



Review of:
To Protect and Serve: A History of Police in America
Robert C. Wadman & William Thomas Allison
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In order to advance as an academic discipline Policing must have a strong basis in research; a substantial portion of that being historical. Robert Wadman and William Allison have made a significant contribution to Policing with *To Protect and Serve*. Divided into nine chapters, the book does an admirable job of uncovering much of what is not known about the evolution of American police departments.

Chapter 1 – Police in Early America

This chapter describes English traditions of policing and their influence upon the American colonies. There is an interesting observation about cultural mimesis whereby emigrating populations bring their culture with them and reinstitute it in their adopted land. Wadman and Allison discuss the hue and cry, posse comitatus and kin police where neighbors were obligated to assist fellow community members in distress. These concepts predated the Norman conquest of 1066. After that date the Normans transformed the kin police model into the frankpledge system with its tithings, hundreds, constables, shires and shire reeves.

Demographics and their role in crime causation is brought up both from the effects of the Transportation Act sending banished criminals to the colonies as well as the lowered crime rate in Massachusetts during the Puritan period when many young people – who may have had deviant propensities - moved to other colonies. The Transportation Act of 1718 resulted in the banishment of more than two thirds of the English felons between 1718 and 1775. Over thirty thousand persons were sentenced to exile or sold as servants in Maryland and Virginia. This policy was resented by the American colonists. Benjamin Franklin suggested sending rattlesnakes to England in return for the convicts.

The role of the constable and the watch is discussed at length. Constables conducted day patrols, were the chief law enforcement officers in the town and had a tremendous workload; enforcing a vast array of laws. Constables were appointed for a term of one year and they were not compensated. In some cases citizens paid the fine for failing to serve rather than act as a constable.

Watches were night operations with little to no pay and no training. The first paid watch was in Boston in 1654. Pay was generally very low and only attracted the poor. Watches dealt with drunks and fires but could not maintain the peace with unruly mobs. Rapidly rising urban populations greatly strained the abilities of the watches.

There is mention at several junctures about the English and American people's distrust of a centralized standing army. There is also discussion of the use of the military in cases where constables and watch systems were ineffective or where the threat was Indians, foreign armies (French or British) or slave uprisings. It would have been effective for the authors to have initiated a discussion of military control forces at this point in the work. A definition of "militia" along with a discussion of its origins and subsequent employ would have added to our understanding of contemporary "homeland security".

Chapter 2 – The Development of Municipal Police in the Northeast

Immigration patterns gave rise to ethnic conflict and clashes between the 'have's and 'have nots'. Northeastern Americans did not want national governance and sought local control over their daily lives and police forces. Nativism and racism fueled riots that neither night watches nor marshal's offices (who were primarily focused on ordinance and code enforcement)

were designed to control. Eventually a collection of important ideas on policing began to be adopted. Municipal police departments began to emerge with health code enforcement, building permit issuance and tavern licensing coming under the aegis of one centralized municipal police department. Boston, New Orleans, Chicago and Cincinnati all adopted a centrally organized police department structure before the Civil War. In 1814 Philadelphia there was a police captain and lieutenant of the night watch who were paid for from “Common Council” funds. New York City had their police controlled by the state legislature in 1857 due to strong criticism from the press about police corruption and inefficiency. Fear of urban unrest due to rapidly increasing immigrant populations brought into being some measure of military organization to American cities. Apparently, so *too did* the influence of Robert Peel.

Chapter 3 – Policing Race and Violence in the South

Throughout this chapter the authors make reference to slavery and the resulting issues of racial tensions. Slave codes were developed to define the rights and obligations of slave owners. They were initiated in the 1660s in Maryland and Virginia. These consumer protection laws for the owners regulated all aspects of a slave’s life. Slave patrols were developed to enforce the codes and capture runaway slaves. The patrols varied widely from area to area but often incorporated the militia and performed police duties. During the Civil War, police took over the function of slave patrols. American police adopted the practice of patrol for crime prevention purposes from slave patrols. The Southern dedication to state’s right and local control over police became entrenched and the institutionalism of racism due to poor training and supervision became a major cultural factor within police departments.

Chapter 4 – Policing the American West

Vigilantism is discussed in detail as a convenient, cost-effective means of dealing with crime. Judges and others in positions of power tolerated the practice which seemed to suppress crime temporarily. The vigilance committee set up in 1851 San Francisco is discussed regarding its development, decline and re-emergence when corruption and street crime became a major threat. The authors conclude their treatment of vigilantism with it being supplanted by better communications, civic institutions and better law enforcement as population increased. They make the observation that vigilantism may be an inadvertent by-product of a democratic society.

