



LEADERSHIP, COMMAND AND HR IN POLICE

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Abstract

Leadership captures the essentials of being able and prepared to inspire others. Effective leadership is based upon ideas - both original and borrowed - that are effectively communicated to others in a way that engages them enough to act as the leader wants them to act. The purpose of the present review study is to examine the role of the leader in the police system. The role of the chief is also considered. Based on in-depth review, implications are made and conclusions are presented.

Keywords: Leadership, Police, Police System, Command System

INTRODUCTION

The term leadership has entered the common vocabulary and been encapsulated into the technical vocabulary of a science discipline without being precisely redefined. That failure to redefine has consequences, namely, it creates ambiguity of meanings because it carries extraneous connotations. Then what is leadership? A comprehensive review of the literature concluded that 'there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept' (Stoghill, 1974, p. 259). Some of the definitions to be found include the following:

- Leadership is 'the behavior of the individual ... directing the activities of a group towards a shared goal' (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p. 7).
- Leadership 'is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose' (Jacobs & Jacques, 1990, p. 281).
- Leadership 'is the ability to step outside the culture ... to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive' (Schein, 1992, p. 2).

- Leadership is ‘the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed’ (Drath & Palus, 1994, p. 4).
- Leadership ‘is about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished’ (Richards & Engle, 1986, p. 200).
- Leadership ‘is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of an organization’ (House et al., 1999, p. 184).

Funk (2004) identifies Leadership characteristics to include: ‘being brave, caring, creative, courageous, committed, confident, energetic, healthy, honest, industrious, introspective, intuitive, knowledgeable, open-minded, passionate, pragmatic, reflective, responsible, risk-taking, trustworthy, and well-informed.’ In addition she identifies ‘Essential leadership roles that these women school executives described were: analyzer, change agent, communicator, delegator, dreamer, hirer, nurturer, reader, risk-taker, and team-builder.’ It is of interest that Funk then identifies Qualities of leadership to include ‘character, integrity, vision, courage, and passion,’ whilst Critical skills identified are those of ‘visioning, determining the real needs for their districts, communicating, hiring the right people, delegating, developing team support, working effectively with people, and producing meaningful and lasting change.

This development of policing can be traced directly to a management concept introduced by Peter Drucker in *The practice of management* (1955), where he introduced Management by Objectives. In relation to the police service this management concept was expanded by Lubans and Edgar in *Policing by objectives* (1979). David Drennan, Professor of Management at Nottingham University, maintains that ‘*above all, management has got to get its goals clear and communicate them to employees in such a way that they understand them well enough to be able to make the goal a reality*’ (Rabbeth, 1989, p. 7).

Talcott Parsons observed that ‘*the central phenomenon of organisation is the mobilisation of power for the attainment of the goals of the organisation. The value system legitimises the organisation’s goal, but it is only through power that the achievement can be made effective*’ (Parsons, 1956, p. 227).

Defining leadership

"Much of the description of human history is the history of military, political, religious and social leaders. They are believed to be responsible for almost all important historical events, although we do not understand very well how the events were caused or to what extent the influence of these leaders extended "(Yukl, 2002, p. 1).What is leadership? It is difficult to give an unambiguous answer to this simple question. Researchers define leadership in terms of their

own individual perspective and the aspect that interests them most. Probably this gives reason to one of the most authoritative among them - Ralph Stogdill, after a thorough review of the literature to exclaim that:

- "... there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define the concept" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 259).
- Frequently cited definitions in the scientific literature in the last five years are the following:
- "Leadership is influence" (Maxwell, 1995).
- "Leadership is the ability to influence the group to achieve goals" (Robins, 2003, p. 314).
- "Leadership is the ability to influence others to achieve a goal ... and create a world to which people want to belong" (Dilts, 2002, p. 17).
- "Leadership is the practice of specific behaviors and qualities, such as the acquisition of knowledge, strategic thinking, communication skills, and the development of others" (Sindell & Hoang, 2001, p. 1).
- "Leadership is the process of giving a goal (a direction that makes sense) to the collective effort that leads to its achievement" (Jacobs & Jaques, 1987, p. 8).
- "Leadership is the ability of one person to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute to the effectiveness and success of the organization" (House et al., 1999, p. 184, cited in Yukl, 2002).
- "Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree on what needs to be done and how to do it effectively, as well as the process of supporting collective efforts to achieve shared goals" (Yukl, 2002, p. 7).
- "Leadership is a complex interaction involving a leader, followers and situation" (Fiedler, 1996, p. 242). The prevailing opinion is that leadership is a process of influencing to achieve certain goals or vision. In the definitions until the mid-1980s, the emphasis seemed to be more on the process of social influence, and in the last twenty years on the vision of the leader. It is determined by traits, behavior, patterns of influence and interaction, role relationships, achieving common goals or following a leadership vision.

Tom Peters and Nancy Austin in the bestseller "Passion for Perfection" give a broader definition that doesn't sound so scientific, but seems to capture the spirit of the leadership phenomenon: "Leadership means vision, encouragement, enthusiasm, trust, strength, energy, passion, obsession, perseverance, use of symbols, attention, creating characters at all levels, counseling, mentoring and much more. Leadership must be present at all levels of the organization. It depends on millions of small things done with dedication,

perseverance and care, but all these little things are not worth it if there is a lack of trust, vision and faith "(Peters, Austin, 1985, pp. 5-6).

The analysis of the presented definitions raises more questions than answers. Is leadership a specialized role or a process of shared influence? If we stick to the latter, what is its type, what is its purpose? What processes underlie it - rational or emotional? If we trust one of the greatest connoisseurs of leadership, Gary Yukl, until the 1980s the emphasis was on rational, cognitive processes, and modern concepts place more emphasis on the emotional aspects of influence (Yukl, 2002).

Further confusion in the literature introduces the interchangeable use of concepts such as management, control, authority, authority, leadership and management to describe the phenomenon of leadership. In a purely practical aspect, one of the approaches to understanding it is based on its distinction from management.

In 1977, Harvard School of Business professor Abraham Zaleznik (Zaleznik, 1977) published the article "Managers and Leaders: Are They Different?" and causes chaos among business teachers. He shares the opinion that theorists of scientific management with their organizational diagrams, time studies and work activities miss half of the picture - the one that includes inspiration, vision and the whole spectrum of human desires and aspirations. Zaleznik maintains that leaders and managers are different psychological types and have different work orientations. Managers are busy maintaining the status quo, they have a strong sense of belonging to the organization. In contrast, leaders work in the opposite direction, looking for solutions to long-standing problems and opening up new opportunities. Following this publication, research on leadership in organizations is no longer the same (Kotter, 1990/2001).

A few years later, Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus pointed out that leadership was about finding direction, while management was more about following it. They coined a phrase that became emblematic: "Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right things" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 21), i.e. leadership means doing the right things, while management means doing the right things.

The authors believe that management is concerned with the implementation of plans and strategy of the organization, while leadership is creating a vision for the future. They assume that some managers perform both roles and can be described as leaders, but others certainly do not have these abilities.

In 1990, Harvard professor John Kotter (Kotter, 1990–2001) published an article, "What Leaders Do," which deepened and expanded Zaleznik's insights. He writes that leaders: "... they don't make plans, they don't solve problems, they don't even organize people. What leaders do

is prepare organizations for change and help them cope as they go through it "(Kotter, 1990–2001, p. 85).

Gary Yukl (1994) points out that managers are oriented towards stability, while leaders are oriented towards innovation. Managers force people to do things more efficiently, and leaders help them agree on what needs to be done. In summary, management is the ability to complete a task through other people, and leadership is the ability to make them want to complete the task.

Some of the presented distinctions (especially of Benis, Nanus and Zaleznik) suggest that leadership and management are qualitatively different things and are mutually exclusive. The most extreme distinction suggests that they cannot be exercised by the same person. Yukl's precise analysis shows that the association of leadership and management with different types of people is not supported by empirical data. But on the other hand, the negative stereotype is becoming more and more prevalent, which implicitly suggests that managers are always ineffective (Yukl, 2002).

