35)	46(118)	39.0	
Park police	0(4)	0(6)	5(24)	9(48)	11(32)	25(114)	21.9	
Warrant server	3(4)	5(7)	23(24)	42(49)	34(37)	107(121)	88.4	
Radio dispatcher	4(4)	7(7)	22(25)	35(47)	12(33)	80(116)	69.0	
PBX operator	0(3)	0(5)	4(25)	1(44)	0(33)	5(110)	4.6	
Radio technician	1(4)	2(7)	3(25)	2(47)	0(33)	8(116)	6.9	
Record or administrative clerk	1(4)	3(7)	11(25)	23(48)	11 (34)	49(118)	41.5	
Mechanic	0(4)	-0(7)	1(25)	1(48)	2(33)	4(117)	3.4	
Lab technician	4(4)	2(7)	2(25)	4(46)	2(33)	14(115)	12.2	
Photo personnel	3(4)	6(6)	19(25)	21(47)	12(34)	61 (116)	52.6	
Vehicle pound personnel	2(4)	1(7)	4(25)	10(47)	12(35)	29(118)	24.6	
Inspector of taverns, trailer courts, etc.	3(4)	7(7)	15(25)	16(47)	17(36)	58(119)	48.7	
Custodian	2(4)	0(7)	5(25)	2(46)	5 (33)	14(115)	12.2	

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

cities reporting use of civilian personnel for a particular duty is in the record or administrative clerk category (46.2 per cent). Radio dispatching by civilian employees is used by 41.7 per cent of the cities. The remaining thirteen categories show the following percentages of either full- or part-time use of civilian employees: dog catcher or dog pound personnel, 33.6 per cent; custodian, 21.6 per cent; radio technician, 18.6 per cent; mechanic, 15.3 per cent; PBX operator, 12.5 per cent; jail guard, 12.0 per cent; meter checker, 11.8 per cent; vehicle pound personnel, 11.4 per cent; photography personnel, 9.6 per cent; warrant server, 8.4 per cent; inspector of taverns, trailer courts, etc., 7.6 per cent; park police, 6.9 per cent; and laboratory technician, 1.7 per cent. Detailed information on civilian employment in Texas departments is found in Table 2.

SIZE OF POLICE DEPARTMENTS

As would be normally anticipated, most of the 6,872 police department employees covered by this survey are found in a small number of the larger cities. In fact, more than one-half of the state-wide total is found in the four cities having populations exceeding 350,000. These four cities employed 3,668 persons, or 53.4 per cent of the total surveyed. Houston, with 1,314 police department employees, had the largest personnel complement of any city in the state as well as in its own population category. Cities in population bracket 2 had a total of 1,288 employees, or 18.7 per cent of the state-wide total. Among smaller municipalities the distribution was as follows: bracket 3, 979 employees (14.3 per cent); bracket 4, 694 (10.1 per cent); and bracket 5, 243 employess (3.5 per cent). Hondo and Luling have the smallest departments in the state, each reporting only one employee—the police chief. For further information as to police department employees by bracket and city, consult Appendix B and Table 3.

Generally, the size of the police department rises as population increases, but this is not true in every instance. For example, in the 5,000–9,999 population category, Luling has 5,209 population and Gladewater has a population of 5,305. Although only 96 apart in population, these two cities have the extreme figures in the state for both the number of department employees per 5,000 population and the number of policemen (non-civilian employees) per 5,000 population. Luling has one department employee and policeman for 5,000 population while Gladewater, with 13 department employees and the same number of policemen, has 12.3 employees and policemen for 5,000 population. The average¹⁹ number of total employees

¹⁹ Unless otherwise indicated, the "average" used here and elsewhere in this study is the arithmetic mean.

Table 2

NUMBER OF TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS EMPLOYING CIVILIAN PERSONNEL* IN AUXILIARY AND ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES (EITHER FULL- OR PART-TIME) By Population Bracket

	Number of Police Departments by Population Bracket							
The season of Design	(1) 350m	(2) 100M-	(3) 25 _M -	(4) 10м-	(5) 5m-	т 1	Per Cent of Total	
Type of Duty	and over	349м	99м	24м	9м	Total	Reporting	
Meter checker	0(4)**	0(7)	5(24)	6(48)	3 (36)	14(119)	11.8	
Jail guard	1(4)	1(7)	2(24)	6(49)	4(33)	14(1176	12.0	
Dog catcher or dog pound personnel	1(4)	5(7)	7(24)	14(49)	14(38)	41 (122)	33.6	
Park police	0(4)	0(7)	0(24)	5 (48)	3(33)	8(116)	6.9	
Warrant server	1(4)	0(7)	2(24)	5(49)	2(35)	10(119)	8.4	
Radio dispatcher	1(4)	0(7)	7(25)	25(49)	17(35)	50(120)	41.7	
PBX operator	1(4)	4(7)	4(23)	4(47)	1(31)	14(112)	12.5	
Radio technician	1(4)	2(6)	7(24)	5(45)	6(34)	21(113)	18.6	
Record or administrative clerk	4(4)	5(7)	18(25)	16(48)	12(35)	55 (119)	46.2	
Mechanic	3(4)	1(7)	2(24)	6(49)	6(34)	18(118)	15.2	
Lab technician	1(4)	0(7)	0(23)	0(48)	1(34)	2(116)	1.7	
Photo personnel	1(4)	1(7)	3(25)	4(46)	2(35)	11(117)	9.4	
Vehicle pound personnel	2(4)	1(7)	2(24)	5(48)	2(34)	12(117)	11.4	
Inspector of taverns, trailer courts, etc.	1(4)	0(7)	0(24)	4(49)	4(34)	9(118)	7.6	
Custodian	1(4)	3(7)	8(23)	4(48)	9(34)	25(116)	21.5	

^{*} Civilian personnel includes police department employees who have not taken the oath of office and are not authorized to make arrests.

rests.

** The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

TABLE 3

SELECTED STATISTICS ON POLICE DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES AND POLICEMEN IN TEXAS CITIES BY POPULATION BRACKET AND CITY

		Number by P				
(1) 350m Item and over	(2) 100m- 349m	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10m- 24m	(5) 5m- 9m		Total
and over	O E O III		ZTM	7 111		
Cities reporting4	7	25	50	39		125
Total number of employees3,668	1,288	979	694	243		6,872
Percentage of total53.4	18.7	14.3	10.1	3.5		100.0
Total number of policemen3,043	1,159	926	626	210		5,964
Percentage of total51.0	19.4	15.6	10.5	3.5		100.0
Largest number of department						
employees	306 (Austin)	102 (Odessa)	24 (Greenville,	15 (Hereford)		

.

Largest number of policemen	1,025 (Houston)	248 (Austin)	95 (Odessa)	Lufkin, Snyder) 24 (Greenville,	13 (Gladewater)
Smallest number of department				Lufkin, Snyder)	
employees	578 (Fort Worth)	102 (Wichita Falls)	10 (Baytown)	4 (Nederland)	1 (Hondo,
Smallest number of policemen	527 (Fort Worth)	100 (Wichita Falls)	8 (Baytown)	4 (Nederland)	Luling) 1 (Hondo,
Mean number of total employees*	917.0	184.0	39.2	13.9	Luling) 6.2
Mean number of policemen	760.7	165.6	37.0	12.5	5.4
Median number of total employees**	888.0	177.0	38.0	13.5	6.5
Median number of policemen	745.6	159.0	29.0	13.5	6.0

^{*} The mean indicated here is the arithmetic mean, referred to in the text of this study as the "average". It is obtained by adding all the variables and dividing the sum by the number of variables. For example, the mean of the numbers 14, 18, 22, 26, and 40 is 24.

** The median is the middle position in an array of variables; i.e., 50 per cent of the variables above the median number and 50 per cent below. For example, the median of the numbers 14, 18, 22, 26, and 40 is 22.

per 5,000 population decreases steadily from bracket 1 to bracket 5, with one exception—the average for bracket 3 is 4.7 employees per 5,000 population and the average for bracket 4 is 4.8. The arithmetic means for brackets 3, 4, and 5 are quite close together, indicating that both population and department size decrease rather uniformly. In the highest population bracket, 350,000 and over, the over-all spread between the largest and smallest employee-per-5,000 population figures is much less than in the other groupings.

The situation with respect to the number of policemen per 5,000 population closely parallels that for total personnel of the department. Bracket 1 has the highest average number of policemen per population with a 6.0 mark, and this figure decreases steadily from bracket 1 to bracket 5. The averages for brackets 3, 4, and 5 are quite close together, again indicating a fairly close relationship between the decrease in population and the decrease in number of policemen. The least variance between the high and low figures occurs in bracket 2.

The detailed data on department size and number of policemen per population contained in Appendix D and summarized in Table 4 illustrate the fact that, while population is a fairly useful guide, the number of policemen and total employees in a particular police department is the result of many influences. These include such diverse factors as: composition and character of the city population, geography, public attitudes, incidence of activity requiring police attention, the city's financial base and condition, and the location of the county seat. With regard to the latter influence, departments in small cities which are not county seats have more policemen and total employees for the same population than do departments located in county seats.20 In the 5,000-9,999 grouping, the average number of policemen in non-county seat departments is 4.1 per 5,000 population, while the average for county seat departments is 3.8. Non-county seat cities in this bracket have an average of 4.7 department employees per 5,000 population, while county seat cities have an average of 4.5. In both categories, the average for non-county seat departments is higher than the over-all bracket average, and would indicate that cities which are county seats rely upon the complementary law enforcement work of the sheriff's department more than do cities which are not county seats.

PATROLMEN AND PATROL AREA

The patrol function is organized geographically. Patrolmen, on foot or motorized, have certain areas assigned to them for coverage. A route is a

²⁰ Of the 125 Texas cities in this survey, 79 are county seats.

TABLE 4

POLICE DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES AND POLICEMEN PER 5,000 POPULATION IN TEXAS CITIES
By Population Bracket

			· 						
	Number per 5,000 Population by Population Bracket								
Item	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25m- 99m	(4) 10m- 24m	(5) 5м- 9м				
Greatest number of									
department employees	8.4	7.8	7.1	0.8	12.3				
	(Dallas)	(Austin)	(Big Spring)	(Highland Park)	(Gladewater)				
Greatest number of									
policemen	7.1	6.3	6.7	8.0	12.3				
	(Dallas)	(Austin)	(Big Spring)	(Highland Park)	(Gladewater)				
Smallest number of									
department employees	5.6 (San Antonio)	4.0 (El Paso)	1.7 (Baytown)	2.0 (Nederland)	1.0 (Luling)				
Smallest number of									
policemen	4.6	4.0	1.3	2.0	1.0				
	(San Antonio)	(El Paso)	(Baytown)	(Nederland)	(Luling)				
Mean number of									
department employees Mean number of	7.1	5.4	4.7	4.8	4.6				
policemen	6.0	4.9	4.4	4.3	4.0				
Median number of department employees	7.2	5.0	4.5	4.9	4.7				
Median number of									
policemen	6.1	4.5	4.3	4.2	3.6				

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length of street, or streets, designated for patrol purposes; a beat is an area (in contrast to a length of street) assigned for the same purpose. The beat is used almost exclusively for foot and motorized patrol assignments. A sector is an area containing two or more beats, routes, or posts (a fixed point or location to which an officer is assigned for duty).²¹

Detailed data on the number of patrolmen and area in Texas cities are found in Appendix E, and a summary is given in Table 5. The area patrolled by one officer ranges from 0.16 square mile in Highland Park to 18 square miles in Nederland. The average area per police patrolman extends from 0.47 square mile in bracket 1 to 1.46 square miles in bracket 5. The averages for the first three population brackets are close together (ranging from 0.47 to 0.68 square mile) and the averages for brackets 4 and 5 show marked similarity (1.23 and 1.46 square miles). As in the case of police employees and population, the spread between the extremes in area per patrolman is much less in bracket 1 than in other groups. The difference between the extremes in the first population group is only 0.13 square mile, whereas this variance in the other brackets extends up to 17.84 square miles.

Although computations of patrol areas provide a more realistic basis for evaluating patrol strengths of police departments than mere numbers of patrolmen, care and caution must nevertheless be exercised in making particular inter-city or inter-group comparisons. The total area of a city as well as its economic and physical characteristics necessitate and justify different patrol forces even among cities of the same geographical area. Other factors being equal, a city with large sections of vacant or sparsely settled land, for example, would not require the same amount of patrol as another of the same total area whose settlement was more dense and uniform.

Despite these inherent limitations, it is interesting to note that there is a positive correlation between the number of policemen and police department employees in terms of city population and patrol area per patrolman for several cities in this survey. El Paso, Baytown, and Nederland, for example, each have the lowest number of policemen and departmental employees per 5,000 population in their respective population brackets, and they also have the largest patrol area per patrolman. On the other hand, Highland Park has the greatest number of policemen and departmental employees per 5,000 population and the smallest patrol area per patrolman in its population bracket. Other examples of similarity in these two indexes of personnel strength are Dallas, which has the largest number of policemen and police employees per population and the second smallest patrol

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

TABLE 5

SQUARE MILES OF PATROL AREA PER POLICE PATROLMAN IN TEXAS CITIES

By Population Bracket

	Square Miles by Population Bracket							
Area	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м– 9м	Total		
Cities reporting	4	7	20	38	24	93		
Largest area	0.53 (Houston)	0.85 (El Paso)	15.00 (Baytown)	18.00 (Nederland)	10.00 (La Porte)			
Smallest area	0.40 (Fort Worth)	0.23 (Wichita Falls)	0.25 (Odessa)	0.16 (Highland Park)	0.29 (Breckenridge)			
Mean area	0.47	0.50	0.68	1.23	1.46			
Median area	0.46	0.44	0.50	0.83	1.25			

area per patrolman in bracket 1, and Lubbock, which has the second highest number of policemen and departmental employees per population and the second smallest patrol area per patrolman in bracket 2.

ONE- AND TWO-MAN PATROL CARS

In large cities, foot patrolmen are still used in inspection, security, and other patrol tasks, but auto patrol has rapidly gained favor in cities of all sizes. Over a long period of time there has been much discussion as to whether one man or two men are advisable in patrol cars. Recently the trend has favored one-man patrol cars rather than the two-man method.²² Many cities use both practices. A recent national survey showed that 58.8 per cent of all reporting cities (1,129 of 10,000 population and over in the United States) use both methods; 29.1 per cent use one-man cars exclusively; and 13.1 per cent use two men exclusively.²³

In Texas (See Table 6), one-man patrol cars predominate and have been used consistently by some Texas cities for more than two decades. Over half the cities, 55.3 per cent of those reporting, use this system exclusively. Some 30.1 per cent use both one- and two-man cars, and 14.6 per cent use two-man cars exclusively. Many cities which use both methods employ one-man cars in the daytime hours and two-man patrol cars during the night.

PATROL AND SUB-DISTRICTS

To facilitate police work, patrol districts are often set up. Less frequently, sub-districts with sub-stations are used. About one-fourth of the cities reporting, or 29 of 115, indicated a division of their municipalities into patrol districts. All of the cities of 100,000 population and over report this practice. Only three out of 123 reporting cities having sub-districts and sub-stations—Dallas, Orange, and White Settlement. Houston reported that plans were underway for four sub-stations and that bond money was available for their construction.

SPAN OF CONTROL

Replies to the question "What subordinate personnel report directly to the chief?" give some indication of the general pattern of span of control in Texas police departments. In bracket 1, four subordinate personnel on the

²² Austin F. Macdonald, American City Government and Administration (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1956), p. 475.

²³ The Municipal Year Book 1959 (Chicago: The International City Managers' Association, 1959), p. 413.

TABLE 6

ONE- AND TWO-MAN PATROL CARS IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

	Number of Cities by Population Bracket								
Type of Patrol Car	(1) 350M and over	(2) 100м- 349м	2	(3) 5м– 9м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting	
Total reporting	. 4	7		25	49	38	123	100.0	
One-man exclusively	_ 1	3		10	26	28	68	55.3	
Two-man exclusively	. 0	0		3	7.	8	18	14.6	
Both one- and two-man	. 3	4		12	16	2	37	30.1	

average report directly to the chief. The figure is slightly higher in bracket 2 (approximately 4.5) and reaches a peak in bracket 3 (13.0 persons). The average number of personnel reporting directly to the Chief of Police in bracket 4 is 10 and the average in bracket 5 is 4.6. The city with the largest span of control is Tyler, where the entire departmental force of 56 persons reports directly to the police chief. At the other extreme, only one subordinate reports to the chief in Abilene, Brownsville, Copperas Cove, Lampasas, Slaton, and Taft.

PARKING METER ATTENDANTS

Enforcement of parking regulations requires the full-time attention of police officers in many Texas cities, and traditionally this function has been performed by male police officers. In recent years, however, the necessity of employing male officers in police duties which only they can perform has caused many cities to use women employees to check parking meters in downtown locations. These women, popularly referred to as "Parkettes," "Parkadettes," and similarly distinctive titles, regularly patrol downtown parking meters and issue violation tickets to overtime parkers. They also provide related services to the general public such as making change for parkers and assisting pedestrians.

In Texas about one-fifth of the cities assign women as parking meter attendants. Of the 25 cities which employ women in this capacity, 12 replied that they commission female meter attendants as police personnel. The remaining 13 do not. In cases where female meter attendants are not commissioned, they are assigned to other administrative departments of the city government such as traffic engineering or public works.

Expenditures and Compensation

In common with all municipal functions, police expenditures vary from one municipality to another and tend to increase as the size of the city increases. Except for the relatively few cities of like size, however, actual dollar amounts do not provide a satisfactory basis for evaluating the financial aspects of police administration in a large group of cities. Size differences must be eliminated before accurate and meaningful comparisons can be made between individual cities or groups of cities, and this is best accomplished by the derivation of per capita expenditure figures. The per capita figures computed in this survey are based on annual budgeted expenditures for the 1958–59 fiscal year as submitted on questionnaire returns and as found in budget documents of the respective cities.

PER CAPITA EXPENDITURES

Based on questionnaire returns from 98 Texas cities, there is a wide range in annual police expenditures on a per capita basis. From a high of \$8.87 in Dallas, per capita expenditures for police purposes range downward to a low of \$1.12 in Lockhart. The state-wide average is \$5.31 annually. As indicated in Table 7, the average annual expenditure varies from \$7.70 in the largest population bracket to \$3.25 in the smallest. The range between high and low per capita amounts is much less in the larger population categories than in the smaller ones, and a remarkable feature of such costs is the narrow spread between the highest amounts in each population category. Except for the second population category wherein Austin's expenditure is much lower, the highest per capita cost in the smallest population bracket (Deer Park) varies from that in the largest group (Dallas) by only 10 per cent.