Native American police forces are given good treatment; but the authors concluded it in the early 1900s. Perhaps it would be more interesting to see the development of Indian police after that period; especially in relation to the advent of contemporary Native American gambling casinos.

The U.S. Marshals, the first federal law enforcement service, are covered. Their extraordinary powers included being able to appoint their own deputies and deputize regular army units. The problems with their pay are chronicled such as how the marshals supplemented their meager pay with bounty hunting; yet “bounty hunting” is not defined. Is this referring to the commonly used contemporary bail bond enforcement? Or are there reward systems in place? This is a key point as reward systems do not seem to be researched in terms of their effectiveness. Some historical perspective – if this is what is meant – would be enlightening. Marshals were presidentially appointed yet not part of the military; they played a rather unique role in defending American democracy. Their agents, the deputies, did the real work of law

enforcement in colonial and 19th Century America. Some more discussion of their career patterns such as how Wyatt Earp replaced an intimidated deputy U.S. marshal would have been helpful.

Private security agencies are discussed next. Wadman and Allison correctly assert that the “Pinkertons” were a major part of law enforcement history in the West. They mention that the Pinkerton Protection Patrol Company was the first firm to provide private interstate police service. Unfortunately they devote a scant three (3) paragraphs to private security agencies. This is, perhaps, the major shortcoming with the book.

The Texas Rangers are discussed, with the authors providing a detailed account of their development while Texas was still Mexican territory. Their evolution is explored with an interesting discussion as to how the Rangers actually saw little action during the Texan revolution; how they were used as a military force providing protection against Indians and how they were brought into service in 1874 during Reconstruction. At this point they assumed more general law enforcement functions and hunted down such notorious outlaws as Ben Thompson, Bill Longley, Jon King Fisher and John Wesley Hardin. Their border control function during the Mexican revolution and their role in the capture of Depression era gangsters is outlined. Finally, their contemporary investigative emphasis is noted. The authors conclude by mentioning that neighboring states such as Arizona and New Mexico created state police forces based on the model of the Texas Rangers.

Chapter 5 – Urbanization, Progressivism and Police

The urbanization of American society that began in the 1820s and 1830s and resulted in uncontrolled growth for cities in the latter 19th Century is discussed. Nativist forces arose to blame the lack of government services on immigrants which resulted in mob violence. The role of the boss system with political patronage creating a corrupt political machine is discussed in significant detail. Wadman and Allison note that the link between increasing urbanization and crime is clear cut; they postulate that as the development of legitimate economic opportunities increased, violent crime decreased. They also assert that as police departments developed and became more professional there were more arrests made for transgressions that would formerly have been overlooked.

Perhaps at this point in the work the authors should have defined more clearly the role of urbanization and crime and police. They make note of it but a fuller discussion is warranted. Relevant criminological theories could have been introduced. Organizational development from management could have been specified also. Such a treatment would have been enormously beneficial to public administration students.

Progressive reforms in the political system are next discussed. The police officer as a political operative is delved into. The development of uniforms for police was spurred on by a need to identify them to the public and create an esprit de corps within the ranks of the officers. Early identification was a leather badge; then a copper one (“copper”) and finally in the latter 19th Century, uniforms. Police resisted uniforms with New York City being the first uniformed force beginning in 1853.

In addition to uniforms was the introduction of women into the ranks of police; first as matrons dealing with female criminals, prostitutes and vagrants. The matrons worked with mentally ill and the young during the latter 19th Century. Matrons had no police powers until Portland, Oregon hired the first one in 1905. In 1910 Los Angeles appointed Alice Stebbin Wells, a social worker to the force. Officer Wells worked to supervise the regulation of dance

halls, motion picture theatres and arcades. She became well known throughout the United States and Canada for her work.

It is at this point in the text that the authors could have added a discussion; perhaps best proffered in the form of a chart; that described police functions that were administrative and regulatory in nature. With the more contemporary emphasis on community involvement by police and the increasing utilization of “civil law” to achieve better enforcement and “quality of life”; a historical progression would have been beneficial.

