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## Offender Reentry: A Mixed Model Study of Interorganizational Commitment to Partnership

Gail Humiston  
*University of Central Florida*

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OFFENDER REENTRY: A MIXED MODEL STUDY  
OF INTERORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT TO PARTNERSHIP

by

GAIL DIANE SEARS HUMISTON  
B.A. University of Illinois at Springfield, 2005  
M.S. Illinois State University, 2008

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Public Affairs  
in the College of Health and Public Affairs  
at the University of Central Florida  
Orlando, Florida

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Major Professor: Robert H. Langworthy

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study explores the associations between the independent variables of organizational motivations and culture with the dependent variable of organizational commitment to local jail reentry partnerships. A cross-sectional, mixed methods design was used based primarily on a quantitative survey mailed to organizational informants involved in jail reentry activities within three central Florida counties. Qualitative data was also collected by observing conveniently sampled reentry meetings and analyzing the content of social artifacts, such as meeting handouts, minutes, e-mails, and other related documents. This study extends the literature by using the theoretical framework of Oliver (1990) to develop measures of organizations' motivations (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy) to partner with jails in reentry. It also extends the literature of Fletcher, Lehman, Wexler, Melnick, Taxman, and Young (2009) by furthering the development of valid measures of interorganizational relationships. Fletcher and associates found two levels of relationships (i.e., structured and unstructured); whereas this study found that organizations are linked according to elements (i.e., linking clients, services, providers, data, program evaluation and grant funding, and management) within increasing levels of complexity. Bivariate and multivariate analyses indicated positive associations between the predictor and outcome variables, as hypothesized. However, the sample size was not large enough to determine the strength or significance between the variables. The directed content analysis of the qualitative data supported the presence of the theoretical constructs, but also indicated that they were not mutually exclusive or exhaustive. Two of the three counties ended formal reentry meetings, so a case study approach was used to analyze the three counties using

the theory of loose coupling (Orton & Weick, 1990; Weick, 1976). Although all three counties experienced the same external pressures to begin formal meetings, there were differences in partnership structures, leadership goals, and events which serve to explain why only one county was able to sustain those formal meetings. Results of this study have both research and practical implications. The development of valid measures for moderating variables in reentry will allow researchers to relate those variables to reentry program outcomes. By exploring the associations between organizational motivations and cultures with varying levels of commitment to interorganizational relationships, correctional officials will better understand who will partner, why, and to what degree. As a result, we may better understand the extent to which reforms targeting offender reentry can be successfully planned, implemented, and sustained. There are limitations to this study. Methodological errors associated with surveys, the primary data collection method herein, include the following: measurement, coverage, sampling, and nonresponse (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). Despite having a relatively large sample size for analysis at the organizational level, the correlation design and small sample size ( $N = 68$ ) limit the ability to draw causal inferences.

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## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

Policy changes in sentencing and corrections over the last 30 years have resulted in new realities for offender reentry. Today, criminal justice agencies and communities face greater challenges in offender reentry and public safety due to the growing number of prisoners and releasees, parole processes and conditions, and barriers to reintegration due to invisible punishments.

From 1920 to 1970, the rate of incarceration in the United States remained stable at approximately 110 federal and state prisoners per 100,000 residents (Travis, 2005). However, growing numbers of offenders have been imprisoned as a result of decades of systematic changes toward harsh sentencing policies (Austin, Jones, Kramer, & Renninger, 1996; Petersilia, 2003; Tonry, 2004; Travis, 2005). Prison rates peaked at 506 in 2007, and declined slightly in 2010 for the first time since 1972 (Guerino, Harrison, & Sabol, 2011). In 2010, the U.S. federal and state prison population totaled 1,612,395, and for the first time since the BJS began collecting data in 1977, prison releases (708,677) surpassed prison admissions (703,798). In fact, approximately 95 percent of state prisoners are eventually released back into the community (Hughes & Wilson, 2003).

Furthermore, changes in sentencing and parole have resulted in more offenders being released from prison with no post-prison supervision (Lynch & Sabol, 2001). Nearly 23 percent of prisoners were released with no supervision in 1998, as compared to 13 percent in 1990. Regardless of whether an individual is supervised, offenders released back into the community are faced with “invisible punishments” or “collateral consequences” which serve as legal and practical barriers to reintegration (Mauer & Chesney-Lind, 2002; Petersilia, 2003; Travis, 2002).

States may restrict ex-offenders' civil rights to vote, hold public office, or serve on a jury. Social barriers are legislated by denying certain ex-offenders access to particular jobs, housing assistance, or welfare benefits.

As a consequence of these policy changes in sentencing and corrections, offender reentry has become a problem due to its impact on public safety and offender recidivism. Three national studies on the recidivism of released prisoners found that approximately two-thirds of released prisoners were rearrested within three years after release (Beck & Shipley, 1989; Durose, Cooper, & Snyder, 2014; Langan & Levin, 2002). In comparing the three studies, the rates of reconviction for a new offense were very similar (46.8 percent, 46.9 percent, and 45.2 percent, respectively). However, the size of the reentry cohort had notably increased from 144,000 in 1980 to nearly 1.4 million in 2002 (Travis & Visher, 2005a). As a result, released prisoners have been increasingly responsible for larger percentages of crime. From 1994 to 1997, released prisoners accounted for 13 to 16 percent of the states' arrests (Rosenfeld, Wallman, & Fornango, 2005). By 2001, released prisoners were responsible for an estimated 20 percent of the crimes.

In the wake of 30 years of harsher sentencing resulting in record-high incarceration rates and problems associated with release and reintegration, researchers, policymakers, and correctional leaders have called for a focus on "reentry". As a concept, reentry has been widely accepted and broadly defined. According to Travis and Visher (2005b), offender reentry is the process of leaving prison and returning to society, and is an "inevitable consequence of incarceration." (p. 3). Within this broad definition, the process of reentry may *or may not* include: a plan for release, supervision at release, activities inside a correctional facility, or activities outside a correctional facility. In comparison, Petersilia (2003) limits the definition of

reentry to any plan related to an inmate's transition to free living. "It includes all activities and programming conducted to prepare ex-convicts to return safely to the community and to live as law-abiding citizens" (p. 3).

The current focus on the new realities of reentry has resulted in increased programming and research within correctional facilities and the community. At the national level, several reentry initiatives have been launched to support the reintegration of offenders. Early efforts that explored community-based models included the Reentry Partnership Initiative (RPI) and Reentry Courts (Government Accounting Office, 2001; Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003). More recently, the federal government has funded other major initiatives, such as the Prisoner Reentry Initiative (PRI), Second Chance Act, and Transition from Jail to Community (TJC) (National Reentry Resource Center, n.d.). Major funding was provided in the Serious and Violent Offender Reentry Initiative (SVORI), as nearly \$117 million was given to 69 grantees from 2002 to 2004 (Office of the Inspector General, 2010). At the community level, dozens of individual community-based prisoner reentry programs have been developed, which include the Boston Reentry Initiative, Harlem Parole Reentry Court, Maryland Reentry Partnership Initiative, Project Greenlight, and New Horizons Ministries (Solomon, Waul, Van Ness, & Travis, 2004).

One common theme has emerged from reentry — the development of partnerships between organizations. Reentry programs are premised upon linkages between correctional and community entities for the development of systemwide changes in service delivery. In the past, changes in the field of corrections, such as community corrections and intensive supervision programs, focused solely on correctional agencies. The current reentry movement is presumably different in the strategic implementation of partnerships between criminal justice agencies and

community-based organizations (Backer, 2005; Bassford, 2008; Byrne, Taxman, & Young, 2002; Jannetta, & Lachman, 2011; Jucovy, 2006; Rossman, 2003; Visher, 2007; Wilkinson, Bucholtz, & Siegfried, 2004; U.S. Department of Education, 2009; Yoon & Nickel, 2008).

There is an assumption that effective reentry requires the strengthening of offenders' social bonds to positive informal social controls (Laub & Sampson, 2003) through a reengineering of the transition process (Travis, 2005) and seamless systems of care (Taxman, 1998; Taxman & Bouffard, 2000). By creating partnerships between organizations, services to offenders may begin in the correctional facility and be continued into the community after release. In turn, the continuation of services would theoretically improve offender reintegration and reduce recidivism. Essentially, reentry partnerships become a moderating variable between the correctional institution and the successful readjustment of the individual to the community.

Whether true partnerships have been implemented between correctional agencies and community-based organizations remains unknown. Although several reentry program evaluations have been published, this first round of studies focuses on offender outcomes. Measures of moderating variables are few. In particular, the moderating variable upon which reentry programming relies – the development of partnerships between correctional agencies and community organizations for the purpose of integrating services and systems – is virtually non-existent in outcome evaluations. The literature on outcome evaluations will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2 of this study.

In fact, the concept of partnerships or interorganizational relationships has yet to be clearly defined and operationalized in the criminal justice field. Much like the concept of reentry discussed above, “partnership” has also been broadly defined. According to Rosenbaum (2002),

“there is no single definition of a partnership, but essentially, we are talking about a cooperative relationship between two or more organizations to achieve some common goal” (p. 172).

Alternatively, Roman, Moore, Jenkins, and Small (2002) limit criminal justice partnerships to interorganizational relationships consisting of at least one criminal justice agency and one community organization that share a goal related to community justice. Moreover, they assert that member organizations must make a commitment to invest resources to “bring about mutually beneficial community outcomes with regard to public safety and community health” (p. iii).

Thus far, criminal justice researchers have lumped interorganizational relationships into the same category, assuming that organizations want to become fully integrated at the system level. This is evidenced by the fact that the term partnership is often used interchangeably with terms such as initiative, alliance, collaboration, and coalition (Roman et al., 2002). However, the implementation of a fully integrated system would require the highest level of commitment in sharing decision-making, resources, and information between partnering agencies (Himmelman, 1996). In reality, organizations may vary widely in their levels of relationship commitments, a matter which will be described in Chapter 3 of this study.

In addition to the deficiencies in conceptualizing and measuring interorganizational relationships, the current literature also lacks external validity. Research which has investigated the moderating variable of reentry partnerships relies upon national initiatives. As discussed in Chapter 2, this type of research has been implemented in communities with favorable circumstances that typically received external funding and technical assistance. Findings on the relationships between participating organizations may not be generalizable to organizations and

communities that do not possess the same favorable characteristics or have not received external assistance.

### **Statement of Purpose**

The purpose of this study is to address a research gap in the reentry literature by exploring the interorganizational relationships between jails and community-based organizations within a natural setting. Interorganizational relationships have been conceptualized as the moderator between correctional facilities and the community agencies through which reentry is implemented (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003; Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002). The majority of the research has taken a system-level approach which assumes that organizations want to become fully integrated at the system level (e.g., Lattimore & Visser, 2009; Willison et al., 2012). However, emerging research has provided empirical evidence that there are varying levels of interorganizational relationships (Fletcher et al., 2009), and organizational characteristics may influence those relationships (Bond & Gittel, 2010; Lehman, Fletcher, Wexler, & Melnick, 2009). More research is needed, as the generalizability of initial research efforts are limited to communities and organizations that were chosen to participate in federally funded initiatives.

This study explores the interorganizational relationships between jails and organizations that have participated in local jail reentry initiatives. Organizational motivations and cultures are examined to determine whether they are associated with relationships between organizations. The dependent variable of interorganizational relationship commitment (i.e., network, coordination, cooperation, collaboration) is informed by the typology set forth by Himmelman (1996) and the empirical findings of Fletcher and associates (2009). The independent variables

of organizational motivations (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy) and culture (i.e., rehabilitation during incarceration and equal access to services after release) are informed by the framework of Oliver (1990) and empirical measures used by the CJ-DATS (e.g., Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, Taxman, & Leukefeld, 2009), respectively.

The sample consists of organizations that have participated in local jail reentry efforts within three Central Florida counties with diverse administrations in a natural setting. Data has been collected primarily through a mailed questionnaire, which is supplemented by reentry meeting observations and documentary content analysis. Bivariate analysis is used to examine the associations between organizational motivations and cultures with the levels of interorganizational relationship commitment. Paired variables were found to be significant, so multivariate analysis was pursued. Furthermore, the respective correlations will be supplemented with qualitative data and analyses.

An examination of interorganizational relationships within reentry, and its associations with organizational motivations and cultures, has implications for both research and practice. Research will be advanced by measuring the intermediary relationships between jails and community-based organizations, which strengthens both causal inferences and construct validity (Chen, 1990). Researchers, policymakers, and practitioners may begin to understand which organizations are willing to participate in reentry and why. Building a knowledge base on the formation of partnerships within the context of reentry will inform the practices of developing and sustaining interorganizational relationships that may be necessary for the reduction of recidivism and improved public safety.

## **Organization of the Present Study**

The exploration of the interorganizational relationships between jails and community-based organizations has required several steps, which include reviewing the literature, as well as gathering, analyzing, and interpreting data. The remaining chapters will include a literature review, theoretical framework, methods section, results, and conclusion. Chapter Two presents a review of the empirical reentry literature. Reviews of previous studies on reentry are presented with a focus on this study's dependent variable of interorganizational relationships. Chapter Three presents the theoretical and empirical framework used in the study. Organizational theory is used to establish the framework. Each construct is defined, and, whenever possible, criminal justice studies which are relevant to reentry have been used to link theoretical constructs to empirical measures. Chapter Four deals with the methods used in the study, including sampling, measures, data collection, and analysis. Generally, quantitative methods are employed through surveys, supplemented by qualitative observations of reentry meetings and content analysis of documents. Chapter Five presents the results of the analyses using bivariate and multivariate statistics. Finally, Chapter Six presents the conclusion.



## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

This study examines reentry partnerships, a moderating variable about which we know very little. Theories of organizational behavior and public administration which serve to explain such partnerships are well established (Scott & Davis, 2007). Their utilization would allow for the operationalization of theoretical constructs to strengthen causal relationships, predict patterns, and inform future practice and research. This study takes a deductive approach by using existing theories to explore interorganizational relationships in jail reentry. The purpose is to advance our understanding of who partners, why, and to what extent. The deductive research process requires that the study be grounded in the current literature to make it relevant. In this case, however, prior studies do not take advantage of long-standing organizational theories. Rather, as this literature review will illustrate, the study of partnerships has been limited to issues of fidelity in process and outcome evaluations of programs. Measures are often qualitative or non-existent and assumed. Therefore, the reader will find that the current literature is not necessarily informative to the conceptualization of this study. Rather, Chapter 3 will lay the theoretical groundwork.

As previously noted, a common underpinning throughout reentry policy is the utilization of partnerships. These interorganizational relationships are continuously construed as the mechanism through which reentry is successfully implemented. Criminal justice agencies are tasked with the goal of developing relationships with community service providers to facilitate the transition of offenders from correctional facilities into the community. As a result, research has been driven by two assumptions. The first assumption is that interorganizational

relationships between criminal justice agencies and community service providers are critical to the success of offender reentry. The second supposition is that the relationships between organizations must be collaborative and organizations must develop a fully integrated system.

In terms of the first assumption, reentry evaluations have not tested whether partnerships between organizations explain variations in reentry success. Instead, the literature has been dominated by quasi-experimental evaluations focused on measuring offender variables and their relationship to re-entry outcomes. Relying on the conclusions of outcome evaluations is problematic, however, as they tend to ignore factors that may explain why a program worked and determine which factors are crucial to implementation (Chen, 1990).

The factors that affect implementation are numerous, as interventions are performed within the context of program staff, organizations, and communities (Chen, 1990). The program participant is only one dimension within the concept of implementation. Other dimensions include the implementing organization and interorganizational relationships. More specifically, if implementing organizations depend on the cooperation of other agencies for success, “the treatment outcome will be directly conditioned by the degree of cooperation the agency obtains” (p. 124). Outcome evaluations in reentry have typically failed to measure the linking of offenders from correctional agencies to community service providers to examine *why* reentry works or fails to work. These “black box” program evaluations (Chen, 1990) are performed with the goal of determining whether a specific reentry program works, rather than explaining why it works or fails to work. Testing the first assumption as to whether partnerships affect offender reentry requires valid measures of interorganizational relationships.

The second assumption in the reentry literature is that the relationships between organizations must be collaborative and organizations must develop a fully integrated system in order to demonstrate positive outcomes. Organizations may become integrated by sharing service locations, information systems, resources, and other organizational elements (Fletcher et al., 2009). Services, such as case management and outcome monitoring, may also be integrated between organizations. The goal of full integration would be the development of a seamless continuum of services between organizations (Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002; Taxman et al., 2003). The boundaries between organizations would be virtually imperceptible to offenders. However, researchers have yet to conceptualize and identify key partnership constructs (Roman et al., 2002). As the conceptualizations used in evaluations of partnerships are developed, they should be guided by theory at multiple levels of analysis (Rosenbaum, 2002).

In particular, organizations can be fundamental to our understanding of why partnerships fail or succeed (Roman et al., 2002). It is the characteristics of members within the organizations that lay the groundwork for affecting the partnership's characteristics, goals, and activities, as well as the outcomes at all levels of analysis. Historically, most research of criminal behavior has utilized individual and ecological levels of analysis, while ignoring the organizational level (Akers, Potter, & Hill, 2013). Research on reentry has been no different. Testing the second assumption as to whether the relationships between organizations provide the level of partnerships envisioned cannot be evaluated until the concepts that affect partnership formation are validly measured at the organizational level.

In sum, reentry researchers must develop valid measures of interorganizational relationships. First, the development of such measures would advance our understanding of whether partnerships between criminal justice agencies and community-based organizations are necessary to improve offender reentry outcomes. Second, we would be able to determine the sufficient level of integration required for agencies to fulfill their missions. It is through the development of valid measures of interorganizational relationships that both construct validity and causal inferences will be strengthened (Chen, 1990).

Research on the intermediary relationships between the criminal justice and community organizations upon which reentry relies has been largely ignored. Measures which purportedly capture the variations of interorganizational relationships and integration activities have only recently emerged (Fletcher et al., 2009). The purpose of this study is to apply these recently developed measures to three local jail offender reentry partnerships. Research will be advanced by exploring whether these measures are capable of capturing varying levels of interorganizational relationships. Moreover, the levels of organizational commitment to integrative activities may be explored to further the practical application of reentry planning. In addition to exploring the strength of relationships, organizational factors that affect the relationships will also be explored.

As this review of the literature will illustrate, the research on reentry partnerships has been limited in a number of respects. First, it is not the norm. As already noted, much of the research consists of outcome evaluations which rely primarily upon measures of offenders while marginalizing factors related to implementation, such as organizational factors and interorganizational relationships. Second, when reentry partnerships have been explored, the

assumption is that organizations want to form a fully integrated, seamless system. However, history tells us that criminal justice agencies are both independent and interdependent. Full system integration may not be every agency's goal.

Third, the majority of research has been performed without the benefit of theory. At the system level, models are typically based on the theories of social control or system change. At the organizational level, resource dependency theory is the only theory that has been used to explain organizational behavior and motivations. Likewise, the frameworks that measure the levels of interorganizational relationships have been limited to relational coordination and interagency activity. These two perspectives represent early efforts for measuring organizations' levels of commitment to partnering and require further exploration. Fourth, the sampling of partnership participants has also been quite restricted. If several types of organizations are included, their composition is not clearly defined. Conversely, those studies that do clearly define their sample have only a few types of organization. For example, only correctional facilities and substance abuse treatment providers may be sampled. Finally, current research has focused on federal initiatives. Whether these findings are generalizable to organizations or partnerships that do not receive major funding is uncertain.

This chapter reviews the scholarly literature of research on reentry partnership programs. First, several reentry evaluations which examine the effects of programs on offender outcomes will be summarized. Most of these studies use quasi-experimental designs which compare offender groups. The limitations in research design and statistical controls for confounding variables will also be discussed. This review will demonstrate that the conclusions of these outcome evaluations are questionable due to problems with internal validity and measures

typically limited to offender variables. Measures that assess the linkages between criminal justice agencies and community organizations are lacking. As a result, the assumption that organizational partnerships are critical to program outcomes is uncertain as well.