Of equal, if not greater, importance than per capita police expenditures per se is the relationship of such expenditures to total operating expenditures of the municipality. This is given on a per capita basis for 17 Texas cities for which complete budgets were available in Table 8. From this table it will be noted that there is a positive correlation between the size of total budgets and the size of police department expenditures. Generally speaking, the cities with higher per capita expenditures for all municipal

TABLE 7

ANNUAL BUDGETED POLICE DEPARTMENT EXPENDITURES PER CAPITA IN TEXAS CITIES FOR 1958–1959 FISCAL YEAR

	Per Capita Amount by Population Bracket									
Expenditure	(1) 350m and over	('2) 100м— 349м	(3) 25m- 99 _M	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total				
Total reporting	4	6	22	36	30	98				
Highest per capita	\$8.87 (Dallas)	\$6.14 (Austin)	\$8.05 (Big Spring)	\$8.62 (Highland Park)	\$8.01 (Deer Park)					
Lowest per capita	5.85 (San Antonio)	4.18 (Wichita Falls)	3.16 (Denison)	2.23 (San Benito)	1.12 (Lockhart)					
Mean per capita	7.70	5.3 1	5.28	4.99	3.25					
Median per capita	7.70	5.59	5.02	4.72	3.21					

TRATION IN TEXA

TABLE 8

ANNUAL POLICE DEPARTMENT AND OVERALL MUNICIPAL PER CAPITA EXPENDITURES BUDGETED IN 1958–1959 FISCAL YEAR FOR 17 TEXAS CITIES*

City and Bracket	Per Capita Police Expenditures	Per Capita Total Expenditures	Percentage Police Expenditures of Total
Dallas (1)	\$8.87	\$72.03	12.32
Houston (1)		61.74	12.28
Fort Worth (1)	7.21	48.16	14.97
Austin (2)	6.14	51.09	12.02
Port Arthur (2)	6.03	39.18	15.39
Garland (3)	5.94	34.32	17.31
San Antonio (1)	5.85	35:25	16.60
Baytown (3)	 5.50	41.20	13.35
Tyler (3)		40.01	13.67
Amarillo (2)		48.89	10.37
Denton (3)	4.9 5	29.82	16.60
Corpus Christi (2)	 4 . 91	31.75	15.46
Harlingen (3)	4.01	26.10	15.36
Taylor (5)	The state of the s	22.15	18.05
San Marcos (4)		20.24	17.00
Beeville (4)	3.24	19.26	16.82
Denison (3)		22.22	14.25

^{*} Based on questionnaire returns and annual budgets. Excludes utility funds and capital outlay.

purposes have higher expenditures for the police function. In bracket 1, for example, Dallas, Houston, Fort Worth, and San Antonio rank in that order with respect to total per capita expenditures and per capita expenditures for police. Although total per capita expenditures vary from a high of \$72.03 in Dallas to a low of \$19.26 in Beeville, police department budgets take a remarkably uniform share of total municipal financial resources for the 17 cities shown in Table 8. For the group as a whole, police department budgets represent 15 per cent of total budgets on the average. And, with the exception of Amarillo's figure which is on the low side, the percentages for individual cities cluster within a relatively narrow range around this average.

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SALARY OF POLICE CHIEFS

As would be expected, questionnaire returns showed that the highest salaries in police departments are paid the chief of the organization. The highest salaries are paid the chiefs of the largest cities, the average monthly salary being \$943 in cities of 350,000 population and above. The monthly average decreases steadily along with population to an average of \$356 in the 5,000–9,999 bracket cities. The greatest difference in the average salaries is between bracket 1 and bracket 2—\$251 monthly. The difference decreases along with population. Dallas pays the highest police chief salary in the state, \$1,126 monthly, and Hillsboro the lowest, \$260 monthly. Further information on Texas police chief salaries may be found in Table 9.

COMPENSATION OF PATROLMEN

A wide range of salaries also exists in compensation of patrolmen in Texas. As in the case of police chief salaries, replies indicated that the highest average monthly salary for patrolmen is in the 350,000 population and over group; thereafter, it declines steadily along with population to the lowest in the 5,000–9,999 bracket. The ranges for patrolman compensation are: average beginning monthly salary of \$339 and average maximum of \$379 in bracket 1; average beginning salary of \$251 and average maximum of \$287 in bracket 5. The greatest difference between population group

Table 9

MONTHLY POLICE CHIEF SALARIES IN TEXAS CITIES

By Population Bracket

	Amount by Population Bracket									
Salary	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25m- 99m	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м					
Cities reporting	4	7	22	48	39					
Highest	\$1,126	\$970	\$875	\$575	\$460					
	(Dallas)	(El Paso)	(Odessa)	(West	(Clute)					
				University						
				Place)						
Lowest	725	575	350	300	260					
	(San Antonio)	(Wichita Falls)	(Texarkana)	(Mineral Wells	(Hillsboro)					
				Raymondville)						
Mean	943	692	538	438	356					
Median	960	675	525	412	355					

averages is that between bracket 1 and bracket 2 for both beginning and maximum monthly patrolmen salaries—\$25 for beginning salaries and \$37 for maximum pay. Houston has the highest beginning salary in the state, \$370 monthly; El Paso has the highest maximum rate in Texas, \$435 monthly; and Lampasas has the lowest beginning and top salaries, \$175 monthly. Table 10 contains further information about patrolman compensation in Texas.

PROMOTION STEPS AND LONGEVITY PAY

Historically, a flat pay rate has often been the case for patrolmen. The flat rate system facilitates recruiting, because the salaries under a flat rate plan are usually higher than the minimum rate of ranged pay scales. On the whole, however, the flat pay rate has been judged unsatisfactory in the light of more modern concepts of personnel administration, and

TABLE 10

MONTHLY SALARIES OF POLICE PATROLMEN IN TEXAS CITIES

By Population Bracket

·	Monthly Amount by Population Bracket									
Salary	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25 _M - 99 _M	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м					
Cities reporting	4	7	25	47	36					
Beginning										
High	\$370	\$351	\$350*	\$350	\$350					
	(Houston)	(El Paso)		(Galena Park)	(Deer Park)					
Low	310	300**	207	180†	175					
	(Dallas)		(Corsicana)		(Lampasas)					
Mean	339	314	293	272	251					
Maximum										
High	405	435	400	416	400					
	(Houston)	(El Paso)	(Texas City)	(La Marque)	(Deer Park)					
Low	360††	300	247	200	175					
		(Wichita Falls)	(Corsicana)	(Eagle Pass)						
Mean	379	342	324	311	287					

^{*} Odessa and Texas City.

¹ Municipal Police Administration, p. 141.

^{**} Amarillo, Lubbock, Waco, and Wichita Falls.
† Eagle Pass and Sulphur Springs

^{††} Fort Worth and San Antonio.

Texas departments have gone far in abandoning this concept. Out of 109 cities replying, a total of 85 reported that promotion steps are provided for patrolmen. This is 78 per cent of the sample, and is composed of four cities in bracket 1, six in bracket 2, 20 in bracket 3, 36 in bracket 4, and 19 in bracket 5. Generally, the 350,000-plus population bracket has more pay steps for patrolmen than the other groups, followed by brackets 4, 3, 5, and 2 in that order. Dallas, with seven, has the most steps of any city in the state.

One hundred and twenty-two returns showed that few cities in Texas give police substantial longevity pay (an increment based exclusively on tenure). In answer to the query, "Does your city pay police more than \$2.00 per month longevity pay?", eight cities answered "yes." This is only 6.6 per cent of the number replying to the question.

III

Personnel Administration

Effective management of personnel is essential to successful accomplishment of both public and private activities of all kinds. A recent textbook on public administration states that

Personnel administration, since it deals with human beings and how they are motivated, is the means by which organization is energized in order to attain its objectives.... In a strict sense, personnel administration consists of the administrative procedures by which employees are hired, dealt with in their employment relationship, and replaced.¹

In a larger sense, modern personnel administration is concerned with gaining general recognition and acceptance of the merit principle in public employment. The extent to which personnel administration is successful in obtaining the properly trained person, motivating him, and giving him the incentive to make public employment his career largely determines the level of effectiveness of municipal government.²

As one component of municipal government, the police function would be encompassed within these general definitions and objectives. Yet, the very nature of police work is such that all aspects of personnel administration must be geared to the all-important concept of loyalty to the public service. This has been noted by one authoritative work in the following language:

The widest purpose of sound personnel administration, so far as the police are concerned, is to establish and maintain for the public service a competent, well-trained police force under such conditions of work that this force is completely loyal to the interests of the government at all times.³

CIVIL SERVICE

The term "civil service" usually refers to civilian employees in government, and in practice is often used interchangeably with the term "merit

¹ M. E. Dimock, G. O. Dimock, and L. W. Koenig, *Public Administration* (Revised ed.; New York: Rinehart & Company, 1958), p. 277.

² Baker, op. cit., pp. 395, 397.

³ Municipal Police Administration, p. 135.

system" (a method of selecting government employees).⁴ State legislation in Texas authorizes municipalities of 10,000 population or more to adopt civil service for policemen on a local option basis. Unless a city had adopted such civil service before the effective date of the 1957 amendments, an election must be held at which the adoption or rejection of state civil service is determined. Upon receiving a petition signed by at least 10 per cent of the total number voting in the last preceding municipal election, the city's governing body must call an election within sixty days after the petition has been filed. If a majority of those voting approves civil service adoption, the state act must be put into effect not later than thirty days after the beginning of the first fiscal year after the election.⁵ Home rule cities may also adopt *local civil* service systems on legal authority contained in their own charters.

The State Firemen's and Policemen's Civil Service Act provides for the following:

- 1. Outlines the machinery and powers of the civil service commission.
- 2. Specifies the method of filling positions, vacancies, and promotions.

3. Deals with probation and certification of firemen and policemen.

- 4. Gives the employee covered by the Act the right to hearing before the civil service commission on an indefinite suspension (the employee can appeal to the District Court for a new trial), demotion, or disciplinary suspension.
- 5. Limits the political activities of policemen and firemen, but entitles them to reasonable leaves of absence for police or fire department business, and, of course, upholds their constitutional right to petition the Legislature.

6. Entitles the employee to military, sick, and injury leaves of absence.

- 7. Entitles all police and fire employees in the classified service to 15 working days of vacation (accumulation of vacation is prohibited, except as approved by the city).
- 8. Prohibits firemen and policemen under the Act to strike against the municipality.6

Thirty-one Texas cities reported adoption of state civil service for policemen, and two—Dallas and El Paso—have local civil service systems. Nine cities which have adopted state civil service are in brackets 1 and 2, fifteen cities are in bracket 3, and seven cities are in bracket 4. Since the

data for this study were gathered, the City of Lufkin has also adopted state civil service.

Position Classification

Of fundamental importance in personnel administration and to the merit system itself is the position classification concept. Position classification consists of determining the responsibilities and duties of the individual job and the assignment of that position to a group or class of positions with similar and related duties and responsibilities. Called in one book the "keystone in the arch of personnel administration," a properly prepared plan forms the basis for compensation based on the principle of equal pay for equal work. The need for position classification is not limited to larger cities or operating units, but the complexity and type of plan vary with the size and nature of the organization.

In Texas, 45 of 118 reporting departments have formalized position classification plans (38.1 per cent). This is composed of all ten of the reporting cities of 100,000 population and over, 62.5 per cent of the reporting cities in bracket 3 (15 cities), 42.4 per cent of the cities replying in bracket 4 (14 cities), and 19.4 per cent of the 5,000–9,999 departments reporting (six cities). Over half of the cities with plans, therefore, are in the first three brackets (25 cities of 25,000 population and over).

DEPARTMENTAL PERSONNEL OFFICERS

In smaller police departments, the police chief usually handles all personnel duties himself. In larger cities a departmental personnel officer (either full- or part-time) often performs such tasks as administering wage and salary scales, maintaining personnel records and ratings, supervising recruiting and training, and maintaining and evaluating position classification systems.

As Table 11 indicates, slightly more than one out of five Texas departments, or 24 out of 112 reporting, have either a full- or part-time personnel officer. Nine of the 11 cities which have at least 100,000 population reported some type of personnel officer in the police department.

RECRUITMENT SPECIFICATIONS

Careful recruitment of police officers is essential to the successful operation of police departments. "In the long range, the program having the greatest effect on personnel control will be that of personnel selection."

⁴ Adrian, op. cit., p. 286.

⁵ Vernon's Annotated Revised Civil Statutes of the State of Texas, 1269m. Hereinafter referred to as V.A.C.S.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Fort Worth, Houston, San Antonio, Amarillo, Austin, Corpus Christi, Lubbock, Waco, Wichita Falls, Abilene, Baytown, Brownsville, Denison, Denton, Garland, Grand Prairie, Harlingen, Orange, Port Arthur, San Angelo, Temple, Texarkana, Texas City, Tyler, Brownwood, Cleburne, Del Rio, Greenville, Palestine, Sweetwater, and White Settlement.

⁸ Adrian, op. cit., p. 289.

Baker, op. cit., p. 408.

 ${\bf TABLE~11}$ NUMBER OF TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS WITH PERSONNEL OFFICERS

By Population Bracket

			Number of Cities by Population Bracket							
Personnel officer	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Percentage of Total			
Total reporting	4	7	25	41	35	112	100.0			
Full-time	3	1	3	5	3	15	13.4			
Part-time	. 0	5	2	2	0	9	8.0			
None	. 1	1	20	34	32	88	78.6			

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wrote one California police chief. 10 Police departments have attempted to assure competent personnel by establishing requirements for admittance into the service. These standards include a high school education or it equivalent, an intelligence test, a psychological test, an agility test, a medical examination, a competitive written examination, and investigation of the recruit's character. The merit system has accelerated the move toward selection of new officers on the basis of ability, but some cities still have a minimum of requirements.

Many cities now specify a high school education or its equivalent of prospective officers. A national survey shows that 73.1 per cent of the 1,027 cities of over 10,000 population specify completion of high school, a high school diploma, or its equivalent.¹¹ In line with this trend, 85 of 121 reporting Texas cities or 70.2 per cent, reported this requirement for officer selection. A summary of police recruit specifications is presented in Table 12.

Texas law has been held to require police officers of general law cities to reside within the city limits, and this stipulation may apply to home rule cities as well. In fact, many home rule cities have provisions in their charters requiring community residence of all municipal employees, including police officers. A few cities require appointed personnel to move into the city by the end of probation. Despite these legal restrictions, community residence for police officers is specified by only 53.9 per cent of the the cities replying to this survey. The only two brackets in which a majority of the departments make such a requirement are bracket 4 (28 of 45 departments) and bracket 3 (12 of 23). Nineteen of 38 departments in bracket 5, or exactly one-half, replied in the affirmative. In brackets 1 and 2 only four of the 11 departments make this specification.

Texas cities have not adopted testing techniques too widely. Forty-three of 110 cities (39.1 per cent) specify an intelligence test; 16 per cent (16 of 100 cities) use psychological tests; an agility test is required in 22 of 98 cities (22.4 per cent); and a medical examination is necessary in 72 of 111 reporting cities (64.9 per cent).

A major aspect of civil service, the competitive written examination, is required by 41 of 112 reporting Texas cities (36.6 per cent), all within the first four brackets (10,000 population and above). The most frequently reported specification is character investigation of the recruit; 119 of the 124 answering cities, or 96 per cent, make such an investigation.

The police officer recruit must also meet certain physical qualification

¹⁰ J. D. Holstrom, "Police Personnel Control on the Job," Texas Police Journal, II (February, 1954), p. 11.

¹¹ The Municipal Year Book, 1959, p. 412.

TABLE 12

REQUIREMENTS FOR POLICE OFFICER RECRUITS IN TEXAS CITIES

By Population Bracket

	Number of Cities by Population Bracket									
Requirement	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting			
Community residence	1(4)*	3(7)	12(23)	28(45)	19(38)	63(117)	53.9			
High school education or equivalent	4(4)	5(7)	19(24)	35 (48)	22(38)	85(121)	70.2			
Character investigation	4(4)	7(7)	25 (25)	48 (50)	35 (38)	119(124)	96.0			
Competitive written examination	3(4)	7(7)	19(24)	12(41)	0(36)	41(112)	36.6			
Intelligence test	4(4)	7(7)	14(22)	14(41)	4(36)	43(110)	39.1			
Psychological test	1(4)	2(6)	5(19)	6(38)	2(33)	16(100)	16.0			
Medical examination	4(4)	7(7)	23(25)	30(44)	8(31)	72(111)	64.9			
Agility test	3(4)	4(5)	9(22)	5(37)	1(30)	22(98)	22.4			

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

standards in many cities. These include age, height, and weight ranges.

Out of a total of 80 cities replying on minimum age allowances for recruits, 21 years was by far the most often reported. Sixty-four cities use this age as the minimum. Thirty years is the highest minimum age reported and 21 the lowest. Seventy-six cities replied on maximum age limits, with 35 years being the most frequently mentioned. Sixty-five years is the highest maximum age limit and 28 years the lowest in the state.

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In the minimum weight category, no such clear-cut pattern emerges. Some 58 cities replied, with 150 pounds (15 cities), 140 pounds (eight cities), and 160 pounds (eight cities) being the three weights most often specified. The range extends from 135 pounds to 175 pounds on minimum weight allowances.

With a total of 35 cities replying on maximum weight allowances, 235 pounds (six cities), 250 pounds (five cities), and "proportionate to height" (five cities) ranked highest in frequency of report. The maximum weight range extends from 175 to 275 pounds. Some cities place weight requirements on a pound-per-inch basis. For example, five cities allow a minimum weight of two pounds per inch of height, and three cities allow a meximum weight of three pounds per inch of height.

Some 56 cities replied on minimum height allowances, with the height of 5'8" being the most often reported (30 cities); and 5'9" is next in frequency (16 cities). The range extends from 5' 5" to 5' 10". The range for maximum height extends from 6' 1" to 6' 6". Twenty-five cities replied with 6' 5" (nine cities) being the most frequent answer, followed by 6' 6" (five cities) and 6' 4" (four cities).

RECRUITMENT AND CERTIFICATION

In Texas, police chiefs play a major role in recruiting and certifying police officers. Cities deal with these procedures in various ways: out of 124 cities replying, 80 (64.5 per cent) report recruitment and certification by the chief of police; some 24 cities (19.4 per cent) place such responsibility in civil service groups; and four (3.2 per cent) use a central personnel agency serving the entire city administration. Sixteen cities (12.0 per cent) employ other means or combinations of methods, such a recruitment and certification by the city manager, or placing such action jointly in the hands of the chief of police and the mayor.

APPOINTMENT

Official appointment of policemen is not always a function of one office or individual. In Texas, the practice of appointment by a single official prevails. Out of 110 cities, 71 (64.5 per cent) reported appointment of

policemen by a single individual or a group and 39 (35.5 per cent) indicated a combination of approval methods. Police officers are appointed by the police chief in 49 cities; by the mayor in ten cities, by the city manager in seven; by the police commissioner in two; and by other single groups (such as aldermen or civil service) in three cities. Differences in the form of municipal government account for some of the variations involved; for instance, not all cities have city managers or aldermen, and one city reporting does not have a police chief but does have a police commissioner.

The police chief also figures heavily in the 39 instances of multiple appointment (often involving recommendation by one official and approval by another). The city manager and police chief jointly appoint policemen in 18 cities; the police chief and civil service appoint in six cities, and the mayor, police commissioner, and police chief must concur in the appointment in five cities. Other methods reported were: mayor and city commission; mayor and police chief; mayor, city manager, and police chief; police chief and city commissioner; police chief and police commissioner; police commissioner, city manager, and police chief; city manager and civil service; and city manager, police chief, and civil service.

The method of appointing the chief also drew a variety of responses. The police chief is appointed by the city manager in 55 cities (44.0 per cent); by the mayor in 22 cities (17.6 per cent); by civil service in 12 (9.6 per cent); by the police commissioner in six (4.8 per cent); and is elected by popular vote in five (4.0 per cent). These 100 cities use a single method of appointment; the remainder employ a total of seven different methods. The three most frequently mentioned combinations of appointment are: (1) city manager and city commission (seven cities); (2) mayor and city commission (six cities); and (3) mayor and police commissioner (five cities).