The next topic discussed was the development of civil service to root out patronage and the resultant corruption. Civil service exams were brought into being to help insure that only applicants with an increased educational level became officers. The exams also promoted progressive values such as concern for the public interest. Physical standards were also implemented. In 1895 New York City under the direction of the Roosevelt Board, headed by future president Teddy; height, weight and age requirements were added. The practice of having substitutes taking written exams for police recruits was also stopped.

Chapter 6 – The Shift to Police as Profession

Social changes impacted the development of professionalism within the ranks of American police. World War I led into a period of economic uncertainty soon after the war. Then began an era of economic expansion: the “roaring 20s.” Demographic shifts created organized crime gangs in some cities; these groups were involved in gambling and bootlegging. Later, during the Second World War there was an ample market for black marketeering of rationed commodities. The gangs replaced the boss system as the centers of power in some U.S. cities. Ethnic strife developed and the country had a series of serious race riots. The 1917 East St. Louis riot centered around the mass migration of blacks into the city. Disorders in Coatesville, Pennsylvania, Longview, Texas, Houston, Texas, Chicago, Illinois, Washington, D.C. and Norfolk, Virginia followed. Perhaps the most infamous of all was the Tulsa, Oklahoma riot of 1921 where at least twenty four people were killed in fighting between armed groups.

The race riots of the post- WWI period were caused by competition for jobs; “trigger events” such as fights between individuals; rumors and a sense of general anxiety running through American society. Police were poorly equipped to deal with these disturbances. Partially this was due to lack of resources; partly because of not being trained and partly because of institutional racism which permeated police departments. Interestingly, Wadman and Allison note that the International Association of Chiefs of Police in their 1919 and 1920 meetings did not address the riots, police race relations or preventive planning. They mention that some “standard and otherwise excellent works” on police reform during the 1920s, 1930s, and 1940s do not even mention the problem of race riots.

Perhaps “the Blue Wall of Silence” so often cited in policing is deeply rooted in police history; seeping upward into the managerial level. This should be very disturbing to academicians and researchers in Criminal Justice. It certainly needs to be investigated. We owe our students more than a cursory treatment of it from a contemporary perspective.

Unionization of police is covered in appropriate detail. Police were slow to unionize as they had been on opposing sides of the movement to organize American workers. The public saw unions as being filled with socialists or “reds”. Law enforcement unions grew out of what were initially social organizations such as the Patrolman’s Benevolent Association in New York City. The Cincinnati police strike of 1918 where the mayor had to call out the Home Guard – a wartime

unit – to deal with the strike is discussed. Interestingly, the Boy Scouts also helped the Home Guard in patrolling toward the end of the strike. The 1919 Boston police strike is also covered. This strike was for higher salaries as police pay had stagnated and not kept pace with inflation. It was also about American Federation of Labor affiliation. The Boston Social Club had campaigned for higher wages and a reduction in the seventy-three hour work week, seven day per week schedule. Other issues included the expansion of police duties to include delivering delinquent tax notices, administering the census and watching over Sunday afternoon concerts as well as horrid, rat infested station houses. On September 9, 1919 over eleven hundred officers vacated their posts. Five hundred volunteers and several companies of the Massachusetts National Guard attempted to preserve order. Eight people were killed and extensive property damage occurred in the ensuing looting and attacks against striking police and other bystanders. When order was restored the police union was characterized as a group of anarchists and most of the strikers were permanently suspended and replaced.

Unfortunately, the authors do not discuss the organized labor movement with its numerous strikes which impacted policing in enough detail. They mention some strikes such as the one in Chicago where ten men were killed as well as the forming of the Los Angeles Police Department “Red Squad” which conducted undercover operations on suspected Bolsheviks. On the whole they have largely ignored some very major labor disruptions which served as an impetus for creating professional police departments organized in a military structure. Alongside public police stood national guard and militias which served as control forces. Private contract security organizations and proprietary forces such as the Coal and Iron Police in Pennsylvania played a key role – both positive and negative – in the turbulent evolution of American labor. All of these control forces should be studied by the serious police historian as they not only help in understanding the past but provide clues to the future of law enforcement when it is faced with major challenges.

The authors have done an excellent job of uncovering the problems associated with racism but have fallen far short in their treatment of American labor.