In fact, most authors accept leadership and management as different and distinguishable processes, but do not assume that leaders and managers are different types of people, albeit for different reasons. For example, Mintzberg (1973, cited in Robbins, 2003) describes leadership as one of the ten managerial roles that motivates subordinates and creates favorable working conditions. The rest (negotiator, entrepreneur, spokesperson, etc.) involve distinguishable managerial responsibilities, but leadership is seen as an essential managerial role that permeates others.

To summarize, management is about dealing with complexity through predictability and order. Without good management, the organization's activities would become chaotic, which would threaten its very existence. Leadership is dealing with change or seeking change. Part of the reason it is considered so important today is that the world is more competitive and changing faster. Leadership is extremely important because the main force behind any successful change is it, not management. And big changes are needed to survive and succeed, and require more leadership. However, strong leadership destroys order and efficiency, just as, of course, controlling management does not stimulate risk-taking and innovation. In fact, both processes are necessary for the success of the organization, as strong management would create a bureaucracy without purpose, and strong leadership - meaningless and impractical changes. If the analysis makes it possible at least theoretically to distinguish the functions of leadership and management, this is not always easily achievable in practice. Leadership and management are two different concepts, but both functions or processes are necessary for organizational success. Most researchers agree that the success of any manager necessarily

includes leadership. Therefore, how to integrate the two processes is among the most important problems for researchers and managers. In a military context, this is even more important if we rely on one of the most remarkable insights into the differences between leadership and management: "A peacetime army can usually survive with good administration and management at all levels of the hierarchy and with good leadership at the top. However, a wartime army needs competent leadership at all levels. No one has yet understood how to effectively manage people in battle - they must be led!" (Kotter, 2001).

Another problem related to understanding leadership is the level of conceptualization. It is very common, but also different between leadership in a small group, in a large organization, the leader-follower relationship, to be the leader of an entire nation or to be the highest military in the country.

Some theories, called descriptive, look at the leadership process, describing the typical activities of leaders, and explain why certain behaviors occur in certain situations. Prescriptive theories specify what leaders must do to be effective, and identify each condition for using a particular type of behavior effectively. These two perspectives are not necessarily mutually exclusive, a theory may have elements of both approaches.

So far, we have presented several possible perspectives for analyzing the leadership phenomenon. Although if we trust Warren Bennis, "... leadership is like beauty - it's hard to describe, but you know it as soon as you see it" (Bennis, 1994, p. 1).

Trait Approach

The approach to the distinctive features of the leader is among the earliest. According to Shackleton (1995), this is quite logical, as for centuries leadership positions have been derived on the basis of origin. The stratification of society was justified by God's will, which determined that the aristocracy should rule and the lower classes should work. The leading class passed down from generation to generation its influence and power in the army, the church, economic and political life. The nobler and richer ate better, lived healthier, received a better education, learned from an early age to exercise power over servants, people without backgrounds or financial means. All this suggested that there was a connection between certain individual characteristics and leadership positions.

The approach to the distinctive features of the leader emphasizes the characteristics of the leaders, such as personality, motives, values, skills. Until the late 1940s, researchers assumed that some people were born leaders and had certain traits that others lacked. In other words, leadership is about specific personal characteristics, and scholars try to find and identify those that distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Early theories attributed the successes of

leaders to supernatural abilities (assertiveness, inexhaustible energy, intuition, irresistible persuasive power, physical attractiveness, and intelligence). Although: "Hundreds of studies have been conducted in the 1930s and 1940s to identify these leadership characteristics, but they have failed to identify any leadership traits that guarantee leadership success" (Yukl, 2002, p. 12). The approach to the leader's characteristics in the late 1940s has been widely criticized. Based on 124 studies conducted from 1904 to 1948, Stogdill (1948) concluded that personality traits matter depending on the situation in which the leader functions. Research does not identify any traits necessary or sufficient to ensure its success.

In 1974, he repeated his experience, but this time on 163 studies of leadership traits conducted from 1949 to 1970. This time he managed to extract a profile that characterizes the successful leader as follows: "A successful leader is characterized by a strong desire to take responsibility and fulfill the task, energetic and persistent in the pursuit of goals, ready to take risks, brave, daring, determined, proactive in social situations, confident, with a sense of personal dignity, ready to take responsibility for their decisions and actions, to deal with stress in interpersonal relationships, able to tolerate frustration and procrastination, to influence the behavior of others and with the capacity to structure the system of social interactions in the direction of tasks" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 81).

Despite the results, Stogdill emphasized that there was still no evidence of universal leadership traits; having one or another leadership trait increases the likelihood of the leader being effective, but they do not guarantee effectiveness; a leader with certain traits may be effective in one situation and just as ineffective in another; two leaders with different combinations of traits can be equally successful in the same situation.

Although the distinctive approach regained its popularity in the late twentieth century, research found relatively few traits that distinguished leaders from followers. A clear distinction between effective and ineffective leaders is not confirmed by empirical data. It is clear that traits matter and research is gradually moving towards identifying the key ones that contribute to effective governance. A relatively new study identifies the following traits associated with effective leadership:

Dynamism (Drive) - high level of effort, relatively high desire for achievement, ambition, energy, perseverance, initiative. Self-confidence - the absence of doubt, self-confidence in convincing followers of the correctness of the goals and decisions of the leader. Intelligence - the ability / ability to find, synthesize and interpret a large amount of information; ability to create visions, solve problems and make the right decisions.

Job-relevant Knowledge - extensive knowledge of the organization, industry, and technical issues relevant to the group's activities (Wright and Raymond, 1996).

In one recent meta-analysis of the largest research programs on leadership issues, Yukl (2002) suggests the most important characteristics that could be good predictors of leadership effectiveness: a high level of energy and stress tolerance; self-confidence; internal control localization; emotional stability and maturity; honesty and integrity; socializing motivation for power; moderately high motivation for achievement; low need for affiliation (need for close contact and interaction with people around). He also connects them to the situation, ie. these traits are a prerequisite, but do not guarantee effective leadership in all situations.

Desire to Lead - a strong desire for influence and leadership, willingness to take responsibility.

Honesty and Integrity - relationships with followers based on trust, loyalty, coherence between words and actions.

In the historical approach to the organization there are the Four Pillars of Organization. These are:

- *Division of Labor*: the concept of dividing the work into small units so that anyone in the organization can do that work.
- *Span of Control*: where depending upon the task complexity this relates to the number of individuals to be supervised.
- *The Scaller Process*: this is where because of the limited span of control several supervisors are needed to manage a section. This will mean that the supervisors will need managing thus adding another tier of management. The larger the organization model the greater the number of management tiers, each diminishing in size as one moves up and finally forming a pyramid.
- *Structure*: in order to achieve the organizational objectives a structure is required.

There will have to be line structures to achieve those objectives with staff functions for advice and support (Griffiths, 1991). Although this model allows for the flow of information to be top down only, it does work.

Team Management is characterized by strong concern for people and industry. It is based on the interdependence of the common goal in the group, which leads to mutual trust and respect between the leader and his followers. It can be defined as a democratic style of government.

The leadership style "Calm Pendulum" (Middle of the Road Management,) is characterized by a balance between the orientation towards the work done and the preservation of the general spirit at a satisfactory level, ie. implies moderate concern for both employees and production.

Impoverished or Laissez-Faire Management is characterized by minimal effort to get the job done to avoid dismissal. It is ineffective because it contributes to the indifference of employees and requires a lot of effort to maintain the normal operation.

Country Club Management pays special attention to the people in the group to create a friendly atmosphere and is opposed to the style of "debt management". He has a strong concern for employees and a weak concern for production.