The form of government influences the method of appointment of the police chief. City manager appointment of the chief is reported by 55 cities and is the largest single method; this method is followed by mayoral appointment in 22 cities. Out of 152 Texas cities with home rule charters as of January 1, 1959, a total of 106, or 69 per cent, have the councilmanager form of government; 39 (26.3 per cent) have the mayor-council form; and seven, or 4.7 per cent, have the commission form. Of course, not all of the cities included in this study are home rule cities. Out of 647 general law cities, the mayor-council form is used by 483, or 74.6 per cent of the cities. 12

PROBATION

Following acceptance into the police service, the probationary period during which the recruit is subject to informal dismissal varies widely in American cities. The larger urban centers generally impose a longer probationary period than do the smaller places.¹³

Most Texas cities follow the practice of requiring a probationary period for new officers. All 36 of the cities of 25,000 population and over report this policy, as do 66 per cent of the 10,000–24,999 group, and 71.8 per cent of the 5,000–9,999 bracket. Ninety-seven cities, or 77.6 per cent of the 125 replying, impose this requirement. Dallas and Highland Park have the longest probationary period 15 months. The average figures for reported probationary periods are as follows: bracket 1, 8.2 months; bracket 2, 6.0 months; bracket 3, 6.2 months; bracket 4, 4.9 months; and bracket 5, 4.2 months.

TRAINING

The purpose of police training is to assure the performance of police tasks with safety and facility to the officer and with satisfaction to the public. ¹⁴ A leading text on police administration states:

Organized training is the means by which officers individually are given the knowledge and skills they require for self-reliant patrol, the police team is accorded sufficient practice in combined operations to insure effective co-ordination in emergencies, specialists who devote their time to scientific crime detection obtain the technical qualifications they require, and command personnel extend their knowledge of human relations, organization and administration.¹⁵

Police training programs may include such subjects as first aid, police procedures, weapons, self-defense, laws and ordinances, judicial procedures, public relations, scientific aids, use and care of equipment, sociology and criminology, geography, rules, and local organization.¹⁶

Although there is widespread interest in establishing cadet schools for prospective police officers prior to their assumption of duty, Texas cities generally do not require recruits to undergo formal training prior to general police duty. Specifically, only 46 of 115 reporting cities reported this practice. All 11 of the cities of 100,000 population and over require pre-

¹² Forms of City Government (5th ed.; Austin: Institute of Public Affairs, The University of Texas, 1959), p. 14.

¹³ Bruce Smith, *Police Systems in the United States* (Revised ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1950), p. 152.

¹⁴ Wilson, op. cit., p. 377.

¹⁵ Municipal Police Administration, p. 187.

¹⁶ Ibid., pp. 194-198.

duty training. The length of training varies greatly in Texas, with the larger cities generally having longer time requirements than the smaller municipalities. Most Texas departments (67.5 per cent of those replying) conduct their own training programs, and the program is often open to recruits from other cities (in 52.9 per cent of the cities). In addition to pre-duty training, many cities have organized *in-service* training programs, and 46 of 118 cities report this practice (39 per cent). Table 13 contains further information on training.

Recognizing the need for continuing and specialized training of police officers, many departments permit their personnel to attend advanced training courses at universities and other institutions. In Texas, almost all of the cities (92.7 per cent) grant such leaves. Some 104 of these 115 cities pay both the salary and expenses of police officers on training leave; seven pay the salary only; one city pays neither salary nor expenses; and three use other methods. A summary of outside training policies in Texas police departments is found in Table 14.

In the ten-year period ending May 1, 1959, replies from 108 cities indicated that a total of 1,791 police officers had attended training schools, both in Texas and outside the state. The Texas Department of Public Safety courses and the Texas A&M courses attracted by far the most trainees, with 661 and 609 officers, respectively, in the ten-year period. Bracket 3 cities reported the highest total number attending school in the period—665, but bracket 1 cities had the most police trainees per city—101. See Table 15 for a summary of training school attendance.

SERVICE RATINGS AND PROMOTION

Measuring and/or rating employee performance and making promotion decisions are two of the knottiest problems in personnel work. Slightly less than half (48 cities and 44.9 per cent) of the 107 cities replied "yes" to the query, "Are efficiency reports or service ratings made on all officers?" Seventy-five per cent of all cities having 25,000 population or more use such reports. However, in brackets 4 and 5, only 21 of the 50 cities replying 42.0 per cent) make the ratings or reports. Semi-annual rating is by far the most prevalent time period used, with 25 cities reporting this interval.

The question was then asked, "do you consider efficiency reports effective?" A total of 66 cities (74.2 per cent) said "yes" and 23 "no" (25.8 per cent). Of the original 48 cities which reported making the reports, 35 (81.4 per cent) think the reports effective; eight (18.6 per cent) do not. Five cities did not reply. Of the 59 cities which stated that they did not make the reports, 23 (67.7 per cent) think them effective and 11 do not (32.3 per cent). Twenty-five of these cities did not answer.

TABLE 13

FORMAL POLICE RECRUIT TRAINING PRACTICES IN TEXAS CITIES

By Population Bracket

Type of Training Program	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10m- 24m	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Formal pre-duty training required	4(4)*	7(7)	10(25)	14(46)	11(33)	46(115)	40.0
Department conducts program	4(4)	7(7)	17(19)	15(28)	11(22)	54(80)	67.5
Department-conducted school open to other cities' recruits	3(4)	5(7)	11(12)	6(17)	2(11)	27(51)	52.9

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

TABLE 14

OUTSIDE TRAINING LEAVE AND COMPENSATION POLICIES IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

	Number of Cities by Population Bracket									
Training Leave	(1) 350m and over		(2) 100м- 349м		(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м		Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Granted	4(4)*	1	7(7)		24(25)	46(49)	34(39)		115(124)	92.7
Compensation when leave granted										
Salary and expenses paid	4		6		23	43	28		104	90.4
Salary only	0		1.		0	0	6		7	6.1
Neither salary nor expenses	0		0		0	1	0		1	0.9
Other methods	0		0		1	2	0		3	2.6

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

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Table 15

NUMBER OF TEXAS POLICE OFFICERS ATTENDING TRAINING SCHOOLS, 1949–1959

By School and Population Bracket

			Number of	Officers by Pop	ulation Bracket	4	
School	(1) 350m and over	(2) 190м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	10м 24м (4)	5м- 9м (5)	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Texas Department of Public				:			
Safety training course	22	148	289	177	25	661	36.9
Texas A&M municipal police							
training course	38	43	315	178	35	609	34.0
SMU institute of law enforcement	14	8	30	26	2	80	4.5
FBI National Academy	29	16	15	. 8	0	68	3.8
Northwestern University Traffic							
Institute (short course)	26	11	3	1	0	41	2.3
Federal Bureau of							
Narcotics Training Course	19	4	4	0	.0	27	1.5
Southern Police Institute							
(Louisville, Ky.)	. 9	9	· 7	1	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	26	1.4
Southern California							
University Juvenile							
Delinquency Institute	. 9	4	1	. 1	8	23	1.3
Northwestern University Traffic							
Institute (long course)	10	2	1	1	0	14	0.8
Other	228*	9	0	5	0	242	13.5
Total	404	254	665	398	70	1,791	100.00
Percentage of total	22.6	14.2	37.1	22.2	3.9	100.00	

^{*} Two hundred and twenty-eight officers from the Houston Police Department attended the University of Houston Police School during the period.

In summary, slightly less than half the cities make efficiency reports; of those that do, about four out of five like them. Of those that do not make reports, about two out of three nevertheless think them effective. A total of 58 cities (75.3 per cent) report approval of efficiency reports and 19 definitely do not. Stated another way, 72.7 per cent of the cities which approve of efficiency reports actually use them; 27.3 per cent do not.

Written examinations are required for promotion in about one-third of Texas cities—38 of 117 cities. This is about the same number and percentage of cities (41 cities and 36.6 per cent) which reported that written competitive examinations of recruits were required. A total of 79 Texas cities have no such requirement for promotion.

Regarding the importance of efficiency ratings in promotion it must be stated that such reports present real problems. Efficiency reports are made on the basis of the individual's performance in his present capacity, and yet such ratings may constitute a sizable percentage of the promotional examination grade. The core of the problem is, of course, that an officer might be doing an outstanding job in his present job and yet be unsuited for the supervisory responsibilities of a higher position.

Because of these inherent limitations, 29 of 57 cities use such ratings for guidance purposes only in making promotion decisions. A total of 24 cities reported that the ratings made up some percentage of the promotion test grade. Reported percentages ranged from 10 per cent to 85 per cent, with 30 per cent being the figure most often used. Four cities did not specify the exact use of ratings in promotion decisions.

Hours of Work and Overtime Policies

The 56th Texas Legislature in 1959 passed Senate Bill 87, which provides that policemen may not, under normal circumstances, be required to work more hours per week than the number of hours in the normal work week of the majority of city employees other than firemen and policemen in cities of over 10,000 population. The law, which became effective on August 11, 1959, also stipulates that policemen must be paid time and one-half for hours worked beyond this maximum.¹⁷

Data gathered for this survey before the law became effective show the impact of this legislation. The average normal work week of policemen in the 80 cities of over 10,000 was 48.15 hours per week, or about a six-day week these figures were in contrast to the normal work week for most city employees in Texas other than firemen or policemen. The average for the

latter was approximately 44 hours per week in 1958, with the figure being slightly higher in the smaller cities and lower in the larger municipalities.¹⁸

The average work week for police personnel in the 125 Texas cities reporting in this survey was 52.2 hours. The number of hours ranged from a high of 84 in one city to a low of 40 in four municipalities, with the most prevalent work week being 48 hours (84 cities). The number of hours worked per week is larger in the smaller cities, as indicated by the following population group averages: bracket 1, 42 hours; bracket 2, 46.3 hours; bracket 3, 47.5 hours; bracket 4, 50.4 hours; and bracket 5, 59.8 hours.

Of the 121 cities of 5,000 population and over which replied, 69 (57.0 per cent) compensated policemen at one and one-half time regular pay for overtime work. Fifty-two cities replied in the negative and four cities did not answer. The effect of the 1959 amendments to the state minimum hour statute is illustrated by the fact that, of the 79 cities of 10,000 population and over covered by the statute, some 57 (72.2 per cent) paid overtime while 22 cities did not. Time and one-half was paid by only 11 of the 75 cities which replied on the amount of overtime payment. Of the 69 cities of 5,000 population and over which reported overtime payment, only 14 paid time and one-half; 51 cities paid on a straight time basis; one city used both methods; and three did not answer. As to the method of overtime payment, 66 of the cities reported a definite method of overtime payment. Thirty-six cities paid in cash, 16 paid in compensatory time off, and 14 cities used both methods. Three cities did not answer.

OUTSIDE ACTIVITIES OF POLICE OFFICERS

On the basis of questionnaire answers, police officers generally may seek outside employment or engage in private business activity, but they must do so under departmental supervision. Out of 124 reporting, a total of 94 Texas departments permit outside activity or employment (75.8 per cent). The majority of Texas cities (61.1 per cent) require departmental permission for private employment and limit off-duty employment as to time or type of job (72.6 per cent of replies). Most Texas cities also permit officers to wear public police uniforms in outside police duties (59.8 per cent), and a majority of departments (75.9 per cent) require supervision of private police duties. See Table 16 for a summary of outside activities of Texas policemen.

VACATION PRACTICES

Annual paid vacation has become almost a standard practice in government, its purpose being "to permit employees to refresh themselves physically

¹⁷ The Fifty-Sixth Texas Legislature: A Review of Its Work (Austin: Institute of Public Affairs, The University of Texas, 1959), p. 20.

¹⁸ Municipal Employee Benefits in Texas (Austin: Institute of Public Affairs, The University of Texas, 1958), pp. 2-3.

TABLE 16
OUTSIDE ACTIVITY POLICIES OF TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS
By Population Bracket

			Number of Dep	partments by Po	pulation Bracke	=	
Policy or Requirement	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25m- 99m	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Outside activity or						-	
employment permitted	4(4)*	4(7)	22(25)	40(50)	24(38)	94(124)	75.8
Departmental permission							
required	4(4)	6(7)	16(24)	27(49)	16(29)	69(113)	61.1
Employment limited as to time							
or type of job	4(4)	7(7)	21(25)	30(45)	20(32)	82(113)	72.6
Uniform permitted during							
outside employment	4(4)	5(7)	21(24)	26(47)	14(35)	70(117)	59.8
Departmental supervision of							
private police duties	4(4)	6(6)	21 (24)	36(47)	21(35)	88(116)	75.9

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

and mentally."¹⁹ Texas follows this trend, with 124 of 125 reporting cities (99.2 per cent) allowing annual paid vacations to all full-time policemen.

Nationally, most municipalities give their employees about two weeks of paid vacation each year.²⁰ In Texas, cities which have adopted state civil service regulations must grant policemen at least 15 working days vacation per year, with holidays which would ordinarily be time off not to be counted as working days for vacation purposes.²¹ However, not all of the thirty-one cities under the state law grant this amount. For the state as a whole 12 working days' vacation is the most widespread period for police, with 42.4 per cent (53 cities) reporting this practice. Next in frequency is the 15-working-day vacation (31 cities and 24.8 per cent). The 12-day period is the most popular in population brackets 4 and 5, while in the other three groups (25,000 population and over) the 15-day period is most frequent. Vacation allowances range from five and one-half working days to 21 working days. See Table 17 for a summary of vacation days granted.

Most Texas departments allow eligibility for paid vacations after one year of service, with a few cities having a shorter period of required service. Few Texas cities give extra vacation days to policemen for longevity reasons. Only 10 of 121 cities (8.3 per cent) report this practice. Of those granting extra days, 12 days is the maximum extension.

Slightly over half (69 cities and 55.2 per cent) of the 125 Texas cities grant paid time off for holidays to policemen. Some 56 cities do not. Of the cities which have the practice, Christmas Day (61 cities), Thanksgiving Day (61 cities), and New Year's Day (60 cities) are the holidays most frequently granted. The other paid holidays for policemen and the number of cities granting them are: Independence Day (57 cities), Labor Day (52 cities), Memorial Day (33 cities), Veteran's Day (eight cities), San Jacinto Day (five cities), Christmas Eve (three cities), Good Friday (two cities), Dallas Day at the Texas State Fair (one city), and Texas Independence Day (one city).

The great majority of Texas cities does not allow vacation time to accumulate from year to year. One hundred and eight of 122 reporting, or 88.5 per cent, do not allow the practice. Bracket 1 (350,000 and over in population) is the only group which shows a majority of cities allowing accumulation, with three of its four cities doing so. Of 119 cities reporting, 71.4 per cent pay unused vacation time if the officer resigns, and 67.2 per cent of 116 reporting cities do so if the officer is discharged. Further information on vacation accumulation is provided in Table 18.

¹⁹ Municipal Police Administration, p. 169.

²⁰ Municipal Year Book 1958 (Chicago: The International City Managers' Association, 1958), p. 144.

²¹ V.A.C.S., art. 1269m.

TABLE 17

NUMBER OF WORKING DAYS GRANTED AS VACATION IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

			Number of C	ities by Populat	ion Bracket		
Number of Days Granted	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м– 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Percentage of Total
Total reporting	. 4	7	25	50	39	125	100.0
None	. 0	0	0	0	1	. 1.	8.0
1–11	. 0	0	2	11	8	21	16.8
12	. 1	2	9	24	17	53	42.4
13–14	. 0	0	1	5	8	14	11.2
15	. 3	4	13	8	3	31	24.8
Over 15	. 0	1	0	0	1.	2	1.6
Other	. 0	0	0	2	1	3	2.4

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TABLE 18

VACATION ACCUMULATION PRACTICES IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

		Number of Departments by Population Bracket								
Practice	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10m- 24m	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting			
Yearly accumulation of vacation time allowed	3(4)*	1(6)	5(25)	3(50)	2(37)	14(122)	11.5			
Unused time paid if officer resigns	3(4)	5(6)	19(24)	38(49)	20(36)	85(119)	71.4			
Unused time paid if officer is discharged	3(4)	6(6)	16(24)	32(49)	21 (33)	78(116)	67.2			

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

MILITARY LEAVE

Since World War II, military leave for employees who are members of the various reserve branches of the Armed Services has become an important aspect of municipal personnel policy. State law (art. 5769b) requires all cities to grant an annual leave of absence to employees for military purposes—National Guard, state militia, or the reserve branches of the various Armed Services. This period is not to exceed 15 calendar days, and the employee is entitled to full salary while on leave and to his former position with the city upon return. The state civil service law (art. 1269m) also requires cities operating under its provisions to grant military leave for service to firemen and policemen, and to restore the employee's former position upon return. The employee is to receive full seniority credit for his military service time. The employee must have received an honorable discharge from the service and be physically and mentally fit to discharge his duties in order to be eligible for reinstatement. Application must be made for the former position within 90 days of the discharge.²²

Only 63 of 118 Texas cities, or 53.4 per cent of the total, grant such leave. Of the cities which grant annual military leave, 50 (79.4 per cent) grant the leave with full pay. Six cities grant leave with partial pay and five with no pay. A summary of annual military leave practices is contained in Table 19.

SICK LEAVE

A facet of police personnel administration which must be dealt with in some manner, whether the department has a *formal* policy or not, is the matter of leave for reasons of illness. "The purpose of sick leave is to permit employees to recuperate from illness or disability, and to prevent sick employees from spreading disease, without loss of pay for absence."²³

Permanent and temporary employees in classified service are entitled to 15 paid working days sick leave per year. Such employees under state civil service regulations may accumulate 15 days paid sick leave per year and build up sick leave without limit while unable to work because of bona fide illness. If the employee can prove that the illness was incurred in the performance of his duties, extension of the leave beyond the stated period must be granted. When the employee, for any reason, leaves the classified service, he must receive a lump sum payment of all accumulated sick leave (not to exceed 90 days). In a few instances, however, cities which have adopted state civil service apparently are not following all of the stipulations made in the civil service act.

²² V.A.C.S., arts. 1269m and 5769b.

²³ Municipal Police Administration, p. 169.

TABLE 19

NUMBER OF TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS GRANTING ANNUAL MILITARY LEAVE AND LEAVE PROVISIONS

By Population Bracket

			Number of	Departments by	Population Bra	acket	
Annual Military Leave	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Granted	4(4)*	6(7)	19(24)	21 (46)	13(37)	63(118)	53.4
Provisions							
Full pay	4(4)	4(6)	18(19)	12(20)	12(12)	50(61)	82.0
Partial pay	0(4)	1(6)	1(19)	4(20)	0(12)	6(61)	9.8
No pay	0(4)	1(6)	0(19)	4(20)	0(12)	5(61)	8.2

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

Cities not under state civil service law may adopt their own civil service regulations or may deal with such matters as sick leave in whatever manner they choose. About three-fourths of the departments have a *formal* sick leave policy (91 of 122 cities or 74.6 per cent). Some 96.2 per cent of the 105 departments provide *paid* sick leave. Of these 101 cities which pay employees during leave for illness, 49 departments (48.5 per cent) grant two weeks of such pay (either 14 or 15 days). The other major period of paid sick leave reported is the 12-or-13-day grant which is found in 24 cities (23.8 per cent).

Accumulation of paid sick days varies widely among cities in the state. A total of 72 cities out of the 92 reporting allow such an accumulation, with 90 days being the most frequently reported limit (21 cities). Some 16 cities allow unlimited accumulation, and 30 days' accumulation is reported by 12 cities.

Non-paid sick leave is allowed in cases where illness extends beyond the accumulated sick leave limit in 61 of 106 reporting cities. Sick leave is paid if the officer resigns in 29.2 per cent of the cities and in 29.1 per cent if the officer is fired. See Table 20 for a summary of sick leave practices in Texas police departments.