Crime commissions are covered next. These were comprised of outsiders examining policing practices. Their structure and analysis may be illustrative for contemporary and future security commissions. Commissions were initiated in reaction to high-profile criminal acts or corrupt behavior. One commission in Cincinnati advocated a regionalized police force for surrounding counties due to access to highways and railroads. Another in Baltimore resulted in the reorganization of the department. August Vollmer came from the Berkeley Police Department and attempted to reform the Los Angeles Police Department with training, university involvement and reorganization of patrols. Unfortunately his efforts were blocked and he returned to Berkeley. Perhaps the most noted body was the Wickersham Commission of 1929-1931. The Wickersham Commission noted that problems facing American police were poor training, low morale, an absence of coordinated planning and implementation and the reality of chiefs who were politically hamstrung and could not function as independent law enforcement executives.

Chapter 7 – Police and Technology

The use of technology by police has enabled them to solve more crimes, apprehend more criminals and enhance their personal safety. Technological advancements and their influence on police operations are certainly worthy of study. Technology is also important as it is this

reviewer's observation that Americans love technology and will attempt its employ to perform functions and solve problems; even in those instances where it is not the optimal approach. Wadman and Allison are to be commended for marching the reader through the evolution of police equipment in America.

The authors begin by noting that "the Progressive movement initiated the police love affair with technology." Bureaucracy resisted the new technology. But the innovations were accepted eventually and the federal government – for the first time – funded technology for local police.

Communications technology began with whistles in the early 1850s. Early ones were carved of wood; the "pea" whistle was an improvement as was Joseph Hudson's "police whistle"; adapted by the London Metropolitan Police in 1883 and still used today. In 1889 the tubular whistle was adopted by the New York City Police.

Telegraphs followed in the 1850s. Both New York and Boston had telegraph systems that could summon reserves. In the Draft Riots of July, 1863 there were over five thousand messages sent and received. Even though the disturbances cost over 105 lives lost and there were many examples of inadequate police and military action (U.S. Army troops from the battle of Gettysburg responded to the scene); the telegraph proved its worth as a command-and-control tool. The Edwin Holmes Company used telegraph technology to develop the first central alarm station for private use in 1858. In 1874 the American District Telegraph improved the earlier telegraphs and by 1889 a multitude of New York City homes and businesses had private alarm service.

With the development of the telephone by Alexander Graham Bell the next step in police communications was taken. The Chicago Police designed a call box system modeled on what the Fire Alarm Telegraph Service was using. These call boxes gave direct wire communications to police stations. Though Chicago police saw the system as a means of checking up on them and opposed it; and city leaders had budget problems; the system was implemented. Creative budgeting worked to get the system installed. It became a success and call boxes were common throughout the entire city. Private call boxes were also utilized with four hundred being installed in 1881.

Some interesting historical lessons are brought up here but the authors do not explore them; perhaps that is the province of future research. The deterrent effect of the call boxes, the workload and role of the police involving the private call boxes compared to police-connected central alarm systems which were common in the post WWII era could and should be examined. The similarity between Chicago call boxes in the 1880s and those used on college campuses in the 1990s should certainly be researched.

Radio technology was pioneered by August Vollmer in 1921 with the Berkeley Police Department. The Detroit Police Department also experimented with radios in that year. By the 1930s the equipment was improved and police departments began to adopt radio communication systems. Interestingly, one of the early impediments was federal regulation which required all radio broadcasts to include entertainment.

Transportation innovations began with police wagons as foot patrolmen were seen to be predictable by the criminal element. Additionally, wagons enabled multiple officers to respond to the scenes of riots, manhunts and accidents. Some wagons evolved into police ambulance services. Mounted patrols – which are scarcely mentioned – and ambulances increased the ground that officers could cover. Is there a historical analogy here between the horses and wagons used in the latter 19th century and the radio patrol cars of the Professional Era of policing

(1920-1970)?

Bicycles were introduced in the 1890s in New York City with the Bicycle Squad making over thirteen hundred arrests in its first year of operation. Automobiles came into being in both the public and private sectors. Brink's 1891 payroll transport company operated via horses and buggies until a 1917 robbery in which the drivers were murdered. Trucks were then used with a 1926 bombing blowing out the unprotected undercarriage and resulting in the theft of \$104,000 in cash forcing Brinks to redesign them. Kansas City and Berkeley began using automobiles to replace foot patrolmen with positive results: August Vollmer's Berkeley force increased by five men in response to a 78 percent increase in the city population between 1908 and 1915. Response time actually decreased by 14 percent and the value of stolen property decreased by 28 percent – due to automobile patrols and better training.