The Task Management or Authority / Obedience Management style emphasizes the organization of work in such a way that the human factor has minimal influence on it. The leader plans the tasks and controls their implementation. The emphasis is on doing the job with limited concern for subordinates. This is actually an authoritarian type of government.

The described theory assumes that the best style exists and it is "Team management", or democratic style of management. The assumption is that the most effective leader is interested in both people and tasks. Many researchers consider the theory to be insufficiently convincing because it does not take into account the differences in people's behavior in different situations, as well as the fact that different styles or behaviors are appropriate in different circumstances and to determine the most effective leadership style for each activity is extremely hard. The creators of the theory recommend organized development of managerial skills through training, which guides managers how to take care of their employees and help them in the goal-setting process.

Not only does the organization influence employees, they also influence it. Management lattice theory has practical application in the management of organizational change. The goal is to achieve a team management style with high requirements that it places on both people and the task. The change in leadership style, according to the theory, aims to improve communication in working groups, as well as to solve problems related to planning. The criteria of "people-oriented" and "task-oriented" behavior are not seen as opposites, but as complementary aspects of leadership style, and their optimal combination is considered a condition for its effectiveness.

Yukl is of the opinion that the most effective specific types of task-oriented behavior are activity planning, clarification of roles and goals, and activity monitoring. He refers to the specific types of relationship-oriented behavior as the support and development of staff and the recognition of effective activity (Yukl, 2003).

Other researchers of leadership styles identify leadership behaviors that can be classified as directive autocrat, permissive autocrat, directive democrat, and permissive democrat, respectively. The two opposite dimensions of autocratic-democratic refer to the degree to which leaders allow their subordinates to participate in decision-making, while

allowing-guiding refers to the degree to which leaders manage the activity. The question of whether one style is better than another depends on the abilities and experience of subordinates (Muczyk & Reimann, 1987, cited in Shakleton and Wale, 2000, p. 283).

In an attempt to rekindle interest in research into behavioral models of leadership in the early 1990s, Gary Yukl (Yukl, 2002) proposed a three-dimensional model of leadership behavior. In practice, this taxonomy is a development of the two-factor approach that has dominated for nearly 30 years. A new dimension is added - orientation to change. The supplement is not only quantitative but also qualitative. Task efficiency, human relationships, and adaptive change are conceptualized as independent dimensions rather than as mutually exclusive categories (although it is difficult to find an example of high-level sharing of all three). Specific leadership behavior would be a mixture of three goals:

- Task orientation or behavior focused primarily on the task, providing resources, facilitating staff, maintaining order.
- Relationship orientation or behavior, aimed primarily at improving relationships and helping people, increasing cooperation and group work, job satisfaction, and building identification with the organization.
- Orientation to change or behavior focused primarily on improving strategic decisions, adapting to change, increasing flexibility and innovation, radically changing processes, products or services, and gaining commitment to change.

The three types of behavior interact and jointly determine group performance. The relative importance of each type of behavior depends on the nature of the work and the work environment, and effective leaders determine which behaviors are appropriate and compatible in a given situation. It is likely that over time the optimal leadership model will change as the situation changes.

In fact, the model includes as a third dimension elements of transformative leadership and can be seen as a link between the behavioral and integrative approach.

The style approach has been criticized for its causal link between leadership style and the end result of the work. The fact that there is a correlation between the two does not necessarily mean that one causes the other. When describing a leader's behavior, the fact that he may behave differently with different individuals is also ignored. Another problem concerns the presence of informal leadership in the group, ie. a member of the group who exercises influence over others without being formally declared a leader. Most research shows that one style may be better than another in some circumstances. There is no single style that has been identified as the most appropriate and effective in all circumstances. The findings of the research show that the leadership style is very diverse and that it is rather a skill acquired in the

process of practice and the parameters of the situation are decisive for it (Karabelova, 2004, p. 147).

Max Weber in 1922 propounded the model referred to as the Classical Approach. This model proposed by Weber outlined a systematic view of organizations based on the notion of bureaucracy where he suggests that bureaucracy was the best form for the rational and efficient pursuit of organizational goals. The principle characteristics of Weber's model included: a hierarchy of offices, a division of labor based on ability, and specialization in training. This was augmented by a set of written rules, acts, and decisions that would govern and regulate the administration of the organization (Terrill, 1992). The police service, it may be argued, fits into the rational–legal form of bureaucracy epitomized by the work of Max Weber (1947).

Ethical Challenges According to the American Heritage Dictionary, ethics refer to “The rules or standards governing the conduct of the members of a profession.” And how do members of the public see our conduct? Quite simply policing has an image problem. What the public sees on television, on the internet, and reads in the headlines of the daily news is their reality. In the wake of the 1991 assaults on Rodney King in Los Angeles, California, the public has become adept at video taping, photographing and audio taping the interactions between citizens and the police. Often capturing only portions of interactions, they are sold to the highest bidder and within a short period a potential scandal is in the making. These events have helped shape the perception of the police while rarely affording the opportunity for police officers and departments to exercise a “do over.” The majority of the contacts we have with our citizens involves crisis or confrontation. We see them at their worst, at their most aggressive, at their most vulnerable and at their most stressed. 4 Whether the interaction involves a driving citation or an arrest, the public is often in a situation in which the police were called to right the wrong, intervene in the family disaster or protect the innocent. And through it all there is an expectation that the police officers that respond to the complaint will be courteous, professional and when appropriate, compassionate. At a minimum they are expected to reflect the core values of the police department. The awesome responsibility with which police officers are statutorily empowered necessitates that they are held to a higher standard of conduct. Our failures have become legendary while our successes rarely noted with the same interest. The public recognizes there will be police officers that engage in inappropriate conduct. What they expect police executives to do is identify and punish these officers. It is the public who demands we pursue the truth. Their trust in us depends on our undying commitment to reveal the truth even if it damages the reputation of the department. Not only is the public perception negatively impacted when a police officer abuses the public trust but the relationship between the department and its city manager, city council or police commission is often damaged as well.

The perception by various oversight bodies is that the chief of police is responsible for both the actions of the officer(s) involved in misconduct and for the department's timely response to hold the officer accountable. The proverbial buck stops with the chief. Strategies to Manage Ethical Challenges Although there are numerous business decisions chiefs make daily the decisions that often create the greatest challenges are ethical choices. The points that follow provide some strategies to manage these challenges during a chief's tenure.

- 10 • Be actively involved in the delivery of an ethical program for your members. Ethical decision making is a top down responsibility and requires unwavering leadership. Officers replicate behaviors that they observe in senior personnel. It is important to lead by example and set the tone for the organization.
- Have an "ethical advisory committee" of trusted advisors to whom you can turn for guidance in difficult situations. This provides an opportunity to examine challenges the organization will face and provide thoughtful and considered leadership that demonstrates a commitment to the core values of the police service.
- Before making a critical decision, ask yourself what your response might be if your decision ends up on the front page of the daily newspaper and is criticized by everyone. By applying the A.C.T. model¹ of examining alternatives, projecting consequences and telling the story, chiefs of police are able to apply this ethical construct to the decision making process and arrive at a well grounded position.
- Increase the transparency of your decision making by exposing the decisions and their reasons to a number of individuals within your executive before taking action. This vetting process helps ensure as many of the possible outcomes are examined and anticipated. It also enhances the chief's leadership skills by providing for an examination of the potential solutions to problems.