INJURY LEAVE

In addition to sick leave, many cities grant paid leaves of absence to police officers who are injured in the line of duty. Texas civil service law provides that cities operating under state regulations must grant injury leave with full pay for periods commensurate with the extent of injuries received in the performance of duties up to at least one year. At the end of this period, the municipal governing body may extend the leave at full pay or at a reduced rate. However, if the employee's salary is cut below 60 per cent of his regular monthly amount, cities having a Policemen's or Firemen's Pension Fund are required to retire the employee on pension until he is able to return to service.

The majority of Texas cities (100 of 117) grant injury leave with full pay. The length of time for which such leave is extended varies greatly over the state. In 21 cities police officers are entitled to full pay for an indefinite length of time. A period of 30 days is reported by five cities and 90 days by four. Among the many reported variations in length of time allowed for injury leave are the following: "one year, with possible extension"; "up to the chief"; "reasonable length of time"; "while under doctor's care"; "up to the council"; and "depends on length of service."

Ninety-nine cities (81.1 per cent) provide medical care for policemen injured in the line of duty, with 89 reporting full medical care and 10 partial

Table 20 SICK LEAVE POLICIES IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS By Population Bracket

			Number of D	epartments by I	Population Brack	et	
Policy	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25m- 99m	(4) 10m- 24m	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Formal sick leave policy	4(4)*	7(7)	21(25)	35(50)	24(36)	91 (122)	74.6
Paid sick leave granted	4(4)	7(7)	23(23)	39(41)	28(30)	101(105)	96.2
Number of paid sick							
leave days granted							
6–8	0	0	2	3	4	9	8.9
9–11	0	0	1	2	3	ϵ	5.9
12–13	0	0	3	14	7	24	23.8
14–15	3	7	16	15	8	49	48.5
Over 15	1	0	1	. 2	3	7	6.9
Other	0	0	0	3	3	6	5.9
Total reporting	4	7	23	39	28	101	100.0**
Non-paid sick leave granted	4(4)	7(7)	18(22)	17(40)	15(33)	61 (106)	57.6
Accumulated sick leave paid							
if officer resigns	3(4)	7(7)	13(23)	6(45)	4(34)	33(113)	29.2
Accumulated sick leave paid	7 -						
if officer is discharged	3(4)	7(7)	12(24)	11(46)	1(36)	34(117)	29.1

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

** Detail does not add to 100.0 because of rounding.

care provisions. A presentation of injury leave practices in Texas departments is made in Table 21.

POLICE UNIFORMS AND EQUIPMENT

A police administration textbook states that policemen commonly are required to furnish their own uniforms and many departments require the policeman to provide his service revolver and handcuffs. In commenting on this practice, however, it notes that:

To require policemen to furnish their own uniforms, revolvers, and other equipment puts a strain on supervision and may contribute to a lowered morale and loss of police prestige. Control can be affected more readily and continuously if the department provides all of the officer's initial equipment except his underwear. . . . The replacement of uniforms and other items of clothing, however, may be considered the responsibility of the policeman, since they are his "working clothes." 24

In Texas, most cities (88 of 124 reporting—71 per cent) provide police uniforms, and some cities give a uniform allowance to the policeman for uniforms. A total of 99 cities (79.8 per cent) either provide uniforms or uniform allowances. Of the cities which provide uniforms, the most prevalent practice is to grant two uniforms a year (27 cities). The other major practices are: "as needed" (20 cities); three uniforms per year (12 cities); and four per year (11 cities). The most frequently reported allowance is \$100 per year (14 of the 38 cities which grant allowances), with the range extending from \$50 per year to \$400 per year. Less than one-third of the cities grant a clothing allowance to plain-clothesmen with 32 of 115 cities (27.8 per cent) reporting the policy. Of the municipalities which make such allowances, the \$100-per-year figure is the most popular; 11 cities make this allowance and six grant \$150 per year. Laundering of uniforms or the granting of laundry allowances is the practice of only 8.5 per cent of the answering cities. (See Table 22).

A leading text on police administration notes that:

Replacement of equipment other than clothing, however, should probably be a departmental expense. . . . Any larger size police department will do well to provide all police equipment and, in so doing, set up the control measures which will insure a presentable personnel, high morale, and budget economies.²⁵

²⁴ Ibid., pp. 471-472.

²⁵ Ibid., p. 472.

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TABLE 21

LEAVE PRACTICES FOR INJURIES IN LINE OF DUTY IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

			Number of D	epartments by P	opulation Brack	et	
	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Leave granted with full pay for injuries incurred in the line of duty	4(4)*	7(7)	19(22)	41(46)	29(38)	100(117)	85.5
City provisions for medical care for injuries incurred in line of duty							
Full	4	6	16	37	26	89	72.9
Partial	0	0	5	3	2	10	8.2
None	0	1	4	8	10	23	18.9
Total reporting	4	7	25	48	38	122	100.0

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

Texas police officials were questioned on equipment provisions made by their departments, and replies show that of the six types of equipment specified, three types are granted by a majority of the cities reporting and three are not. Flashlight batteries are furnished to policemen by most cities (80.5 per cent); although it is interesting to note that none of the bracket 1 cities (350,000 and over) make this grant. Flashlights are provided by 65 per cent of the cities reporting, but of the 34 cities of 25,000 population and over, only 14 make the allowance. Some 56.2 per cent provide handcuffs, but only 31 of the 72 cities in brackets 3 and 4 do so, however.

The three specific types of equipment which are supplied by less than half of the reporting cities are: ammunition (46.1 per cent); night sticks (40.9 per cent); and sidearms (12.1 per cent). Twenty of 72 cities supply other types of equipment to officers, such as Sam Browne belts and holsters, riot guns, badges, caps, rain gear, and "all uniform items except underwear and shoes and socks." See Table 23 for a summary of equipment allowances.

INSURANCE

There has been a growing interest in public circles to provide benefits comparable to medical care plans in industry, and the idea of having government as employer contribute to health insurance costs is gaining momentum, especially in municipalities.²⁶ Evidence of this trend in the municipal police field in Texas is borne out by this survey.

Approximately four out of five departments replying to this survey have a group hospital and/or surgical insurance plan. Insurance coverage for police under these plans is optional in 66 of the 102 cities (64.7 per cent) and mandatory in 34 (two did not answer). The combination of hospital and surgical insurance is used by 96, or 94.1 per cent, of the cities with plans.

Slightly more than half of the departments have group life insurance plans; 66 of 123, or 53.7 per cent, report this practice. In some 38 cities the insurance is optional; and in 20 it is mandatory. Police are covered by workmen's compensation insurance in 46 of 125 reporting cities (36.8 per cent). Of these cities, 34 use a private company and eight are self-insured. Police insurance programs and coverage in Texas cities are summarized in Table 24.

PENSION AND RETIREMENT PRACTICES

Retirement systems are now widely accepted as an integral part of good personnel practice in both industry and government.²⁷ A national survey

²⁶ Glenn Stahl, *Public Personnel Administration* (4th ed. of previous work by Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl: New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956), p. 398.

²⁷ Municipal Police Administration, p. 182.

 ${\small \textbf{TABLE 22}}$ UNIFORM AND CLOTHING PROVISIONS IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

en e		Number of Departments by Population Bracket								
Provision	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м– 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting			
Police uniforms provided by city	2(4)*	6(7)	17(25)	36(50)	27(38)	88(124)	71.0			
Uniform allowance given by city.	2(4)	2(7)	7(19)	15(44)	12(36)	38(110)	34.5			
Clothing allowance for plain- clothesmen provided by city	3(4)	3(7)	17(25)	7(46)	2(33)	32(115)	27.8			
Uniforms laundered by city or laundry allowance given	0(4)	0(7)	2(23)	5(48)	3(36)	10(118)	8.5			

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

TABLE 23

NUMBER OF TEXAS CITIES PROVIDING EQUIPMENT OR GRANTING EQUIPMENT ALLOWANCES TO POLICEMEN

By Population Bracket

	Number of Cities by Population Bracket							
Type of Equipment a	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10m- 24m	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting	
Sidearms	2(4)*	2(7)	1(23)	6(47)	3(34)	14(116)	12.1	
Handcuffs	2(4)	6(7)	7(23)	24 (49)	29(38)	68(121)	56.2	
Flashlights	1(4)	2(7)	11(23)	32(48)	32(38)	78(120)	65.0	
Flashlight batteries	0(4)	4(7)	18(23)	44 (50)	33 (39)	99(123)	80.5	
Ammunition	1(4)	3(7)	9(22)	18(47)	23(37)	54(117)	46.1	
Night sticks	3(4)	1(7)	7(21)	15(47)	21 (36)	47(115)	40.9	

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

Table 24 INSURANCE PROGRAMS AND COVERAGE IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS By Population Bracket

			Number of D	epartments by F	opulation Bracket	-	
Type of Program and/or Coverage	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25m- 99m	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м– 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Department group hospital		-					
and/or surgical insurance plan	4(4)*	7(7)	23(25)	39(50)	29(37)	102(123)	82.9
Coverage for police							
Optional	4(4)	3(7)	14(22)	25 (38)	20(29)	66(100)	66.0
Mandatory	0(4)	4(7)	8(22)	13(38)	9(29)	34(100)	34.0
Type of plan in effect							
Hospital and surgical	3(4)	7(7)	22(23)	37(39)	27(29)	96(102)	94.1
Hospital only	0(4)	0(7)	1(23)	0(39)	0(29)	1(102)	1.0
Other		0(7)	0(23)	2(39)	2(29)	5(102)	4.9
Department group life insurance	4(4)	7(7)	15(25)	23(48)	17(39)	66(123)	53.7
Group life insurance coverage							
Optional	4(4)	4(7)	9(13)	12(21)	9(13)	38 (58)	65.5
Mandatory	0(4)	3(7)	4(13)	9(21)	4(13)	20(58)	34.5
Workmen's Compensation							
coverage for police	0(4)	2(7)	8(25)	17(50)	19(39)	46(125)	36.8
Type of Workmen's							
Compensation for police							
Self-insured		1(2)	2(7)	4(16)	1(17)	8(42)	19.1
Private company		1(2)	5(7)	12(16)	16(17)	34(42)	80.9

^{*}The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

reports that almost 90 per cent of the cities of more than 10,000 population had retirement or pension plans covering some or all of their employees.²⁸ Some 99 per cent of the reporting cities provided a retirement plan for the entire working force with the remainder limiting the coverage to fire, police, and other limited groups.

Among cities covered by this survey, pensions are provided for policemen in 49 Texas cities (40.2 per cent) and not provided in 73. Police officers are subject to compulsory retirement in 41 Texas cities (35 per cent) but 76 cities do not make this requirement. The question as to the age at which officers are subject to compulsory etirement brought several different answers, but the two most frequently reported ages are 70 years (14 cities) and 65 years (14 cities).

Records and Reports

An adequate and effective record system is essential to the effective management of a police department; it is the backbone of the police force. A suitable police record system contains information useful in the investigation of crimes, in the identification of persons and property, and in daily routine tasks. Records paint in words and statistics a picture of police problems and activities, reflecting the need for police service and the effort of the police to provide the needed service. They are the tools of intelligent supervision and review and the requisites of judicial proof. In short, the effectiveness of a police department is directly related to the quality of its records.

A police record system may include such data as: criminal histories, fingerprints, photographs, and physical characteristics; duty assignment, complaint, and arrest records; traffic violation tickets; property records; departmental rules and regulations; daily and monthly summaries of operations; annual and other formal reports; and general administrative records.

Types of Police Records Maintained

As noted above, many types of police records are kept. The *complaint record*, or record of criminal offenses reported to the department, is concerned with recording crimes and other reports received by the police and controlling investigation by means of additional reports. This record is necessary to assure satisfactory disposition of cases, and also serves as the basis for analyses of offenses and the methods by which they are committed.⁵ In Texas, almost all of the cities in this survey, or 121 of 124, reported use of this record.

Arrest records serve many functions: as an exact statement of the circumstances of the arrest; as knowledge of and information concerning persons in jail; as record of the prisoner's property; as adequate control over bail

²⁸ Municipal Year Book 1956 (Chicago: The International City Managers' Association, 1956), pp. 147-148.

¹ A Record System for the Cincinnati Police Department (Cincinnati: Bureau of Municipal Research, Report No. 10, March, 1928), p. 1.

² Wilson, op. cit., p. 233.

³ Municipal Police Administration, pp. 400-401.

⁴ Wilson, op. cit., p. 233.

⁵ Municipal Police Administration, p. 402.

and outside communications; as notice to the court clerk regarding the charge and trial date; and as a source of information to the prosecutor. In Texas, 119 cities, or 96 per cent, keep arrest records. Five cities do not.

Records of personal identification are essential to police work. The fingerprint record assures positive identification, but these data should be supplemented by a record of physical characteristics, criminal photographs, and criminal histories.7 The percentage of cities using these four identification records ranges from 72.0 per cent to 48.0 per cent. Specifically, 90 Texas cities (72.0 per cent) maintain fingerprint records (including 35 of the 36 cities of 25,000 population and above). The only bracket in which less than half the cities maintain this record is bracket 5 (19 of 39 cities). Some 82 (65.6 per cent) cities keep a record of physical characteristics (sex, color, age, height, weight, build, color of hair and eyes, marks, scars, and deformities).8 Forty-three cities do not maintain this record. Seventy-eight cities (62.4 per cent) maintain criminal histories (a complete record in one place of the known criminal acts of individual offenders). Some 60 cities (48 per cent) keep criminal photographs, while 65 do not. However, three brackets (1, 2, and 3) show a majority of cities with this record. A summary of police records and reports appears in Table 25.

Traffic tickets are a major part of the records system of a police department. Multiple-copy tickets which are serially pre-numbered aid greatly in reducing the number of "fixed" tickets. This type of ticket, with an original numbered copy and several numbered carbons, makes possible an accurate check on a traffic violation from ticket issuance to final court disposition. As a control device, it tightens accountability and makes it easier for the police and court officials to turn down pleas for special treatment. Over nine out of ten Texas cities use such tickets (113 of 124), including 35 of the 36 cities having at least 25,000 population.

Although not covered by the questionnaire prepared for this study, two other types of records should be mentioned—the accident map and the enforcement index. The use of an accident map is self-evident: to aid in selective enforcement of traffic regulations by providing information on the traffic accident pattern within the city. The enforcement index is an administrative tool which gives an estimate of the personnel needs of the police department

⁶ Wilson, op. cit., p. 239.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 240.

⁸ For a discussion of this type of record, see O. W. Wilson, *Police Records: Their Installation and Use* (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1942), p. 133.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 130.

¹⁰ Thompson, John T., City Traffic Law Enforcement In Texas (Austin: Institute of Public Affairs, The University of Texas, 1957), p. 21.

Table 25

RECORDS AND REPORTS IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

	Number of Cities by Population Bracket									
Type of Record, Report or Activity	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25m– 99m	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting			
Central records bureau	4(4)*	5(7)	21 (24)	31 (46)	13(31)	74(112)	66.1			
Record of criminal										
offenses reported	4(4)	7(7)	24(24)	49(50)	37(39)	121 (124)	97.6			
Arrest records	4(4)	7(7)	24(24)	47(50)	37(39)	119(124)	96.0			
Fingerprint cards	4(4)	7(7)	24(25)	36(50)	19(39)	90(125)	72.0			
Physical characteristic records	3(4)	6(7)	19(25)	35 (50)	19(39)	82(125)	65.6			
Criminal histories		6(7)	21 (25)	28 (50)	20(39)	78(125)	62.4			
Criminal photographs	3(4)	6(7)	20(25)	21(50)	10(39)	60(125)	48.0			
Multiple-copy, serially-numbered										
traffic tickets	4(4)	7(7)	24(25)	44 (49)	34(39)	113(124)	91.1			
Punch-card or other mechanical										
tabulating equipment	4(4)	1(7)	0(25)	2(50)	1(37)	8(123)	6.5			
Departmental rules and										
regulations book	4(4)	7(7)	19(24)	21 (50)	15(38)	66(123)	53.7			
Departmental procedural manual	* *	6(7)	10(24)	16(50)	8 (35)	43(120)				
Annual report published						()				
by department	3(4)	5(7)	18(24)	37(49)	20(39)	83(123)	67.5			
Department publication other	· \-					35 (==5)				
than annual report	3(4)	1(7)	1(25)	5(48)	3 (36)	13(120)	10.8			

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

RECORDS AND REPORTS

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with regard to traffic law enforcement. This index is determined by using the following formula:11

Enforcement Index = Number of convictions, with penalty, for hazardous violations.

Number of fatal plus personal injury accidents.

CENTRAL RECORDS BUREAU

According to one authority, all police records should be pulled together into one unit. The police records office or bureau is the nerve center of the department and police headquarters should be built around it. A central location in the building is important, as a convenience to the public and to insure close proximity to police officers. Most of the cities in this survey—74 out of 112—have a central records bureau in the police department. Some 38 cities stated definitely that they do not have such a bureau.

Punch-Card or Other Mechanical Tabulating Equipment

Punch-card and other mechanical tabulating equipment is coming into wider use in municipal government, being especially successful in the larger and more complex operations. The punch-card system performs statistical or accounting work quickly and accurately by machine methods. Facts are recorded in the form of holes punched in paper cards. A punch card contains within itself the means for directing high-speed machines to perform various tasks. The holes are punched in significant positions and read and identified as they feed through the various machines of the system. Machine responses are controlled by what is read; some machines use a mechanical reading technique and others an electrical contact system.¹³

Few Texas police departments use such equipment. Of the eight cities which do so (6.5 per cent of reporting cities), four are in the first population bracket, one is in bracket 2, two are in bracket 4, and one is in bracket 5.

DEPARTMENTAL REGULATIONS AND PROCEDURES

Police departments establish rules and regulations governing the conduct of members of the force, with many departments publishing these provisions in a separate volume which is made available to all department members. A total of 66 Texas cities (53.7 per cent) have such materials, although

brackets 4 and 5 show a minority of cities with written rules and regulations. Certain duties and procedures are also specified by departments, and manuals dealing with these subjects are sometimes prepared for the force. There is definite value in such manuals; they serve as guides for training, encourage improvement in operating methods, and represent an exact statement of important policies and procedures. Slightly more than one-third of Texas cities, or 43 out of 120, have such manuals; nine out of 11 cities of 100,000 population and over have them.

DEPARTMENT REPORTS AND PUBLICATIONS

Data contained in daily and monthly police reports, such as information on crimes, accident, and arrests, provide essential information to city officials, and enables them to remain abreast of the situation in the police department. Annual departmental reports contain summaries of the daily and monthly reports, as well as indications of long-range problems and conditions. Many reports contain much more than statistics relating to criminal offenses, accident rates, and prison reports. Organization charts, position classification plans, wage and salary scales, personnel rosters, codes of ethics, safety programs and awards, budget information, and historical reviews may supplement the detailed analyses of law enforcement activities. A total of 83 Texas cities (67.5 per cent) reported that they publish annual department reports, although these are not always made available to the public.

In addition to the annual report, which is usually prepared for consideration and review by city administrative officials, some departments publish information for more general distribution. In Texas, only 13 departments (including three of the four bracket 1 cities) reported such publications. Among the topics covered in the pamphlets and brochures are: narcotics, special skills of policemen, juvenile division activities, traffic ordinances, and safety. A monthly report by the department in the local newspaper was also reported.

¹¹ Municipal Police Administration, p. 356.

¹² Wilson, Police Records: Their Installation and Use, pp. 9, 25, 27.

¹³ Burton Dean Friedman, *Punched Card Primer* (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1954), p. 4.