The authors mention the 28 percent decrease in stolen property - what we might call "recovery" in contemporary parlance. They do not mention anywhere in the text that police detectives often worked for reward monies given by the owners of the property; functioning as some sort of private detectives or collection agents.

Isolation of the officer from the populace in an automobile is noted but not elaborated upon. A comparison with the Professional Era and the Community Era (1970-present) could be added.

Guns are covered next with the impediments to arming watch officers listed: fear of a standing army, the questionable role of police in regards to city politics, conflict among various ethnic groups and the nature of the men manning the watches. All of these factors are duly noted. Police began carrying revolvers unofficially in the 1850s as armed criminals and rowdy mobs became serious threats to officers. Nasty fights between armed criminals often resulted in deaths, yet police were unarmed except for clubs/batons/nightsticks. The Boston draft riot of 1863 served to change the city policy on arming police as the Massachusetts assembly granted them the right to carry firearms later in that year. In 1884 Boston provided .38 caliber Smith and Wesson revolvers to its officers; purchasing some eight hundred of them. The authors note that the image of Boston police was changed to a more professional one after the police were armed. The public began to see them as heroic. How this transformation relates to the current issue of the militarization of American police is yet another area for increased inquiry.

Revolvers became more and more accepted due to economics. Firearms expertise was an attribute of professionalism in many police departments and competitions were initiated. The National Rifle Association sponsored revolver matches and by the 1920s and 1930s firearms became common in American police departments. One could probably draw an analogy between the current militarization of American police and the role of capitalism and marketing. Contemporary police magazines are filled with ads for weaponry; this would logically be seen as a 'driver' for the buying of more firearms. The NRA's involvement with its subsequent publicity may have tended to fuel marketing efforts and subsequently increase the arming of police forces.

In 1922 J.T. Thompson's submachine gun was fitted with birdshot and promoted as an effective weapon against criminals as well as for crowd control. The authors note that Thompson should have emphasized crowd control more in his promotion of the weapon due to the race and labor disturbances of the past. They note that police used the Thompson to threaten striking workers and mention tear gas becoming popular in the late 1930s and rubber bullets being used in the 1960's for crowd dispersal. Wadman and Allison are unclear in this section of the book; an obvious editorial oversight. They end the section on weapons with the observation that the Thompson became a widely recognized tool of gangsters and bank robbers. The repeal of

Prohibition in 1933 created a decline in gangster activity and the Thompson dropped out of sight. There is no mention of the well-known 1928 model Thompson.

Criminalistics are discussed as a European innovation that developed into a science in the 1880s. Daguerreotype photography aided in the creation of the New York City rogues' gallery in 1857 and this expanded in both New York and in 1862 to Boston. Alphonse Bertillon's use of 'mug shots,' anthropometry, photographing crime scenes and handwriting analysis is noted. Bertillon is given credit for starting the first modern police crime laboratory. Anthropometric measurements of various body parts were used widely in both Europe and the United States until dactyloscopy or fingerprinting replaced it. In 1894 Scotland Yard added fingerprinting to the Bertillon method of anthropometric measurements. Crime labs developed first in France with Edmund Locard's opening one in 1910. Los Angeles followed in 1923 and in 1929 Northwestern University developed a lab as a result of the St. Valentine's Day Massacre investigation. The FBI opened its crime lab in 1931.

This section is rather sparse when considering the vast spectrum of criminalistic evolution. There needs to be mention made as to why the Bertillon system failed; how DNA developed, etc. This is a difficult task as one must use a broad brush; but the reader is not fully informed of the 'how's' and 'why's' of criminalistics development.

Police stations are discussed in terms of how Boston converted its old watch houses into police stations that could support office space for administrative and investigative functions; provide detention facilities, muster rooms, equipment storage and sleeping quarters for the men. Homeless vagrants were originally allowed to sleep in New York stations until 1896. More spacious and clean police stations apparently resulted in a 60 percent drop in sick leave among New York police in the 1890s.

Computers and "911" developed in 1968, partly as a result of the President's Commission report of 1967 criticizing police for failing to keep pace with technology. The 911 system performed beyond expectations; with more and more citizens calling the police for both emergency and non-emergency issues. Computers; first developed for code-breaking in World War II; made the 911 system possible. Federal financial support for purchasing computer technology made the 911 system a reality for many departments. Similarly, federal funding for technology created the necessary ingredients for a market in police technology much as defense spending had made the defense industry possible during the early years of the Cold War. These are good points, especially as technology is more widely used today and continues to expand. The nexus between governmental funding, private enterprise, donations from private organizations and adoption of military technology needs to be explored in greater depth. The authors initiate this exploration and are to be lauded for their efforts. Other researchers should carry it further.