Political Challenges All police leaders are affected by a number of key constituents that influence their administration. Depending on the reporting structure of the chief or department these groups may exercise significant dominion over the chief and may affect even the day to day operations of the department. The challenge for police leaders is to effectively manage in a climate where political realities may compete to influence the chief. The community, including neighborhood groups, business organizations and service clubs has expectations of the chief that may include attending functions, meetings and Institute for Law Enforcement Administration, Center for Ethics Train the Train model (1994). Plano, TX. (ACT is an acronym for Alternatives, Consequences and Tell) events in person. The chief, as the public face of the department, provides the vision necessary to achieve the mandate of the department. This is an opportunity to communicate the best efforts of the department to groups that look for ways to support the police. Successful chiefs monitor the pulse of the community by ensuring surveys, town hall meetings, events and functions are used to elicit input from the public. There are 6 major political challenges facing 21st century chiefs and senior leaders: First, manage the relationship

with the media. Much of the public's perception of the police is formed by the media. Police managers are expected to provide feedback to the various news outlets in their jurisdiction and in the case of a major event, to national news teams. Developing a comprehensive, professional relationship with the media is critical. Although most departments use public information officers (PIO), it is also important to ensure that when major events occur, the chief is out front of the cameras and accessible to the media. The media often feeds the interests of the public to find out what the police are up to. Well managed media relationships can be and often are an asset to the police. Poorly managed, a distant relationship will at a minimum inevitably affect the public's perception of the police, and at worst, damage the department's reputation.

The managing officer in his capacity as an administrative body is obliged to decide on his own the issues assigned to him in explicit competence. The possibility to decide to delegate the exercise of a certain power is part of the competence of the body and it is responsible for the choice it has made when deciding whether and to whom to delegate this power. The delegation must be made explicitly and in writing. The written form is required for the delegation. The superior shall be able to accompany the delegation with appropriate instructions for its implementation by the subordinate authority. There are several general limitations on the possibilities for delegating administrative powers:

- The first is that no one can delegate powers they do not have. The administrative authority may delegate one or more of its powers only if they fall within its competence. He must have the powers to dispose of them, authorizing a lower authority to temporarily exercise them in his place.

- The second is that no delegation can be made to powers that are defined as the explicit competence of the relevant body. Explicit competence means that only this body is obliged and has the right to decide certain issues assigned to it as its explicit competence. The legislator has decided that this body will perform its tasks most successfully. An exception can be allowed only if the law explicitly provides for this. Through explicit competence, the body is obliged to exercise the given power on its own.

- The third restriction on the possibility of delegation concerns the object of the delegation. The rule is that when by law the administrative body has the right to delegate certain powers to another designated body, that other body cannot in turn delegate to another the powers so delegated to it, unless such possibility is explicitly provided by law.

The management process in its entirety is concerned with the achievement of organizational purposes through human effort within the internal and external environment of the organization. Lawrence Apply, President of the American Management Association said: Management is guiding physical and human resources into dynamic organisation units which

should attain their objectives to the satisfaction of those served, and with a high degree of morale and a sense of attainment on the part of those rendering the service. (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1992, p. 2).

Koontz and O'Donnell (1992) believe that: 'Management is defined as the accomplishment of desired objectives by establishing an environment favourable to performance by people operating in organised groups' (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1992, p. 2).

If management is defined, or at least accepted, as a process of organizing methods whereby resources and personnel achieve organizational objectives then what is leadership? Effective leadership must involve active participation by managers to maximize the skills and abilities of the individuals for their own and the organization's benefit. So what is leadership? An examination of leadership literature would suggest that although it has been researched, discussed, and analyzed there is no universally accepted theory of leadership although many theories have emerged from sociological and behavioral disciplines.

The concept of management and leadership roles must be considered within the related topics of personality, motivation, and organizational behavior. Personality consists of broad dispositions, called traits, which tend to lead to characteristic responses. People can be described in terms of the basic ways they behave, such as whether they are outgoing and friendly, or whether they are dominant and assertive. As policing is primarily dealing with people and their problems then an awareness of Trait Theories of Personality are an important social skill for all police officers. Sigmund Freud emphasized the role of the unconscious processes in the control of behavior. Freud developed a complex and comprehensive theory of personality from which he concluded that the eventual goal of all human behavior was pleasure. Human behavior results from the interaction of the id, ego, and super-ego. The conflict that arises between the id, ego, and super-ego causes considerable psychological turmoil.

One of the most enduring challenges in the study and administration of police organizations is ensuring officer compliance with supervisory directives, organizational rules, and legal mandates. The problem is nothing new. Scholar Samuel Walker traced this issue back to the formation of the first police forces in the mid-nineteenth century and the use of general patrol strategies:

They were to be proactive rather than merely reactive. The crime prevention strategy, implemented by continuous and regular patrol over assigned beats, has remained the basic assignment of the police. This innovation, however introduced a set of problems that have remained the essence of the police administration problem ever since. Once patrolmen were assigned to patrol, the problem of supervision became paramount. How to make sure that they

were in fact working? And, if they were working, how to guarantee that their actions were consistent with official public policy? The fact that most police work is performed in low-visibility contexts free from direct supervisory oversight and decision-making scrutiny complicates this matter even further.⁹ At the same time, police personnel are often tasked with obtaining compliance from distraught, anxious, hostile, or otherwise uncooperative victims, witnesses, and offenders, as evident in the examples that opened the chapter. In both situations, individuals may wield power to confront resistance.

Defining Power Police officers sometimes resist attempts to control their behavior. For some, the resistance stems from an opposition to change or a belief that certain behaviors are equally, if not more, appropriate. A suspect determined to avoid punishment, for example, may resist an officer's attempt to make an arrest. For others, noncompliance reflects "a need for independence, for power, for self-esteem, [or] to present a strong image to other observers." For instance, Lundman found that police officers objected to department attempts to control work activity through the use of quotas. They refrained from writing many citations in the early part of each month but paid for it later, working harder to catch up on any shortfall. Officers might resist control efforts due to concerns about how they would be perceived by third parties or the person making the demands (e.g., weakness). Power is a tool for controlling behavior and obtaining compliance, especially in the face of resistance. In police organizations, power is critical, serving as both a means to coordinate the actions of individuals within departments (structure) and secure obedience from typically uncooperative clients (offenders). In fact, most definitions of power highlight the very possibility of resistance. Consider three examples: Power over other persons . is exercised when potential power wielders, motivated to achieve certain goals of their own, marshal in their power base resources . that enable them to influence the behavior of respondents by activating motives of respondents relevant to those resources and to those goals. This is done in order to realize the purposes of the power wielders, whether or not these are also the goals of the respondents. A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do. Power is simply the individual capacity to gain your own aims in interrelationship with others, even in the face of their opposition.¹⁵ These definitions illustrate several important themes for the study of power. Power is inherently a social and situational phenomenon. Citing the power held by one person (the power holder) is a fruitless exercise without recognizing the other party in the social relationship. Power exists only insofar as it is recognized by the target or recipient of this power. Even though officers are bestowed with a capacity to use coercive force, if necessary, to resolve situations, the power is minimized if not acknowledged by others. A person's power is also bounded by the situation. A sergeant's authority to demand compliance from an officer is more likely confined to

occupational rather than Draft personal matters. Moreover, the resources used to ensure compliance vary across contexts. An officer may be more readily able to secure cooperation by threatening arrest in situations where there is clear violation of the law but struggle to use the same types of threats when evidence is weak or nonexistent. Power is considered an instrumental capacity, allowing “control over specific people, things, or events.”¹⁸ Each of the three definitions highlights the ability to get something done or achieve goals, even with opposition. As a consequence, judgments about the effectiveness of a person’s power are usually based on outcomes - did the power recipient submit to the power holder’s demands? Of course, this assumes that the compliance was not the result of happenstance or some other nonpower factor. Compliance can occur both in the short and long term. A police sergeant effectively exercises power, for example, when she or he compels an officer to enable a bodyworn camera upon exiting the patrol vehicle in spite of the officer’s resistance to the perceived intrusion. Similarly, an officer’s arrest of a drunk driver is surely enough to remove a potentially dangerous driver from the road. Power, to the extent it results in behavioral change, results in short-term conformity. The effectiveness of power can also be examined by assessing its ability to ensure long-term compliance. Does the officer routinely activate the camera in subsequent encounters with the public, even absent specific and immediate directives from the supervisor? According to Tyler, “Such long-term compliance is more strongly voluntary in character, since legal authorities are seldom able to maintain the physical presence that makes the risk of being sanctioned for wrongdoing immediate and salient” (see The Effectiveness of Power section). Power also has reciprocal characteristics. Opposition or resistance is indicative of power attempts moving in opposite directions, suggesting both parties in a relationship have at least some amount of power. Peter Moskos illustrated this reciprocal power when he described his experiences with the Baltimore Police Department. Supervisors instructed officers to make one arrest (later two) during each four-week period. Violators were required to complete a specific form - one that would become part of their personnel record - documenting failure to adhere to performance standards. Management was trying to force compliance with the directives. Some officers, due to low morale and anger, stopped making arrests altogether, an action that would adversely affect evaluations of supervisors. Stated differently, officers were pushing back against the requirements, albeit with only minimal effects.