Then, the emerging research of implementation evaluations and analyses of interagency relationships and integration activities is reviewed. These very recent studies represent early research of the moderating variables that affect the implementation of reentry programs. Researchers have begun observing and measuring concepts that may someday explain why organizations can at times work together, as well as explaining the levels of integration necessary to affect change (e.g., increase the likelihood that offenders will be able to successfully transition back into the community). However, the work on operationalizing the extent of interorganizational relationships is in its infancy. Ultimately, the development of valid measures of interorganizational relationships and interagency activities will further our understanding of why reentry programs may (or may not) accomplish their mission. Finally, a summary of the research limitations is provided with a conclusion as to how this study will contribute to the literature.

### **Offender Outcome Evaluations: The Black Box Approach**

Empirical assessments of reentry initiatives have begun to emerge. Of those studies that have recently been done, many of them take the “black box” approach (Chen, 1990) of examining reentry programs as independent variables, with offender outcomes as dependent variables. The majority of the empirical literature on reentry consists of outcome evaluations which focus on whether each program works. Quasi-experimental designs are typically used, which presume control of confounding variables through matching or statistical controls.

Measures of moderating variables which may explain why a program works, or does not work, are noticeably absent. This section will briefly summarize the findings, designs, and measures of reentry program outcome evaluations.

### ***Offender Outcome Evaluation Findings***

To date, the majority of reentry research has consisted of outcome evaluations with mixed results. Several reentry program evaluations have found positive results for offender outcomes (e.g., Braga, Piehl, & Hureau, 2009; Miller & Miller, 2010; Ostermann, 2009; Zhang, Roberts, & Callahan, 2006). On the other hand, others have had mixed or negative results (e.g., Jacobs & Western, 2007; Lattimore & Visser, 2009; White, Saunders, Fisher & Mellow, 2008; Wilson & Davis, 2006). The results of these studies, however, must be interpreted with caution due to the limitations inherent in their designs and measures.

### ***Offender Outcome Evaluation Designs: A Question of Whether a Reentry Program Works: Threats to Internal Validity***

Most reentry evaluations rely upon quasi-experimental designs. As such, treatment and comparison group outcomes are assessed, and the researcher seeks to control confounding variables through matching or statistics. Several evaluations which have reported positive or mixed program findings have matched offender participants and non-participants according to variables related to re-offending, such as age, race, current charge, and criminal history. For example, Miller and Miller (2010) matched groups in their assessment of the Auglaize County Transitions (ACT) jail reentry program. Propensity scores were used for matching purposes in the evaluations of the Boston Reentry Initiative (BRI) and New York's ComALERT (Braga et al., 2009; Jacobs & Western, 2007). Likewise, White and associates (2008) used a group-based

trajectory model and propensity scores to match groups in their evaluation of New York's Rikers Island Discharge Enhancement (RIDE) program.

Other program evaluations that resulted in positive or mixed findings did not use matching, but instead relied solely upon statistical controls. For example, Ostermann (2009) used statistics to control for differences between two New Jersey State Parole Board treatment groups, as well as prisoners who maxed out on their sentences and those who were paroled with no programs. Likewise, statistical control was used to control for differences between volunteer and non-volunteer groups in the assessment of California's Preventing Parolee Crime Program (PPCP) (Zhang et al., 2006).

Interestingly, one reentry outcome evaluation with stronger internal validity found that the program demonstration group had the worst outcomes (Wilson & Davis, 2006). The program, Project Greenlight, was developed by the Vera Institute and implemented in New York. In order to be eligible, offenders had to be convicted in one of New York's five boroughs where community service providers were located. Also, inmates were not eligible if they possessed certain attributes, such as being convicted for a sex offense, vicious or callous violence, or a high risk score.

Three groups were compared in the Project Greenlight evaluation: the "Upstate" control group that received no services; the Transitional Services Program (TSP) control group that received some reentry services; and the Greenlight (GL) group that received the demonstration program (Wilson & Davis, 2006). The Upstate control group consisted of potential study participants who were eligible for the program, but did not have sufficient time to complete the program prior to release. The members of this group were not transferred to the implementation



site. Other eligible participants were transferred to the pilot study's site, Queensboro Correctional Facility. For the first five months of implementation, participants were assigned according to a haphazard assignment procedure which allowed the institution to initially fill the beds for the treatment group (i.e., GL). Subsequently, randomized assignment was used for the last six months; however, 15 percent of the assignments deviated from the assignment protocol based upon the availability of bed space. Institutional personnel ignored random assignment due to a lack of bed space or, conversely, to fill empty beds in the GL treatment group. Altogether, more than half the GL and TSP participants were assigned under the haphazard assignment process (186 GL; 139 TSP), as compared to random assignment (158 GL; 139 TSP). Yet, the analysis relied on all of the cases, rather than restricting it to only the participants who were randomly assigned. The researchers found that, despite receiving the most service referrals and contacts, the GL group had a significantly higher arrest rate after one year (31 percent), as compared to the Upstate and TSP groups (24 percent and 22 percent, respectively). Moreover, they averaged the shortest number of weeks until arrest (70.6), as compared to the two control groups (78.5 and 79.2).

Relying upon current outcome evaluations to draw valid conclusions about reentry is questionable. As stated, the findings are mixed. Moreover, the reliance upon quasi-experiment designs also presents limitations of internal validity. Using matching and statistical controls may reduce threats to internal validity, but empirical evidence suggests that quasi-experimental designs may not be able to control for systematic biases (Weisburd, Lum, & Petrosino, 2001). Without random assignment, program effects may be attributable to existing pre-treatment group differences rather than the program. Moreover, even in strong quasi-experimental designs,

program effect may be overestimated. That is, “the weaker a design, as indicated by internal validity, the more likely a study is to report a result in favor of treatment and the less likely it is to report a harmful effect of treatment” (p. 50). Variables such as motivation to complete treatment and assigning offenders who are least likely to re-offend regardless of the intervention (i.e., creaming) are likely sources of treatment bias (Feder & Wilson, 2005). Unknown and unmeasured causes such as these represent significant potential threats to validity, which may lead to misinterpretation and confusion (Weisburd et al., 2001). Given that even the best intended intervention may yield harmful outcomes (McCord, 2003), a valid appraisal of the full effects of an offender reentry program would seem critical in light of the large numbers of individuals leaving prison every year and entering our communities.

***Offender Outcome Evaluation Measures:***

***A Question of Why a Reentry Program Works (or Does Not Work): A Lack of Moderators***

In addition to the design limitations, the early research on reentry is inconclusive due to a lack of moderating measures. As previously noted, the evaluations define the program as the independent variable and focus on measuring offender outcomes as dependent variables.

Measures of the independent variable have included the presence or absence of unmeasured service provisions (e.g., Brag et al., 2009; Jacobs & Western, 2007; Miller & Miller, 2010; Ostermann, 2009); dosage of treatment in terms of program completion (e.g., White et al., 2008); service goal attainment (e.g., Zhang et al., 2006); or number of service referrals and service contacts (e.g., Wilson & Davis, 2006). The outcome variables for these studies have included rearrest, reconviction, reincarceration, number of reincarcerations, length of time before rearrest or reincarceration, number days of re-confinement, substance abuse, employment, and family relations. Although the studies qualitatively describe the use of partnerships between

correctional agencies and community organizations, measures of such moderating variables are typically excluded. In other words, there is little, if any, operationalization of the variables that may be producing the program effects. Measures that might explain why a program worked, or failed to work, are necessary to understand the relationship between the independent variable (reentry program) and the dependent variables (offender reintegration) (Chen, 1990).

Most reentry evaluations rely upon individual level variables. It is necessary to include measures of organizational factors and interorganizational relationships because risk factors go beyond the individual level, and include groups, organizations, community, and societal characteristics (Akers et al., 2013; Rosenbaum, 2002). Accordingly, multiple causal mechanisms suggest the need for complex, multi-level interventions, as well as rigorous research at multiple levels of analysis. Limiting measures to offender variables is cause for concern, as interorganizational relationships may be significantly associated with the outcomes noted. Therefore, the question of why a reentry program works or not has not been addressed by outcome evaluations that lack measurements and analyses of moderating variables, such as interorganizational relationships and integrated activities.

Taken together, the reliance upon quasi-experimental designs that are unable to control systematic bias and the exclusive analyses of individual level variables do not allow for reliable conclusions about the relationship between reentry partnerships and offender outcomes. It is unclear in these types of studies as to whether criminal justice organizations were able to implement partnerships with community service providers to affect change. Outcome evaluations are distinctive in that most lack random assignment, clear conceptualization and operationalization of factors related to partnerships, and data collection and analysis beyond the

individual level. Yet, they implicitly attribute offender outcomes to services provided through reentry partnerships between correctional agencies and community-based service providers.

### **Implementation and Outcome Evaluations: Conceptualizing and Measuring Interorganizational Relationships**

The examples of empirical evaluations above were focused on measuring offender variables and outcomes. As previously noted, however, the participant is only one dimension within the concept of implementation (Chen, 1990). The outcome evaluations reviewed above typically lacked measures and analyses to assess the extent to which their underlying assumption – that greater partnerships in reentry programs lead to superior outcomes amongst offenders – is justified. Moreover, they rely upon quasi-experimental designs that introduce selection bias issues, such as creaming and self-motivation (Feder & Wilson, 2005). Consequently, the research fails to answer the question of whether interorganizational relationships between correctional institutions and community service providers affect offender outcomes. Any conclusions regarding the effect of interorganizational relationships on offender outcomes among the studies reviewed would be speculative.

In contrast, the following review marks the development of research that incorporates the dimensions of organizations and interorganizational relationships, both of which can be crucial to implementation (Chen, 1990). These initial efforts mark a movement toward conceptualizing and measuring the relationships between criminal justice agencies and community-based organizations, as well as the organizational factors that may affect the development of those relationships. Accordingly, the following studies are more diverse in their inclusion of conceptual system models, theories of interorganizational relationships, conceptualizations and measures of partnerships, measures of organizational variables, and multivariate analyses. The

goal of the research was more focused on the assessment of whether the interventions were implemented as intended, leading to true partnerships amongst the agencies involved. Therefore, the models conceptually depict the partnership as a moderating variable between the correctional institution and the successful release of offenders into the community. To date, the existing research stems mostly from national research projects and reentry initiatives.

Thus far, the knowledge accumulated on reentry partnerships is primarily based on evaluations of national initiatives, which include the Reentry Partnership Initiatives (RPI), Transition from Jail to Community (TJC), and Serious and Violent Offender Reentry Initiative (SVORI). All of these projects were designed for the purpose of aiding grantee sites with the implementation of partnerships and system changes. A few caveats are necessary before discussing these studies. Whether these study findings are applicable to jurisdictions that do not receive substantial external funding and assistance is questionable due to selection bias. Typically, federal grantees are selected for participation based on criteria that may make them more likely to succeed in implementation. Therefore, selection bias toward positive outcomes exists. External validity is also threatened by the substantial provisions of external funding and planning assistance, as organizations are motivated to seek external resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003). By selecting grantees that are more likely to succeed and then providing external motivations in the form of resources, the generalizability of national initiative findings to non-participating jurisdictions is suspect. This has serious implications for applying a system change model in jurisdictions that do not have the same attributes or receive external assistance. The external assistance also has implications for the sustainability of any changes made in the

research jurisdictions, as any progress toward integration may have been built on a soft foundation which dissolves when outside assistance is removed.

In addition to the RPI, TJC, and SVORI studies, the National Criminal Justice Drug Abuse Treatment Studies (CJ-DATS) is also quite relevant. CJ-DATS closely examined integration efforts between correctional institutions and substance abuse organizations. It is different from the RPI, TJC, and SVORI in that, although it was a national research project, external funding was not specifically provided for the planning and development of reentry partnerships. Other unique aspects of the study will also be reviewed.

This section will review the reentry research which conceptualizes interorganizational relationships, as well as organizational factors that may affect those relationships. The RPI, TJC, SVORI, and CJ-DATS programs, designs, measures, findings, and limitations will each be examined sequentially. However, the review will focus on variables that purportedly reflect the relationships between organizations and their shared activities (e.g., collaboration, system change, and system integration). Research that specifically examined organizational variables that theoretically affect interorganizational relationships will also be included. By developing valid measures of interorganizational relationships and interagency activities, as well as factors that affect them, our understanding of the role that reentry partnerships play will be advanced.

### ***Reentry Partnership Initiative (RPI)***

The initial research on reentry partnerships was published in 2002 and 2003. Faye Taxman's team from the Bureau of Governmental Research (BGR) at the University of Maryland published a series of papers on the Department of Justice's eight Reentry Partnership Initiatives (RPI) demonstration sites (Byrne, Taxman, & Young, 2002; Taxman, Young, &

Byrne, 2002a; Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2002b; Taxman, Young & Byrne, 2003; Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002; Young, Taxman, & Byrne, 2002). RPI was developed in 1999 as a system-wide reentry project focused on how the eight sites pursued the atheoretical formation of partnerships between criminal justice, social service, and community groups.

BGR's evaluation of the implementations included interviews, focus groups, network analysis surveys of stakeholders, and reviews of agency documents. The methodology was primarily qualitative, with limited quantitative descriptions. The findings were not always generalizable to all eight study sites, as many sites "devoted their efforts to one component given the complex multi-faceted aspects of the offender processing issues" (Young, Taxman & Byrne, 2002, p. 2). Taxman and colleagues assessed the fidelity of implementing an interagency, system-wide approach toward prisoner reentry, which will be reviewed. But first, their prescribed system model will be presented briefly to illustrate the contrasts between the optimal system model and the resulting empirical realities of partnering.

***A Conceptual Model of the Reentry Process Using a Social Control Framework:  
The Reentry Partnership Continuum***

The prescribed system model of the offender reentry process developed by the Taxman group was entitled the "Reentry Partnership Continuum" (Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002; Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003). The model was created *ex post facto*, and was designed to reflect a movement away from prison safety and control and toward public safety. Using social control as its theoretical framework, it posited that offender reintegration is conceptually affected by the formal social control processes of criminal justice agencies (i.e., police, courts, institutional and community corrections) and informal social control mechanisms

(e.g., family, faith-based organizations, and community-based service providers of health care, treatment, housing, employment, and education). The Reentry Partnership Continuum model depicts all of these stakeholders as being involved in the planning and implementation of offenders' reintegration both inside the institution and the community.

According to the model, planning for release within the institution begins with assessments of risk and needs (Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002; Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003). Just before release, the plan must include meeting immediate needs, such as food and shelter, as well as providing a continuum of treatment, education, and other services. In order for services to be provided on a continuum as modeled, organizational boundaries must be transcended. After release, partners in the community, such as family members and employers, assume the role of providing social and financial support. Formal correctional agents would continue to supervise those under conditional release, while community police officers, volunteer guardians, or others would be responsible for supervising those released unconditionally. The model assumes that resources "will be made available for offenders who need skills training (e.g., jobs, education), family or individual counseling, substance abuse treatment, housing and/or health care" after release (Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002, p. 11). The ideals of this conceptual model, nonetheless, starkly contrast with the findings of the implementation evaluation.

### ***Fidelity of System Implementation***

Although the RPI program participants shared a commitment to reducing harm in the communities, there were difficulties in creating "true" partnerships at the system level (Byrne, Taxman, & Young, 2002). In a final process evaluation of RPI, the researchers used a mixed



methods design to assess fidelity to implementation and found mixed results (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003). They measured implementation according to five reintegration domains: institutional, prerelease, postrelease, ongoing reintegration, and administrative and collaboration. A total of 40 program factors measured fidelity using a scoring range of 0-3, with 0 indicating that the site had not included the factor in its plan, and 3 indicating that the researchers found evidence that the underlying structure was implemented. The 40 factors within the five domains were based on the literature; however, the researchers failed to provide statistical evidence of construct validity through tests of correlation, reliability, or factor analysis.

Using descriptive analysis, the researchers found that the planning and implementation of the partnerships varied considerably overall (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003). The RPI sites scored highest in program factors related to the two domains, or time periods, immediately before and after release: “prerelease” (e.g., verifying postrelease housing and services, initial community case management, police contacts) and “postrelease” (e.g., behavioral contract, specialized case management staff, services on demand). However, these higher scores should be interpreted with caution, as several programs had to pay community members (e.g., Catholic Charities) to serve as case managers (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003; Young, Taxman, & Byrne, 2002). Therefore, the case manager indicators within the prerelease and postrelease domains were often fulfilled through the utilization of contracted positions. According to the RPI model, these case manager positions were conceptualized as informal social control mechanisms within the community. They were to function as informal monitors of offenders’ compliance with rules, as well as sponsors or facilitators in accessing services. Whether those

positions could be maintained and whether they function as an informal social control mechanism, as expected, is unclear.

Conversely, the lowest score for planning and implementation in the RPI process evaluation was achieved in the domain of “ongoing reintegration” after release (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003). Indicators of ongoing reintegration included, but were not limited to, monitoring compliance, routinely updating reentry plans, and ensuring access to services. Few sites had addressed the issue of providing core services that extended beyond 60 days after release. “This phase resembled ‘business as usual’ in most sites, with little or no modifications to traditional community supervision and service plans” (p. 115).

The two remaining domains considered in the RPI fidelity process evaluation reflected the “general capacities of the sites and their degree of commitment to the reentry initiative” (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003, p. 115). In the area of laying the “institutional groundwork” for reentry (e.g., risk and needs assessment, identifying and reaching target population, institutional programming, releasees moved near home), many of the sites had included these program factors in their plans; however, the sites had done little to actually implement the changes. The last domain of “administration and collaboration” is directly related to factors measuring interagency partnering (e.g., dedicated project director, funding and staff; performance measures; MOUs with agencies and providers; information sharing between prison, community, and police; interagency training). Again, the RPI sites had generally included plans for partnering, but fidelity to implementation was lacking.

The final RPI evaluation highlights the need for more research on the quality of partnerships, as the empirical realities of implementing reentry partnerships fell short of the

optimal system model. In particular, the continuum of services for ongoing reintegration was virtually non-existent, as planning and implementation for core services 60 days after release typically reflected standard practices prior to the implementation of RPI (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003). Within the correctional institutions, many sites had planned for laying the groundwork for reentry, such as performing risk and needs assessments, but those plans were not implemented. The same conclusion was drawn when measuring commitments to interagency partnering. This domain was most relevant to assessing interorganizational relationships, and included the sharing of information, funds, staff, and other resources, as well as formalizing agreements between agencies. Again, the RPI sites planned to develop their partnerships and become more integrated, but those plans were not implemented.

The major challenges in this area included providing for a dedicated project director and dedicated funding and staff, identifying performance measures, formalizing agreements to share information across agency lines, and interagency training.... RPI sites tended to depend on the existing structures and more informal group processes to build these aspects of the RPI reentry model. (p. 115)

### ***Limitations***

Taken together, the RPI literature reviewed above was limited in several ways. The use of social control theory was fitting for system-level analysis, but there is an assumption that organizations want to be highly integrated and interdependent. Thus, the desire to remain independent is not considered relevant, nor is it measured. Second, the methodology of the

research was primarily descriptive, and the sample of reentry partnership members was not clearly defined. Third, the authors developed scaled measures based on the literature, but there was no statistical evidence provided as to the adequacy of those measures. Finally, the RPI was a federally funded initiative, which may limit its generalizability to communities that do not receive a federal infusion of grant dollars. It is noteworthy that even with the external assistance, organizations failed to implement their own planned system changes, indicating that they might not be sufficiently motivated by short-term, external resources such as grant funding.