Chapter 8 – Leaders in American Policing

Wadman and Allison correctly assert that while policing needs imaginative leaders; the bureaucratic rigidity of police organizational structures tends to stifle creativity. They present the reader with an outstanding array of persons who helped forge police into what they are today. Many of these are well known to students of policing; others are not. Most that are detailed are mentioned in other chapters; giving an overall consistency to the book.

Josiah Quincy as mayor of Boston was an early organizer of police. He incorporated police duty with municipal government in a manner similar to what we have today. He wrested

state control of police away and put several different public safety functions under one entity: the police department. Stephen Girard was a wealthy Philadelphian who donated to the city in his will for a police department which incorporated both day and night watches. He also proposed the division of the city into watch districts. Quincy died in 1833 and it would have been useful had the authors noted any connection between his ideas and those proposed by Robert Peel. Peel is discussed and his famous principles listed. Wadman and Allison set the record straight that Peel is not really the “father of modern policing” but he was an important influence nonetheless. His ideas for a large, centralized force organized along military lines were opposed by the working class who saw the new force as an attempt to control labor. Nonetheless, the amount of crime and disorder mandated that something be done. There may be an analogy here between Peel’s early 19th century London and today’s Patriot Act in terms of the need for substantial actions which may infringe upon individual civil liberties in order to protect the populace.

The authors discuss how the strict selection standards for police created recruitment problems and how the police became recognizable to the community. Peel’s view of the police as working with the community to prevent crime is a central tenet of American policing theory. Wadman and Allison maintain that using the absence of crime as an assessment of police efficiency is a valid, yet elusive measure of their worth.

Webber Seavey was a Civil War veteran who escaped from the dreaded Andersonville prison and became Chief of Police in Omaha. Seavey initiated a publicly funded death and disability program for the families of officers injured or killed in the line of duty; a first in the nation as these efforts were usually the work of private benevolent associations. He went on to play a major role in establishing the International Association of Chiefs of Police and served as its first president.

Theodore Roosevelt is not usually thought of when discussing policing; but his two year tenure as one of four police commissioners in New York City from 1895-97 saw the introduction of a military philosophy for a department that was “fighting the war on crime”. Roosevelt was the first to use this phrase. He also strongly supported civil service and promotions based on merit. He helped institute the first bicycle squad and as U.S. President helped establish the Bureau of Investigation in 1908.

August Vollmer’s orientation to crime prevention and the utilization of Criminology is discussed as was his involvement with new innovations such as scientific crime investigation, fingerprinting and handwriting analysis, motorcycle patrols, intelligence and psychiatric exams for police recruits. Vollmer’s role in developing an early version of the polygraph is mentioned as is his implementation of forensic science and sociology to solve crimes and his development of training in collaboration with universities to achieve this. Vollmer’s development of a criminal records system based on the modus operandi of criminals is essential to investigative efforts. Interestingly, the authors describe Vollmer’s military background. He served in the U.S. Army in the Philippines during the Spanish-American War. It was here that he was introduced to law enforcement.

There is also coverage of the protégé’s of August Vollmer such as O.W. Wilson and William Parker. Wilson was a student at the University of California who joined the Berkeley Police Department in 1921. He went on to become a police chief and an instructor. His noted *Police Administration* text of 1950 was a major contribution to the field of policing. Wilson was an advocate of a quasi-military approach to policing and he became very influential. William Parker was a Vollmer protégé’ through Wilson. Parker rose to become chief in Los Angeles and, like Wilson, advocated a military approach. He rooted out corruption and fired numerous

officers. Parker gained valuable administrative experience while in the U.S. Army during World War II.; no doubt adding to his military orientation. William Parker's LAPD became a model nationwide for professional police departments. He is perhaps best recognized by the public as Hollywood used his models for *Dragnet* and other television programs.

Patrick V. Murphy served as a bomber pilot in World War II and joined the police force along with his brother after the War. He went on to attain a master's degree in public administration and was promoted to deputy inspector in 1963. Murphy went on to reorganize the Syracuse, New York Police Department; and headed the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in 1967. In 1970 he became the first president of the Police Foundation; a research organization dedicated to the improvement of policing.