Power and Authority The terms power and authority are frequently used interchangeably. In this way, there is little distinction in the phrases the sergeant has authority over her officers and the sergeant has power over her officers. In spite of the casual use of both terms, there is a significant distinguishing feature. Individuals willingly comply with the commands of authority figures, accepting the fact that the person has the right to make demands of others. In modern

organizations, much of this authority is derived from position with the hierarchically structured department. Subordinates have a duty to comply with the requests of superiors and tend to do so as long as the commands fall within their “zone of indifference.” In practice, this means that most people unquestionably and reflexively accept certain orders—those within the zone of indifference - but are more likely to question or resist those that generate unnecessary work or represent an unacceptably broad reach for the individual making the command. Others within the organization lack legitimate (position) authority due to their location within departments. Civilian personnel, for example, tend to serve in support roles (e.g., crime analysts, records clerk, evidence technicians) that place them in subordinate positions within the hierarchy. Their lack of formal authority should not be mistaken for a lack of power. They may develop their own power bases, such as delaying or withholding information relevant to sworn employees. Authority is also evident during police contacts with citizens. Many people comply with police directives to pull over, stop, or answer questions, not out of fear of punishment, but out of a recognition of the police as legitimate authorities. Citizens defer to police attempts to ensure compliance. A growing body of research shows that perceptions of police legitimacy can be enhanced through police behaviors that reflect overall fairness, respect, and trustworthy motives. This procedural justice, increases the public’s compliance with the police and acceptance of their decisions, even if they are unfavorable (e.g., a speeding ticket, arrest).

Power and Influence The terms power and influence are typically used in conjunction with one another. Power tends to be viewed as a capacity, something to be mobilized or exercised. This is quite different from actual influence. A police officer conceivably has a great amount of power to fulfill peacekeeping responsibilities, drawing upon the threat of the criminal law to resolve interpersonal disputes. This potential or capacity is different from what Bass described as “a willingness to exercise it” or Mintzberg termed the “will and skill.” The officers must decide to intervene and make the power operational, thereby converting it to actual influence. The specific tactics used to secure compliance depend upon the task (e.g., assigning work, changing behaviors). Yukl, Guinan, and Sottolano proposed a list of nine common influence tactics Draft They are inextricably tied to power sources.

Police work creates unique marital difficulties. There are many factors that add stress to police officers’ marriages, including shift work, long hours and unconventional schedules, divided commitment between work and family roles, and perceived personality changes among officers. When police officers carry work-related stress and behaviors into the home, they may experience difficulties in their family relationships. Although spouses feel pride being married to an officer, they also have financial concerns, work and family conflict, and law enforcement specific stressors, such as negative public attitudes toward the police. Officers and spouses rely

on friends and family for support more than on professional sources. Law enforcement jobs strain marital relationships and compete strongly with family needs. Family issues among police officers are some of the most common problems presented to mental health providers. Occupational stress, organizational factors, work-family conflict, personality changes, and domestic violence may contribute to dysfunction in police families. These concerns necessitate assessing the specific needs of officers and their families and developing effective ways to help strengthen and maintain their marital relationships.

Power and Leadership

Leaders exercise power and authority in order to move group members toward the achievement of goals. Indeed, the amount of power inherent within a position in an organization was identified as a critical contingency in Fiedler's theory of leadership. The distinction between power and leadership may appear murky, with most definitions of the latter explicitly mentioning influence. This similarity aside, writers have generally made sharper distinctions between the two concepts. Jago, for example, restricted leadership to "noncoercive influence." Unfortunately, omitting coercion ignores the fact that a leader's role sometimes requires the development of a shared purpose among followers that is otherwise initially absent, even if it means drawing upon coercive or other power bases. Janda argued that followers comply with leaders due to their perception that the leaders have a legitimate right to make demands, what was referred to earlier as authority. For instance, a tactical team leader has the rightful authority to provide direction, and team members have a dutiful obligation to comply within the context of the group's activities. Beyond the group, however, the team leader would have to draw upon other forms of power in order to change behaviors. It makes sense to consider various forms of influence and to consider the dynamics of the social transaction to determine whether leadership is effective or ineffective. A more common and viable distinction is to see leadership as a subset of power; leadership occurs when the power holder and power recipient share common goals, something not true of all power relationships. Goals are not always compatible, however, requiring individuals to wield power in order to secure compliance. In 2011, the Miami, Florida, city manager dismissed the city's police chief for insubordination after he failed to delay demotions of several senior officials and reduce overtime costs. The city manager exercised power after disagreements over the direction of the department. It is the very possibility of goal incompatibility - getting people to do things they would not otherwise do - that is the essence of power. As goals are shared, the influence becomes more akin to leadership.

Legitimate Power By including legitimate power in their typology, French and Raven considered compliance based on authority. It is based on the power recipient's belief that the

power holder has a right, generally based on an organizationally bestowed position or rank, to extract compliance from others. Tiftt, for example, described how patrol sergeants were commonly present at major crime scenes, and officers came to expect and accept their attempts at control. After all, officers had a generally duty to comply with the supervisor even if they attempted to avoid control in other types of encounters. More recently, researchers expanded the conceptual definition of legitimate power to include reciprocity or exchange. Since the power holder has provided some type of benefit, the power recipient has a duty to reciprocate or restore balance to the exchange. The distinction between reciprocity and reward power is slight. With reward power, the power holder offers something of value only after the power recipient complies. With reciprocity, the power holder already offered something of value, so the power recipient has a duty to comply in response. Michael Brown illustrated this relationship between field supervisors (sergeants) and patrol officers by noting that sergeants possessed legitimate power by virtue of their rank and expert power given their experience. Yet sergeants were unable or reluctant to over-enforce rules against officers due to the power possessed by street-level employees. Sergeants needed information from officers about what was happening on the street. Moreover, officers could embarrass sergeants in front of department administrators or ignore the sergeant's request for assistance. The solution was a "pattern of mutual accommodation in which field supervisors reassert the semblance of discipline and behave as bureaucrats at the station house, while confronting patrolman as colleagues on the street." Officers benefitted from the exchange, avoiding excessive rule enforcement in return for not making trouble for the sergeant.

Expert Power Individuals acquire expert power due to their extensive knowledge in a specific area. Power recipients often defer to an expert's advice, particularly in situations where their own knowledge base is lacking. French and Raven offered a simple example of a lost traveler's willing acceptance of directions from stranger. The unknown individual is presumed to be an expert because of his or her perceived residence in the town. Patients often readily comply with a doctor's medical advice and customers with an auto technician's recommendation, even if compliance means a costly or painful medical procedure or expensive auto repair. In both cases, individuals are heeding the advice of experts. Expert power is a form of personal power attributed to the individual rather than the position. Police department personnel frequently "set the stage" in order to establish their expert power base.⁶⁸ For example, before testifying in court about a particular investigation, officers or crime lab analysts will likely establish their qualifications - years with the department, years in investigation, academic degrees, and other credentials. Lack of knowledge weakens a person's power base and the ability to influence others. In a 2000 research article, Mastrofski and colleagues studied

the frequency at which police officers in two cities fulfilled citizen requests to control others and the predictors of compliance. They focused on encounters in which a total of 396 citizens asked 172 officers to advise, warn, separate (make leave), or arrest others. Overall, officers fulfilled or partially fulfilled a citizen's request in nearly three-quarters (70%) of all cases. Citizens were less successful, however, if they asked the officer to arrest someone else, largely due to the legal requirements associated with this form of social control. Citizens may ask for arrest but be unfamiliar with probable cause standards. According to the authors, "officers serve more to modulate than amplify the public's will, at least when enacting the most extreme form of control we have considered." Without clear knowledge of legal requirements, a resident's ability to compel officer Draft action is likely to be constrained.