Future research can address the limitations of the RPI evaluations by using organizational theories to explain the behaviors of partnership members. Diverse theories exist, but their utilization has been limited. Moreover, the use of quantitative statistics and higher levels of statistical analyses should be used to validate and refine measures of interagency activities and organizational factors that may affect the relationships between agencies. Finally, studies should be performed in natural settings that are devoid of the limited, artificial infusion of federal dollars.

### *Transition from Jail to Community (TJC)*

The Transition from Jail to Community (TJC) initiative was another national reentry project, which is relevant due to its examination of interorganizational relationship concepts (i.e., collaboration and system change) (Willison et al., 2012). Like other nationally funded projects, demonstration sites were chosen based upon their positive attributes. The TJC model was developed and evaluated by the National Institute of Corrections (NIC) and the Urban Institute (UI). The goal of TJC was to design a model that was a “viable method of building a systems approach to jail transition” (p. 2) which was sufficiently flexible to be applied to diverse jail

jurisdictions. The authors stated that the system model consisted of five dimensions: (1) leadership, vision, and culture; (2) collaborative structure and joint ownership; (3) data-driven understanding and local reentry; (4) targeted intervention strategies; and (5) self-evaluation and sustainability. According to the model, the system dimension of “targeted intervention strategies” would be supported by the other system dimensions for the purpose of implementing interventions, such as case management. These interventions would conceptually begin in the jail and continue into the community. Therefore, they would require jails and community-based organizations to work together (i.e., collaborate). Implementing the five system dimensions would, theoretically, bring about changes in how the “local jail, criminal justice, and community-based service system did business” (p. 59) by altering policies, procedures, and practices (i.e., system change), with the goal of improving public safety and increasing successful reintegration outcomes.

A total of six communities were chosen as learning sites for the implementation of the TJC model (Willison et al., 2012). These sites were chosen based on positive factors such as leadership and political support for jail reentry, commitment to new approaches and system change, willingness to expand data capacity, commitment to share information, willingness and capacity to dedicate part of a person’s time to serve as coordinator, and having community partners and resources already in place for implementation. The chosen sites were provided external technical assistance to aid in the implementation of the core components of the TJC model. A participatory action research framework was used which required researchers to provide both technical assistance to aid implementation and perform the research to evaluate implementation.

Two relevant TJC evaluations emerged which included the concept of collaboration: a process evaluation and systems change evaluation. The process evaluation of collaboration was primarily qualitative in its assessment of each site's fidelity to implementation and lessons learned. This was the result of developing performance measures of key processes, outputs, and outcomes which were unique to each site. Each site developed its own measures, with the assistance of the UI researchers, for the purpose of performing self-evaluations, which, in turn, limited cross-site comparisons. Alternatively, the second evaluation, which also included the concept of collaboration, relied primarily upon a stakeholder survey of expert informants to quantitatively assess systems change across all six sites. A review of the process and systems change evaluations follows.

***Process Evaluation: A Collaborative Structure and Joint Ownership***

The process evaluation of TJC was performed to assess each site's fidelity to implementing each of the model's components (Willison et al., 2012). Of the five system dimensions discussed above, "collaborative structure and joint ownership" is relevant to the concept of interorganizational relationships. Collaborative structure and joint ownership was generically defined as the recognition that "the jail and its community partners must hold joint responsibility for successful transition" (p. 13). Moreover, the structure should "facilitate collaboration and allow for meaningful joint planning and decisionmaking" (p. 13). Within this concept, collaboration would be required between agencies, as "no one agency or organization has the resources, expertise, and authority to address the many criminogenic issues present in the jail population both pre- and post-release" (p. 25). Interestingly, this TJC component had originally been defined as "collaboration and joint ownership". However, the establishment of a

structure that defined the roles and responsibilities of member organizations became a critical challenge during the first year of implementation. So much so, that “collaboration” was changed to “collaborative structure”.

The qualitative data on TJC collaborations indicated the emergence of two collaborative structures and revealed challenges in working with other organizations (Willison et al., 2012). Some jails worked with a central partner that handled the majority of release functions, such as pre-trial supervision, assessment, case management, and community correctional duties. Other jails developed relationships with multiple community partners that each handled a portion of the release functions. Generally, every site included an executive advisory board, a large group open to all community stakeholders, and specialized committees tasked with specific functions or subject matter responsibilities. Additionally, each site had a director who coordinated with TJC researchers. Collaboration was found to be a constant challenge due to a lack of initial planning, undefined roles for community partners who were not service providers, the perception that initial tasks such as risk screening were the jail’s sole responsibility, and the need for constant, time-consuming communication.

In addition to qualitative assessments, the process evaluation was supplemented by the stakeholder survey which asked respondents to rate barriers to collaboration (Willison et al., 2012). Respondents’ ratings indicated that limits on time and resources were particularly problematic over the 36-month implementation period. However, two-thirds of stakeholders also reported that resources were shared between agencies either occasionally or frequently. During implementation, sites also encountered problems with incompatible data systems, regulations and policies about sharing client information, an absence of established working relationships,

competition for resources or turf, conflicting priorities or visions, and a lack of trust among agencies. Yet, they also reported that relations and communications had improved between jails and the community agencies across sites, and mutual trust and understanding was enhanced as well. The process evaluation highlighted the lack of fidelity and numerous obstacles organizations encounter in planning and implementing interorganizational relationships.

### ***Systems Change Analysis: Collaboration***

In addition to assessing the structure and process of collaboration, the TJC researchers surveyed informants to evaluate systems change across all the demonstration sites (Willison et al., 2012). Systems change “represents an integrated approach spanning organizational boundaries to deliver needed information, services, and case management to people released from jail” (p. 11). It is indicated by the adoption of new policies, practices, and procedures. As previously mentioned, the systems change evaluation “relied primarily on data gathered from the web-based TJC stakeholder survey to detect and measure system-level change around key components of the model, from the perspective of local stakeholders identified as expert informants” (p. 63). The survey method was used due to its ability to collect data systematically and economically across all six sites.

Surveys were completed at three time periods, with the final wave having the lowest response rate of 57 percent for a total of 261 respondents (Willison et al., 2012). Despite the decline in survey responses, the third-wave respondents were diverse, as 45 percent were from criminal justice organizations (i.e., courts, probation, community corrections, and sheriffs and jails) and 55 percent were non-criminal justice service providers from the community (i.e.,



mental health and substance abuse; housing and education; employment; general social services, emergency, medical; and other).

The content of the system change survey was informed by the five TJC model components to measure whether there had been change within each dimension (Willison et al., 2012). The survey consisted of 126 forced-choice questions asking about respondents' perceptions with Likert items ranging from -2 to +2. These items were later grouped into 15 scales using confirmatory factor analysis. Respondents' scores were calculated as the mean of all question items within each scale, and the reliability was verified by a Cronbach's alpha of .70 or higher. Each of the 15 scales "fell within one of four change areas: collaboration, cooperation and trust, quality and accessibility of reentry services, and support for reentry" (p. 66). The relevant change area is collaboration, which accounted for 7 of the 15 systems change scales.

In the TJC survey, the mean score for each of the seven dimensions of collaboration increased between waves one and three (Willison et al., 2012). However, only two of the collaborative dimensions (i.e., agency collaboration and agency-level information sharing) improved enough to be statistically significant at the .05 level. Notably, when comparing differences between the six sites, the majority of them were not able to increase collaboration and agency-level information sharing to a point of statistical significance. This suggests that there were differences between sites in their ability to improve information sharing and collaboration at the agency level. The other five dimensions of collaboration (i.e., resource sharing, data collection and exchange, client-level information sharing, agency-level information coordination, and lack of barriers to information sharing) indicated improvement, but not at the

statistically significant .05 level. Overall, there was little improvement and no fidelity to the implementation of the federal model.

The researchers concluded that the implementation of the TJC module was a continuous process which could not be completed in three years (Willison et al., 2012). The system change evaluation of TJC contributes to the development of measures of collaboration between jails and community organizations. However, it assumes that high levels of interorganizational interactions are necessary and full system integration is the goal.

### *Limitations*

The TJC is unique in its development of a reentry model specific to jails, as opposed to prisons, as well as the development of measures of collaboration. However, the evaluations highlight the difficulties associated with implementing jail reentry and measuring the degree of system integration that occurs. As with other federally funded demonstration sites, the six learning sites were chosen due to their positive attributes which may not exist in other communities. For example, sites were selected because they possessed leadership support and were committed to systems change and sharing information. Moreover, the sites already had community partners and resources in place, and they had the capacity and willingness to commit 50 percent of an employee's time to serve as site coordinator. Despite these advantages, the sites still faced numerous challenges. The typical reentry partnership may not find the TJC model to be useful if they do not have similar positive attributes found at the learning sites. Therefore, the implementation of the TJC model may not be generalizable to all communities.

There were also internal validity issues to consider, as there may have been factors other than the TJC model that contributed to the findings within the learning sites. In particular, bias

on the part of the researchers and expert informants may have influenced the findings. The Urban Institute (UI) not only performed the research in this project, but also participated in the development of the TJC model and its implementation. Participating in the development, implementation, and research of TJC creates a potential conflict of interest. Bias may have been introduced, unconscious or otherwise, as the UI researchers had a vested interest in the success of the model's implementation and research results. Likewise, social desirability bias may have been introduced through the systems change survey of expert informants, who may also have had a vested interest in the research results. Finally, the variable that may have affected change was the provision of external technical assistance, rather than the TJC model itself. Research bias should be removed by examining jail partnerships that are not influenced by researchers' conflicting roles and funding recipients' desire for favorable evaluation outcomes.

There were also issues with the construct of collaboration in the TJC evaluation. As with prior studies, there was an underlying assumption that organizations should be sharing information and resources at high levels. There was a failure to consider other levels of interorganizational relationships, such as informal service referrals. Additionally, seven scales in the systems change survey purportedly measured the dimension of collaboration; however, the scale of "agency collaboration" did not define collaboration for the respondents. They were left to define the concept for themselves when they were asked to rate the amount of collaboration that occurred over the last six months. Finally, it was unclear as to whether collaboration was intended to be the same construct in both the process and systems change evaluations, since the concept was operationalized differently. The process component of the evaluation explored collaboration qualitatively, while the systems change survey used quantitative measures.

Future research should address these gaps by conducting research in communities that are not receiving external assistance and by measuring theoretically discriminant levels of interorganizational relationships.

### ***Serious and Violent Offender Reentry Initiative (SVORI)***

Like RPI and TJC, the Serious and Violent Offender Reentry Initiative (SVORI) was another national initiative. From 2003 to 2006, multiple federal departments funded 69 grantees to implement reentry programs for prisoners in the SVORI (Winterfield & Lindquist, 2006). It was a major, federally funded “outcome- or goal-oriented initiative that specified outcomes, or goals, that were to be achieved by programs developed locally” (Lattimore & Visher, 2009, p. 13). Ultimately, SVORI failed to reduce the outcomes of rearrest and reincarceration rates for released offenders. However, concepts which are relevant to interorganizational relationships were explored.

The logic model and evaluation framework for SVORI included the concepts of partnership formation, service coordination, and systems change (Lattimore & Visher, 2009). According to the model, SVORI was designed to provide inputs of funding and technical assistance to grantees. These inputs theoretically affected the intermediate factors of throughputs (e.g., local partnership formation) and outputs (e.g., coordination of services between prisons and the community). In turn, the inputs, throughputs, and outputs were expected to affect not only offender outcomes, such as reducing recidivism, but also improve state and local systems that provide services (i.e., system change). In sum, the logic model of the intervention identified key system factors, which included the use of “local partnerships” and “coordination of transition services” as moderating variables and a key system outcome of “systems change” (Winterfield &

Lindquist, 2006; Lattimore & Visser, 2009). The evaluations of SVORI were conducted by RTI International and the Urban Institute, and included implementation and outcome assessments that described these key variables (Lattimore, Brumbaugh, Visser, Lindquist, Winterfield, Salas, & Zweig, 2004).

### ***Implementation of Partnerships and Coordination of Transition Services***

The implementation assessment of the intermediate factors of “partnerships” and “coordination of transition services” were assessed at the beginning of the federal SVORI initiative (Lattimore et al., 2004; Lattimore & Visser, 2009). The evaluation of these two concepts was simply a summary of each grantee’s program details derived from their proposals and work plans (Lattimore et al., 2004). The analysis was descriptive, qualitative, specific to each grantee, and compiled prior to implementation. For example, the coordination of services for the Florida Department of Corrections (FDOC) grantee briefly included the use of a “transition team” (p. 65). The transition team would be comprised of several members, such as mental health counselors, substance abuse counselors, mentors, probation officers, and case managers. The FDOC assumed that the diversity of the transition team, which “works with offenders throughout all phases” (p. 65), would require partnerships between agencies.

Similar to most evaluations, the SVORI implementation assessment was limited because the measurement of intermediate variables was not prioritized. Whether the partnerships facilitated the coordination of services, which theoretically impact outcomes, is undetermined due to methodological weaknesses. Namely, the measures were descriptive, qualitative, specific to each grantee, and taken directly from grantees’ proposals prior to actual implementation.

Although partnerships and service coordination are system variables, the assessment did not directly link those variables to system outcomes after implementation.

### ***Outcome of Systems Change***

In addition to describing the intermediate variables discussed above, the SVORI evaluation also examined the outcome of “systems change” (Winterfield & Brumbaugh, 2007; Winterfield, Lindquist, & Brumbaugh, 2007; Lattimore & Visher, 2009). Systems change was not a well-defined concept; however, the SVORI model conceptualized it as a result of partnership processes. Systems change was assessed on two separate occasions. The initial 2004 assessment of systems change was similar to the implementation assessment discussed above, as data was again collected from grantees’ proposals. The analysis was a summarization which was descriptive, qualitative, specific to each grantee, and compiled prior to implementation. For example, prior to implementation, the system changes the FDOC expected to see as a result of SVORI funding included the use of video-conferencing in prisons for offenders and families, integrated case management in and out of the prisons, improved partnerships and communication, and a feedback mechanism to ensure that collaboration was ongoing (Lattimore et al., 2004).

In the second assessment, evaluators assessed systems change by collecting data from open-ended surveys of program directors in 2006 (Winterfield & Brumbaugh, 2007; Winterfield, Lindquist, & Brumbaugh, 2007). Instead of presenting qualitative data specific to each site, this time the data was descriptively quantified and aggregated. Of the 51 respondents, 24 directors of adult programs reported that SVORI had changed their systems’ partnerships with service providers, improved system coordination, or improved efficiencies through resource sharing.

Moreover, 16 respondents reported changes in practices, such as policy changes and introducing new technologies, and 14 reported changes in philosophy, such as culture change and establishing common goals. Six directors of adult programs did not convey any lasting system changes.

The validity of the SVORI findings on systems change in 2004 and 2006 is limited, however. One problem stems from relying on self-reports from program directors in the second assessment. As with all self-report measures, social desirability influences survey responses due to participants' tendencies to present themselves in a favorable light (Schwab, 2005). Program directors may have been inclined to report that their programs or systems were improved as a result of receiving federal resources. The validity of the findings would have been improved by including more objective measures, such as researchers' observations of the grantees' proposed changes.

A second issue of validity in the SVORI evaluations was the change in the operationalization of "systems change" from time one to time two. Originally, systems change was assessed by qualitative descriptions at the individual program level. However, the descriptive data presented in the follow-up study was quantified and aggregated. The assumption was that SVORI inputs, such as funding and technical assistance, ultimately created changes in the local systems. Whether each program actually changed within its local system, as operationalized, cannot be clearly determined due to the different measures between 2004 and 2006.

Finally, there was also a problem with distinguishing the measure of "systems change" from the measures of "partnership formation" and "service coordination" in the SVORI

evaluations. In SVORI, the logic model clearly designated “systems change” as being an outcome (Lattimore & Visher, 2009). It was distinctive from the intermediate variables of partnership formation (i.e., throughputs) and service coordination (i.e., outputs). However, the open-ended survey method used in the 2006 study of SVORI system change allowed program directors to discuss any and all perceived changes (Winterfield & Brumbaugh, 2007; Winterfield, Lindquist, & Brumbaugh, 2007). The researchers then used the program directors’ perceptions to determine response themes, patterns, and definitions. As a result, the system change assessment of Winterfield and associates (2007) included collaboration and coordination as being the “most frequently mentioned systems-level change” (p. 1) (Also see Winterfield & Brumbaugh, 2007). Moreover, collaboration and coordination were combined and defined as the “development and continuation of reentry partnerships among the organizations providing services” (p. 1). Thus, the original logic model’s discriminant concepts of collaborative partnerships, coordinated services, and systems change were converged in the outcome evaluation. The outcome of “systems change” was not clearly defined and distinguished from the SVORI’s intermediate variables in the final system change evaluation. Construct validity would have been improved by using clear definitions and measures which were consistently used allowing for the assessment of discriminant validity.

A final weakness in SVORI was the lack of bivariate or multivariate statistics. Had the concepts been clearly operationalized prior to implementation, the relationships between the inputs (e.g., funding), moderating throughputs (e.g., local partnerships) and outputs (e.g., coordination of services between the prison and community), and outcomes (i.e., systems change and offender variables) could have been tested more rigorously.



SVORI contributed to our knowledge on reentry partnerships by conceptualizing local partnerships, service coordination, and systems change as separate steps within the implementation model. However, the concepts were converged in the outcome evaluation of systems change. Whether the concepts of partnerships, service coordination, and systems change are discriminant has yet to be determined. Empirically, SVORI illustrated the typical lack of construct validity in the reentry evaluation research. More research is needed to develop valid constructs required for the assessment of the implementation of reentry. Furthermore, research should be performed in natural settings, outside of federally funded initiatives, to improve generalizability.

### ***Relational Coordination***

In addition to the implementation and outcome evaluations reviewed above, Bond and Gittell (2010) performed an independent study which was related to SVORI. The study was related to SVORI in that comparisons were made between communities that participated in SVORI and communities that did not participate. The study is unique in that the researchers used a theoretical framework that measured the quality of interorganizational relationships. The theory of relational coordination was used to compare different types of organizations and communities, as well as examining the association between relational coordination and recidivism.

According to Bond and Gittell (2010), relational coordination posits that coordination between organizations occurs through frequent, high quality communications and relationships of shared goals, knowledge, and mutual respect. Administrators and managers from 35 organizations within nine “reentry hot spot” communities in Massachusetts were surveyed. The

types of organizations included parole, probation, police, substance abuse service providers, and employment service providers. Communities that were designated as “reentry hot spots” received more than half of the state’s returning offenders. The researchers’ findings on organizational differences, community differences, and the relationship between relational coordination and recidivism rates follow.

***Organizational differences.***

First, differences in relational coordination between the organizations listed above were examined. Respondents were asked to score their perceptions of relational coordination of agencies other than their own, as well as asking them to self-rank their agency’s relationships with others (Bond & Gittell, 2010). When respondents ranked each other’s relations, descriptive analyses showed that criminal justice agencies were rated highest, with parole ranking very well. In comparison, employment agencies scored lower across several dimensions, suggesting that agencies had weaker links to the employment organizations. Interestingly, when agencies self-ranked their relational coordination, employment reported high scores, along with parole. Those with lower scores in the self-reported scorings included police and substance abuse agencies. As a result, the researchers determined that communications and relationships are multidimensional and vary according to the type of organization.

This part of the study contributes to the reentry literature in two important ways. First, it demonstrates that relations vary across different types of agencies. Second, the researchers found that employment organizations self-reported good relationships, which contradicted the perceptions of their partnering organizations. This illustrates how measuring the quality of relationships varies due to the methodological differences between self-ranking versus the

ranking of others. Therefore, it would be prudent for researchers to ask respondents to rank other organizations, in addition to self-ranking, when measuring informants' perceptions.