Hubert Williams served as director of the Newark, New Jersey Police Department from 1974-1985. He obtained a law degree and became a nationally known figure in policing during the civil unrest of the 1970s. Williams became president of the Police Foundation in 1985 and spearheaded numerous studies.

The authors do not discuss Alan Pinkerton or Thomas Byrnes. Certainly these men had an impact on policing and should be included in the work. Pinkerton's development of an ethics code and branch offices is certainly noteworthy as was his employment of the first female investigator. Byrnes could easily be incorporated into the section on Teddy Roosevelt as Roosevelt was instrumental in getting Byrnes fired.

Chapter 9 – Policing to the Twenty-First Century

In the post- World War II era, policing was filled with military veterans and dominated by Vollmer's ideals of professionalism. An elitist mindset developed within police departments who wanted full and total responsibility for crime control. Wadman and Allison assert that many states limited the authority of private security agencies in order to achieve this objective; but the accuracy of this is debatable. The authors do, however, make the valid point that elitism helped foster the racial tensions of the 1960s and early 1970s. Professional police became separated from the communities they were supposed to serve. The lack of lateral transfer ability led to a sort of inbreeding within departments. In the 1960s there was an emphasis on police productivity. Recruitment stemmed from working class families that had policing within their lineage as well as from military veterans. The transferring of officers to various assignments was seen as a method of preventing corruption. This in turn led to police being unfamiliar with their work environments.

Wadman and Allison chronicle the Watts riot of 1965, other racial disorders and the 1968 Democratic National Convention riot in Chicago. Many of these were poorly handled; in some cases police-instigated. The National Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice report of 1968 advocated external review of police agencies; something the IACP resisted. Unionization returned with strikes in Detroit, Kansas City and New York City in 1968. The 1966 Miranda decision served to require a rights warning prior to custodial interrogation. Police were seen as out of control and unaccountable; they were becoming increasingly regulated by both the federal government and the courts.

During the 1970s police effectiveness was studied in the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment and the Rochester, New York criminal investigation management experiment. A study in Newark, New Jersey found that citizens felt safer if they had a positive attitude toward police. Sociologists and others outside the inner circle of policing began to study police.

In the last two decades of the twentieth century community policing began to be implemented as a strategy. Officers would respond quickly when a crime occurred. They would initiate various preventive programs when crime problems were noticed. They would also identify factors that led to crime problems and work with various constituencies to correct them. Wilson and Kelling advanced the ‘broken windows’ theory that mandated police maintain social control through the enforcement of minor crime and disorder problems. Los Angeles created the Drug Abuse Resistance Education program under the guidance of Darryl Gates. William Bratton in New York City advanced the zero tolerance approach with rigorous enforcement of all violations. This focus on ‘quality of life issues’ was widely credited with reducing crime but it did result in increases in citizen complaints about police brutality. The events of 9/11 have eliminated many of the barriers between various police agencies. American police continue to adapt to new challenges imposed by conflict between individuals and groups within a free society.

It is unfortunate that the authors have largely ignored the role of private protective forces and contract security services. This is a major flaw in an otherwise outstanding work. It is this reviewer’s opinion that the history of policing is in reality a mixture of the history of public police, “private security” (however that can be defined) and military forces. These control forces assumed various functions at differing points in history.

Slavery and the organized labor movement were major factors in American history. The authors are to be commended for discussing the very important role that slave patrols and slave codes had on American police evolution. The riots that resulted from racial tensions and the fight for organized labor were also major drivers for an organized, professional police. Wadman and Allison have done an excellent job of describing how race riots changed the face of law enforcement in America. A more in-depth analysis of organized labor and private protective forces would have rounded out the work.

The authors are to be congratulated on their treatment of demographics; hopefully a second edition will delve into this in greater detail and provide more discussion of urbanization theories of crime. Marrying history and contemporary criminological theory would be a truly productive undertaking that would substantially advance the study of criminology.

The addition of charts, matrices and lists of information would add to the work. Although this book is a reader rather than a text; it may be advisable to take that approach. Doing so would create the opportunity of conveying much more information without significantly increasing the length of the book.

This reviewer has used *To Protect and Serve* as a reference for several papers and is sure to cite it in future works. He has also lent it to students conducting research.

Perhaps the saying “imitation is the highest form of flattery” has some relevance.

Highly Recommended

About the Author

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