The Effectiveness of Power

Discretion is a widely accepted aspect of the police occupation. Officers deal with Draft unique human problems that are difficult to reduce to programmed rules, they work in environments where demand for services often outstrips resources, they are subjected to ambiguous or conflicting objectives (e.g., aggressive enforcement vs. community support), and they confront a public that often opposes full enforcement of the criminal law. To be sure, the law and department regulations constrain officer behavior; restrictions on police use of deadly force serve as an example of how discretion can be curtailed. Nevertheless, officers still retain considerable freedom in how they carry out their duties. As the sections that follow show, supervisors are limited in their ability to exact compliance and control discretion.

Concept of control, managerial control.

There are different classifications of management functions, for example: "Planning, organization, command, coordination and control", "Defining goals / strategy, planning the implementation of strategy, organization, motivation and control". Common to all classifications is that one of its purpose is presented as "all the actions of the manager, by means of which he tries to ensure the conformity of the actual results with the planned ones".

The word "control," like "power," evokes a negative emotion and reaction in most people. Control as a concept is used in economics, mathematics, engineering, medicine, management and other fields. Etymologically, the term 'control' comes from the French word 'controle' and means check. In essence, however, the scope of the concept of verification does not cover the content of the control. Usually, an inspection is an inspection of something that is part of the whole. It provides an idea of the current state of phenomena and processes. Unlike inspection, control is the inspection of something complete and complete, with all its components. In time

and scope it has unlimited effect. The control process covers the establishment of standards, measurement of the actually achieved results and making / forming corrective decisions (if the achieved results differ significantly from the adopted standards and the set goals).

The manager begins to perform his control function from the moment the organization is established (respectively from the moment he acquires the capacity of leader) and has formulated its goals and objectives. In an uncontrolled organization, a state similar to chaos occurs, due to which control is internally necessary for any organization and without it it cannot function in a good way. It is known that "entropy" is a term used in science for chaos. In an organization without managerial control, entropy could increase to values that would lead to a kind of "disintegration" of organizational relationships in this structure. In practice, this will only seemingly be an organization.

In a working organization, crises occur as a result of the accumulation of many unresolved and properly problematic situations. Uncontrolled problem situations or a combination of poorly managed ones can lead to a crisis. They have a hidden period of development during which they do not look like crises. There follows a period of partially visible symptoms and then the crisis develops and unfolds in its entirety. There is always a causal relationship and dependencies between individual crisis / problem situations, ultimately leading to a crisis. Control as a function of management is one of its characteristics that allows problems to be identified in time, properly qualified, to take the necessary corrective measures to prevent the escalation into a crisis.

The control does not affect only the obtained results as management feedback, but is considered as a process. In addition to the qualities of the systems, the reasons that lead to deviations from the norms of behavior are also subject to control. They are mistakes and intentional violations. In the case of a mistake, there is an irregularity in the actions and thoughts, deviations from the norm of behavior more than the permissible one, without the presence of intent aimed at a negative result.

As it is obviously natural for control to be part of management activity, the name "management control" is more appropriate. The main elements of management control as a process are:

1. Norm of behavior - this is a decision about the parameters in which the system should be developed. In its assessment, the control function is aimed at establishing the reality of the selected norm and the possibilities for quantitative and qualitative measurements.
2. Determining (forecasting) the expected state - the purpose of this element is to determine possible deviations from the norm of behavior. This allows preventive measures to be taken to "enclose" behavior within tolerances.

3. Measurement of the actual situation - it gives an idea of the final result; the quantitative and value characteristics are determined.
4. Comparison of the actual situation with the norm of behavior - it allows to establish the deviations from the approved norm. It involves not only technical calculation, but also analysis of the factors that led to these results.
5. Regulation of behavior - it summarizes the established deviations from the norms and the determination of means and methods for changes in time and space. The absence of a corrective program deprives control of effectiveness.

Apart from being a function of management, control is also seen as a public attitude. It manifests itself as an impact on the behavior of an individual or on a group of individuals. This is reflected in the requirements for compliance with generally accepted norms of behavior. Most often in practice the objects of control are identified with the organizations (enterprises) to which the control activity is directed.

The subject of control are the qualities of the systems. They are a set of properties that determine the ability to obtain certain results. The main requirements for control are:

1. Purposefulness of the control, determined on the basis of the analysis of the separate types of activities and the work of all bodies and their subordinate structural units and units; identification of critical points and control impact before deviations occur.
2. Legality of the control in accordance with the norms (the normative requirements for the activity).
3. Timeliness of the control, depending on the implementation of a set of measures and tasks for the provision of preliminary, current and subsequent control from the point of view of the accumulated experience and the performed inspections. Independence presupposes that the conclusions are the result only of the implemented control procedures and not to be influenced by factors that are external to the specific control.
4. Comprehensiveness of the control (application of the control for all activities), requiring inspection of each area of activity, of the information sources and documentation, to analyze the organization of the work and the observance of the granted rights and obligations of the officials. It is desirable that the control be comprehensive (or at least close to comprehensive).
5. Necessary adequacy, which is determined by the type and degree of importance of the risk and the admitted violations, omissions and weaknesses in the activity of a specific structural unit and an individual employee.
6. Objectivity of the control, determined by the degree of competence, independence and assessment of the identified omissions, errors and violations with the specific indication of the carriers of negative phenomena.

7. Independence determined by the place, role, powers and obligations of the bodies exercising control and reporting to the higher bodies.
8. Permanence, leading to the coverage of processes without interruption.
- 9 Prevention, which has an impact on the conditions causing deviations.

The principles of control shall be considered as ethical principles of conduct of the controller. Their classification also applies to the theory of control, because they can also apply to its other forms. The main principles are:

1. Integrity - requires the supervisory authority not to associate with actions and statements that contain materially misleading, misleading, unreasonably given information, as well as omission or concealment of such.
2. Objectivity - requires the conclusions not to be influenced by prejudice and prejudice, no conflict of interest and illegal influence.
3. Professional competence - presupposes the controlling body to possess and maintain the necessary professional knowledge and skills, giving it the ability to control qualitatively.
4. Confidentiality - means not to disclose the data of the controlled objects and not to use the acquired information for personal benefit / benefit or for the benefit of third parties.
5. Professional conduct - obliges to comply with regulatory requirements and professional standards and to avoid actions that could discredit the profession.

Control methods are mainly divided into specific and general methods. Specific methods highlight control as a separate scientific knowledge within individual sciences. They are typical only for control. The general methods have universal applicability. They use experience, knowledge and skills from management, statistics and other areas of knowledge. Specific methods of control include document verification, inventory, reference, survey, written explanations, expertise and others.

- The verification of documents is a study of the information reflected in a certain order. It includes formal, factual and cross-checking. The subject of a formal inspection is to establish the observance of the norms, for their drawing up and movement (documents). The presence of the obligatory requisites, the terms for compiling, the enumeration of the facts, calculations, etc. is checked. Factual verification is also called substantive verification. It focuses on the legality and expediency of the circumstances reflected in the documents. The cross-check is applied in case of doubts about the reliability of the data. It compares the documents in the issuer and the recipient.

- The inventory is expressed in quantitative measurement and counting of the actual condition of the assets, and their comparison with those reflected in documents. The measurement is

performed by the materially responsible persons under the direct control of the inspectors. The quantities actually established are described and have the character of a means of proof.