***Community differences.***

In addition to comparing differences between organizations, Bond and Gittell (2010) also compared the relational coordination of SVORI and non-SVORI communities. They found that the only significant difference was in employment agencies, which had stronger ties in SVORI sites (Bond & Gittell, 2010). Otherwise, there was no difference between SVORI and non-SVORI sites in their levels of relational coordination. Furthermore, 37 percent of the agencies in the sample indicated that they were part of SVORI, yet the Department of Corrections identified 55 percent participation. Organizations were unaware that they were part of the SVORI initiative.

The examination of community differences by Bond and Gittell (2010) informs research on reentry partnerships in several ways. It illustrates the difficulty of developing partnerships, as SVORI failed to increase the communications and relations in the demonstration sites, beyond the employment agencies. This, coupled with the fact that some respondents were unaware that they were included in SVORI, suggested a disconnect between policy implementation and organizational awareness. It is not enough to assume that organizations are partnering. Proper evaluations require that the extent of the interorganizational relationships be measured.

***Association between relational coordination and recidivism rates.***

In a final analysis, Bond and Gittell (2010) used regression to examine the association between relational coordination and recidivism rates. However, the researchers' conclusions are questionable due to a causal order problem in that relational coordination was measured three

years after the recidivism outcomes. Although they had anticipated a decrease in recidivism, the researchers found an increase over time. They speculated that strengthening interorganizational relationships may have actually increased surveillance, rather than increasing services and the subsequent reintegration of offenders. It was also possible that the relationships were formed in reaction to higher rates of crime and recidivism. Although this study sought to explore interorganizational relationships and how that affects offender outcomes when transitioning back to the community, the causal order issue continues to leave this question unanswered.

Overall, the Bond and Gittell (2010) study, though a very important step forward in testing (rather than assuming) the extent to which agencies partner, was limited in several ways. First, its use of relational coordination assumes high levels of coordination and interdependence, and does not capture the theoretical variances of interorganizational relationships. For example, officers from two agencies may share offender information informally, which indicates a low level relationship between two organizations. In comparison, two agencies may formally share case management information on all offenders through an integrated computer system which would be a higher level relationship. It is very possible that organizations do not plan to engage in relationships with high levels of commitment. As a theory, relational coordination may not adequately reflect the levels of partnering the organizations desired or intended.

A second limitation to Bond and Gittell (2010) was that there was no attempt to measure factors that may explain why different types of organizations varied in their relationships. Third, the sample was limited to 35 organizations, which lacked diversity by including only parole, probation, police, substance abuse service, and employment service. Finally, the quantitative analyses for the organizational comparisons were merely descriptive. Therefore, future research

may address these gaps by measuring theoretical variations of interorganizational relationships, as well as factors that explain organizational participation or non-participation in partnerships. Also, a more diverse sample of organizations and higher levels of statistical analyses would strengthen the validity of these measures and findings.

### ***National Criminal Justice Drug Abuse Treatment Studies (CJ-DATS)***

In a separate national project, the National Institute of Drug Abuse (NIDA) launched its research on the integration of substance abuse and correctional treatment systems (Taxman, Henderson, & Belenko, 2009; Wexler & Fletcher, 2007). Unlike the other national research projects reviewed above, these studies did not stem from federally funded initiatives developed for the specific purpose of promoting, planning, and implementing reentry partnerships and system changes. The National Criminal Justice Drug Abuse Treatment Studies (CJ-DATS) does, however, contribute to our knowledge about partnerships between correctional facilities and substance abuse treatment providers. Rather than relying upon a system-level approach, the researchers included organizational variables. Both organizational measures (e.g., mission, workplace climate, staff development, resources) and systems measures (e.g., inter- and intra-agency coordination activities) were used to evaluate systems integration and organizational differences. The National Criminal Justice Treatment Practices (NCJTP) survey was the primary source of data. The NCJTP was unique in that it provided national data at the organizational level of analysis. Respondents came from correctional facilities and drug and alcohol abuse programs, and included 100 state-level executives, 98 clinical directors, 431 administrators and program directors, and 734 staff (Taxman, Young, Wiersema, Rhodes, & Mitchell, 2007). Several studies relevant to reentry partnerships stem from this initiative.

### *Systems Integration*

In one analysis of the NCJTP survey data, Fletcher, Lehman, Wexler, Melnick, Taxman, & Young (2009) recognized that there are many theoretical variations of interorganizational relationships. Agencies and organizations are able to integrate their systems (e.g., co-location of services, centralized intake and assessment, shared management information systems, co-funding strategies) and services (e.g., case management, case review panels, individualized assessments and service plans, outcome monitoring). These interorganizational relationships can be conceptualized along a continuum ranging from informal, less structured activities to more formal, structured activities.

Using exploratory factor analysis of the types and levels of shared activities between organizations, Fletcher and associates (2009) supported a model of interagency activity measures that included low structure (i.e., information sharing and networking, cooperation, and coordination) and high structure activities (i.e., collaboration and consolidation). Examples of the “low structure” items included sharing information about offender needs and services, having written agreements providing space for treatment, holding joint case consultations, coordination of policies and procedures, holding joint staff meetings, and having written protocols for sharing offender/client information. Examples of “high structure” items included the development of joint policy and procedure manuals, pooling funding to provide services, sharing budgetary oversight of treatment programs, sharing operational oversight of programs, and cross-training on substance abuse issues. The majority of interagency activities fell within the category of “low structure.” Notably, corrections agencies reported low rates of shared activities. “Nearly a quarter of the corrections agencies reported no shared activities with their community corrections

or institutional corrections counterparts, and even more (37 percent) reported no shared activities with substance abuse programs” (p. S61).

The study by Fletcher and associates (2009) is relevant in several respects. First, rather than assuming that organizations want to be highly integrated, it marks an initial effort to conceptualize and operationalize varying levels of partnering between organizations. However, further research would allow for the refinement of such measures. Second, it provides continued empirical evidence of a lack of shared activities between correctional agencies and substance abuse service providers within the community. Explaining why particular organizations pursue or avoid interorganizational relationships has yet to be examined. Third, unlike the studies reviewed above, the agencies sampled in this study were not directly involved in a federally funded initiative developed for the expressed purpose of forming partnerships and integrating systems and services. Therefore, the relationships were not premised upon the receipt of external funding and assistance, since they were already established.

#### ***Organizational Factors (IV) and System Integration (DV): Resource Dependency Theory***

Using the systems integration measures discussed above (Fletcher et al., 2009), several studies examined differences between organizations. In one study, Lehman, Fletcher, Wexler, and Melnick (2009) examined the relationship between organizational characteristics and system integration. The analysis was guided by resource dependency theory, which posits that organizations become more interdependent and develop more interorganizational relationships in order to obtain the resources required to achieve the organization’s goals (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, as cited in Lehman et al., 2009). The methods included the use of univariate, ANCOVA, and canonical discriminant analyses.

First, Lehman and associates (2009) examined the association between the type of correctional setting (i.e., community corrections, jails, prisons) and the three different levels of integration (i.e., no collaborative activities, low structure or informal collaborative activities, and high structure or formal collaborative activities). Using percentages, they found varying levels of integration overall. Of the 11 integrative activities measured, 34 percent of all the agencies did not participate in any activities, 37 percent were classified as low structure, and 30 percent were in the high structure category. Within the high structure category, community correctional settings typically had higher levels of integration with substance abuse treatment (33 percent), as compared to jails and prisons (30 percent and 26 percent, respectively).

The authors suggested that community correctional facilities may be most likely to integrate activities because they are located in or near communities to which offenders are released or supervised (Lehman et al., 2009). Jails also operate in the communities that they serve, but may be less likely than community corrections to collaborate due to the shortness of offenders' stays. In comparison, prisons are more likely to be located in a remote area, away from the communities to which the offenders are released. Therefore, prisons may be more self-contained and less likely to integrate. The findings of Lehman and associates (2009) support the assertion that there are varying levels of integration between different types of organizations. This suggests that offender reentry partnership studies that focus on prisons may not be generalizable to jails, or vice versa. Generalizability is particularly limited in this study that surveyed only correctional agencies and substance abuse treatment providers. More research is needed to explain differences between organizations with diverse samples.



In addition to types of organizations, Lehman and associates (2009) also examined the relationship between organizational size (i.e., average daily client population, number of full-time-equivalent staff) and system integration (i.e., no collaborative activities, low structure or informal collaborative activities, and high structure or formal collaborative activities). They hypothesized that larger correctional agencies would be more likely to possess the resources needed to create and maintain collaborative activities to provide services to a more diverse offender population. Therefore, larger organizations would theoretically be associated with more structured integration.

Their hypothesis was supported for community correctional facilities, but not jails or prisons. Rather than organizational size driving higher levels of integration, jails were more likely to collaborate based on the need to test offenders and use outside agencies to provide services. Prisons, on the other hand, were more likely to integrate due to serving a higher percentage of a specialized population (i.e., drug/alcohol and mental health offenders). The researchers concluded that interorganizational relationship studies should take organizational types and structures into account, as jails, prisons, and community corrections have different needs and opportunities to collaborate. Other organizational characteristics, such as size and specialization, may also affect collaborations as organizations seek out other resources to meet agency goals.

The study by Lehman and associates (2009) takes the initial step of introducing resource dependency as a theory to explain organizational behavior that may affect system integration. It is possible that larger organizations have more resources to develop and maintain relationships with others, as hypothesized. However, the results revealed that larger prisons and jails were not

associated with higher levels of integration. Therefore, it is also possible that larger organizations have enough resources to provide services directly, lessening their likelihood of partnering with others outside of their organization. So, how do we explain these differences between agencies? Several other organizational theories exist, such as institutional theory and transactional cost theory, which may better explain the behavior of prisons and jails. Acquiring resources may not be the only motivator driving the formation of interorganizational relationships.

### ***Organizational Factors and Systems Integration (IVs) and Services (DV)***

In another analysis of the NCJTP survey data, Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, and Leukefeld (2009) included the concept of systems integration as an organizational characteristic that would affect services provided to offenders. More specifically, they studied the effects of organizational characteristics (i.e., having women-specific programs, organization structure, personnel characteristics, organizational culture, sources of information, and systems integration) on the number of services available for women reentering the community. “Bivariate analyses showed that those organizations with a women-specific program were more likely to offer an increased number of wraparound services” (p. S88). However, when multivariate analysis was used, “having a women-specific program was not significantly correlated with the number of wraparound services available” (p. S88). Instead, organizational structure (i.e., larger organizations as measured by number of full time employees) and culture (i.e., number of treatment approaches, greater endorsement of rehabilitation for crime reduction) were significant in determining the number of services offered. More notably, although some systems integration factors (i.e., relationships with others, influence of legislative priorities, and influence of federal

priorities) were significantly related to the number of services in the bivariate analysis, none of them remained significant in the multivariate analysis. Therefore, organizations with women-specific programs are more likely to offer a greater number of services to women reentering communities, but not due to relationships with other organizations. Instead, organizational characteristics of larger size and a culture of rehabilitation were related to the increased number of services provided.

The study by Oser and associates (2009) is relevant in its determination that interorganizational relationships were not related to the increased provision of services to female offenders in the community. Rather, it was the characteristics of organizational size and culture that were significantly related to community services. This introduces questions regarding the importance of organizational capacity and culture and their effects on services being provided in the community. Are organizations with greater resources more capable of linking offenders to community service providers using lower levels of integration? Does a culture of rehabilitation, versus a culture of control and punishment, provide greater motivation to create community service links to achieve service goals?

### ***Limitations***

Taken together, the studies stemming from the NIDA's national project advance research on interorganizational relationships despite their limited scope. Most notably, generalizability was limited to correctional facilities and substance abuse organizations. Whether these findings apply to correctional agencies and organizations other than those addressing substance abuse is unknown. Also, the researchers attempted to measure the theoretical variances of interagency activity, but were only able to empirically validate two levels (i.e., low structure or informal

collaborative activities and high structure or formal collaborative activities) using exploratory factor analysis. Finally, only a single theory (i.e., resource dependency) was used to theoretically explain organizations' behaviors and motivations for developing interorganizational relationships. Moreover, this theory was not able to explain the mixed results regarding the associations between larger organizations and higher levels of integration.

These gaps in research on reentry partnerships should be addressed. First, the sampling of organizations should be diverse, and should include more than substance abuse service providers from the community. Second, more research is needed to validate and refine measures related to interorganizational activities and relationships. Finally, resource dependency theory often relies on resource characteristics, such as organizational size, structure, location, and specialization to explain behavior. However, other organizational characteristics and motivations theoretically exist that should be explored, such as leveraging resources for efficiency, perceptions of the legitimacy of partnerships, and reciprocal agreements based on mutual goals. As demonstrated by Oser and associates (2009), organizational culture, as well as other explanations for organizational behaviors, should be explored.

### **Summary**

In summary, reentry partnerships are a theoretically related moderating variable through which services are provided to offenders transitioning from correctional facilities to the community. The outcomes at all levels of analysis (e.g., individual, family, partnership, and community) theoretically rely on the relationships that organizations form to implement reentry services. The factors that affect implementation and outcomes include not only individual participants, but also program staff, organizations, and interorganizational relationships (Chen,

1990). Organizations depend on the cooperation of other agencies to integrate services and change system policies, practices and procedures, which may lead to more successful outcomes. To date, the majority of reentry evaluations are quasi-experimental outcome evaluations which focus on measuring offender variables. They have not measured any aspect of partnerships between organizations which purportedly explain variations in reentry success.

There is emerging research in reentry which has begun to explore interorganizational partnerships; however, the literature gap is wide due to conceptual and methodological issues. The number of studies, as well as the theories, models, and sampling methods used in the studies reviewed above are limited. The first gap in the literature is the lack of theory to conceptualize and operationalize the relationships between organizations. Typically, these relationship processes are labeled as collaboration, which has not been well defined by researchers or based on theory. As reviewed above, the theoretically defined frameworks used to measure the relationships between organizations have included “relational coordination” (Bond & Gittel, 2010) and “interagency activity” (Fletcher et al., 2009). Contained in the concept of relational coordination is the assumption that high quality relationships would be required for successful outcomes, ignoring the possibility that relationships may vary while still yielding desirable outcomes. In comparison, interagency activity theoretically allows variation along a continuum (i.e., information sharing and communication; cooperation and coordination; collaboration; consolidation; full integration). However, the indicators used by Fletcher and associates (2009) in the exploratory factor analysis loaded on only two factors (i.e., less structured and more structured). Thus, these two efforts to theoretically conceptualize and operationalize

interorganizational relationships within the context of reentry are merely the beginning, and further research is needed for the development of valid measures.

A second shortcoming of the current research has been the reliance upon system level reentry models, which include social control (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003; Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002), system change (Lattimore & Visser, 2009; Willison et al., 2012), and system integration (Taxman, Henderson, & Belenko, 2009; Wexler & Fletcher, 2007). By taking a system-level approach, the majority of the reentry implementation studies have assumed that organizations wanted to become fully integrated at the system level. As a result, researchers have omitted inquiries as to which organizations would want to participate and why. For example, some organizations may want to participate in partnerships in an effort to reduce their costs by integrating services or information systems to reduce redundancies. Other organizations may be motivated to participate because they previously forged satisfying relationships prior to the reentry effort. The research has shown that organizations vary in their relationships (Bond & Gittel, 2010; Lehman et al., 2009). Explaining why and how organizations vary in their interorganizational relationships would be particularly applicable to correctional administrators tasked with planning and implementing reentry partnerships. If organizations are unable to achieve their desired goals, such as cost reduction or maintaining mutually beneficial relationships, what are the chances of successfully implementing and sustaining a partnership?

This line of thought leads to a third gap in the current research which is the limited use of organizational theories to explain the behaviors of organizations. Thus far, only “resource dependency theory” has been used to explain the development of partnerships (Lehman et al.,

2009). Resource dependency theory posits that organizations become more interdependent and are motivated to develop more interorganizational relationships to obtain the necessary resources to achieve their organizational goals. Resource dependency is only one of several theories that may explain the development of interorganizational relationships (See Chapter 3). Organizations are the planners and implementers of partnerships and integration efforts (Chen, 1990). Therefore, organizational theory should be the driver behind the conceptualization and measurement of organizational factors that affect the development of reentry partnerships. As such, research would be advanced by the use of an integrated theoretical framework with discriminant measures.

Fourth, research has also been limited in its sampling of partnership participants, thus limiting generalizability. Prior studies have either lacked diversity in the sampling of community-based organizations (e.g., Bond & Gittell, 2010; Fletcher et al., 2009), or lacked clear descriptions of the organizations or number of survey respondents from each organizations (e.g., Byrne et al., 2002; Willison et al., 2012). Further research is needed which includes a greater variety and detailed description of community participants, as the strategy of reentry is premised on a structure that continues a wide range of services to offenders released into the community.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, the research results of RPI, TJC, and SVORI, are the products of federal criminal justice initiatives. Most of the knowledge on the implementation of reentry partnerships and system integration has been garnered from these federally funded projects. The problem is that researchers studying these sites may be more likely to find successful formation of partnerships and system changes due to selection bias. Demonstration

sites are chosen for their positive attributes, such as leadership support and willingness to share information and commit resources, which other jurisdictions may not possess. Therefore, findings from federal initiatives may be due to differences inherent in who is chosen to be part of these demonstration projects, rather than changes arising from the intervention. Internal validity is also a concern in studies that rely on the perceptions of program directors that received grant assistance, as social desirability may influence their responses.

In addition to the issues of selection bias and social desirability, national projects like RPI, SVORI, and TJC may yield positive results due to external interventions. By artificially inseminating resources, such as money and technical assistance, the study findings may be positively biased. If organizations are motivated to partner in order to receive external resources, as theorized by resource dependency, then research stemming from federally funded initiatives is fundamentally flawed. It is unclear as to whether the interorganizational relationships would have been created without federal funding and assistance. Furthermore, these relationships may diminish or dissolve once external incentives are eliminated. For those correctional administrators tasked with planning and implementing interorganizational relationships in natural settings, most will receive little, if any, external assistance. This has serious implications for the planning, implementation, and sustainability of reentry partnerships and any goals of integration. All of this is to say that research findings on grantee sites that receive substantial external funding and technical assistance should be interpreted with caution.

The foregoing review of the literature on reentry partnerships reveals the lack of theoretically derived measures of various interorganizational relationships, as well as varying motivations for organizations to engage in such relations. The literature often assumes that full



system integration is every organization's goal that may not yet be achieved. Yet interorganizational relationships theoretically vary along a continuum, and emerging research has empirically tested these various levels (Fletcher et al., 2009). Research has also shown that differences between organizations exist (Bond & Gittel, 2010; Lehman et al., 2009), and interorganizational relationships may not be related to the increased provision of community services (Oser et al., 2009). Rather, it may be the characteristics of an organization, such as size and culture, which affect the provision of services.

More research is needed to understand why and how organizations vary in their relationships. As Roman and associates (2002) stated, causal models need to include hypotheses in two areas: 1) organizations' reasons for partnering and 2) organizations' interactions. Accomplishing these research goals calls for the evaluation of reentry partnerships in natural settings using theoretical frameworks with discriminant measures and multivariate analyses. Ultimately, the development of valid constructs of moderating variables in reentry will allow researchers to relate those variables to reentry program outcomes.

This study will contribute to the research in several ways. First, theoretical variations in interorganizational relationships will be examined by following the theoretical framework of Himmelman (1996) and empirical work of Fletcher and associates (2009). Developing valid measures of intermediate variables is critical to learning whether reentry partnerships are necessary. It is equally important to measure reentry partnerships at varying levels to understand the sufficiency of the relationships. That is, at what level do organizations need to share decisionmaking, resources, and information to increase services and reduce offender recidivism?

Current literature will be extended by applying the measures of interagency activities to a different population.

Second, this study will use an integrated theoretical framework to examine the motivations and cultures of organizations that have participated in jail reentry partnerships. The utilization of organizational theories in explaining relationships in the prior literature has been limited to resource dependency theory.