Facilities and Equipment

The quality of police services and the success of many police operations are decisively influenced by the adequacy and condition of department facilities and equipment. Police buildings and equipment of high quality create a favorable public impression and raise the morale and prestige of the police department. Departmental facilities may include all or a portion of the following: crime laboratory, jail, booking room, finger printing facilities, photography facilities, interrogation room, pistol range, assembly hall, garage, off-street parking facilities, and gymnasium. Equipment of the police force may include various types of motor vehicles (such as automobiles, motorcycles, and patrol wagons), protective devices (such as armored shields and vests), a public-address system, a lie-detector, and punch-card or other mechanical tabulating equipment (discussed in the preceding chapter).

PHYSICAL FACILITIES

While all police departments do not have a wide range of physical facilities, the existing facilities should be so arranged, used, and maintained as to give maximum service on an economical basis. This survey makes no attempt to measure the adequacy or relative quality of departmental facilities or equipment; it shows only whether or not the police department has the particular facility or type of equipment. The police chiefs themselves have rated the adequacy of their plant facilities (see section on "Police Building Facilities").

Most Texas departments have finger printing, jail, interrogation, and booking facilities. Finger printing facilities are reported by 86.4 per cent of the cities; of the 17 departments without such equipment of their own, nine reported that facilities are available. Ninety-nine out of 122 departments (81.1 per cent) have their own jail, and all 23 of the remaining cities report the availability of a county jail. An interrogation room for questioning purposes is reported by 95 cities (76 per cent), but 18 of the 30 cities without the facility reported its availability. A booking room (for control of prisoners while records and charges are being considered) was reported by 84 of 125

cities, and 18 of the 43 departments without such a room had one available. The only bracket in which a minority of cities reported this facility is bracket 5, wherein nineteen of the 39 cities replied affirmatively. Small police departments may have no real need for two separate rooms for interrogation and booking purposes, and the booking room may double as an interrogation room, or vice versa. However, this survey did not inquire as to whether or not such dual use is made of departmental facilities; departments answered "yes" or "no" on separate questions regarding interrogation and booking facilities.

Slightly less than half the cities, or 62 of 125, have photography facilities. In brackets 1, 2, and 3, a majority of cities reported this facility—33 out of the 36 cities of 25,000 population and over. Twenty-five of the 63 cities without such equipment reported its availability.

One authority states that there is no question as to whether or not the police should have a laboratory, but rather, how completely it should be staffed and equipped, its place in the organization, and what its duties and relationships with the operating divisions should be. Despite its essentiality, a laboratory is found in only eight of 125 Texas police departments (6.4 per cent) surveyed. A total of 56 of the 117 cities without a police crime laboratory reported that one is available. The extent of laboratory and other physical facilities of Texas municipal police departments is given in Table 26.

Police Headquarters and Offices. Circumstances such as the size of the city, existing buildings, and local tradition will determine the location of police headquarters—in the city hall, in joint city-county facilities, or in a separate police building. One text states that convenience in operations, along with savings in police manpower and public convenience, dictates that all police officers and also the court, the prosecutor's office, and the traffic violator's bureau be located in the headquarters building.4 There is another school of thought, however, which maintains that the corporation court should be located in a separate building from that occupied by the police department, or, if they are to be situated in the same building, that they occupy completely separate facilities. This view is based on the concept that the court and police department operate under separate branches of the government—the court under the judiciary and the police department under the executive—and that their respective facilities should indicate this distinction. In any event, provision should also be made for adequate assembly spaces, a gymnasium, a pistol range, and for a police garage. Off-street park-

¹ Wilson, Police Administration, pp. 277, 295.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 288, 290.

³ Ibid., pp. 270-271.

⁴ Ibid., pp. 278-279.

TABLE 26

PHYSICAL FACILITIES IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

			Number of D	epartments by F	opulation Brack	cet	
Type of Facility	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting
Crime laboratory	3(4)*	2(7)	3(25)	0(50)	0(39)	8(125)	6.4
Jail	4(4)	7(7)	24 (25)	40(48)	24(38)	99(122)	81.1
Booking room	4(4)	7(7)	21(25)	33(50)	19(39)	84(125)	67.2
Interrogation room	4(4)	7(7)	22(25)	39(50)	23(39)	95(125)	76.0
Finger printing facilities	4(4)	7(7)	25 (25)	46(50)	26(39)	108(125)	86.4
Photography facilities	4(4)	7(7)	22(25)	17(50)	12(39)	62(125)	49.2

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

ing facilities have become quite important in recent years with the increasing traffic load and congestion of downtown streets in many cities, and should also be provided for in an adequate police headquarters.

Most Texas cities have police headquarters in the city hall; some 67 of the 120 cities replying, or 55.8 per cent, reported this location. However, most cities of 25,000 population and over (24 of 35 reporting) have a separate police building. All told, 39 cities (32.5 per cent) locate police headquarters in a separate building, six cities (5 per cent) use joint city-county facilities, and eight (6.7 per cent) have other arrangements.

Virtually all of the departments house all police offices in the same building (exclusive of sub-stations). One hundred and fourteen out of 120 cities reported this situation. Fifty-five out of 97 reporting departments (56.7 per cent) share a building with the corporation court alone, and three cities share a building with the traffic violator's bureau only. Many cities, of course, share their building with more than one office. Seventeen cities (17.5 per cent) share a building with both the city or corporation court and the traffic violator's bureau. Six cities occupy a building with the traffic violator's bureau, city or corporation court, and the city prosecutor's office. Four cities share a building with the court and the city prosecutor, and one city shares a building with the prosecutor and traffic violator's bureau.

Police Building Facilities. Off-street parking facilities and an assembly hall are provided in a majority of Texas police departments. Eighty-one of 125 cities reported off-street parking space, and 17 of the 44 departments without such parking stated that street facilities are adequate. Seventy of the 125 departments answering the questionnaire reported an assembly hall of their own, and 26 of the remaining 55 departments have one available. The smaller cities generally do not have assembly halls in their police buildings.

Police garage, pistol range, and gymnasium facilities were reported by only a few Texas police departments. Twenty-two cities out of 125 reported that they had a police garage of their own, 17 have a pistol range, and only six cities have a police department gymnasium. Among those which did not own these facilities, there were substantial numbers which had them available elsewhere in their respective communities. For a complete summary of police building facilities by population groupings, consult Table 27.

Police chiefs were asked to estimate the age of the building occupied by the police department. Answers ranged from 95 years to a few months (as of May 1, 1959). The average age of such buildings by population bracket was: bracket 1, 45 years; bracket 2, 17 years; bracket 3, 20 years; bracket 4, 41 years; and bracket 5, 30 years.

Rating of police plant facilities as superior, good, adequate, or inadequate was also requested. Forty-six out of the 121 departments which replied, or

1

Table 27 POLICE BUILDING FACILITIES IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS By Population Bracket

	Number of Departments by Population Bracket						
Type of Facility	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10m- 24m	(5) 5m- 9m		Per Cent of Total Reporting
Gymnasium	1(4)*	0(7)	0(25)	5(50)	0(39)	6(125)	
Pistol range	1(4)	2(7)	4(25)	9(50)	1(39)	17(125)	
Assembly hall	3(4)	5(7)	17(25)	28(50)	17(39)	70(125)	
Off-street parking		5(7)	20(25)	29(50)	24(39)	81 (125)	64.8
Police garage	2(4)	4(7)	4(25)	8(50)	4(39)	22(125)	17.6

^{*}The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

38 per cent, rated plant facilities as inadequate. Thirty-nine cities (32.2 per cent) rated their present facilities as good, 23 cities (19 per cent) rated them adequate; and 13 cities regarded them as superior. The rating of inadequate predominated in the three middle population brackets. In bracket 2, four departments rated their facilities as inadequate, two as good, and one as superior. In bracket 3, nine cities rated their police plant inadequate, seven good, five adequate, and four superior. In the 10,000–24,999 group, 22 cities rated facilities as inadequate, 15 as good, nine as adequate, and four as superior. In the 350,000-plus group, two cities regarded their police facilities as superior, and two as inadequate. In bracket 4, a total of 15 departments viewed their plants as good, nine as adequate, nine as inadequate, and two as superior.

DEPARTMENTAL EQUIPMENT

Armaments and other types of equipment of sufficient quantity to meet the needs of the force and which are in satisfactory operating condition at all times are essential to police operations of high quality. Among the eight types of police department equipment covered in the survey, only one was reported as being used by a majority of police departments—riot or shotguns. Ninety-seven cities, or 77.6 per cent of the 125 cities replying, are equipped with this type of weapon. Gas rifles and/or gas grenades are reported by 47.2 per cent of the departments. All of the cities of 100,000 population and over have such equipment, and 15 of the 25 cities in bracket 3 replied affirmatively. Rifles, which may be used in long-range firing and in rural areas, were reported by 54 departments, or 43.2 per cent.⁵ Again, all cities of 100,000 population and over have this type of equipment, as well as a majority of departments in bracket 3.

No other type of equipment is reported by more than one-third of the departments. Submachine guns are used by 30.4 per cent of the cities, but outside of its ability to command "respect" from criminals, riotous mobs, and the general public, this type of weapon has little value. A portable public-address system is useful in controlling large crowds and barricaded criminals, in riots, and in educating motorists and pedestrians. Some 27 departments, or 21.6 per cent, have such equipment. Protective devices, such as armored shields and vests, are part of the equipment of seven police departments (5.6 per cent), all of 25,000 population and over.

Lie-detectors, or polygraphs, are used as aids to investigation. These instruments record the bodily changes caused by the psychological effects of

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 309–310.

⁶ Ibid., pp. 310-311.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 315.

questions asked a subject.⁸ Lie-detectors are reported by ten cities, all in the first four population brackets. Three out of the four cities of 350,000 population and above reported this type of equipment. The types of equipment used by Texas police departments are summarized in Table 28.

Police Vehicles. Police departments employ various types of vehicles in performing police work. Automobiles are used for patrol purposes and also for other types of work, such as investigation of crimes and complaints. Motorcycles have considerable utility for traffic control and also for general patrol; however, they have lost ground to automobiles in recent years. Two-wheeled motorcycles are popular for traffic enforcement, parade, and escort duty, but these are "unsafe even in the hands of skillful operators". The three-wheeled motorcycle is considerably safer, has great utility for traffic patrol in congested areas, in enforcement of parking regulations, and in escort duty, but it lacks the all-around advantages of a closed automobile. Patrol wagons are used to transport prisoners, dead bodies, and injured or sick persons. 10

As indicated in Table 29, the automobile is by far the most common vehicle in Texas police departments. Over three-fourths of the total number of vehicles used by municipal police departments in this survey are automobiles (76.4 per cent). Next in popularity is the two-wheeled motorcycle (11.9 per cent), followed by the three-wheeled motorcycle (9.9 per cent) and the patrol wagon (1.5 per cent). Of a total of 2,043 reported vehicles, 1.561 were automobiles, 243 were two-wheeled motorcycles, 203 were threewheeled motorcycles, 30 were patrol wagons, five were trucks, and one was an armored car. By population brackets, 1,149 vehicles (56.2 per cent of the total) were reported from the four bracket 1 cities; 366 (17.9 per cent) were employed in bracket 2; 278 were used in bracket 3 (13.6 per cent); 179 were reported from bracket 4 (8.8 per cent); and 71 from bracket 5 (3.5 per cent). The traffic problems of the four largest cities are reflected by the fact that motorcycles, often used for traffic and parking laws enforcement, are found in greatest numbers in the first population bracket. Nearly half of the three-wheeled motorcycles (95 of 203) and two-thirds of the two-wheeled motorcycles (162 of 243) are used by the four cities of 350,000 population and over.

Motor vehicle maintenance may be accomplished by use of a police shop, a central municipal repair shop, or by contracting for maintenance commercially. One authority states that "theoretically a central municipal repair

^{8 &}quot;Polygraph Use Described at Conclave," Texas Police Journal, II (August, 1954),

⁹ Municipal Police Administration, pp. 262, 263.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 263, 470–471.

Table 28 TYPES OF EQUIPMENT USED BY TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS By Population Bracket

	Number of Departments by Population Bracket								
Type of Equipment	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting		
Rifles	4(4)*	7(7)	13(25)	20(50)	10(39)	54(125)	43.2		
Riot or shotguns	4(4)	7(7)	25 (25)	37(50)	24(39)	97(125)	77.6		
Gas rifles and gas grenades	4(4)	7(7)	15(25)**	24(50)†	9(39)††	59(125)	47.2		
Submachine guns	4(4)	7(7)	13(25)	12(50)	2(39)	38(125)	30.4		
Protective devices	3(4)	2(7)	2(25)	0(50)	0(39)	7(125)	5.6		
Riot clubs	3(4)	2(7)	5(25)	7(50)	9(39)	26(125)	20.8		
Lie-detectors	3(4)	3(7)	2(25)	2(50)	0(39)	10(125)	8.0		
Portable public-address system	4(4)	5(7)	6(25)	8(50)	4(39)	27(125)	21.6		

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.

** Gas grenades only in two of the 15 cities.

† Gas grenades only in five of the 24 cities.

†† Gas grenades only in one of the nine cities.

Table 29

NUMBER OF MOTOR VEHICLES EMPLOYED BY TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS

By Population Bracket

	Number of Vehicles by Population Bracket						
Type of Vehicle	(1) 350м and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Percentage of Total
Automobile	869	269	202	155	66	1,561	76.4
Two-wheeled motorcycle	162	24	52	4.	1	243	11.9
Three-wheeled motorcycle	95	65	23	16	4	203	9.9
Patrol wagon	23	2	· . 1	4	0	30	1.5
Other	0	6*	0	0	0	6	0.3
Total	1,149	366	278	179	71	2,043	100.0
Percentage of total	56.2	17.9	13.6	8.8	3.5	100.0	

^{*} Five trucks and one armored car.

E ADMINISTRATION IN TE

shop is able to maintain police vehicles most economically," but he also notes that a police shop is more likely to adjust its operations to meet particular police department needs and that smaller departments may benefit from use of a private garage. In Texas, 58 out of 119 reporting departments, or 48.7 per cent, use a central municipal repair shop. Forty-seven departments (39.5 per cent) contract for maintenance commercially. Ten departments use a police maintenance shop (8.4 per cent), and four departments reported other methods. Among the other methods of vehicle maintenance used are combination of a police shop and a central municipal shop; combination of commercial contract and central municipal maintenance; and division of type of maintenance by echelon. One city reported that its third echelon is maintained by a police shop, its fourth and fifth echelons are maintained by a central municipal repair shop, and commercial contract is used for major damages due to collisions.

Patrol Cars. Patrol cars may be owned by the municipality, owned by the individual police officers, or rented from a commercial dealer. One leading text favors the car rental plan on the grounds that it tends to secure new cars at more frequent intervals, effects substantial savings, and eliminates motor maintenance responsibility. Another notes that a rental plan has advantages for small departments lacking garage facilities, but that in larger cities, department ownership and service are usually more economical. described by the individual police officers, or rented from a commercial dealer. One leading text favors the car rental plan on the grounds that it tends to secure new cars at more frequent intervals, effects substantial savings, and eliminates motor maintenance responsibility.

In this survey all 125 departments replied to the question of patrol car ownership. A total of 121 departments, or 96.8 per cent, reported city ownership of patrol cars. Patrol cars in one city are owned by police officers; one city rents from a commercial dealer; one city's patrol cars are owned by both the city and also by police officers; and another rents patrol cars from commercial dealers and has officer-owned cars.

In answer to the question, "If patrol cars are owned by the city, are they leased to the police department by a central municipal garage or motorpool?", six cities replied in the affirmative and 116 in the negative. Of the cities which indicated the basis of such leases, two cities use a "mileage basis"; one leases on a seven-cents-a-mile basis, and one department on a seven-and-one-half-cents-a-mile basis.

Automobiles used for traffic patrol may contain many types of equipment or accessories. Sirens, red lights, spotlights, first-aid kits, two-way radios, public address systems, emergency lighting equipment, and fire extinguishers are often included as part of patrol car equipment. In recent years there has been much discussion as to the advisability of equipping patrol cars with sirens and red lights. One leading text states that

¹¹ Wilson, Police Administration, pp. 273–274.

¹² Municipal Police Administration, p. 470.

¹³ Wilson, Police Administration, p. 300.

Police cars in most jurisdictions must be equipped with a siren to qualify as an emergency vehicle. A powerful red light, preferably of the blinking type, should be installed in a position where its effectiveness will not be impaired at night by the glare of the headlights.¹⁴

Another leading text on police administration makes no mention of either a siren or a red light as possible patrol equipment.¹⁵

As shown in Table 30, the most widely reported (124 out of 125 departments) equipment for patrol cars used for traffic patrol in Texas police departments is the two-way radio. Sirens are reported as patrol car equipment in 122 of 125 cities (97.6 per cent). The three cities not having sirens are San Antonio, Fort Worth, and Austin. All of the cities except Austin and Brownsville report red lights on patrol cars. Thus Austin is the only city in the state without either red lights or sirens on patrol cars. ¹⁶

Spotlights are reported by 78.4 per cent of the departments; however, only four of the 11 cities of 100,000 population and over have such equipment on patrol cars. First-aid kits as patrol car equipment are reported by 74 cities, or 59.2 per cent of total. Public address systems are a part of patrol car equipment in 15 cities (12 per cent). Other equipment, such as three-way radios and fire extinguishers, is reported by three cities.

Police patrol cars may have manual gear shift or use automatic transmissions; they also have either six- or eight-cylinder motors. In Texas municipal police departments, the majority of patrol cars have eight-cylinder motors, and there are more patrol cars with automatic transmissions than with manual shifts. A total of 86.4 per cent of the departments (out of 118 answering) have eight-cylinder automobiles; 6.8 per cent (eight cities) have six cylinder cars; and 6.8 per cent (eight cities) have both types. Fifty-five of 117 reporting departments have automatic transmissions in patrol cars (47 per cent of the total); 45 cities (38.5 per cent) have manual shifts and 14.5 per cent have both types.

Eighty-eight answers to a query relative to horsepower ratings of patrol cars provided a wide variety of answers. Several cities reported different horsepower ratings, indicating no standard figure for all of the department's patrol cars. The approximate average horsepower for all of the 88 responding cities is 235. Thirty-four departments reported patrol cars with 300 horsepower or more (at least in some automobiles), and 20 departments reported 200 horsepower or less on at least a portion of their patrol cars. The varia-

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 297.

¹⁵ Municipal Police Administration, chapter 13.

¹⁶ Austin does have two collision investigation vehicles with a revolving red light on top to signal the scene of a collision.

Table 30 EQUIPMENT OF PATROL CARS USED FOR TRAFFIC PATROL IN TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS By Population Bracket

	Number of Departments by Population Bracket							
Type of Equipment	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25m- 99m	(4) 10м- 24м	(5) 5м- 9м	Total	Per Cent of Total Reporting	
Siren	2(4)	6(7)	25 (25)	50(50)	39(39)	122 (125)	97.6	
Red light	4(4)	6(7)	24(25)	50(50)	39(39)	123(125)	98.4	
Spotlight	2(4)	2(7)	21 (25)	42(50)	31 (39)	98(125)	78.4	
First-aid kit	3(4)	5(7)	11(25)	30(50)	25(39)	74 (125)	59.2	
Two-way radio	4(4)	7(7)	25 (25)	50(50)	38(39)	124(125)	99.2	
Public address	2(4)	1(7)*	5(25)	5(50)†	2(39)	15(125)	12.0	

^{*} The first figure, not enclosed in parenthesis, gives the number of cities replying in the affirmative; the figure in parenthesis gives the total number of cities reporting on this specific item.
† On a portion of patrol cars.

tions in horsepower ratings within the various population groups can be seen from the following tabulation.