- The report from the point of view of control is a method for studying one side of one or several phenomena. It is used when studying phenomena and processes for which there is no special information. Prepared on the basis of primary media. In order for the report to be used for control purposes, it must meet certain requirements. These are: indication of the purpose of the report, the period to which it refers, the quantitative and value characteristic, the data sources and others.

- The survey is a method for clarifying all aspects of one or more phenomena that are relatively small in volume. A questionnaire or questionnaire is compiled to conduct a survey. The questions included in the survey / questionnaire are used to study the controlled objects.

- The written explanations aim to clarify certain facts and the reasons for a certain result. They reveal the personal attitude to one's own actions and to the actions of others. Causal links are established. Audit theory deals with inquiry and confirmation, which have common features with written explanations. They represent seeking and receiving information from both insiders and outsiders. They are used in auditing receivables, payables, bank loans and others.

- Expertise in control is a method for clarifying problems that are not within the competence of control bodies. It is performed by highly qualified specialists in the respective field. It is important to note that the control body is not obliged to accept the expert's decision.

The general methods of control include all methods from the various sciences that find application in control. The most used methods of analysis, incl. and statistical analysis. Such are the comparisons, the method of detailing, the analysis of coefficients, the tests of reasCharacteristics of effective management control.

- Strategic focus - to reflect and maintain the strategic priorities of the organization. A bad management model is when managing a substructure that is part of a larger organization, to have as a horizon of managerial behavior only the immediate goals and objectives of the unit;

- Orientation of control to results - the essence of control and its ultimate goal is to solve tasks facing the organization, which have a specific measurability in the form of results, rather than an end in itself;

- Timeliness - delayed (untimely / untimely) control is a reaction to past negative events and rather has the essence of a corrective measure, often expressed in sanctions. Some activities and tasks have a character that not only allows but also implies "follow-up control". However, other forms of control are realized in them, and not only subsequent;

- Flexibility of control - ability to adapt to constant changes;

- Simplicity - the most effective control is the one that is as simple as possible in terms of the purposes for which it is intended. Excessive complexity leads to a kind of disorder and a real loss of control;
- Cost-effectiveness of control - all the "costs" incurred in an organization should lead to an increase in its benefits. This also applies to control. If the total cost of the control system is greater than the benefits it brings, it should be changed because it does not bring the organization closer, but further away from its goals through the apparent inefficiency. Onableness, the method of chain substitution, the regression analysis and others.

Types of control

There are various criteria in the literature for the classification of control. The most common is according to the affiliation of the control bodies. According to this criterion, they are internal and external.

- Internal is the control in which the subject and the object are in close proximity or are in the same system. Internal control is a process designed to provide a reasonable degree of assurance as to the achievement of the objectives of economy, efficiency and effectiveness, reliability of financial reporting and compliance with applicable legal provisions;
- External control, in which the subject and the object of control are in different systems. It is characterized by the remoteness of the object and the subject (for example, in the control under the Public Procurement Act, carried out by the Public Procurement Agency and the State Financial Control Agency).

Depending on the specific features of the site and the methods used, a distinction is made between documentary and material (actual) control.

- The control carried out on the basis of only available relevant documents and the information in them is documentary.
- The control over the actual situation is material. It seeks the differences between facts and circumstances that can be established in objective reality and what is reflected in the documents.

Depending on the specifics of the control functions, there are financial (accounting) and managerial (administrative) control.

- Accounting control is exercised over the reliability of the financial statements and the protection of assets.
- Management control is over compliance with the norms of the organization. It checks for legality and expediency (efficiency, effectiveness and economy). These indicators are extremely important for control.

Legality is obviously the correspondence between normatively established norms and the actual actions of a controlled entity. Effectiveness is defined as the degree to which goals are achieved by comparing actual and expected results. Efficiency means achieving maximum results from the resources used in carrying out the activity. Cost-effectiveness is the acquisition with the lowest cost of resources used for the activity in compliance with the quality requirements.

Depending on the frequency / periodicity and the frequency of control activities, the control can be:

- routine (permanent), daily;
- operational (periodic) - the control activities are carried out for a certain period of time - month, quarter, year or. Dr .;
- disposable;
- multiple.

Forms of control

The form is the way of organizing the control activity. There are basic and specific forms of control. The criterion for determining the basic forms is time. On this basis, a distinction is made between preliminary, current and subsequent control.

- The preliminary control is manifested in the preparation of the processes, in the creation of the conditions for achieving the goals. It is important mainly for the prevention of negative phenomena. It has the highest degree of prevention.
- The current control is carried out simultaneously with the ongoing activity. It is characterized by completeness, completeness, consistency and efficiency. It checks the entire activity. The aim is to stop the negative development of the processes in the controlled activity (system). In this sense, it also has a preventive effect. The characteristics of the current control give grounds to claim that it is inherent in the internal management control.
- The subsequent control is the control after the event, when the processes are completed and the results are obtained. It is characterized by constancy and periodicity. However, it also has prevention. It acts as a warning against future deviations from the norms.

The main forms of control are realized through its specific forms. In theory and practice, inspection, supervision, inspection, audit and audit meet.

The inspection is both an independent form of control and part of the other specific forms. It establishes facts that are relevant to compliance with the norm. As a result of the performed inspection, compliance or deviation from the norm of behavior is established. It is performed after receiving the results. In this sense, it is a follow-up control.

Inspection and supervision are used interchangeably. The term inspection comes from the Latin word "inspektio", which means supervision, inspection, audit. Supervision is external control from the point of view of the controlled entity. The controlling body is situated outside the controlled organization. He has no management functions. The inspection aims to establish compliance with the law, not expediency.

The term revision comes from the Latin word "revisio", which literally means revision. The revision can be defined as "any critical attitude to the work performed, of any nature, in the sense of a complete or partial repetition of the same work" (Prof. Dobrev). In the modern literature on control, it is most often presented as a comprehensive study in order to establish compliance with the norm. It focuses on past activity. It is based mainly on documentary control, but also includes inventory.

Audit comes from the word 'audio', which literally means listen. The audit arises in the financial and accounting activities. For a long time, this term was used only to express an opinion on the financial statements. However, performance and compliance audits are already widespread. Performance audit is also known as operational (management) audit and refers to the assessment of economy, efficiency and effectiveness. The compliance audit is aimed at assessing all actions related to norms and rules that affect the final result in the inspected object. The internal audit aims to monitor control procedures. He assesses internal control and reports to management on deviations from established norms and rules of conduct. Internal audit in the public sector is defined as an independent and objective activity to provide assurance and advice, designed to benefit and improve the activities of the organization. It is carried out on the basis of the Law on Internal Audit in the Public Sector.

External audit in the public sector is performed by the National Audit Office. Its purpose is to contribute to the good management of budgetary and other public funds, as well as to provide the National Assembly with reliable information on the spending of funds, in accordance with the principles of legality, efficiency, effectiveness and economy and reliable accounting. External audit in the public sector is regulated by the Law on the National Audit Office.

Stress and Its Effects on Police

Stress was first recognized during the Civil War as a detriment to effective military operations because of the resulting emotional difficulties. Further studies through the years, especially during times of conflict, produced the bulk of knowledge and research concerning the effects of stress, both physically and psychologically, in the police organization. Stress prepares our minds and bodies to respond to perceived danger by activation of an autonomic nervous "fight or flight" mechanism. Upon completion of the stressful situation, or its elimination, our bodies

return to normal operation. Problems arise when our bodies remain unrelaxed, in the alarm stage, the first step in the manifestations of stress process developed in 1936 by Dr. Hans Selye. Dr. Selye, in his pioneering research into what is now known as the General Adaptation Syndrome (see Table 2.1), identified stress as the "nonspecific response of the body to any demand". This syndrome, physiological stress reactions, occur in three distinct phases:

1. Alarm Reaction: characterized by the bodily expression of a generalized call to arms of defensive forces in the organism.
2. Stage of Resistance: upon continuous exposure to the alarm reaction, a stage of adaptation or resistance follows, as no living organism can be maintained continuously in a state of alarm.
3. Stage of exhaustion: after prolonged exposure to the item causing the alarm reaction, the acquired stage of resistance is eventually lost. The body now presents premature aging due to wear and tear, physiologically resembling the alarm stage.