Third, the types of organizations sampled for this study will be diverse, and will come from three jail reentry partnerships. Each jail has attempted to organically develop relationships with other organizations, which provides an opportunity to examine the development of jail partnerships in a natural setting. This is particularly important. As discussed previously, the majority of the relevant reentry research stems from federally funded initiatives and therefore their findings may not be generalizable. The counties used in this study received relatively minimal grant funding to aid their reentry planning.

Observing organizations' motivations, cultures, and levels of relationships in a natural setting has implications for the sustainability and capacity of these networks to provide services to offenders reentering the community. Finding common ground at the organizational level for the integration of systems and services may prove beneficial to individuals, organizations, and communities alike. This would be particularly applicable to correctional administrators tasked with planning and implementing reentry partnerships. By developing valid measures associated with those interorganizational relationships which are necessary and sufficient, practitioners may be informed as to which partnerships may be most beneficial. They may also have a better understanding of the level of shared decisionmaking, resources, and information that may be

expected in order to be successful. Likewise, by learning about the motivations and cultures of community-based organizations, correctional officials will better understand what those organizations wish to gain out of the relationship and how to sustain them.

### **CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This study is an empirical examination of the organizational motivations and cultures which may be related to different levels of commitment to reentry partnerships. As discussed in the previous chapters, policymakers and researchers have assumed that partnerships are necessary for the implementation of reentry and systems must be highly integrated to sufficiently affect offender outcomes. However, the conceptualization and operationalization of interorganizational relationships and their causes have not been validated. It is not possible to assess reentry outcomes without assessing variation in interorganizational relationships, as they are central to reentry initiatives. It may be that variation in outcomes are attributable to variation in interorganizational relations.

Well-established theories exist for the examination of motivations, cultures, and partnerships between correctional agencies and other organizations. Such theories should be employed to explain variations in relationships, such as goals, communications, data and resource sharing, population targeting, service and training linkages, case management integration, implied and expressed contractual agreements, and outcome assessments. Long-standing organizational theories would inform both research and practice and allow for the prediction and explanation of who may partner, why, and to what extent. This chapter will outline these theoretical relations.

The two concepts employed in this study to explain partnerships include: motivations and culture. The term “motivations” refers to the driving forces that direct goal-oriented behavior. “Culture” refers to shared ideologies or values held by organizational members that are compatible with the goals of rehabilitation during incarceration (Oser et al., 2009). It also refers

to the principle of ‘least eligibility’ (Hudson, 1996) and “invisible punishments” that diminish the rights and privileges of convicted felons beyond incarceration and traditional sentences (Travis, 2002).

Theoretically, organizational motivations and cultures have an effect on the concept of “levels of commitment to reentry partnerships,” which incorporates several definitions. First, “level of commitment” refers to the variations of relationship complexity. Although some researchers have used labels such as “strategies” for collaboration (e.g., Delany, Fletcher, & Shields, 2003; Himmelman, 1996) or “integration” of services or activities (e.g., Fletcher et al., 2009; Konrad, 1996), the common conceptualization is that relationships vary in their levels of formality (Fletcher et al., 2009) and commitment of resources (Roman et al., 2002). Second, for the purposes of this study, “reentry” is a plan related to an inmate’s transition from incarceration to the community. It includes the activities and programs during confinement and after release (Petersilia, 2003).

Finally, the term “partnership” is used as a general term for the dynamic, continuously changing relationships between organizations (Rosenbaum, 2002). It is often used synonymously with the terms “collaboration” and “interorganizational relationships.” Although various definitions can be applied, a “partnership” can be defined as “a cooperative relationship between two or more organizations to achieve some common goal” (p. 172). Similarly, “collaboration” is a “process through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited visions of what is possible” (Gray, 1989, p. 5). Finally, “interorganizational relationships” broadly defined, are the “relatively enduring transactions, flows, and linkages that occur among

or between an organization and one or more organizations in its environment” (Oliver, 1990, p. 241). Theoretically, partnerships, collaborations, and interorganizational relationships allow organizations to reach beyond their own boundaries, both horizontally and vertically, to access resources and engage stakeholders to achieve organizational goals (Alexander, 1995; Crawford, 1997; Rosenbaum, 2002).

The relationships and commitments organizations have with each other vary according to their motivations and cultures (Alexander, 1995). Generally, organizational theories and research have been used to explain interorganizational relationships for decades (Alexander, 1995; Scott & Davis, 2007; Van de Ven, 1976). However, they typically focus on explaining and examining the behaviors of market-driven for-profits which are privately owned and operated. Private industries are permitted to engage in a variety of interorganizational relationships, which may not be readily available to public agencies. For example, private organizations which are market-driven may merge to create hierarchical efficiencies (Alexander, 1995; Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003). Such mergers may not be available to criminal justice agencies due to constitutional mandates or jurisdictional restrictions. Yet, organizational theories may have much to offer in explaining the behaviors of organizations within the realm of criminal justice and offender reentry. Whether these theories are generalizable to criminal justice agencies, or more specifically offender reentry, is unknown due to a dearth of research.

The lack of research on reentry partnerships notwithstanding, emerging research and theory on program planning and implementation provide the means to developing a logic model and evaluation framework to guide this study. Drawing from the models and measures of Lattimore & Visher (2009), Chen (2005), and Fletcher et al., (2009), the following model (Figure

1) depicts the various concepts of reentry program planning and implementation. The model is not limited solely to the concepts used in this study (i.e., organizational motivations and culture and interorganizational relationships), but is intended to illustrate the entire process of planning and implementation.

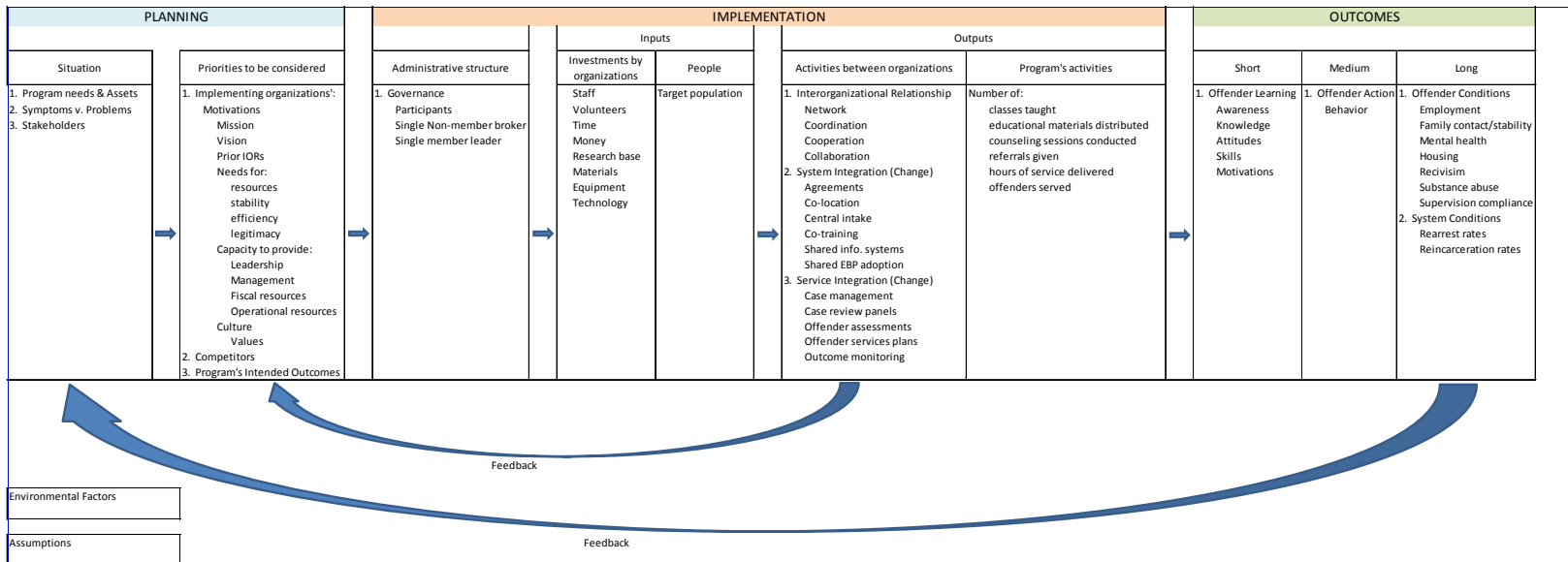


Figure 1. Conceptual model of reentry program planning, implementation, and outcomes.



The remainder of this chapter reviews this study's theoretical underpinnings of organizational motivations, culture, and level of commitment to partnerships. It is presented in three parts. First, the levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) will be conceptualized according to the framework of Himmelman (1996). Second, Oliver's (1990) integrated theoretical framework on the determinants (i.e., asymmetry, stability, reciprocity, efficiency, and legitimacy) for voluntarily developing interorganizational relationships is specified. Finally, organizational cultures toward rehabilitation and punishment during incarceration and equal access to services after release will be presented. Each of these concepts has shaped this study's approach and will therefore be discussed in more detail below.

#### **Levels of Commitment to an Offender Reentry Partnership: Dependent Variable**

The relationships that criminal justice agencies develop with each other, as well as non-criminal justice organizations, will differ according to each organization's level of commitment (Roman et al., 2002). Research has shown that partnerships vary in their structures and levels of commitment (Delany, Fletcher, & Shields, 2003), levels of integration (Konrad, 1996), degree of formality and accountability (Backer, 2005), and ability to implement transformational changes within the system or community (Fletcher et al., 2009; Roman et al., 2002). Moreover, the relationships between organizations reflect stakeholders' commitment to integrating social services, improving cost-effectiveness, and actually addressing issues of social justice, such as class and racial discrimination (Himmelman, 1996).

The key factor in developing interorganizational relationships is interdependence, or at least a perception of interdependence (Alexander, 1995). Organizations may be dependent on

others for clients, labor, technology, specialized functions, or various inputs or outputs.

Managing these interdependencies produces a diverse spectrum of structured activities, which vary along a continuum, ranging from the simple, single transaction to the fuller merger of two organizations (Alexander, 1995; Guo & Acar, 2005; Scott & Davis, 2007). Organizations are more likely to choose the simplest, least constraining structure toward managing their interdependencies with other organizations (Scott & Davis, 2007). The choice of tactic suggests the need to balance “autonomy and adaptability on one hand, and stability and certainty on the other” (p. 240).

The structure of interorganizational activities results from their strategies to either cooperate with other organizations or control the behavior of competitors (Alexander, 1995). Cooperative strategies between organizations consist of voluntary interactions, such as bargained exchanges of resources or information. Control strategies, on the other hand, include mandates, incentives, or sanctions which are used to “bias organizations’ decisions in a desired direction” (p. 44). According to Alexander, the term “strategies” may be used as a general description of the abstract processes of building relationships. In comparison, the “tools” by which organizations link their activities are more concrete or specific. Tools may be informal, such as interpersonal information exchanges during meetings or telephone calls. Tools may also be formal, and link organizations through contracts or co-locations. Essentially, tools “can be ‘nested’ in, or used in the framework of strategies” (p. 41). Therefore, tools serve as manifest evidence of the relationships and interactions between organizations. Tools form the structure by which organizations formally or informally share decision-making, resources, and information.

The theoretical framework of interorganizational relationships for this study follows the conceptualization of Himmelman (1996). According to Himmelman, the processes by which organizations partner with each other “build upon each other along a continuum of complexity and commitment” (p. 26). The levels of commitment along this continuum include the following dimensions: networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration. Although Himmelman has conceptualized the different levels or dimensions of organizational commitment to relationships, the quantifying or operationalization has only been performed by Fletcher and associates (2009) who confirmed only two constructs through exploratory factor analysis.

### *Networking*

The first type of interorganizational relationship is networking, which requires the lowest level of commitment due to its high degree of informality and ease of employment (Himmelman, 1996). Networking is defined as “exchanging information for mutual benefit” (p. 27), and it reflects an initial level of trust. This type of relationship is best when linkages between organizations are in the form of person-to-person connections, rather than organization-to-organization. Examples of networked relationships include making referrals through personal contacts and meeting with other organizations to discuss their missions, goals, major programs, and types of services. The exploratory factor analysis of the NCJTP survey supported the assertion that sharing information on offender needs and services was the most common low structure activity between criminal justice agencies and substance abuse organizations (Fletcher, et al., 2009). In the case of developing a resource directory, networking would only require that each organization create and maintain its own paper directory (Kovener & Stark, 2002).

### *Coordination*

The second type of interorganizational relationship is coordination, which necessitates more organizational involvement and commitment than networking (Himmelman, 1996). Coordination is defined as “exchanging information and altering activities for mutual benefit and to achieve a common purpose” (p. 27). Coordination is distinguished from networking in that the information sharing must result in organizations changing their activities. According to Himmelman, coordination is an important change strategy for those who consider human services to be essential for well-being, but find ‘systems’, such as education, to be fragmented and unfriendly. The primary human service systems of today were not originally designed to work in accordance with the current societal needs and governance structures. Over the years, “countless public and private ‘refinements’ have been piled one on top of another...without any overall plan” (p. 27). An example of a coordinated relationship includes the sharing of information about program activities, which results in a mutual decision to change the program. Two or more organizations may agree to change the content or schedules of their respective programs to improve services for common clients or customer service areas.

Prior studies have attempted to measure or observe coordination between correctional agencies and others. Fletcher and associates (2009) had several measures of coordination, which included the following: employing similar requirements for program eligibility, using written agreements to provide space for services, holding joint staffing/case reporting consultations, modifying program protocols to meet the needs of each agency, coordinating policies and procedures to accommodate each other’s requirements, holding joint staff meetings, and having written protocols for sharing offender or client information. In the RPI project, demonstration

sites coordinated surveillance by sharing information about released offenders between correctional departments and police (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2002b). Surveillance technology, such as electronic monitoring, drug testing, and plethysmography, could have also been coordinated. Additionally, informal surveillance was performed by guardians and advocates from the community who could report problems to officials.

### *Cooperation*

Cooperation is the next level of interorganizational relationship, requiring even greater commitment from organizations and possibly involving formal legal agreements (Himmelman, 1996). Cooperation is defined as “exchanging information, altering activities and sharing resources for mutual benefit and to achieve a common purpose” (p. 28). Coordination would be a necessary step to achieving cooperation. However, cooperation is distinguished by the sharing of resources. At this level of commitment, organizations are willing to contribute human, technical, and financial resources (e.g., staff, physical property, and money) to the relationship. It is important to recognize that intangible resources, such as linkages to the community, are as vital to system change as tangible resources. Therefore, according to Himmelman, those who supply financial resources are not to be given greater power than partner members. Examples of cooperation include the same activities of coordination, but, in addition, organizations may decide to share physical space for programs and vehicles for transportation. Cooperation may be indicated by the development of joint policy and procedure manuals or the pooling of funds to provide services (Fletcher et al., 2009). Activities may also include the construction of standard intake and assessment process forms, the pooling of resource data to create a joint directory, and

the joint hiring of advocates to address community needs and build trusting relationships (Kovener & Stark, 2002).

The exchanging of resources as an indicator of an interorganizational relationship should be carefully examined and interpreted, however. In the case of RPI sites, several partnerships paid community members to serve as guardians or advocates (Young, Taxman, & Byrne, 2002). Himmelman's (1990) concept of cooperation suggests that organizations make contributions of resources within the context of improving public and social services. This is distinctive from an economic market whereby money and services are exchanged according to supply, demand, and price (Anderson, 1995). It is up to researchers to tease out the differences and interpret interorganizational relationships within the context of the partnerships and fields of study.

### *Collaboration*

The final form of interorganizational relationship is collaboration, which demands the highest level of commitment and participation from an organization (Himmelman, 1996). Collaboration is defined as “exchanging information, altering activities, sharing resources and enhancing the capacity of another for mutual benefit and to achieve a common purpose” (p. 28). At this level, the relationship transcends the direct benefits of self-enhancement to include action for the betterment of others. Collaboration includes all of the activities of networking, coordinating, and cooperating, but also consists of enhancing the capacity of another organization through the sharing of “risks, responsibilities, resources, and rewards” (p. 28). Organizations may sponsor cross-training workshops on professional functions (Himmelman, 1996); agree to joint program and impact evaluations (Council of State Governments, 2007); implement cross-agency evidence-based assessments to identify clinical, supervision, and social

service needs for offenders (Belenko, 2006); implement a cross-agency online case management system to eliminate duplication of intake, improve follow-up referrals, and share case records; design and implement a shared online resource directory which is administered and managed by an information specialist; and extend their services to neighboring, underserved communities (Kovener & Stark, 2002). According to Fletcher and associates (2009), the measures which indicated higher levels of structured activities included the sharing of budgetary oversight over treatment programs, sharing operational oversight of treatment programs, and cross-training of staff on substance abuse issues.

### **Organizational Motivations for Interorganizational Relationships: An Independent Variable**

The various levels of interorganizational relationships reviewed above (i.e., networking, cooperation, coordination, and collaboration) build upon each other in complexity and commitment (Himmelman, 1996). Organizations may form relationship networks at the lowest level through informal exchanges of information. Relationships may then progress as partners make commitments to alter activities within their respective organizations, intermingle resources between partnering organizations, and share risks and responsibilities to build the capacity of partners and non-partners.

These various interorganizational relationships may be explained by organizational theories (Alexander, 1995; Oliver, 1990; Scott & Davis, 2007). The study of organizations and their behaviors has generated several theories which may be used to advance our understanding of reentry partnerships. Organizational theorists typically conceptualize partnerships, collaborations, and interorganizational relationships as “unique hybrid organisms” within an open-natural system (Rosenbaum, 2002; Scott & Davis, 2007). Organizations are not closed

systems, sealed off from their environments. Rather, they are “open” to their environment because they depend on a system of inputs and outputs, such as personnel, resources, and information, from other organizations. Moreover, organizations are not purely rational in their directives. The behaviors they exhibit may be more “natural” or informal, as they reflect the multiple, sometimes conflicting, interests of the individuals within the organization.

Organizations exist not only to attain their defined goals; they are “social groups attempting to adapt and survive....Preserving the organization becomes an end in itself” (Scott & Davis, 2007, p. 60). Like other organizations, criminal justice agencies must interact with other environmental entities. As a result, they develop various interorganizational relationships. Criminal justice organizations are not entirely free to control their strategies, structures, and processes toward the completion of their goals (Crank, 2003). Rather, it is the environment and interactions between organizations that influence organizations’ behaviors and their ability to achieve their goals (Scott & Davis, 2007).

The open-natural systems model of explaining organizational behavior is only the beginning. As a paradigm, it shapes the conceptualization of external, interdependent linkages between organizations. However, findings have shown that organizations act to retain their independence as individual agencies (Byrne, Taxman, & Young, 2002; Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003; Roman et al., 2002; Winterfield et al., 2006). The open-natural systems model provides a framework for conceptualizing organizations’ interdependence upon the environment, but does little to explain the independence-seeking behaviors of organizations. For that, we need an integrated theoretical framework that falls under the paradigm the open-natural systems model.



The complexity of organizations' behaviors in maintaining both independence and interdependence requires the integration of diverse theories. Oliver (1990) provides such a theoretically integrated framework. She asserts that there are six critical contingencies which involuntarily or voluntarily cause organizations to create interorganizational relationships. The six determinants (i.e., necessity, asymmetry, reciprocity, efficiency, stability, and legitimacy) are premised on four organizational theories. These theories include resource dependence, transactional costs, institutional theory, and exchange theory. In general, resource dependence theory postulates that organizational relationships are expanded by their pursuit of resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003). Alternatively, transactional cost theory asserts that interorganizational exchanges are constrained by the efficiencies or transactional costs (e.g., personnel's time) associated with maintaining the relationship (Williamson, 1981, 1985). However, organizational and professional practices of collaboration may also be supported and legitimized within a field through institutional processes (Crank, 2003; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Scott, 2008) and professional social exchanges (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976; Levine & White, 1961).