Motorcycles. Generally, the larger municipalities use motorcycles in police work more intensively than the smaller cities. Motorcycle ownership may be on the same bases as patrol cars: city ownership, police officer ownership, or rental from a commercial dealer. Fifty of the 53 reporting departments stated that the city owns police motorcycles. Two cities, both in bracket 1, reported that two-wheeled motorcycles are owned by officers and three-wheeled motorcycles by the city. One department's motorcycles are owned both by the city and by the individual officer. Eleven departments with city-owned motorcycles lease them from a central municipal garage or motor pool. Thirty-seven cities do not have such a leasing arrangement. The terms of such leases vary; one city leases motorcycles on an eleven-cents-per-mile basis; one uses a seven-cents-per-mile basis; two cities use a "mileage basis"; and another "cost-per-mile-driven" basis.

Popula Bracket	Highest Horsepower	Average Horsepower	Lowest Horsepower
1	240	200	145
	(Houston)		(San Antonio)
2	305	212	200
	(Austin)		(Lubbock)
3	315	226	135
	(Abilene)		(Victoria)
4	350	249	125
	(Weatherford)		(San Benito)
5	340	235	105
	(Terrell Hills)		(Cisco)

VI

Public Relations

Public relations in general has been called "the management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an individual or organization with the public interest, and executes a program of action to earn public understanding and acceptance." Municipal public relations has been identified as "no less than the sum total of all the contacts, attitudes, impressions, and opinions that constitute the relationships between the public and its government." It is a "continuing process by which a city endeavors to obtain the good will of its employees and citizens; inwardly through self analysis and correction, and outwardly through all means of expression." Restricted to the police function, public relations has been defined as follows:

From a police standpoint, public relations is the proper acts and attitudes of the police to bring a satisfactory employee-employer relationship. A police public relations program requires the constant effort of every member of the department to create in the people a state of mind favorable to the police. Such a program is neither a drive nor a campaign, but rather an integral part of normal departmental procedure.⁴

One leading text has placed upon police the responsibility of realizing that the "essence of a proper police attitude is a willingness to serve" and has listed three requirements of a successful police public relations program:

(1) public resentment must be avoided; (2) public good will must be developed; and (3) the public must be kept advised of regulations and policies as well as the reasons for their adoption. Another author has noted that the

¹ G. G. and Denny Griswold, Your Public Relations (New York: Funk and Wagnalls, 1948), p. 4.

² The Technique of Municipal Administration (Chicago: The International City

³ R. L. Woods, "Public Relations Role of the City Employee," Texas Town and City, XLVI (February, 1959), p. 12.

⁴ Paul H. Ashenhust, *Police and the People* (Springfield, Ill.; C. C. Thomas, 1956), pp. 5-6.

⁵ Municipal Police Administration, pp. 481, 482.

fundamental principle of good public relations is simple: doing a good, efficient job in a courteous manner and then letting the public know about that job.⁶

Satisfactory public relations means much to the success of any police department. Co-operation from the public greatly simplifies the work of any police agency and helps in solving many types of criminal cases. The department is dependent upon the public for salaries and equipment; through a good public relations program, the public comes to know better the problems and activities of the police, and in the long run efficient police authority will be recognized and supported with proper salaries and good equipment. A good program also tends to protect the police from the dangers of corrupt politics.⁷

Attainment of good public relations for a police department is both a difficult and gigantic task. It is difficult because of the inherent nature of most police activities—correcting individual behavior and arresting law violators. It is a large operation, because so many individuals within the police organization necessarily must have numerous and frequent contacts with the general public. Among the many features and activities of police officers which affect public relations are their appearances and personal conduct at all times and in all places, telephone conversations, handling of criminals, contacts with traffic violators, direction of crowds and assemblies, and relations with the press and other communication media. Unless each of these activities is carried out with efficiency, honesty, and courtesy, total departmental public relations of good quality cannot be attained or sustained.

DEPARTMENTAL PUBLIC RELATIONS OFFICERS

While public relations in a broad sense concerns all members of the police force, formal public relations programs and policies must be devised and controlled. Police departments may vest responsibility and authority for such matters in a department public relations officer or they may be handled directly by the police chief. Out of 123 reporting departments, seven (5.7 per cent) reported a full-time public relations officer and nine (7.3 per cent) a part-time officer.

CIVIC AND OTHER PROGRAMS

Police departments over the nation have engaged in various civic activities, such as sponsoring juvenile athletic clubs and teams, junior traffic

patrols (which, in addition to being a civic program in a sense, assist in actual traffic control), and Boy Scout troops. Police departments have contributed much to the general welfare of the community and have played vital roles in minimizing juvenile delinquency.

In Texas, junior traffic patrols are the most prevalent type of civic program officially sponsored by police departments. Twenty-six cities sponsor such patrols. Twenty-two departments sponsor junior athletic teams or clubs; three sponsor Boy Scout troops and one department sponsors a Girl Scout troop. No department sponsors a summer camp. Among the other types of civic activity undertaken by police departments in Texas are: "Learn-To-Swim" program; Boy Scout merit badge for finger printing; Modified Auto Club; Junior Rifle Club; and a Safety Club. See Table 31 for a summary of department sponsorship of civic programs.

PUBLIC ADDRESSES

Members of police departments are often called upon to address luncheon clubs, women's clubs, school groups, and service organizations, and such invitations provide opportunity for the police department both to inform the public about police operations and to build public good will toward the department. Out of 122 departments replying to the query, "Do members of the department regularly speak in schools and before other groups?", 77 departments (63.1 per cent) replied affirmatively. Sixty-six of the 77 departments whose members speak regularly before groups replied that departmental approval for such talks is required.

POLICE BENEFITS

Police departments often conduct benefits for the benefit of the department as well as engaging in activities which benefit those outside the organization. In answer to the question, "What kind of benefits are conducted by the police department for the benefit of the police department?", 99 departments answered "none". Among the benefits reported were: police dances and balls, benevolent funds, relief funds, pension funds, burial funds, welfare funds, "buddy" funds, insurance funds, credit unions, and uniform funds.

ADVERTISEMENTS FOR DEPARTMENT PUBLICATIONS

Department publication of annual reports and pamphlets or brochures for general distribution has been discussed in Chapter IV. Advertisements may appear in police publications, and departments may or may not allow officers to sell such advertisements. Only six cities out of 123 (4.9 per cent) reported that officers sell advertisements. One of these stated that only the chief participated in the selling.

⁶ Richard L. Holcomb, *The Police and the Public* (Iowa City, Iowa: Institute of Public Affairs, Iowa State University, 1950), p. 6.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

TABLE 31

NUMBER OF TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS SPONSORING CIVIC PROGRAMS

By Population Bracket

	Number of Departments by Population Bracket							
Type of Program	(1) 350m and over	(2) 100м- 349м	(3) 25м- 99м	(4) 10m- 24m	(5) 5m- 9m	Total	Percentage of Total	
Total reporting	4	7	25	50	39	125	100.0	
Junior traffic patrols	2	2	2	11	9	26	20.8	
Junior athletic teams or clubs	3	4	7	6	2	22	17.6	
Boy Scout or Girl Scout troops	0	0	1	1	2	4	3.2	
Other	0	0	3	2	0	5	4.0	
					1			

ADMINISTRATION IN TEXA

VII

Summary

From the very inception of organized local government in Texas, the protection of life and property through enforcement of state law and municipal ordinances in urban areas has been a basic responsibility of municipal government. Texas cities and towns are given legal authority by state law and home rule charters to establish police forces to discharge this responsibility. In general law cities (those of 5,000 population or less) the office of city marshal is created by state statute, but it is also provided that cities may create the office of police chief and provide such additional police officers as they deem necessary by ordinance. Police departments in home rule cities (those above 5,000 population which have adopted their own charters) are governed by the legal authority provided in their respective charters.

Within this framework of legal authorization, Texas cities must adapt their individual police departments to local situations, needs, and resources which, in a state as large and diverse as Texas, will vary greatly from one community to another. This survey has attempted to discover, tabulate, and analyze briefly the organization, administrative practices, resources, and facilities which exist in these departments. Although the study has included only 125 of the state's 842 incorporated municipalities, this number represents 70 per cent of the cities having a population of 5,000 or more. Moreover, the combined population of these 125 cities, 5,806,191, represents approximately 60 per cent of the state's total population and 80 per cent of the state's urban population as of Mid-1959. With this extent of coverage, a reliable picture has been obtained and the data have permitted valid conclusions to be drawn on a state-wide basis.

ORGANIZATION AND STAFF

As would logically be expected, the larger Texas cities organize police activity by divisions—patrol, traffic, detective, and service are the main types. Although some cities below 25,000 population employ this organizational approach, smaller departments in the state generally do not divide personnel into divisions. The departments in larger cities also have a wider variety of specialized employees and larger number of employee classes in their administrative organization. For example, the nine deputy chiefs in

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the state are employed by three cities in the two largest population groups. Employment of police officers as laboratory technicians is found in only 12.2 per cent of the reporting cities, but all four of the cities having at least 350,-000 population assign officers to this type of duty. Inspectors, captains, lieutenants, and detectives are used primarily by departments in cities of 25,000 population or more. As anticipated, some types of employees, such as patrolmen, sergeants, assistant chiefs, night chiefs, and civilian employees, are present in greater or lesser numbers throughout all population groups.

While the primary functions of law enforcement are carried out by police officers, the auxiliary duties of police departments such as clerical work, switchboard operation, and laboratory work are often performed by civilian employees. Texas cities generally do not employ police officers in auxiliary or administrative work. Warrant serving, radio dispatching, parking meter patrol, and photographic work are the only auxiliary duties performed by police officers in a majority of departments. Within this general pattern there are many variations from one municipality to another, and some departments, especially in the lower population groups, have no civilian emplovees.

In line with municipal functions generally, the number of police department personnel increases as the population of a city increases. More significantly, the larger cities also have greater numbers of policemen and total department employees (including civilian employees) in relative terms, i.e., per 5,000 population. Cities in the largest population group, for example, have an average of 6.0 policemen per 5,000 population, while those in the 5,000-9,999 bracket have an average of 4.0 policemen for the same unit of population. In terms of total departmental employees, the average for bracket 1 is 7.1 per 5,000 population, and the bracket 5 average is 4.6. The averages for both employee categories in the population categories below 100,000 population are close together, indicating a rather uniform decrease in both population and number of employees. In smaller cities, the departments located in cities which are county seats tend to rely more heavily on the law enforcement aid of the county sheriff's office than do departments in non-county seat cities, and consequently they have fewer employees.

Coverage of patrol area by patrolmen ranges from 0.47 square mile per patrolman in population bracket 1 to 1.46 square miles in the 5,000-9,999 population group. A definite correlation between patrol area coverage and the number of policemen and total department employees per population exists for some cities in the survey. All of the cities having at least 100,000 population have established patrol districts to facilitate their work, but only 18 of the remaining 104 cities which reported use such divisions. One-man

patrol cars are used exclusively in the majority of Texas departments, but some cities use both one- and two-man patrol units, and some use two-man patrol cars altogether.

EXPENDITURES AND COMPENSATION

SUMMARY

Texas' larger cities budget more for police purposes and total municipal expenditures on a per-capita as well as an absolute basis. Cities in the first population bracket (350,000 and over) budget an average of \$7.70 per person annually for police purposes, while the per capita averages for the remaining groups are: \$5.31, \$5.28, \$4.99, and \$3.25 per year, respectively. The average budgeted expenditure for police departments on a statewide basis is \$5.31 per annum. While the per-capita figures exhibit considerable variation, the percentages of total city budgets devoted to police expenditures show a marked uniformity—about 15 per cent of total operating expenditures.

Police chiefs draw the highest salaries in municipal police departments, and the chiefs of the four largest cities earn substantially more per month than their counterparts in smaller departments. The group averages run from \$943 monthly in bracket 1 to \$356 monthly in bracket 5. With reference to salaries of police patrolmen in Texas, the same pattern holds true. Bracket 1 cities pay the highest beginning and maximum monthly salaries, and the departments in the 5,000-9,999 population bracket pay the lowest salaries.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

As in other types of organization, personnel administration is of integral importance to the success of police administration. Thirty-one Texas municipalities have civil service for policemen; twenty-nine have adopted the state statute for firemen and policemen, and two have local systems. All of the cities of 100,000 population or more have either state or local civil service. The larger cities use position classification plans more extensively than do the smaller municipalities, with over half of the cities with such plans being located in the top three brackets. Departmental personnel officers, either full- or part-time, are reported by nine of the 11 cities in brackets 1 and 2, and by a total of 24 departments.

Cities differ significantly in the matter of officer recruitment specifications. Texas departments generally require a character investigation of the recruit, a medical examination, a high school education or its equivalent, and community residence. Intelligence tests, agility tests, psychological tests, and written examinations are specified by a minority of the departments surveyed. Specifications of age, height, and weight also show dissimilarity. The most frequently used limits are: age, 21 to 35 years; height, 5'-8" to 6'-5"; and weight, 150 to 235 pounds. Most cities recruit and certify police officers by action of the chief (although cities of at least 100,000 usually rely on civil service). Single appointment of the police chief is divided among the city manager (44 per cent of the cities), the mayor (17.6 per cent), and civil service (9.6 per cent). Combination approvals, such as appointment by the manager with concurrence of the council and the mayor and city commission jointly, are required in a number of municipalities.

Probation is required of recruits in more than three-fourths of the surveyed cities, with larger cities usually imposing a longer period than the smaller departments. Texas cities generally do not require pre-duty training of recruits, although 40 per cent of the departments make this training mandatory. Almost all departments allow their police officers to attend outside training courses both in and out of the state. In the ten-year period ending May 1, 1959, a total of 1,791 police officers attended outside training schools, the most popular of which were the Texas Department of Public Safety School (661 officers) and the Teaxs A&M Municipal Police Training Course (609 officers). Other schools attended by Texas police officers included: SMU Institute of Law Enforcement, FBI National Academy, Northwestern University Traffic Institute (Long and Short Courses), Federal Bureau of Narcotics Training Course, Southern Police Institute, Southern California University Juvenile Delinquency Institute, and the University of Houston police school (attended exclusively by 228 Houston officers during the period).

The hours of work of policemen have been greatly affected by the 1959 amendments to the state Firemen's and Policemen's Civil Service Law which specified that policemen, under normal circumstances, could not be required to work more hours per week than the normal work week of the majority of city employees other than firemen and policemen in cities of over 10,000 population. Policemen must also be paid time and one-half for overtime work. Many cities were forced to increase the size of the police department and its budget as a result of this law. Outside employment and private police duties are permitted by a majority of departments, with the cities generally exercising supervision over such activity. Less than half of the departments in Texas use service ratings or "efficiency reports". However, 75 per cent of the cities of at least 25,000 population use them. Semi-annual rating is the most frequently used interval. About three out of four departments consider efficiency reports effective. About half of the departments state that efficiency ratings are used for guidance purposes only in making promotion decisions.

Most departments provide either uniforms or uniform allowances (79.8

per cent), but less than a third grant clothing allowances to plain-clothesmen. The types of equipment which are supplied by a majority of departments include flashlights, flashlight batteries, and handcuffs. A minority of departments provide sidearms, ammunition, night sticks, or other types of equipment.

As has been pointed out earlier in the study, there seems to be definite divergence from the state civil service law in the policies of a number of cities in Texas. This variance has been noted in the matters of vacation days granted, military leave policies, sick leave practices, and injury leave policies.

Vacation allowances vary over the state, but 42.4 per cent of the departments grant 12 working days vacation. Thirty-one cities grant 15 working days (24.8 per cent), and 21 cities grant from one to 11 days (16.8 per cent). One city does not grant annual paid vacation and the vacation allowance in one municipality is 21 working days per year. Slightly more than one-half, or 53.4 per cent, of the cities grant military leave. About four out of five which do grant such leave pay the officer's salary and expenses while on leave. Three-fourths of the departments have a formal sick leave policy, and 96.2 per cent of the departments grant sick leave. Two weeks of paid sick leave per year is the most frequently reported time period. Most cities allow accumulation of sick leave from year to year, and most allow non-paid sick leave for extended illness or disability. Most cities do not pay accumulated sick leave to the officer who resigns or is fired. Almost all cities grant paid leaves of absence to officers injured in the line of duty, with the officers entitled to indefinite leave in some cities and lesser periods in others. Four out of five cities provide medical care for policemen injured in the line of duty. Most departments have group hospital and/or surgical insurance plans, and slightly more than one-half have workmen's compensation for police. Pensions for police officers are provided by about 40 per cent of Texas cities, and officers are subject to compulsory retirement in 35 per cent of the cities -usually at age 65 or 75.

RECORDS AND REPORTS

Basic records essential to the satisfactory performance of police duties include finger print records, arrest records, criminal history and photograph records, complaint records, property records, traffic violation records, departmental rules and regulations, and various summaries of operations. The records generally maintained by Texas police departments are: finger print

¹ At the time the data were collected for this study, prior to the 1959 amendments to the state civil service law, the six-day work week was the most common in Texas.

cards, criminal histories, records of physical characteristics, and multiple-copy, serially-numbered traffic tickets. Most departments locate records in a central records bureau. Punch-card equipment is used by only 6.5 per cent of the departments, but all four cities in bracket 1 use such equipment in their police work. Generally, departments have books of departmental rules and regulations, but do not have procedural manuals. Most cities publish an annual report of the police department's activities, but few publish information or material other than the annual report.

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT

Physical facilities and equipment vary widely in number and type. Most municipal police departments have facilities for finger printing, interrogation, jail, and booking purposes. Cities of 25,000 population and above usually have photography facilities, and crime laboratories are found principally in the departments of bracket 1. Police headquarters is usually located in city hall, and virtually all police offices are located in one building, exclusive of sub-stations. With reference to police building facilities, departments generally have off-street parking facilities and assembly halls. However, less than half of the cities reported police garages, gymnasiums, and pistol ranges. Based on individual ratings by police chiefs, 38 per cent of the cities have inadequate facilities; 32.2 per cent rate their facilities good; 19 per cent adequate; and 10.8 per cent superior.

Riot guns and shotguns are standard equipment in most Texas departments. In departments of cities having at least 25,000 population submachine guns, gas rifles and/or grenades, and rifles are regular equipment. Lie detectors, portable public-address systems, protective devices, and riot clubs are used primarily by cities of 100,000 or more population.

Motor vehicles constitute the major type of equipment used by police departments. Automobiles, in turn, are the most common type of vehicle, and comprise 76.4 per cent of all vehicles used in municipal police departments. Other types of Texas police vehicles are: three-wheeled motorcycles (11.9 per cent), two-wheeled motorcycles (9.9 per cent), and patrol wagons (1.5 per cent). In a large majority of cities the city government owns both patrol cars and motorcycles. About one-half of the cities (48.7 per cent) use a central municipal repair shop for motor vehicle maintenance, and 39.5 per cent contract for maintenance commercially. Patrol cars in Texas departments are generally equipped with sirens, red light, spotlights, first-aid kits, and two-way radios, but not with public-address systems. Most police patrol cars are of the eight-cylinder type; 47 per cent of the departments have automatic transmission in patrol cars and 38.5 per cent have manual gear shifts. Patrol car horsepower usually runs well over 200, and 34 departments

nave cars with at least 300 horsepower. The average horsepower for patrol cars by population bracket ranges from about 200 in bracket 1 to approximately 249 in the 10,000–24,999 group.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

Sixteen Texas departments have appointed full- or part-time departmental public relations officers to specialize in this aspect of administration. Various types of civic and other programs are sponsored by departments, with the major ones being traffic patrols, junior athletic teams and clubs, and Boy and Girl Scout troops. Most police departments have members speaking regularly in schools and before other groups. Some departments conduct benefits for the department itself and its members, such as benevolent funds, pension funds, and police dances and balls.