In the average person, a constant stage of alarm is not a problem; if problems develop, steps can be taken to eliminate the source of stress. Police officers, however, cannot eliminate the source of most of their stress nor can their bodies automatically turn-off. The very nature of police work prohibits normal functioning of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems, causing prolonged alarm reactions and entry into the resistance stage, producing chronic stress. Causes for stress inherent in police organizations are as varied as the instruction, direction, and leadership within the same structure. Attempts to isolate a single cause of police officer stress produced volumes of research, but were inconclusive in determining causality. Police work is a multi-faceted business, necessarily producing the diverse variables involved in police stress. "Stressors are dependent on one's perceptions. If someone believes something is a stressor, then it is - even if it isn't a stressor for anyone else. Consequently, stress management is becoming a major consideration for modern police agencies. Currently faced with alarming downward trends in employee health, emotional stability, and productivity attributed to occupational stress. The physical manifestations of stress are staggering, as research links stress to indigestion, diarrhea, dermatitis, asthma, colitis, ulcers, back trouble, migraine headaches, hypertension, strokes, and heart attacks. Eisenberg found stress causes higher than normal rates of coronary heart disease; gastro-intestinal malfunctions; dermatological problems; severe nervous conditions; neurosis; and a number of physical and mental disorders in police professionals, plus increased incidents involving marital discord and certain forms of police malpractice. Additionally, "one study indicates that as high as 40 to 60 percent of the average doctor's patients are suffering from some form of psychosomatic illness", a phenomenon linked to stress. Police officers also seem to have a

higher rate of divorce, alcoholism, and suicide than most other occupations. The extended costs of police stress are equally astounding - high absenteeism, disability, and discipline rates; premature retirement compensation; performance and effectiveness trends continuing downward. Hidden costs of stress must also be considered in deterioration of police - community relations, lower conviction rates for offenders, increased civil litigation against the department, plus the resultant supervisory "crisis management" actions required to rearrange shift schedules, case loads, budgetary factors, and concomitant stress on administrators. These costs of police stress "all direct resources away from effective crime prevention and law enforcement activities", creating severe internal pressures on police leadership, already strapped doing "more with less". To determine the accuracy of the assumption that police work is more psychologically stressful than other occupations, Fell, Richard, and Wallace compared policing with a wide range of 130 occupations in the professions, skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled job areas. Examining stress related mortality and morbidity data from prerecorded health records in Tennessee, they found police officers died prematurely (between the ages of 18 and 64) and were admitted to General hospitals for stress related injury at significantly higher rates than other occupations. Stress is Intrinsic to police work, yet researchers continue to find organizational stress, not the widely publicized traumatic stress, Identified as the major source of police officer stress. Origins of Police Organizational Stress Dr. Martin Symonds published the first study of police officer stress in 1970 in the American Journal of Psychoanalysis based on Selye's work, describing psychological effects of stress in police officers. However, the first empirical study of police officer stress was conducted by Dr. William Kroes In 1974 and his study is the foundation on which modern police stress awareness is built. Dr. Kroes Interviewed 100 Cincinnati police officers using an obtrusive semi-structured interview technique, categorizing primary Job stressors Into equipment, courts, administration, and community relations areas. His results clearly Indicate organizational stressors, identified In the administration category, were the main sources of line officer concern. Specifically, stressors included in the administration group were administration policies (work assignments, procedures, and personal conduct) and administrator support (relationship and rapport between officers and supervisors), as reported by 69 percent of the sample. Difficulties in getting along with supervisors was reported by 22 percent of police officers as a stressor, plus the fifth most prevalent complaint (56 percent) is changing shifts each 28 day .Kroes concludes officers are able to cope more easily with other police stressors if the officer is aware of supervisory support and understanding of their problems, even though he caveats the supervisory difficulty finding with an indication that everyone has periodic conflicts with their superiors. In fact, Kroes states line officers "feel let down by the administration. Instead of the administration taking some

pressures off the officers, they often create new ones." Unfortunately, this finding is prevalent throughout the literature. Dr. Kroes expanded his 1974 research to an examination of police administrator stress levels. Their chief complaint was that subordinates were frequently detailed away by higher management echelons without the supervisor's prior knowledge nor consultation. This stressor overshadowed a general administrator feeling of a lack of support by their superiors and distrust of their actions by subordinates. Clearly, administrators experience the same type of organizational stressors as line officers, albeit from a different perspective.

The management control in the Police

Control is a complex and responsible activity. Requires complete, but also detailed knowledge of the controlled objects (structure, functions, features, tasks, resources, procedures, regulatory requirements, etc.). The skill of an expert is needed in order to be able to reliably establish the parameters of the current state of the object of control, to compare them with the established standards and to make reasonable conclusions about compliance or absence of such. For individual areas of activity, methodological guidelines are developed and applied, giving additional confidence for the full coverage of the controlled activities and application of appropriate tools. The control over the employees, the structures and the activities for which they are responsible is an essential part of the job responsibilities of the leading positions in the Ministry of Interior. These obligations arise at the moment of entering the respective managerial position and are invariably in force until its dismissal by the respective order. The obligations are based on a stable regulatory basis and measured detail has been made according to the specific areas of activity. Senior managers have a major commitment to strategic control, which is related to the functioning of the system as such and the achievement of long-term goals related to the mission, vision and strategy of the organization. Operational control and its daily manifestations are primarily tasks facing the leaders of the Ministry of Interior in low and medium-high (in the hierarchy) management positions. This subtype of control from the point of view of periodicity is performed with the highest frequency (Stoyanov S, 2020).

Good management

The concept of good governance for the first time stands out and attracts the attention of modern heads of state and international financiers to themselves in 1990. From that moment on, interest in him experienced a real boom. By accident coincidence or rather not, the beginning of this process are two speeches delivered soon one after another by two different politicians, but on the same occasion. The first is on French President Francois Mitterrand before African heads of state, and the second to the then British Foreign Secretary, Douglas

Hurd, in front of a similar one international audience. Both speeches proclaim the thesis that the distribution of aid to the Third World, Africa in particular will henceforth depend on the fulfillment of political conditions, related to a specific way of government. Today, two decades later, the term good governance is used in most analyzes of socio-political development. It describes how state institutions must direct public affairs and how to manage them public resources so as to guarantee human rights in the first place and together thus democratic stability, justice and sustainable development. Obviously is that it is a political concept with a certain ideological charge, which develops its content in the direction of affirming the values of modernity Western democracy with a specific pragmatic goal. Of course, they exist far away more situations than political, in which the concept of the potential of good management are not only applicable but also particularly meaningful.

In any case, the understanding of good governance is still the most common is implicitly based on the comparison between inefficient economies combined with undemocratic political institutions on the one hand with viable economies, corresponding to democratic political systems on the other. Accordingly topicality acquires the motive that once the most successful management in modern The liberal democracies of the West are their world, their political and management standards should serve as a model in the form of a number basic requirements that other countries must follow.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion on the evidence presented tends to support the hypothesis that there is a difference between management and leadership. A statement by the Royal Ulster Constabulary (Northern Ireland) succinctly states what must surely be the ultimate objective of all police forces, namely, *'Good Leadership is the ability to apply all the professional skills at your disposal whilst at the same time harnessing the energy of all those who work with you towards the achievement of the task'* (Royal Ulster Constabulary, 1986, p. 3). That statement, coupled to a progressive management theory tailored to the specific force's requirements, must, when tempered with flexibility, provide the requisite mixture of good management and good leadership skills that are required for the modern police service (Brian F. Kingshott & Catherine Orban, 2006).

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