Each of Oliver's (1990) determinants of interorganizational relationships may be sufficient cause for the formation of organizational relationships, but they are more likely to be interactive. By using an integrative approach, the six determinants are generalizable to involuntary and voluntary relationships within private and social service sectors, as well as vertical and horizontal relations. Generalizability in the prediction of motivations for collaboration across institutional boundaries, as well as between sponsors and agents, and public

and private organizations is vital in the context of offender reentry to promote service integration within the community (Rossman, 2003).

Oliver's (1990) integrated framework for the development of interorganizational relationship is detailed below. There are two major categories which consist of motivations for mandatory relationships (i.e., necessity) and motivations for voluntary relationships (i.e., asymmetry, reciprocity, efficiency, stability, and legitimacy). Although the focus of this research is on voluntary relationships, it is important to first distinguish them from mandatory relationships.

### ***Motivations for Mandatory Relationships***

The first step in determining the factors which influence voluntary interorganizational relationships is to distinguish them from relationships which are mandated, or limited, by higher authorities. Oliver (1990) uses the term "necessity" in her conceptualization of relationships between organizations which may be required through legal or regulatory mandates. These types of relationships are distinct from those born out of voluntary agreements. "The mandated versus voluntary distinction is important because the explanations and consequences of relationship formation associated with each are fundamentally different" (p. 243). Organizational linkages mandated by higher authorities, such as government agencies, legislators, or professional regulatory bodies, are obviously coercive in the formulation of exchanges which may not have transpired otherwise. Like many organizational theorists, however, Oliver fails to see the other side of the coin. That is, the government is equally capable of limiting the ability of organizations to form voluntary exchanges. Examples include the limitations on cartels or trusts

(i.e., Sherman Act of 1890), collusions (i.e., Clayton Act of 1914), and mergers (i.e., Celler-Kefauver Act of 1950) (Scott & Davis, 2007, p. 239).

Interestingly, the distinction between mandated and voluntary interorganizational relationships is unique within the context of offender reentry due to the application of statutory laws and agency regulations. The traditional conceptualization of “necessity” within the organizational literature typically refers to laws and regulations which impose an expansion of linkages between organizations. For example, in the United Kingdom, the central government has mandated the development of crime reduction partnerships between various health and social care agencies (Williams, 2009). In the U.S., the federal government may require that grant recipients incorporate community service coordination efforts across community organizations (e.g., Banks, Dutch, & Wang, 2008). However, in the context of reentry, the concept of necessity, as a legal or regulatory mandate, may also structure interorganizational relationships by restricting or prohibiting the provision of certain goods and services to offenders (Petersilia, 2003; Travis, 2002). For example, public housing units may have adopted policies that prohibit them from allowing convicted felons from residing in public housing. Even private housing may be required to exclude particular offenders, such as convicted sex offenders, depending on the residence’s proximity to schools and day cares. Hence, legal and regulatory mandates within the context of reentry may actually cut the ties of collaboration, rather than developing interorganizational cooperation within a community.

### ***Motivations for Voluntary Relationships***

In contrast to mandated interorganizational relationships, organizations may engage in voluntary interactions. These are often explained by the theory of resource dependence.

According to this theory, the formations of collaborations are based on environmental and contextual factors, particularly resource sufficiency (Guo & Acar, 2005). Resource dependence theory, in general, allows researchers to explain a variety of organizational strategies and tactics used to manage exchanges in response to turbulent environments (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003). More specifically, resource dependence explains latent goals, such as a desire to increase power or reduce dependence and uncertainty (Scott & Davis, 2007). Political scientists argue that analyzing the management of organizational relationships within their environment is based on three premises: 1) social context, 2) the ability of organizations to draw on varied strategies to pursue their interests and augment their autonomy, and 3) “power – not just rationality or efficiency – is important for understanding what goes on inside organizations and what external actions they take. The emphasis on power ... is the distinctive hallmark of resource dependence theory” (Scott & Davis, 2007, p. 233). Organizations may be willing to incur transactional costs, such as time spent negotiating relationships, in return for power, such as resources or information. Moreover, this framework is advantageous due to its ability to explain behaviors which are not based solely upon profit or efficiency, and can be used to explain the behavior of for-profits, non-profits, and governmental organizations (Pfeffer, 1987).

Resource dependence may be used to elaborate upon two of Oliver’s (1990) determinants of interorganizational relationships that follow: asymmetry and stability.

### ***Asymmetry***

Resource dependence identifies “asymmetry” as one of the determinants of voluntary interorganizational relationships (Oliver, 1990). Asymmetry refers to an organization’s desire to acquire ownership utilization for self-interest. Organizations are motivated to use strategies

which would allow them to exploit an opportunistic situation to obtain scarce resources and even limit competitors' access to those resources. In the criminal justice arena, agencies seeking supplemental funds and assistance from federal authorities are required to compete for those resources (Brewer, Jefferis, Butcher, & Wiles, 2007). Gaining power through control of resources and information exemplifies efforts to control interdependencies (Oliver, 1990).

In addition to controlling interdependencies, organizations are motivated to retain their independence (Oliver, 1990; Wakefield & Webb, 1979). Partnership members may be concerned about the blurring of organizational boundaries, loss of agency autonomy, and shifts in professional roles (Crawford, 1997; Murphy & Lutze, 2009). Moreover, the formation of relationships may also be predicted by the reluctance to lose autonomy in areas such as discretion and decision-making (Oliver, 1990). For example, Wakefield and Webb (1979) found that, contrary to prediction, smaller agencies with fewer resources were less likely to engage in interorganizational relationships, as compared to larger agencies with more resources. The researchers speculated that smaller organizations may have been more concerned about maintaining autonomy and that smaller entities perceived a greater risk of losing their independence as a result of working cooperatively with larger and more financially sound organizations. Therefore, "both the desire for control and the reluctance to relinquish control reflect asymmetrical motives in the organization's decision to interact" (Oliver, 1990, p. 244).

This conflict of managing interdependencies and independence, therefore, influences the structure of interorganizational relationships. Power is more symmetrical and decentralized if decisions are made regardless of a member's size, resources, or performance (Provan & Kenis,

2007). Conversely, power is more asymmetrical and centralized if a single participant makes key decisions, controls or retains resources, and coordinates the activities of the members.

The asymmetry or symmetry of a partnership is manifested in the members' governance or structure. First, participants may be "participant-governed" which allows all members to meet formally or informally to make decisions regarding strategies, functions, and implementation (Provan & Kenis, 2007). Second, participants may prefer to broker a single entity, which is not a member of the coalition, to administer, manage, and coordinate products and services as a means of improving perceptions of legitimacy and efficiency in handling complex network problems. Third, the partnership may use multiple agencies for planning, but allow a single member organization to implement services (Rosenbaum, 2002). Finally, alliances with a large membership may use a model in which a single participating member assumes the responsibilities of making key decisions and coordinating the activities of all members (McGarrell, 2010; Provan & Kenis, 2007). With this final method of governance, resources may predominantly be supplied by the leader organization; however, it may also receive contributions from network members or control external government funding or grants. Integrated service systems with a dominant agency may reduce conflicts in service delivery (Alter, 1990). This model is utilized more often by hospitals in community health and police agencies in community policing.

Within the context of reentry, the concept of asymmetry may be affected by federal grants and constitutional mandates. First, federally funded projects may shape the structure of criminal justice partnerships. Federal grants may require that entities share decisions and service implementation, yet a single agency is often responsible for applying for the grant, administering

the program, and managing the funds (Lane & Turner, 1999). At first blush, this may be viewed as an asymmetrical relationship mandated by grant funders. However, it is possible that the interorganizational relationships are more symmetrical in nature. Several organizations within a reentry partnership could take a leadership role in multiple grant applications and administration. For example, a community's local jail may take the lead on a reentry grant for correctional agencies, while a partnering police agency focuses on a reentry grant for law enforcement and a non-profit agency administers a mentoring grant.

Second, the concept of asymmetry is also distinctively tempered by the criminal justice system's inherent governmental function – the power to use force against citizens. Public safety and supervision over convicted offenders are clearly executive functions (Neubauer & Fradella, 2014). In the context of mandated functions related to public safety, allowing the use of force by non-governmental entities against clients may not be a power or resource readily negotiated or bartered (Salamon, 2002). Therefore, as a member of the offender reentry partnership, criminal justice agencies may be more likely to retain a centralized position within any interorganizational relationship.

### ***Stability***

In addition to asymmetry, resource dependence theory also includes the concept of “stability” or predictability as a determinant of voluntary interorganizational relationships (Oliver, 1990). Organizations may form relationships as a response to uncertainty within the environment, such as resource scarcity and a lack of knowledge. Relationships are fashioned as a strategy for coping with uncertainty and managing risk by establishing reliable patterns and flows of resources and information from multiple, diverse sources. For example, separate

agencies may agree to work together to plan and implement programs to reduce the risks associated with mounting new programs, particularly if the social service or outcome is complex. By working cooperatively with other community entities, organizations may be more stable and capable of achieving their goals by connecting their clients with goods and services beyond the organization's individual capacity. "The stabilizing effects of commitment to a social problem are especially relevant in nonmarket settings in which the moral imperative of social responsibility is fundamental to organizational goals" (p. 256). Organizations may enter a reentry partnership if they believe the benefits, such as obtaining information and resources, outweigh the costs (Rosenbaum, 2002). The concept of organizational stability has received very little attention in the criminal justice literature, and measures that indicate stability, such as organizational age, may be treated primarily as a control variable (e.g., Guo & Acar, 2005).

### ***Reciprocity***

The next determinant of voluntary interorganizational relationships, "reciprocity," is based on the premise that organizations are motivated by consensus and cooperation in pursuit of mutual goals (Oliver, 1990). This is in direct contrast with asymmetry which assumes motivations of power, domination, and control. Reciprocity stems from exchange theory which depicts the formations of linkages as being harmonious, equitable, and mutually supportive, as opposed to being coercive, conflicting, and dominating. Typically, parties to the exchange will anticipate a greater degree of benefits which far exceed the potential costs (Molm, 1997).

Reciprocity between organizations may be formed through former cooperative exchanges that develop trust; however, these exchanges are more likely to be developed and maintained when organizational domains are 'moderately similar'. Domain similarity refers to the sameness



of organizational goals, funding sources, services, staff skills, and clients (Van de Ven, 1976; Van de Ven & Ferry, 1980; Van de Ven & Walker, 1984). Organizations with ‘very similar’ domains are likely to be aware of each other which may facilitate exchanges, but it is more likely that organizations which are almost identical will compete for territory or perhaps become a single organization. At the other end of the spectrum, organizations with ‘very dissimilar’ domains are much less likely to be aware of each other, and thus less likely to develop an exchange relationship. Therefore, organizations which are ‘moderately similar’ in domain are more likely to interact and form mutual exchanges due to their complementary resources, awareness of each other’s interdependence, and tempered levels of competition and territorial disputes.

### ***Legitimacy***

Another motivator for creating interorganizational relationships is “legitimacy,” which is derived from institutional theory (Oliver, 1990). The implementation and sustainability of reentry partnerships relies on whether the members perceive it as a legitimate way to provide services, reduce recidivism, and improve public safety. Generally, legitimacy is defined as “a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate” (Suchman, 1995, p. 574). The perception that actions of an entity are proper is based on external rule-making, internalized moral norms, or socially shared cultural beliefs (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Scott, 2008; Scott & Davis, 2007). More simply stated, legitimacy refers to the authority vested in persons or organizations to exercise power or perform a function. Moreover, from the institutional perspective, legitimacy is not a resource which can be possessed or exchanged; nor can it be treated as an input to be

transformed to an output (Scott, 2008). Both organizations and partnerships rely on legitimacy, which allows them to continue to operate as long as they are supported by professionals, scientific authorities, and the public.

The institutionalization of interorganizational relationships as a legitimate strategy for implementing offender reentry is critical to the survival of the partnerships. Organizations and professionals who purport to represent the interests of the community exercise enormous influence over the planning and implementation (Scott & Davis, 2007) of reentry. When representatives of multiple organizations in the public sector collectively recognize the importance of working together to address complex issues, they are more likely to work collaboratively with other agencies (Solansky & Beck, 2009).

The specific issue of legitimacy for the purpose of this study is whether partnerships are the proper way to “do business.” The question is whether the formation of partnerships between government and community organizations is equally or more desirable than traditional direct government bureaucracies (Provan, Kenis, & Human, 2008). Formal, bureaucratic organizations are more readily legitimized (Meyer & Rowan, 1977) than partnerships and networks which are a relatively new form of organizing work and achieving goals (Provan et al., 2008). Organizational perceptions as to whether the actions of a community partnership are desirable and proper may be evaluated by comparing the acceptance of collaborations or networked services versus direct government service provisions (Human & Provan, 2000).

### ***Efficiency***

Thus far, the determinants of voluntary interorganizational relationships have been derived from theories which predict organizational behaviors in relation to their environment.

However, transactional cost theory asserts that motivations are also fashioned by the rational consideration of “efficiency”, which emphasizes the individual organization’s specific goals and structure (e.g., resources, information, personnel, and technology) (Scott & Davis, 2007).

“Efficiency contingencies are internally, rather than externally, oriented” (Oliver, 1990, p. 245).

Organizations may enter into a partnership as a strategy for reducing its costs through efforts such as joint training, joint purchasing of resources, or coordinating services to address service gaps or redundancies (Mellow, Christensen, Warwick, & Willison, 2011; U.S. Department of Education, 2009).

The decision to participate in a relationship may be affected by an organization’s desire to reduce costs, and organizations must therefore decide whether to “make or buy” a good or service (Scott, 2008). In recent years, the public sector has adopted the private sector’s managerial methods by focusing on outcomes of efficiency and economy, as well as effectiveness (Crawford, 1997). In other words, organizations, both public and private, must decide whether to provide a particular good or service themselves or pay someone else to do it. The decision to enter into an implied or expressed agreement with another entity for the provision of those goods or services results in transactional costs (i.e., the costs associated with planning, adapting, and monitoring a contract), which must also be taken into consideration (Scott & Davis, 2007; Williamson, 1985). If the costs of maintaining a relationship with an organization are not perceived as being cost effective, an organization may move the provision of goods or services “in house.” Alternatively, if the organization feels it can “do without” and participating in the partnership is too costly due to expenditures such as human resource time,

money, or equipment, an organization may rationally choose to not participate (Alexander, 1995; Williamson, 1981, 1985).

Efficiency considerations have been found in previous studies on interagency relationships in criminal justice. Some agencies or professionals may perceive that the costs of maintaining implied or expressed agreements to be too great. For example, Crawford (1997) found that both police and probations officers felt that interagency crime prevention initiatives “diverted energies” away from their principal functions of “real policing” and “client-based work,” respectively (p. 113).

Indeed, the cost savings accrued as a result of a criminal justice partnership may be external to public agencies (Roman, Brooks, Lagerson, Chalfin, & Tereshchenko, 2007). In the case of the Maryland Reentry Partnership Initiative, the cost-benefit analysis showed a benefit of approximately \$21,500 per participant, but most of this benefit resulted from a reduction in victimization. The internal benefits to public agencies were small and non-significant. Externalized efficiencies may not sufficiently motivate organizations, as they are not able to directly benefit by reducing their own internal expenditures.

### **Cultural Determinants of Interorganizational Relationships: An Independent Variable**

The preceding section detailed the theoretically derived motivations which may affect organizations’ levels of commitment to offender reentry partnerships. A second construct considers the effects that organizational culture may have on partnership development. Within the context of reentry, culture may affect the punishment and treatment of offenders during incarceration and after release. During incarceration, organizations may hold different ideological beliefs as to the causes and methods of controlling crime, as well as the goals of

punishment and rehabilitation of offenders. After release, the issue of offenders being “less eligible” for the receipt of goods and services should be considered due to its potential to result in preferential service treatment by participant providers. It is possible that community-based service providers that serve competing disadvantaged populations may prioritize clients due to limited resources. Organizational culture, as it relates to the punishment and treatment of offenders during incarceration and after release, is reviewed below.

### ***Organizational Culture***

The development of reentry partnerships may be affected by differences in organizational cultures that emphasize either rehabilitation or punishment during offenders’ incarceration. Critical barriers to interorganizational collaborations may be related to differentiations in occupational socialization, cultures, philosophies, training, and working practices (Banks, Dutch, & Wang, 2008; Crawford, 1997; Lane, Turner, & Flores, 2004; Rossman, 2003; Yoon & Nickel, 2008). These variances have been found in comparisons of correctional agencies and other criminal justice organizations (Crawford, 1997; Jurik, Blumenthal, Smith, & Portillos, 2000; Vennard & Hedderman, 2009), criminal justice agencies and non-criminal justice agencies (Giacomazzi & Smithey, 2001; Gondolf, 2009; Sudderth, 2006; Williams, 2009), researchers and practitioners (Greene, 2010; Lane et al., 2004; Rosenbaum & Roehl, 2010), and various service providers (Banks et al., 2008; Drabble, 2007).

The reentry initiative TJC attempted to address the issue of conflicting organizational cultures by implementing a “system culture” which crossed organizational boundaries (Willison et al., 2012). “A system culture is characterized by common language around the work of the system, a global (as opposed to organization-specific) perspective, and a shared sense of

purpose” (p. 23). Cultural conflicts were observed between correctional agencies and community-based organizations. For example, community organizations resisted jail efforts to emphasize the use of evidence-based approaches that conflicted with service providers’ traditional service delivery. Likewise, stakeholders expressed concerns about jail staff’s skepticism about the program and attitudes toward inmates. To address cultural barriers between organizations, many of the demonstration sites educated officers and community-based members about the systems approach to jail transition and each stakeholder’s role. They were invited to planning meetings, and included in the training on the TJC processes. Sharing data between stakeholders, particularly risk-screening data, was instrumental in creating a common frame of reference. Although the TJC researchers noted that culture was critical to implementing TJC, the research only touched on the sites’ challenges and progressions in developing a system culture. Culture was not a major focus within the research, and was not evaluated beyond these qualitative descriptions.

In comparison, the concept of organizational culture was used repeatedly in the CJ-DATS research of correctional agencies and substance abuse organizations (Henderson & Taxman, 2009; Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, Leukefeld, 2009; Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, Taxman, & Leukefeld, 2009; Taxman & Kitsantas, 2009). Survey questions were adopted from the criminal justice literature (Applegate, Cullen, & Fisher, 1997; Cullen, Fisher, & Applegate, 2000) to measure attitudes toward rehabilitation and punishment during incarceration. Generally, the researchers postulated that correctional institutions were dominated by traditional criminal justice values of punishment, incapacitation, and deterrence. Therefore, correctional agencies would be less likely to favor rehabilitation to address the welfare and health of

offenders, as compared to administrators for substance abuse organizations. Researchers found that organizations that favored rehabilitation as the goal for reducing crime were more likely to offer a greater variety of services (Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, & Leukefield, 2009).

Research outside of the context of reentry partnerships illustrates the importance of rehabilitative versus punishment cultures. There are differences between professionals regarding both the causes of crime and strategies for crime control. For example, police and probation officers typically agree that crime control is a legitimate part of their work (Crawford, 1997). However, police personnel have been shown to prefer more punitive strategies and situational crime prevention methods (e.g., more police, arrests, and prosecutions), which align with a deterrent explanation of crime (e.g., more severe sentences) (Crawford, 1997; Giacomazzi & Smithey, 2001; Rosenbaum, 2002). In comparison, probation and social service personnel have stressed rehabilitative strategies and social crime prevention methods (e.g., more education, employment, and anti-discrimination policies), which are emphasized in social and environmental explanations of crime. However, when inquiring about individual pathological causes of crime (e.g., psychological disorders and substance abuse), differences between professionals may not be so readily found (Crawford, 1997).