CONCLUSION

This survey has pointed up many similarities and differences in various facets of municipal police administration in Texas. On balance, the differences—among individual city operations and among groups of cities are more pronounced than the similarities and leave any user of the data with the basic conclusion that uniformity is not the rule in Texas police departments at this time. Many of the differences can be attributed to size variations in the cities surveyed, with two distinct "breaking points" being evident. Cities of 25,000 population and above, for example, tend to have more complex types of police activities, greater numbers and more specialized classes of employees, divisional organization, higher per capita expenditures for police purposes, a greater number of policemen and departmental employees per unit of population, more intensive patrol coverage of incorporated areas, and more highly developed records, equipment, and public relations programs. Along with this primary break at the 25,000 population level, a secondary dichotomy is evident between cities above and below 100,000 population. The eleven cities above the latter population point differ markedly from their smaller counterparts in such matters as civil service adoptions, clothing allowances to plain-clothesmen, police garages, and departmental procedural manuals.

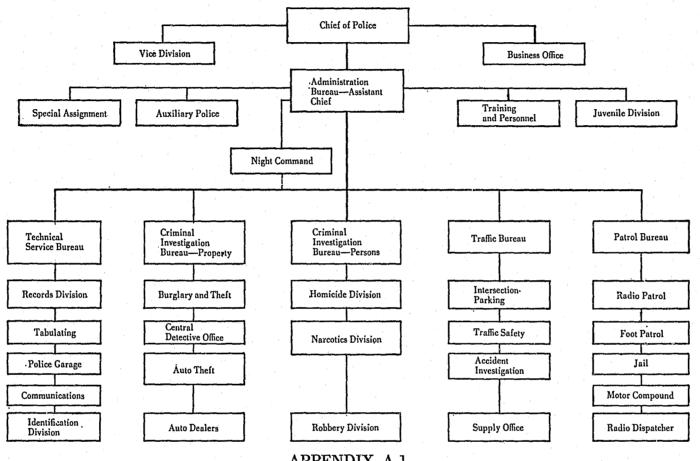
These variations exist, in part at least, because of differences in the social, economic, and political character of urban communities in different sections of the state. A social problem giving rise to police activity in one city, for example, may be completely non-existent or prevalent to a lesser degree in a community of equal size in some other section of the state. Even where identical needs for law enforcement may exist in two municipalities, variations in community attitudes and financial resources may spell the difference be-

tween a competent, well-trained, and well-equipped police force in one and a mediocre police department in the other. So long as these inherent differences exist, and so long as law enforcement is primarily a local governmental responsibility, it is unrealistic to believe or suggest that all variations in police administration can be brought to one level of uniformity throughout the state.

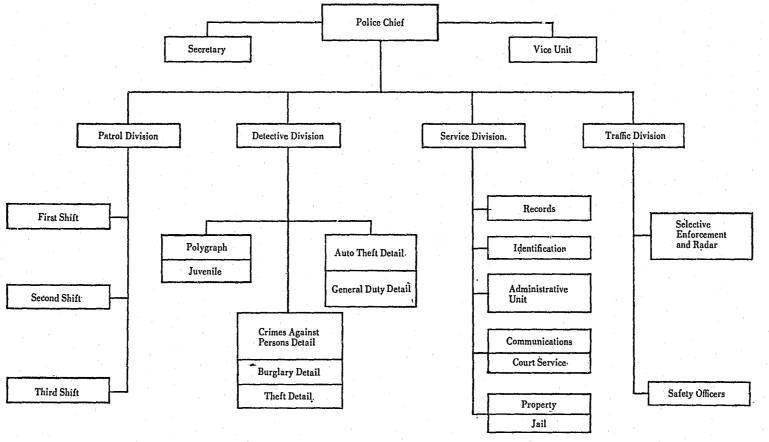
While recognition must be given to this fact, however, it is equally apparent from the data disclosed in this survey that there are areas of deficiency in the police administrations of some cities. For example, it is highly questionable whether a city government should ever hire a man to perform the duties of a police officer without first making a complete investigation of his character; yet a few Texas departments do not make this investigation. Physical well-being and agility are prerequisite to the satisfactory performance of duty by individual policemen; yet some departments in Texas do not examine applicants for these qualities. Arrest records and records of reported offenses are essential to efficient police work, but such records are not kept by all departments included in this survey. Finally, despite the fact that such components of sound personnel administration as position classification, formal personnel regulations, competitive written examinations, recruit training, and probationary periods are considered essential to minimum standards of performance, they do not exist on a universal scale in Texas at the present time.

How, when, and to what extent each of these deficiencies is to be remedied is beyond the scope of this study. It is not inappropriate to suggest, however, that the indications and comparisons made here can serve as a point of departure for evaluation, decision, and action by those who are ultimately responsible for the substance of police administration in every Texas city and town—the police chief, the chief executive, and the governing body. If such use is made by all of these parties, the result should be not only an eventual elimination of weak spots in the police systems of individual cities but also a genuine elevation of the quality of police administration for the state as a whole.



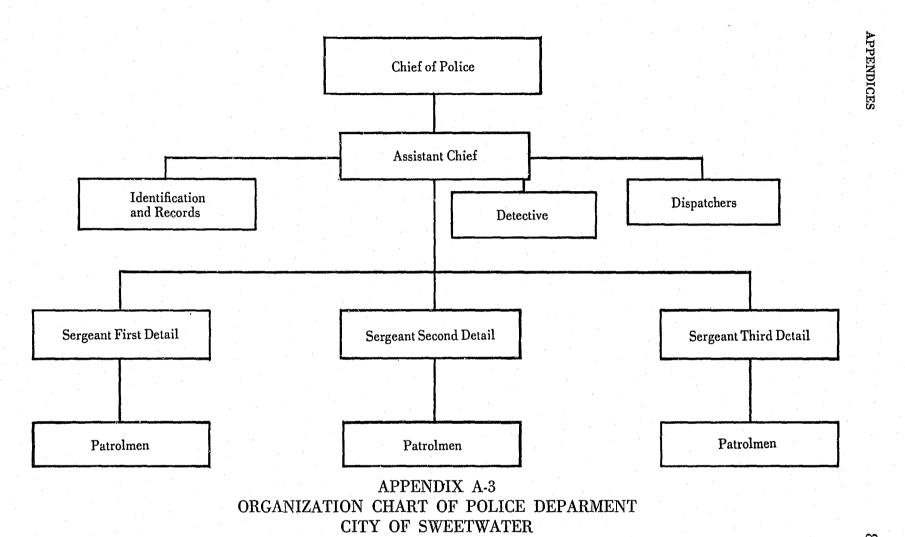


APPENDIX A-1
ORGANIZATION CHART OF POLICE DEPARTMENT
CITY OF HOUSTON



APPENDIX A-2
ORGANIZATION CHART OF POLICE DEPARMENT
CITY OF WACO

APPENDICE



APPENDIX B

NUMBER OF POLICE OFFICERS AND EMPLOYEES IN TEXAS CITIES

By Rank and City

	Estimated City	City Area	Com-		Assist-	Danu							Solo Motor- cycle			(Civilia Em-	n	
Cities Reporting	Population 1959	in Square Miles	or Director		ant	ty	Night	Inspec- tor	Cap- tain	Lieu- tenant	Ser- geant	Detec- tive	Patrol-	Patrol	- Police Women	Ma- trons	ploy-	Other	Total
Bracket 1														1					
(350,000 and over)																			
Houston	925,000	352.0		1	1			6	17	28	41	145	34	625	12	7	289	108	1,314
Dallas	679,300	271.9		- 1	1	5	1	4	17	35	77	145	50	594	5	4	174	22	1,135
San Antonio	571,422	160.1		1				4	11	21	61	110	19	298		5	111	****	641
Fort Worth	399,000	147.6		1	2	3			13	10	. 31	60	47	324		4	51	32	578
Bracket Sub-total	2,574,722	931.6	0	4	4	8	- 1	14	58	94	210	460	150	1,841	17	20	625	162	3,668
Bracket 2																			
(100,000-349,999)																			
El Pro	290,000	103.0	••	1	••		••		6	12	. 18	58	8	123	4	•-			230
Austin	197,000	54.0		1	1		••		7	19	11	40		124	1	٠	58	44	306
Corpus Christi	180,000	37.5	•-	1	2		. 1		5	7	12	27	12	83		1	16	8	175
Lubbock	148,000	75.5		1	1				7	9	20	7	5	110			13	7	180
Amarillo	147,000	36.7		1	1	1			6	10	17	13	10	83	1	-	29	5	177
Wichita Falls	120,000	16.9		1		٠	••	••	3	5	7	7		72	4	•	2	1	102
Waco	118,000	40.0		1					4	6	9	14		72		1	11		118
Bracket Sub-total	1,200,000	363.6	0	7	. 5	1	1	0	38	68	94	166	35	667	10	2	129	65	1,288
BRACKET 3																			
(25,000-99,999)																			
Odessa	95,000	16.4	•	1	1				. 7		4	12	. 8	57	4	1	7		102
Abilene	80,000	48.8		1	1				6	3	4	5	6	48					74
San Angelo	70,000	29.5		1	2		••		2	1	6	6	9	33			1		61
Port Arthur	63,094	20.0		1.	2		1	••	4		5	7	6	38	3	2		- 5	74

CES

APPENDIX B—Continued

NUMBER OF POLICE OFFICERS AND EMPLOYEES IN TEXAS CITIES

By Rank and City

	Estimated City	City Area	Com- missioner		Assist-	Depu-							Solo Motor- cycle	Other			Civilia: Em-	_		=
Cities Reporting	Population 1959	in Šquare Miles	or Director		ant	tv	Night	Inspec- tor	Cap- tain	Lieu- tenant	Ser- geant	Detec- tive	Patrol- men	Patrol-	- Police Women	Ma- trons	plov-	Other	Total	
Tyler	56,000	17.5		1	1				2	2	7	4	1	39			2	1	60	
Irving	45,000	20.0	••	1	1	•		••			4	2	1	18			. 2	2	31	
Victoria	45,000	11.9	••.	1			••	••		3	4	2	2	26					38	
Brownsville	44,000	8.8	,	1	• ••				1	. 3	6	6	6	22					45	
Longview	42,059	11.5		1	1			3		4	2	3	24			2			40	
Orange	41,556	11.7		1	1				3		4	1	10	14	1	٠.	3		38	
Harlingen	38,000	32.0		- 1						4	- 5	3		15			11		39	
Temple	37,000	16.8		1				•=	2	4	3	4	2	15				1	32	
Grand Prairie	35,000	14.5		1				••		1	4	2	1	22	••		2	1	34	
Corsicana	32,000	10.0	· · ·	1	1				2	- 1	•			20			1		26	
Texas City	32,000	45.0		1				:	1	2	4	•		29			4		41	
Denton	30,000	10.0		1		•••			3		4	1	2	19			•		30	
Texarkana	30,000	******		1	1			••		1	2	1	1			•		17	24	
Baytown	29,950	15.0		1	1		, •• :			1	3	1	1			••	2		10	
Garland	28,150*		••	1	1					1	4	3	1	18			2		31	
Kingsville	28,101	7.6	• •	1	•-		••	••	1		2	2	1	9	·	**	1	4	 21	
Big Spring	28,000*			1	••	:		٠	3		3	2	2	18	2		3	6	40	
Pampa	26,720			1	1					1	1			13	2		6	2	27	
Killeen	26,646	3.5	•	1						2	3	1		12	1	••		2	22	
Denison	25,500	9.5	••	1					4		3			9			2	1	20	
Borger	25,000	***		1		••	••	•-		2	3		1	6	2	••	4		19	
Bracket Sub-total	1,033,776	360.0	0	25	15	0	1	3	41	36	90	68	85	500	15	5	53	42	979	

APPENDIX B—Continued

NUMBER OF POLICE OFFICERS AND EMPLOYEES IN TEXAS CITIES

By Rank and City

Cities Reporting	Estimated City Population 1959	City Area in Square Miles	01	oner		ant	- Depu- ty Chief	Night f Chief	t Inspec	- Cap- tain	Lieu- tenant	Ser- geant	Detec-	Patrol-	Other Patrol	- Police Women	Ma-	Civilian Em- ploy- s ees		Т	'otal
BRACKET 4												:									
(10,000-24,999)																					
Haltom City	24,000	10.0			1				1	1		2	1	•	10	••		4	1		21
Brownwood	23,764	7.3			1	1					2	4		**	13	••	٠	• ••			21
Del Rio	23,000	6.0			1		••	••			••	2		•	8			1	1		13
Mesquite	23,000	22.0			1	••					••	3	1		10	••	• ••	4	••		19
Alice	22,945	•			1			••	•	•••	1	2		' 1	5	••	🔻		4		14
Greenville	21,000				1				4		5	2	1	10		-		••	1		24
Lufkin	20,846	4.0			1	1		••		2	1.	3	1	1	12	1		•	1		24
Cleburne	18,000	5.0			1	1					••	1			13			•	••		16
Snyder	18,000	3.8			1	••			••	1		3		••	15	• ••		••	4		24
West University Pla	ace 17,694	1.9			1			••	••	2		1	•	••	7	+		1	, 		12
Sweetwater	17,408*	6.6			1	1			••	•		4	1	••	11	• ••	••	•	4		22
San Benito	17,000	6.0			1				•••					••	7	**		••			8
McKinney	16,653	26.0			1	••		••	••		3	4	1	••	12	• ••			••		21
Bay City	16,000			••	1			••	••						8	1	••		,		10
Weslaco	15,700				1			••	•••			1			5		••	3	2		12
New Braunfels	15,603*	•		•	1	1			••			•	3	•,•	9	••	• 4.		2		14
Beeville	15,500	4.0			1	••						1		••	6	•		7			15
Pecos	15,500			1	1	. 1			••	'2		1			- 5		••	3			15
Palestine	15,060*	6.2			1	1		•	•• .		٠				13	••					15
Vernon	15,000	4.3	4	•	1			••	••	3		3		1	- 5				3		16
Waxahachie	15,000	5.0			1			•	:			1			9	•	••	. 1			12

PENDICE

APPENDICES

APPENDIX B—Continued NUMBER OF POLICE OFFICERS AND EMPLOYEES IN TEXAS CITIES

	Estimated City	City Area	Com- missioner		Assist-	Depu-		,					Solo Motor- cycle	Other			ivilia Em-	n.	
Cities Reporting	Population 1959	in Šquare Miles	or Director		ant Chief	ty Chief	Night Chief	Inspec- tor	- Cap- tain	Lieu- tenant	Ser- geant	Detec-	Patrol-	· Patrol	- Police Women	Ma- trons	plov-	Other	Total
Freeport	14,700	7.2		1					1	••		1		8			4	4.	15
La Marque	14,500	7.6	••	1	. 1		••	•		••			٠	4	••	••	4		10
San Marcos	14,300	9.4	••	1				•	•-		1			5			7	٠	14
Kilgore	14,000			1	. 1			•	••		3		1	14					20
Lamesa	14,000	4.4		1			•		1		1			9	5			- 1	18
Nacogdoches	13,500	6.0	••	1	. 1		••		•••					10		•••	3		15
Richardson	13,500	36.0		. 1		••			••		- 3		•	6	1 ,				11
White Settlement	13,000	13.0		1					1,	:••	2			4	2		٠		10
Raymondville	12,934	1.6	••	. 1			•••		-,		٠			2				4	7
Eagle Pass	12,500	15.0		1						• ••				6		4.	4		11
Galena Park	12,500	4.0	1	1	•	••	•••	••,			1		••	6	3				12
Highland Park	12,500	2.2	• ••	1	•		1		1	٠				14		•	٠	3	20
Andrews	12,000	3.0		1		•	••			•	·			4	•			1	6
Farmers Branch	12,000	11.9		1					٠	,				7			•	4	12
Mineral Wells	12,000			1			1		٠		1		1	7		٠			11
Weatherford	12,000			1	•	••	••.			•	1	••		8	1		3		14
Huntsville	11,700*	9.8		1			••		٠					7	٠				8
Brownfield	11,500	4.0		1		••		• ••	1	3	٠.					1	2		8
Henderson	11,500	12.0	1	1		••				••		•••		10	٠	• ••	3	1	16
Conroe	11,000	5.1	•	1	1	•••				••		3	••		7	2	••	2	16
Aransas Pass	10,300	34.0		1	1								·	4	1			3	10
Monahans	10,158	3.0		1						•	2			4				4	. 11
Nederland	10,124	18.0		1	1						••			1		••		1	4
El Campo	10,000	4.0		1	1		••			••			••	4	•		3		9

APPENDIX B—Continued NUMBER OF POLICE OFFICERS AND EMPLOYEES IN TEXAS CITIES

Cities	Estimated City Population	City Area in Square	Com- missioner or		Assist-	Depu-	Night	Inspec	- Cap-	Lieu-	Ser-	Detec-	Solo Motor cycle Patrol	Other	- Police		Civilian Em- ploy-	n.	
Reporting	1959	Mîles	Director	Chief	Chief	Chief	Chief	tor	tain	tenant	geant	tive	men	men	Women	trons	ees	Other	Total
Kerrville	10,000	3.9	••	1							3	1		5	1				11
Levelland	10,000		•	1	••					••	3			6			4		14
Mount Pleasant	10,000	10.0		1							2			6					, 9
Sulphur Springs	10,000	20.0	••	1	1						1			8			4	••	15
Uvalde	10,000	3.1		1				••			1		44	4			3		9
Bracket Sub-total	732,889	366.3	3	50	15	0	2	5	15	16	63	14	15	356	23	3	68	46	694
BRACKET 5																			
(5,000–9,999) Athens	9,500	5.0		1	1									3			. 1		6
Hereford	9,500	3.0		1 3	1	••			•	••				5	 1		7		15
Littlefield	9,302	3.0	••	1	1		••	-,-	•	••	1			4	4.		. "	-	10
Colorado City	9,090*	2.5		1	1			••	••		-7		••	4	4	•	••		10
Taylor	9,081	10.2		7			••	••			 1		•	6		-	2	••	10
Hillsboro	9,000	8.0	••	1	••	••				••	-		7	4		••	2		8
Donna	8,500	1.9		ī	••	. ••	••	•••		••				4				-	5
Burkburnett	8,143*	*****		1		••	••				••			3		•		ī	5
Stephenville	8,000*	6.0		1	1				•••	•	••	••		5	•		2	_	9
Breckenridge	7,500	2.0		. ĵ						-			••	7	•		1	·	9
Sinton	7,500*			1	1					-				4			1	2	9
Yoakum	7,200*	******		1	-									2			1		4
Perryton	7,100	4.2		ī					1		1			5			2	1	11
Lockhart	7,067	6.0		1	1		1						-		,		-		3
Crockett	7,000	4.0		1					-					4			2	••	7
Mathis	7,000	2.5		1					7		-			2				1	4

PENDIC

APPENDIX B—Continued NUMBER OF POLICE OFFICERS AND EMPLOYEES IN TEXAS CITIES By Rank and City

Cities	Estimated City Population	in Square	Com- missioner or	•	ant	Depu-	Night	Inspec	- Cap-	Lieu-	Ser-	Detec-	Solo Motor- cycle Patrol-	Other Patrol	- Police Women	Ma-	Civilian Em- ploy-		
Reporting	1959	Miles	Director	Chief	Chief	Chief	Chief	tor	tain	tenant	geant	tive	men	men	Women	trons	ees	Other	Total
Refugio	6,750	9.0	1	1		٠	••				٠			2		1	1	•	5
Falfurrias	6,711			1		•		4-			•			2			2		. 5
Slaton	6,600	3.7	••	1				•-	•		1			5	••		2		9
Clute	6,500			1	••	•	••	••		٠	·							2	3
Crane	6,156*	3.0	•	1		•		••	, 					. 3	••		•	••	4
Lampasas	6,100*			1	1	•								2	<u>.</u>			••	4
Bellmead	6,000	2.0	••		-1				:	•				2	1				4
Canyon	6,000	2.0	1.	1				,		••				2	1	•			- 5
Copperas Cove	6,000	6.9		1	٠									. 1					2
Gonzales	6,000	1.7		1	1	••						٠							2
Jasper	6,000	7.0		1	. 3	•				•			, ,	2		•		1	5
La Porte	6,000	20.0	1	-1	1						•			2	1			3	9
Mineola	6,000	10.0		1	••						1			2		••	1		5
Terrell Hills	6,000	2.0		- 1							1			3					5
Ballinger	5,840	2.0		1						•				4	•		1		6
Cisco	5,650	10.0	1	. 1	••						1				1	••	4	- 1	9
Brady	5,500*	5.2		1	1									3	1			. 1	7
Gladewater	5,305	******		1	1		1						1	8				1	13
Luling	5,209	4.5		1		,				•••					•				1
Deer Park	5,000			1	1		•			•			٠	2			. 1	3	8
Hondo	5,000	5.0		1				:						•					1
Seymour	5,000			1					•	•				2			٠		3
Taft	5,000			1										1				1	3
Bracket Sub-total	264,904	152.3	4	38	14	. 0	2	0	1	0	7	0	2	110	14	0	33	18	243
Grand total	5,806,191	2,172.9	7	124	53	. 9	7	22	153	214	464	708	287	3,474	79	30	908	333	6,872

^{*} Estimated population for 1959 not reported; figure used is 1957 estimate.

9

PERSONNEL COMPLEMENTS OF TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS BY ORGANIZATIONAL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION BRACKET*

(In Descending Order of Population)

	Pa	itrol		ber of Pers	sonnel by Investig	Divisions gation**	Ser	vice	
Population Bracket	Police- men E	Civilian Employees	Police- men E	Civilian mployees	Police- men E	Civilian mployees	Police- men E	Civilian Employees	Other
1. (350,000 and ov	er)								
Houston	372	4	253	11	169	20	36	98	
Dallas	426	4	163	3	155	9	117	151	a
San Antonio	307	24	49	0р	112	18	58	67	c
Fort Worth	260	0	137	2	70	5,	47	41	d
2. (100,000–349,99	99)								
El Paso	69	0	63	1	58	3	32	31	
Austin	85	6	58	45e	52	33 ^f	7	16	g
Corpus Christi	57	0	32	2	27	2	16	17 ^h	i
Lubbock	72	4	60	5	18	2			j
Amarillo	58	1	32	. 1	k	1	25	23	1
Waco	59	. 0	12	0	15	0	18	11	n
3. (25,000–99,999))								
Odessa	47	0	20	0	12	1	4	6	
Abilene	58	2	10	1	5	1	1	0	·
San Angelo	37	0	14	0	7	0	0	1	,n
Port Arthur	35	0	11	4	12	0	6	3	
Irving	0) <u>.</u>		**	2	0	5	2	
Brownsville	29	0	9	0	6	0	· ·	•	
Orange	17	2	10	1	1	0	••		••••
Harlingen	P	0	2	2	4	0			
Temple	,		24	0	8	0	·		
Grand Prairie	c	1			2	0	. 0	2	
Garland	22	0		. •• :	3	0	2	0	•
Big Spring	36	1	4	0	2	0	·	· 	,

APPENDICES

APPENDIX C-Continued

PERSONNEL COMPLEMENTS OF TEXAS POLICE DEPARTMENTS BY ORGANIZATIONAL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION BRACKET*

(In Descending Order of Population)

	Pa	itrol	Num Tr	ber of Per affic	rsonnel b	y Divisions gation**	Ser	vice	
Population Bracket		Civilian Employees		Civilian mployees		Civilian Employees	Police- men E	Civilian mployees	Other
4. (10,000–24,999)		=		-					
Haltom City	r		. ••	••	2	1	•	<u></u>	
Vernon	9	0	3	0		·			s
Freeport	9	0	••		1	0	**		t
Farmers Branch	11	0	7	0	·				
Huntsville		•=	8	0					••••
5. (5,000–9,999)									
Hillsboro	2	2	1	0	••		'		
Perryton	6	0			5	0			
Refugio	3	0							
Clute	3	0	· 	·					
Canyon	3	0				•	 ·		u

^{*} Includes those cities which reported formal divisional organization and supplied complete details

Juvenile Division with 11 policemen and one civilian employee; Training Division with three policemen.

k Number of policemen in division unclear.

Juvenile Division with five policemen and one civilian employee; Training Division with two policemen and one civilian employee.

m Chief Division with three policemen (Chief and two vice officers).

Administration Division of two policemen.

Gombined Patrol and Traffic Division of 22 policemen.

Composed of three divisions of seven policemen each.

Gombined Patrol and Traffic Division of 26 policemen.

Combined Traffic and Patrol Division of 13 policemen and three civilian employees.

Readin Dispatcher Division with three policemen

Radio Dispatcher Division with three policemen.
 Dispatcher Division with four civilian employees.
 Untitled division other than Patrol of three policemen.

^{*} Includes those cities which reported formal divisional organization and supplied complete details thereon.

** Sometimes called "Detective Division".

a Special Service Division of 53 policemen and three civilian employees; Administration Division of 21 policemen and eight civilian employees.

b Called Traffic Section.

c Chief's Office Division of four policemen and two civilian employees; School Crossing Division of 157 part-time civilian employees (not included in total employee figure).

d Staff Division of two policemen and three civilian employees.

f Includes 43 part-time civilian employees.

f Includes one part-time civilian employee.

g Administrative Division of two policemen and two civilian employees.

h Includes personnel, engaged in work with animals.

I Identification Division with five policemen and one civilian employee; Vice Division with nine policemen and one civilian employee; Administration Division with four policemen and two civilian employees.

J Juvenile Division with 11 policemen and one civilian employee; Training Division with three policemen.

APPENDIX D

POLICE DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES AND POLICEMEN PER 5,000 POPULATION IN TEXAS CITIES

(In Descending Order of Population)

City	Population	Number of Department Employees	Number of Department Employees per 5,000 Population	Number of Policemen	Number of Policemen per 5,000 Population
Houston	925,000	1,314	7.1	1,025	5.5
Dallas	679,300	1,135	8.4	961	7.1
San Antonio	571,422	641	5.6	530	4.6
Fort Worth	399,000	578	7.2	527	6.6
El Paso	290,000	230	4.0	230	4.0
Austin	197,000	306	7.8	248	6.3
Corpus Christi	180,000	175	4.9	159	4.4
Lubbock	148,000	180	6.1	167	5.6
Amarillo	147,000	177	6.0	148	5.0
Wichita Falls	120,000	102	4.3	100	4.2
Waco	118,000	118	5.0	107	4.5
Odessa	95,000	102	5.4	95	5.0
Abilene	80,000	74	4.6	74	4.6
San Angelo	70,000	61	4.4	60	4.3
Port Arthur	63,094	74	5.9	74	5.9
Tyler	56,000	60	5.4	58	5.2
Irving	45,000	31	3.4	29	3.2
Victoria	45,000	38	4.2	38	4.2
Brownsville	44,000	45	5.1	45	5.1
Longview	42,059	40	4.8	40	4.8
Orange	41,556	38	4.6	35	4.2
Harlingen	38,000	39	5.1	28	3.7
F emple	37,000	32	4.3	32	4.3
Grand Prairie	35,000	34	4.9	32	4.6
Corsicana	32,000	26	4.1	25	3.9
Texas City	32,000	41	6.4	37	5.8
Denton	30,000	30	5.0	30	5.0
F exarkana	30,000	24	4.0	24	4.0
Baytown	29,950	10	1.7	8	1.3
Garland	28,150	31	5.5	29	5.2
Kingsville	28,101	21	3.7	20	3.6
Big Spring	28,000	40	7.1	37	6.7

APPENDIX D—Continued

POLICE DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES AND POLICEMEN PER 5,000 POPULATION IN TEXAS CITIES

(In Descending Order of Population)

City	Population	Number of Department Employees	Number of Department Employees per 5,000 Population	Number of Policemen	Number of Policemen per 5,000 Population
Pampa	26,720	27	5.1	21	3.9
Killeen	26,646	22	4.1	22	4.1
Denison	25,500	20	3.9	18	3.5
Borger	25,000	19	3.8	15	3.8
Haltom City	24,000	21	4.4	17	3.5
Brownwood	23,764	21	4.4	21	4.4
Del Rio	23,000	13	2.8	12	2.6
Mesquite	23,000	19	4.1	15	3.3
Alice	22,945	14	3.1	14	3.1
Greenville	21,000	24	5.7	24	5.7
Lufkin	20,846	24	5.8	24	5.8
Cleburne	18,000	16	4.4	16	4.4
Snyder	18,000	24	6.7	24	6.7
West University Place	17,694	12	3.3	11	3.1
Sweetwater	17,408	22	6.3	22	6.3
San Benito	17,000	8	2.4	8	2.4
McKinney	16,653	21	6.3	21	6.3
Bay City	16,000	10	3.1	10	3.1
Weslaco	15,700	12	3.8	9	2.9
New Braunfels	15,603	14	4.5	14	4.5
Beeville	15,500	15	4.8	8	2.6
Pecos	15,500	15	4.8	12	3.9
Palestine	15,060	15	5.0	15	5.0
ernon	15,000	16	5.3	16	5.3
Vaxahachie	15,000	12	4.0	11	3.7
reeport	14,700	15	5.1	11	3.7
a Marque	14,500	10	3.4	6	2.1
an Marcos	14,300	14	4.9	7	
ilgore	14,000	20	7.1	20	2.4
amesa	14,000	18	6.4	20 18	7.1
lacogdoches	13,500	15	5.6		6.4
ichardson	13,500	13	4.1	12 11	4.4 4.1

APPENDIX D-Continued

POLICE DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES AND POLICEMEN PER 5,000 POPULATION IN TEXAS CITIES

(In Descending Order of Population)

City	Population	Number of Department Employees	Number of Department Employees per 5,000 Population	Number of Policemen	Number of Policemen per 5,000 Population
White Settlement	13,000	10	3.8	10	3.8
Raymondville	12,934	7	2.7	7	2.7
Eagle Pass	12,500	11	4.4	7	2.8
Galena Park	12,500	12	4.8	12	4.8
Highland Park	12,500	20	8.0	20	8.0
Andrews	12,000	6	2.5	6	2.5
Farmers Branch	12,000	12	5.0	12	5.0
Mineral Wells	12,000	11	4.6	11	4.6
Weatherford	12,000	14	5.8	11	4.6
Huntsville	11,700*	8	3.4	8	3.4
Brownfield	11,500	8	3.5	6	2.6
Henderson	11,500	16	7.0	13	5.7
Conroe	11,000	16	7.3	16	7.3
Aransas Pass	10,300	10	4.9	10	4.9
Monahans	10,158	11	5.4	11	5.4
Nederland	10,124	4	2.0	4	2.0
El Campo	10,000	9	4.5	6	3.0
Kerrville	10,000	11	5.5	11	5.5
Levelland	10,000	14	7.0	10	5.0
Mount Pleasant	10,000	• • • 9	4.5	, , 9	4.5
Sulphur Springs	10,000	15	7.5	11	5.5
Uvalde	10,000	9	4.5	6	3.0
Athens	9,500	6	3.2	5	2.6
Hereford	9,500	15	7.9	8	4.2
Littlefield	9,302	10	5.4	10	5.4
Colorado City	9,090	10	5.5	10	5.5
Taylor	9,081	10	5.5	8	4.4
Hillsboro	9,000	8	4.4	6	3.3
Donna	8,500	5	2.9	5	2.9
Burkburnett	8,143	5	3.1	5	3.1
Stephenville	8,000	9	5.7	7	4.4

APPENDIX D-Continued

POLICE DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES AND POLICEMEN PER 5,000 POPULATION IN TEXAS CITIES

(In Descending Order of Population)

City	Population	Number of Department Employees	Number of Department Employees per 5,000 Population	Number of Policemen	Number of Policemen per 5,000 Population
Breckenridge	7,500	9	6.0	8	5.3
Sinton	7,500	9	6.0	8	5.3
Yoakum	7,200	4	2.8	3	2.1
Perryton	7,100	11	7.7	9	6.3
Lockhart	7,067	3	2.1	3	2.1
Crockett	7,000	7	5.0	5	3.6
Mathis	7,000	4	2.9	4	2.9
Refugio	6,750	5	3.7	4	3.0
Falfurrias	6,711	5	3.7	3	2.2
Slaton	6,600	9	6.8	7	5.3
Clute	6,500	, ' 3 '	2.3	3	2.3
Crane	6,156	4	3.2	4	3.2
Lampasas	6,100	4	3.3	4	3.3
Bellmead	6,000	4	3.3	4	3.3
Canyon	6,000	5	4.2	5	4.2
Copperas Cove	6,000	. 2	1.7	2	1.7
Gonzales	6,000	2	1.7	2	1.7
Jasper	6,000	5	4.2	5	4.2
La Porte	6,000	9	7.5	, 9	7.5
Mineola	6,000	5	4.2	4	3.3
Terrell Hills	6,000	5	4.2	5	4.2
Ballinger	5,840	6	5.1	5	4.3
Cisco	5,650	9	8.0	5	4.4
Brady	5,500	7	6.4	7	6.4
Gladewater	5,305	13	12.3	13	12.3
Luling	5,209	1	1.0	1	1.0
Deer Park	5,000	8	8.0	7	7.0
Hondo	5,000	1	1.0	1	1.0
Seymour	5,000	3	3.0	3	3.0
Taft	5,000	3	3.0	3	3.0

^{*} Includes inmates of the Huntsville Unit of the Texas Department of Corrections.

APPENDIX E

SQUARE MILES OF PATROL AREA PER POLICE PATROLMAN IN TEXAS CITIES

(In Descending Order of Population)

City	Patrol Area (Square Miles)	Number of Patrolmen	Square Miles per Patrolman
Houston	352.0	659	0.53
Dallas	271.9	644	0.42
San Antonio	160.1	317	0.51
Fort Worth	147.6	371	0.40
El Paso	103.0	131	0.85
Austin	54.0	124	0.44
Corpus Christi	37.5	95	0.39
Lubbock	75.5	115	0.66
Amarillo	36.7	93	0.34
Wichita Falls	16.9	72	0.23
Waco	40.0	72	0.56
Odessa	16.4	65	0.25
Abilene	48.8	54	0.90
San Angelo	29.5	42	0.70
Port Arthur	20.0	44	0.45
Tyler	17.5	40	0.44
Irving	20.0	19	1.05
Victoria	11.9	28	0.42
Brownsville	8.8	28	0.31
Longview	11.5	24	0.43
Orange	11.7	24	0.49
Harlingen	32.0	15	2.13
Temple	16.8	17	0.99
Grand Prairie	14.5	23	0.63
Corsicana	10.0	20	0.50
Texas City	45.0	29	1.10
Denton	10.0	21	0.48
Texarkana	•••••		
Baytown	15.0	1	15.00
Garland	******	19	
Kingsville	7.6	10	0.76
Big Spring		20	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Pampa	******	13	
Killeen	3.5	12	0.29
Denison	9.5	9	1.06
Borger	******	7	
Haltom City	10.0	10	1.00
Brownwood	7.3	13	0.56
Del Rio	6.0	8	0.75
Mesquite	22.0	10	0.22
Alice		6	
Greenville		10	

APPENDIX E-Continued

SQUARE MILES OF PATROL AREA PER POLICE PATROLMAN IN TEXAS CITIES

(In Descending Order of Population)

City	Patrol Area (Square Miles)	Number of Patrolmen	Square Miles per Patrolman
Lufkin	4.0	13	0.31
Cleburne	5.0	13	0.38
Snyder	3.8	15	
West University Pla	ice 1.9	7	0.25
Sweetwater	6.6	11	0.27
San Benito	6.0	7	0.60
McKinney	26.0	12	0.86
Bay City		8	2.17
Weslaco			•••••
New Braunfels	******	5	
Beeville	4.0	9	
Pecos		6	0.67
Palestine	6.2	5	
Vernon		13	0.48
Waxahachie	4.3	5	0.72
Freeport	5.0	9	0.56
La Marque	7.2	8	0.90
San Marcos	7.6	4	1.90
Kilgore	9.4	5	1.89
Lamesa		15	*****
	4.4	9	0.49
Nacogdoches	6.0	10	0.60
Richardson	36.0	6	6.00
White Settlement	13.0	4	3.20
Raymondville	1.6	2	0.80
Eagle Pass	15.0	6	2.50
Galena Park	4.0	6	0.67
Highland Park	2.2	14	0.16
Andrews	3.0	4	0.75
Farmers Branch	11.9	7	
Mineral Wells	*****	8	1.70
Weatherford		8	T
Huntsville	9.8	7	
Brownfield	4.0		1.40
Henderson	12.0	10	
Conroe	5.1	10	1.20
Aransas Pass	34.0	<u></u>	_
Monahans	3.0	4	8.50
Nederland	18.0	4	0.75
El Campo	4.0	1	18.00
Kerrville		4	1.00
Levelland	3.9	5	0.78
Mount Pleasant	70.0	: 6	******
III BEASHIE	10.0	6	1.67

APPENDIX E-Continued

SQUARE MILES OF PATROL AREA PER POLICE PATROLMAN IN TEXAS CITIES

(In Descending Order of Population)

City	Patrol Area (Square Miles)	Number of Patrolmen	Square Miles per Patrolman
Sulphur Springs	20.0	8	2.50
Uvalde	3.1	4	0.78
Athens	5.0	3	1.67
Hereford	3.0	5	0.60
Littlefield	3.0	4	0.75
Colorado City	2.5	4	0.62
Taylor	10.2	6	1.70
Hillsboro	8.0	5	1.60
Donna	1.9	4	0.48
Burkburnett		3	, person
Stephenville	6.0	5	1.20
Breckenridge	2.0	7	0.29
Sinton	۵.0	4	
Yoakum	*****	$\overset{\bullet}{2}$	******
	4.2	5	0.84
Perryton	6.0		
Lockhart	4.0	4	1.00
Crockett	2.5	$\overset{\bullet}{2}$	1.25
Mathis	2.5 9.0	2	4.50
Refugio		$\overset{2}{2}$	
Falfurrias	9.7	5	0.74
Slaton	3.7	. 0	
Clute	2.0	3	1.00
Crane	3.0	3 2	
Lampasas			1.00
Bellmead	2.0	2	1.00
Canyon	2.0	2	6.90
Copperas Cove	6.9	1	0.90
Gonzales	1.7	•	 2 FA
Jasper	7.0	2	3.50
La Porte	20.0	2	10.00
Mineola	10.0	2	5.00
Terrell Hills	2.0	3	0.67
Ballinger	2.0	4	0.50
Cisco	10.0		 7 EO
Brady	5.2	3	1.73
Gladewater	*****	9	
Luling	4.5		
Deer Park	*****	<u>.</u> 2	*****
Hondo	5.0		
Seymour		2	*****
Taft	*****	1	

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^{*}A review of books in the police field, written by Paul H. Ashenhust, Inspector, Dallas Police Department, appears monthly in the Texas Police Journal.