Research has also shown that the implementation of community partnerships is affected by varying professional orientations regarding “care versus control.” Jurik et al. (2000) found that parole officers and community partnership staff members clashed in a program developed for juveniles because parole officers were using the program as a reward for kids who were doing well and felt that community staff members were inexperienced, ignorant, and inconsistent in dealing with clients and public safety.

Williams (2009) had similar findings in a review of the literature on offender health and social care inter-agency collaborations in England. He concluded that there were underlying ideological tensions and conflicts of “care versus control” philosophies related to professional values and ethics. These ideological tensions were, most likely, the underlying cause of structural and procedural impediments to the collaborative sharing of information and resources. For example, criminal justice agencies concentrated more on convictions, whereas health and treatment agencies were more focused on client care. As a result, health care professionals were sometimes reluctant to share client information with police. Depending on the laws, the sharing of information by health care providers may be prohibited. Although inter-agency collaborations have been legally required in England, coercive mandates did not overcome or address the issue of professional conflicts. Ideological conflicts reduced the willingness to partner.

### *Invisible Punishments and Equal Access*

In addition to cultural conflicts of rehabilitation versus punishment during incarceration, the problem of reentry has also involved sanctions that extend after release. American democratic polity is firmly rooted in utilitarian philosophical principles that conceptualize justice as an equitable (not equal) distribution of the benefits and burdens of society. Utilitarianism, as it is applied to punishment, justifies the penal strategies of deterrence, incapacitation, and rehabilitation (Hudson, 1996), which extend to intermediate community sanctions, such as intensive supervision probation (Spelman, 1995). Strategies for controlling crime extend beyond traditional punishments and into “invisible punishments” that may last a lifetime (Travis, 2002).



American culture is permeated by utilitarian beliefs that offenders who have thrust burdens upon their fellow citizens should be the ‘least eligible’ for societal benefits. This ethos permits support for Jeremy Travis’s (2002) conceptualization of “invisible punishments” that diminish the rights and privileges of convicted felons beyond incarceration and traditional sentences. As a result, offenders released from institutional custody or community sentences are often excluded from public rights and benefits, such as voting, holding public office, occupational and professional licenses, serving on a jury, parental rights, firearm ownership, housing, educational grants and loans, welfare, and other government benefits (Petersilia, 2003).

Offender reentry partnerships may be unique to other interorganizational relationships due the issue of invisible punishments. Organizations may be pressed by citizens who do not support a system that puts them on equal footing with offenders when competing for housing, education, and employment positions. Whether this utilitarian attitude of lesser eligibility affects the decisions of service providers regarding equal access to goods and services should be explored. Partnership members may be providing services to a diverse population of disadvantaged groups (e.g., homeless and unemployed), with limitations on organizational resources. Correctional officials may encounter organizations that are resistant to partnering due to resource allocations that prioritize other disadvantaged groups or due to concerns of community perceptions and support.

### **Summary**

In summary, an organization’s level of commitment to working with a jail in a reentry partnership (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) (Himmelman, 1996) may be examined with an integrated, open-natural systems theoretical framework which

incorporates organizations' motivations and cultural factors (See Figure 2). Oliver (1990) provides an integrated framework for organizational motivations to develop voluntary relationships. The framework consists of the five following constructs: asymmetry, stability, reciprocity, legitimacy, and efficiency. First, the level of commitment to a relationship may reflect asymmetrical motivations of managing interdependencies and retaining independence by controlling external or internal decision-making processes, resources, and information. Second, organizations may choose to form relationships based on a desire to increase stability by establishing multiple, diverse sources of information and resources. Organizations may also need to reduce uncertainty associated with the risks of mounting new programs that deal with complex societal issues. Third, reciprocity may determine linkages between organizations with moderately similar domains, such as goals, funding sources, services, staff skills, and clients. Fourth, levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership may vary in accordance with perceptions of the legitimacy of using partnerships as a mechanism for reentry versus the utilization of traditional criminal justice agencies. Finally, organizations may form interorganizational relationships based on the rational consideration of efficiency to reduce costs or redundancies. However, they may also consider whether the costs associated with planning, adapting, and monitoring an agreement are economically advantageous.

Organizational cultures must also be considered when studying the levels of commitment to offender reentry partnerships. Research has shown that organizations that favor rehabilitation as a goal may be more likely to offer a greater variety of services in correctional facilities (Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, & Leukefield, 2009). Moreover, conflicts in utilitarian professional ideologies, such as punishment versus rehabilitation, have encumbered partnerships between

criminal justice agencies (Crawford, 1997). The occupational judgment gap may become even wider between criminal justice agencies and non-criminal justice agencies that are not grounded in utilitarian philosophies (e.g., Jurik et al., 2000; Vennard & Hedderman, 2009; Williams, 2009). Furthermore, utilitarian attitudes of “lesser eligibility” (Hudson, 1996) have resulted in “invisible punishments” toward offenders after they are released into the community (Travis, 2002). Whether these attitudes are generalizable to community-based agencies should also be studied in relationship to their potential to constrain relationships between organizations.

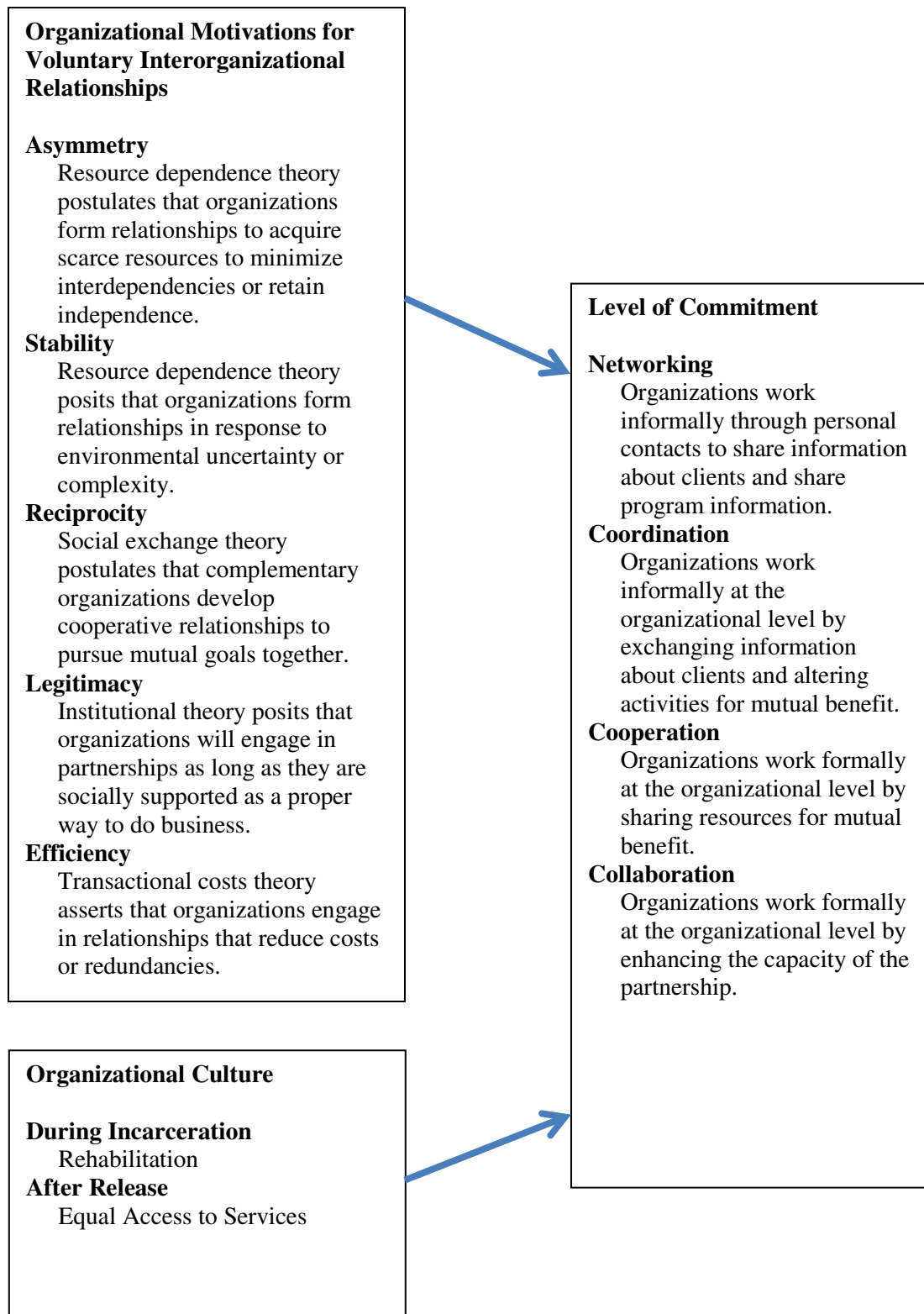


Figure 2. Theoretical determinants of organizational commitment to an offender reentry partnership.

## CHAPTER 4: METHODS

Determining the factors related to an organization's level of commitment to a reentry partnership requires continued empirical research. While the theoretical framework explaining interorganizational relationships is well established, the development of valid constructs and measures lags far behind and does not allow rigorous testing. By exploring the associations between the independent variables of motivations and cultures with the dependent variable of organizational commitment to the relationships, we may better understand the extent to which reforms targeting offender reentry can be successfully planned, implemented, and sustained. If indeed partnerships are the mechanism through which reentry is administered, then it is incumbent upon researchers to assess the capacity and structure of this mechanism in fulfilling this objective.

Generally, the methodology employed in the present study is shaped by two primary objectives. The first objective is to quantify organizations' motivations (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy), culture (i.e., rehabilitation and equal access to services), and levels of commitment (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) to local jail reentry partnerships. The second purpose is to explore the associations between the independent variables of motivations and culture and the dependent variable of level of commitment.

This chapter identifies the research questions and hypotheses that govern the methodology and analyses employed to address these questions. After presenting the research questions and hypotheses, subsequent sections discuss the research design, sample, measures and

data collection, analytical strategy, and limitations. Given the theoretical assumptions presented in Chapter 3, the following research questions and hypotheses are proposed:

1. To what degree does organizational reciprocity (i.e., mutual goals, mutual clients, and mutual services, and partnership history) directly influence levels of organizational commitment (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) to an offender reentry partnership?
  - a. H<sub>1</sub>: Organizations that report higher levels of reciprocity are more likely to report higher levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership.
2. To what degree does the need for organizational stability (i.e., expand services to clients, diversify funding sources, learn from others, and expand client base) directly influence levels of organizational commitment (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) to an offender reentry partnership?
  - a. H<sub>2</sub>: Organizations that assign higher levels of importance to organizational stability are more likely to report higher levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership.
3. To what degree does the desire for organizational efficiency (i.e., reduce costs through joint purchasing and joint training, reduce unnecessary service redundancies, and increase services to offenders without increasing financial costs) directly influence levels of organizational commitment (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) to an offender reentry partnership?

- a. H<sub>3</sub>: Organizations that assign higher levels of importance to organizational efficiency are more likely to report higher levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership.
4. To what degree does the desire for organizational asymmetry (i.e., decision making over service coordination, data coordination, leadership, and grant funds) directly influence levels of organizational commitment (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) to an offender reentry partnership?
  - a. H<sub>4</sub>: Organizations that assign higher levels of importance to asymmetry are more likely to report higher levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership.
5. To what degree does organizational belief in the legitimacy of using community partnerships for reentry (i.e., partnerships are better at assessing offender needs and risks, providing services directly to jail offenders, implementing case management, and monitoring the behavior of released offenders) directly influence levels of organizational commitment (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) to an offender reentry partnership?
  - a. H<sub>5</sub>: Organizations that assign higher levels of legitimacy to partnerships are more likely to report higher levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership.
6. To what degree does an organizational rehabilitative culture regarding the treatment of incarcerated offenders (i.e., jails should match treatment to offender's needs, jails should provide more work and educational programs, jails should provide effective treatment for addictions and mental illness) directly influence levels of organizational commitment

(i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) to an offender reentry partnership?

- a. H<sub>6</sub>: Organizations that report higher levels of rehabilitative belief are more likely to report higher levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership.
7. To what degree does organizational culture regarding convicted offenders' equal access to community services (i.e., substance abuse treatment and mental health treatment, adult education, workforce development, physical health care, faith-based support, welfare benefits, subsidized housing, and subsidized transportation) directly influence levels of organizational commitment (i.e., networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration) to an offender reentry partnership?
- a. H<sub>7</sub>: Organizations that report higher levels of belief in giving convicted offenders equal access to community services are more likely to report higher levels of commitment to an offender reentry partnership.

### **Research Design**

This study uses a cross-sectional, mixed methods design to examine organizations' motivations, culture, and levels of commitment to a local jail reentry partnership. The research design is based primarily on a survey of organizational informants derived from a purposeful sample. The sample consists of organizational decision makers who were identified within three Florida counties with different correctional administrative structures. The survey will be supplemented with qualitative content analyses of conveniently sampled reentry meeting observations and documents. This methodology is appropriate for three main reasons. First, the theories which explain organizations' relationships are mature, yet the most relevant research on



organizational factors in reentry partnerships is in its infancy. Given this stage of development, there are a limited number of studies and a few *a priori* assumptions (See Chapter 2). Second, while organizational literature does provide theoretical guidance, it is not clear whether these suppositions apply in the same way or strength in criminal justice settings. Therefore, an integrated framework derived from organizational theories (i.e., resource dependence, exchange theory, transactional costs, and institutional theory) is applied (See Chapter 3). Finally, because partnerships are by nature small social entities, they involve small samples which do not lend themselves to causal analysis (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Nevertheless, survey research does allow for the investigation of potential associations.

In the present study, both quantitative and qualitative analysis will be used. Quantitative analysis will be based on the data collected through surveys of organizational informants. The questionnaire will also include open-ended qualitative questions regarding the type of work organizations perform in connection with the jails, as well as the benefits and challenges of working with local jails. In addition, qualitative analysis includes data obtained through observations of meetings that have taken place between partner members and collections of documents, such as meeting minutes and handouts. This triangulation of data collection through informant surveys, meeting observations, and documents will strengthen the validity of the findings because they provide a richer, more diverse set of data (Jick, 1979). Methodological errors may be reduced as discrepancies are revealed and ultimately reconciled by cross-referencing the data.

## Sample

The sample frame for this study consisted of 127 organizations which have participated in a jail reentry partnership meeting or activity in any of three Central Florida counties. The unit of analysis is organizations, with the units of observation being organizational informants, as well as reentry meeting observations and related social artifacts (e.g., meeting minutes). A total of 77 (61 percent) organizations responded to the survey. Despite documented interactions with a local jail, 9 of the organizations claimed to have no relationship, which resulted in 68 (54 percent) responses being useful (See Table 1). The composition of the organizational types included: 13 government, criminal justice; 11 government, non-criminal justice; 16 non-profit, faith-based; 21 non-profit, non-faith based; 4 for-profit, and 3 other which were all secondary educational institutions. Thirty-six (53 percent) of responding organizations obtain half or more of their revenue from public funding, as compared to 18 (27 percent) that receive less than half and 13 (19 percent) that receive no revenue from public funding (1 did not report). Thirty (44 percent) of the organizations were large with 1,000 or more employees, as compared to 17 (25 percent) having 5 to 99 employees, and 19 (28 percent) having fewer than 5 employees (2 did not report).

Table 1

*Description of Survey Recipients and Respondents*

Type of Organization	Survey Recipients <i>N</i>	Survey Respondents <i>n (%)</i>
Government, Criminal Justice (CJ)	19	13 (68%)
Government, Non-CJ	18	11 (61%)
Non-profit, Faith-based (FBO)	34	16 (47%)
Non-profit, Non-FBO	38	21 (55%)
For-profit	15	4 (27%)
Education	3	3 (100%)
Total	127	68 (54%)

To test for non-response bias, organizations were recoded and grouped according to whether they were government or non-government, criminal justice or non-criminal justice, under 20 years old or 20 years old and older, and public or private for-profits. Crosstabulations and chi-square tests indicated that there was no significant ( $p < .05$ ) difference in the proportions of these groupings, except for the public versus private for-profit groupings. Since the sample is heterogeneous and for-profits are not conceptually different from other organizations, the for-profits were retained in the analyses. However, the generalization of this study's results to for-profit organizations should be interpreted with caution.

Thirty-five (52 percent) of the organizations reported attending reentry meetings with a single county jail. In comparison, 5 (7 percent) reported attending meetings with two counties, and 15 (22 percent) attended meetings in all three counties. Thirteen (19 percent) organizations did not report attending reentry meetings, however cross-references with qualitative data indicated that these organizations did participate in reentry activities, such as training seminars or grant applications.

Individual informants were qualified to answer the survey by indicating that they made decisions for their organization or held a managerial position within the organization. Thirty-one (46 percent) of the informants were female, while 34 (50 percent) were male (3 did not report). Among those reporting their race, the composition was: 46 White Caucasian, 12 African American, 3 Hispanic, 1 multi-racial and 2 reported “other.” The education levels of the informants were as follows: 9 doctoral degrees, 4 professional degrees (JD, MD), 24 master degrees, 18 bachelor degrees, 4 associate degrees, 4 with some college, and 2 with high school degrees or GEDs. Fifty-five reported being employed by the organization for more than three years, while 8 were employed from 1 to 3 years, and 2 had been employed for less than one year.

### *The Administrative Structures of the Counties*

The sample was drawn from three counties which are different from each other due to their correctional administrative structures. More specifically, one county’s (“County A” hereinafter) jail, community corrections (e.g., home confinement), and probation are all administered by a county commission. Likewise, the jail in the second county (“County B”) is also administered by a county commission; however, unlike County A, community corrections and probation are managed by a private corporation. Finally, the sheriff’s office administers the

jail in the third county (“County C”), while the county commission administers community corrections and probation. The diverse administration of the jails, community corrections, and probation within these three counties provides a unique opportunity for comparisons. Yet, the generalizability of this study’s results may extend beyond the three counties. These county jails are similar to the vast majority of systems throughout the U.S., which are administered at the local level by city or county governments (Stephan & Walsh, 2011). However, most are administered by local law enforcement agencies (e.g., sheriffs). Two of the jails in this study are administered by county commissions, while one is administered by the local sheriff. Therefore, the generalizability of this study may be limited, particularly to those operated by private organizations or those administered at the regional level or state level (i.e., Alaska, Connecticut, Delaware, Hawaii, Rhode Island, and Vermont).

### *Identifying the Organizations*

Organizations included in this study are those that participated in a reentry partnership within the three counties at any time between September, 2010 and January, 2014. Organizations are defined as “social structures created by individuals to support the collaborative pursuit of specified goals” (Scott & Davis, 2007, p. 11). Organizations for this study have been identified through reentry meeting records, training invitations, and e-mails. From September, 2010, to January, 2014, 127 organizations were identified as participants in the three local reentry partnerships. The organizations identified for this study were diverse. Some were large in scope and function. For example, included in this group are national corporations with headquarters outside of Florida, as well as state agencies with numerous departments or divisions throughout Florida. Even local agencies were diverse in functions, as is the case with sheriff’s

offices that perform both policing and correctional duties. Therefore, it was necessary to determine the delimitations of organizational boundaries, which is problematic both theoretically and empirically (Scott & Davis, 2007).

Two concepts were taken into account to determine organizational boundaries. The first method of demarcation is the recognition of spatial constraints (Scott & Davis, 2007).

Examining the physical containment of a collective group is one way of defining an organization. However, in keeping with the open systems model, spatial barriers no longer limit organizational activities. Organizations are affected by their environment, which blurs and confounds boundaries. Therefore, a second approach to defining the boundaries of an organization is to focus on the nature of the activities or functions being performed. This is a particularly useful perspective, as “we would expect to observe a change in the activities performed by individuals as they cross system boundaries” (p. 153). This aligns with the earlier studies using system frameworks of social control (Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003; Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002) and system integration (Taxman, Henderson, & Belenko, 2009; Wexler & Fletcher, 2007). According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978, as cited in Scott & Davis, 2007), the boundary of an organization ends with its ability to use discretion to initiate, maintain, or end interactions.

In keeping with the concepts of spatial constraints and interaction discretion, organizational boundaries were determined by examining geographic location, leadership, and departmental functions. A hypothetical example of delimitation would be a state institution with two separately located offices and directors, which would result in the identification of two organizations. Although each office branch is strongly influenced by the state, the interactions at

the local level may also be influenced by their difference in location and leadership. Another hypothetical example of demarcation would be two counties in the same circuit court. In this case, both counties have separately located courthouses, but because they would have the same State's Attorney and function, only one organization would be identified. In the case of a sheriff's office with both policing and jail functions, two organizations were identified due to the separation of functions and interactions.

The remainder of this section addresses the sampling methods used in this study. First, the sampling method for the survey will be discussed, as it is the primary method of data collection. Then, the sampling method for reentry meeting observations and documentary content analysis will be addressed.

### ***Survey Sample Method***

This study employed the informant method of surveying individual representatives who have the authority to intentionally and explicitly enter into an interorganizational relationship (Oliver, 1990). After identifying the organizations within the three counties, executive decision makers and their mailing addresses were located through internet searches. Decision makers for government agencies were found by searching organizations' websites. Information for non-governmental entities was found in corporate Annual Reports in the Florida Department of State's Division of Corporations online database and organizations' websites. Careful attention was given to the structure of each organization by examining organizational charts, annual reports, directories, and the like, to ensure that the decision maker was in a position of authority with knowledge over the interactions and resource allocations of the organization. Key words were used to identify executive decision makers, such as executive, chief executive officer,

executive director, chief executive director, executive pastor, senior pastor, sheriff, regional director, and deputy county administrator. In the case of large hierarchies, attention was also given to finding informants that are locally based and therefore more knowledgeable about their organization's activities in Central Florida. Survey recipients were asked to complete the survey or provide it to another person who was qualified to answer questions about making commitments to other organizations in the reentry partnership.

In sampling, the use of a single individual as a representative of an organization introduces the question of representativeness (Seidler, 1974). The question of whether a single individual can be representative of an organization is deserving of attention. However, the informant methodology has been used for years, and is commonly found in research on interorganizational relationships (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991; Kumar, Stern, & Anderson, 1993; Seidler, 1974). It is widely used when exploring interorganizational relationships due to the lack of access, funding, and cooperation required for a large number of survey respondents. Moreover, the constructs of interest (i.e., motivation, culture, and commitment) typically lack archival data (Kumar et al., 1993). "Relying on key informant accounts is appropriate when the content of inquiry is such that complete or in-depth information cannot be expected from representative survey respondents" (p. 1634).

While this method relies on a small number of key informants who are asked to summarize their observations of organizational relationships, these are well-informed individuals who are not reporting on their personal behaviors, feelings, or values. In fact, the informant method has already been used in previous corrections research. For example, administrators and managers of public and private service agencies were used as informed leaders in reentry for



SVORI (e.g., Bond & Gittell, 2010). In one of the most prominent studies to date on measures of collaboration between criminal justice agencies and substance abuse treatment providers, directors of correctional facilities and treatment programs were surveyed to assess the levels of system integration (e.g., Fletcher et al., 2009).

Using the informant method in quantitative research requires caution so as to guard against the problem of selection bias. In this study, informant competency was assessed to mitigate methodological error (Kumar et al., 1993). As already mentioned, eligible individuals included those who have the authority to intentionally and explicitly enter into a relationship with another organization (Oliver, 1990). The steps taken to determine eligible survey recipients were discussed above. To further confirm the eligibility of each survey respondent, they were given global item questions (Kumar et al., 1993) related to the following: job title, decision-making role to participate in the partnership, and length of time working for the organization. All respondents were identified as occupying a decision-making role or traditionally supervisory position. Therefore, it was not necessary to exclude any respondents from the analysis. These steps in the sampling methodology served to qualify the respondents as knowledgeable and appropriate for this study.

#### ***Observations and Social Artifacts Sample Method***

To strengthen the validity of the survey findings, observations of reentry meetings and reentry related social artifacts were conveniently sampled. From March of 2010 to September of 2014, this researcher observed the meetings of the three Florida counties, and collected various reentry documents such as meeting minutes and handouts, whenever convenient. Notifications of the meetings were typically sent via e-mails. Each of the three counties conducted reentry

meetings for participating members. Substantial gaps in meeting patterns have been noted. The observations of the reentry meetings were sampled whenever the researcher was not out-of-state and there was no conflict with her teaching schedule. Handwritten notes were taken during the meetings. In addition to researcher observations, social artifacts, such as meeting minutes and various handouts, were collected whenever these documents were made available to the partnership members. A total of 23 meeting observations were collected for this study, in addition to 31 handouts and meeting minutes, and 56 other social artifacts. Two counties ended formal meetings in mid-2013, while the third has been able to continually sustain formal meetings throughout the duration of this study.

### **Measures and Data Collection**

This study is a cross-sectional, survey design, with supplementary qualitative content analyses. It explores organizational motivations and cultures and their association with various levels of commitment to partner with the jail. The primary method of data collection is a confidential, self-administered questionnaire to identified organizational informants. The survey is primarily quantitative, but also included three open-ended questions asking about the type of work, benefits, and challenges of working with jails. Qualitative data has also been collected by observing reentry meetings and analyzing the content of meeting minutes and related documents. The remainder of this section discusses the measures and data collection procedures for this study.

### ***Measures***

This study's constructs of organizational motivations, culture, and levels of commitment are informed by theoretical and empirical literature. By drawing from theory and research to

inform the development of this study's measures, the construct validity of the measures is enhanced and threats are diminished (Gall et al., 2007). In this study, a total of seven independent variables and four dependent variables have been constructed to guide data collection and analyses (See Appendix A for survey items). Generally, there are five organizational motivations for developing voluntary interorganizational relationships (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy), which are informed by Oliver (1990).<sup>1</sup> Organizational culture regarding the treatment of offenders during incarceration (i.e., rehabilitation) are guided by measures used by the CJ-DATS (e.g., Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, Taxman, & Leukefeld, 2009). The measures of organizational culture regarding equal access to services after release have been adopted according to the empirical research of Travis (2002). Finally, the dependent variable of organizations' levels of commitment (i.e., network, coordination, cooperation, collaboration) are measured using Himmelman's (1996) typology of organizational relationships and follow the findings of Fletcher and associates' (2009) exploratory factor analysis of interagency activities used in CJ-DATS. However, some of Fletcher's questions have been modified and additional questions have been developed for this study.

Exploratory factor analysis was employed using SPSS version 20 to assess the internal consistency of the measures used in this study. Multiple survey items were used to create scales, each measuring a single construct. So, the first step was to use correlations and Cronbach's alpha to assess the internal consistency of the items for each theoretical construct (Pallant, 2007).

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<sup>1</sup> The independent variables used in this study are theoretically important, but have not been tested. This study provides a unique contribution by exploring and statistically testing these constructs which purportedly explain organizational behavior.

A correlation of at least .3 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of .7 or higher are acceptable. Second, principal component analysis was used to transform the variables into a smaller set of linear combinations (Pallant, 2007). Although some variance is lost in the transformation process, the advantage is that a single measure is normalized into a z-score with a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1. Moreover, the resulting measures may be used in general linear models. Both Varimax and Direct Oblimin were used to examine unrotated and rotated loadings, as appropriate. Each of the seven independent variables were examined individually.

### ***Independent Variables***

#### ***Reciprocity***

A four-item scale was used to measure reciprocity. The stem statement of the scale read, “To what degree would your organization agree or disagree with the following statements?” Items were answered on a five-point Likert scale, with response options ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Scale items read as:

- This organization's goals and offender re-entry goals overlap.
- This organization's clients include individuals who were previously incarcerated and are re-entering the community.
- This organization provides at least one, but not all, of the services that offenders may need when re-entering the community.
- This organization has worked well with local jail personnel.

The fourth item choice had a low correlation (below .3) with the other items which resulted in the item being removed from further analyses. Upon reviewing the last item, it may be more closely associated to the dependent variable, than the intended reciprocity independent variable.

A Cronbach's alpha of .77 was reported for the remaining three items, and the principal component analysis indicated that all three items loaded on a single construct (See Table 2).

### ***Stability***

Stability was measured on a four-item scale. The stem statement of the scale read, "How important or unimportant is it to your organization that participation in offender re-entry planning does the following?" Items were answered on a five-point Likert scale, with response options ranging from 1 (*not at all important*) to 5 (*extremely important*). Scale items read as:

- Allows your clients to obtain goods and services that your organization cannot provide.
- Helps your organization diversify its funding sources.
- Provides your organization with opportunities to learn from other professionals.
- Allows your organization to expand its client base.

All four items were positively correlated with a Cronbach's alpha of .70. Principal component analysis indicated that all four items loaded on a single construct (See Table 2).

### ***Efficiency***

A four-item scale was used to measure efficiency. The stem statement of the scale read, "How important or unimportant is it to your organization that participation in offender re-entry planning does the following?" Items were answered on a five-point Likert scale, with response options ranging from 1 (*not at all important*) to 5 (*extremely important*). Scale items read as:

- Helps reduce your organization's costs through joint purchasing.
- Helps reduce your organization's costs through joint training.

- Helps reduce unnecessary redundancies in services provided by your organization.
- Helps increase services to offenders without increasing costs to your organization.

All four items were positively correlated with a Cronbach's alpha of .87. Principal component analysis indicated that all four items loaded on a single construct (See Table 2).

### *Asymmetry*

A four-item scale was used to measure asymmetry. The stem statement of the scale read, "How important or unimportant is it to your organization that it retains decision-making authority in the following areas?" Items were answered on a five-point Likert scale, with response options ranging from 1 (*not at all important*) to 5 (*extremely important*). Scale items read as:

- Coordinating services between members in a partnership so that responsibilities are distributed fairly.
- Coordinating the sharing of client information between members in a partnership.
- Assigning leadership positions in a re-entry partnership.
- Distributing grant funding between members in a re-entry partnership.

All four items were positively correlated with a Cronbach's alpha of .81. Principal component analysis indicated that all four items loaded on a single construct (See Table 2).

### *Legitimacy*

A four-item scale was used to measure legitimacy. The stem statement of the scale read, "Would your organization believe that EITHER "Jails alone" OR "Partnerships between Jails and Community Organizations together" are the better way to do the following?" Participants

recorded their answers on a dichotomous scale with values of 0 (*Jails alone are better at doing this*) and 1 (*Partnerships between Jails and Community Organizations together are better at doing this*). Scale items read as:

- Assessing the needs and risks of jailed offenders re-entering the community.
- Providing services directly to jailed offenders re-entering the community.
- Implementing a case management system of services for jailed offenders re-entering the community.
- Monitoring the behavior of offenders released to the community in case they violate court orders or commit more crime.

Interestingly, the second item was found to be negatively correlated with the other three, and was excluded from further analyses. Correlation between the three remaining items was low ranging from .21 to .39, and yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .45 which is below the accepted .7 threshold. Principal component analysis indicated that the three remaining items loaded on a single construct (See Table 2).

### ***Equal Access***

A nine-item scale was used to measure equal access within the community. The stem statement of the scale read, "Would more people in your organization believe that the following public services and benefits should be provided to 'Non-offenders and Offenders equally' OR 'Non-offenders before Offenders'?" Participants recorded their answers on a dichotomous scale with values of 0 (*Non-offenders should be served before Offenders within the community*) and 1 (*Offenders and Non-offenders should receive equal access within the community*). Scale items read as:

- Substance Abuse Treatment
- Mental Health Treatment
- Adult Education
- Workforce Development
- Physical Health Care
- Faith-Based Support
- Welfare Benefits
- Subsidized Housing
- Subsidized Transportation

Principal component analysis indicated that the nine items loaded onto two constructs.

Examination of the rotated factor loadings revealed a clear pattern which separated the last three items from the others. These three items indicate a different construct due to inclusion of taxpayer subsidies. Two separate measures were created with one being “unsubsidized equal access” with a Cronbach’s alpha of .92 and the other being “subsidized equal access” with a Cronbach’s alpha of .94 (See Table 2).

### ***Rehabilitative Culture***

A three-item scale was used to measure rehabilitative culture. The stem statement of the scale read, “To what degree would more people in your organization agree or disagree with the following statements?” Items were answered on a five-point Likert scale, with response options ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Scale items read as:

- Proper assessments should be used to match each offender's needs to the treatments provided in jail.



- Jail inmates should be provided with more work and educational programs.
- Jail inmates should be provided with effective treatment for addictions and mental illness.

All three items were positively correlated with a Cronbach's alpha of .89. Principal component analysis indicated that all three items loaded on a single construct (See Table 2).

Table 2

*Independent Variable Items Retained after Exploratory Factor Analysis (Factor Loadings in Parentheses)*

Scale	Variables (factor loadings)	Alpha	Percent of Variance Explained by Component
Reciprocity	Mutual goals (.730)	.771	64%
	Mutual clients (.888)		
	Mutual services (.772)		
Stability	Expand services to clients (.785)	.700	53%
	Diversify funding sources (.871)		
	Learn from others (.632)		
	Expand client base (.585)		
Efficiency	Reduce costs through joint purchasing (.903)	.869	72%
	Reduce costs through joint training (.936)		
	Reduce unnecessary redundancies in services (.866)		
	Increase services to offenders without increasing costs to organization (.660)		
Asymmetry	Retain decision making over service coordination (.848)	.812	65%
	Retain decision making over sharing of client information (.834)		
	Retain decision making over leadership (.829)		
	Retain decision making over grant funds (.701)		

Scale	Variables (factor loadings)	Alpha	Percent of Variance Explained by Component
Legitimacy	Partnerships are better at assessing offender needs and risks (.798)	.453	54%
	Partnerships are better at implementing case management (.741)		
	Partnerships are better at monitoring the behavior of released offenders (.649)		
Rehabilitative Culture	Jails should match treatment to offenders' needs (.866)	.886	82%
	Jails should provide more work and educational programs (.905)		
	Jails should provide effective treatment for addictions and mental illness (.941)		
Unsubsidized Equal Access	Substance Abuse Treatment (.809)	.920	73%
	Mental Health Treatment (.918)		
	Adult Education (.885)		
	Workforce Development (.871)		
	Physical Health Care (.846)		
	Faith-Based Support (.809)		
Subsidized Equal Access Culture	Welfare Benefits (.908)	.942	90%
	Subsidized Housing (.977)		
	Subsidized Transportation (.961)		

### ***Dependent Variables***

As discussed in Chapter 3, the theoretical framework for the dependent variable of interorganizational relationships follows the conceptualization of Himmelman (1996) and empirical measures and findings of Fletcher and associates (2009). The relationships between organizations “build upon each other along a continuum of complexity and commitment”

(Himmelman, 1996, p. 26). According to Himmelman, the levels of commitment along this continuum include the dimensions of networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration.

The levels of interaction used for question items in this study can be distinguished according to types of contacts, formality, contributions of resources, and benefits. First, the type of contact for the lowest level relationship (i.e., networking) is between individuals within organizations, whereas the other three types of contacts are between organizations. Second, the first two levels of relationships (i.e., networking and coordination) are informal, while the second two are formal. Third, the two highest levels of relationships both involve organizations spending their own resources; however, the third level of cooperation would require a smaller amount of expenditures as compared to the highest level of collaboration. The two lowest levels of relationship commitment would not incur financial costs. Finally, networking, coordination, and cooperation between organizations benefit only those in the relationship, whereas collaboration would benefit other entities as well.

Question items were designed to reflect the four levels and distinctions. However, because the dependent variable is conceptualized along a continuum of relationship commitment, the exploratory factor analysis process initially included all of the items. The remainder of this section presents the item scales, followed by a description of the exploratory factor analysis process.

### *Networking*

A three-item scale was used to measure networking. The stem statement of the scale read, “In the last year, has your staff made personal contacts with people they know at the jail to do any of the following?” Participants recorded their answers on a dichotomous scale with

values of 0 (*No*) and 1 (*Yes*). Respondents were also given the options of “Don’t know” and “Does not apply” which were recoded to 0. Scale items read as:

- Take client/offender referrals on a case-by-case basis.
- Share information on offenders’ needs for services on a case-by-case basis.
- Share information on offenders’ treatment services on a case-by-case basis.

### ***Coordination***

A seven-item scale was used to measure coordination. The stem statement of the scale read, “In the last year, has your organization participated in any of the following activities with a local jail?” Respondents recorded their answers on a dichotomous scale with values of 0 (*No*) and 1 (*Yes*). Respondents were also given the options of “Don’t know” and “Does not apply” which were recoded to 0. Scale items read as:

- Met to discuss our missions, goals, major programs, and types of services.
- Informally agreed to provide services to offenders in the jail or community.
- Informally agreed to adopt the same standardized assessment tool for offenders.
- Informally reported problems with released offenders to an officer.
- Coordinated the content of a program to improve services for common clients.
- Coordinated the schedules of a program to improve services for common clients.
- Attended a cross-training event hosted by another organization to increase knowledge and trust between your organization and the jail.

### ***Cooperation***

An eight-item scale was used to measure cooperation. The stem statement of the scale read, “In the last year, has your organization participated in any of the following activities with a

local jail?” Respondents recorded their answers on a dichotomous scale with values of 0 (*No*) and 1 (*Yes*). Respondents were also given the options of “Don’t know” and “Does not apply” which were recoded to 0. Scale items read as:

- Dedicated personnel to apply for grant funding for your organization and the jail.
- Signed a formal agreement to provide services to offenders in the jail or community.
- Signed a formal agreement with the jail to adopt the same standardized assessment tool for offenders.
- Agreed to participate in a case management system with the jail.
- Hosted a cross-training event to increase knowledge and trust between your staff and the jail.
- Shared budgetary oversight with the jail over a treatment program.
- Shared operational oversight with the jail over a treatment program.
- Agreed to a joint impact evaluation on offender outcomes with the jail.

### ***Collaboration***

A seven-item scale was used to measure collaboration. The stem statement of the scale read, “Some re-entry activities may benefit not only your organization and the jail, but other re-entry partners as well. In the last year, has your organization participated in any of the following activities?” Respondents recorded their answers on a dichotomous scale with values of 0 (*No*) and 1 (*Yes*). Respondents were also given the options of “Don’t know” and “Does not apply” which were recoded to 0. Scale items read as:

- Contributed to the cost of a grant writer to apply for grant funds to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.
- Contributed case data for the implementation of an online case management system to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.
- Contributed to the costs of hiring an information specialist to create an online case management system to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.
- Helped develop and adhere to universal performance measures for your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.
- Hosted a cross-training event for your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners to increase knowledge and trust between members.
- Contributed to the costs of hiring a dedicated project director for a partnership between your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.
- Agreed to a joint impact evaluation on offender outcomes with the jail and other re-entry partners.

### ***Exploratory Factor Analysis of Dependent Variables***

As previously noted, the exploratory factor analysis for the dependent variables initially included all 25 question items because they are conceptualized along a continuum of relationship commitment. The first step was to use correlations and Cronbach's alpha to assess the internal consistency of all 25 items (Pallant, 2007). A correlation of at least .3 and Cronbach alpha coefficient of .7 or higher are acceptable. Correlations indicated that the cooperative training item (i.e., hosted a cross-training event to increase knowledge and trust between your staff and

the jail) was negatively correlated ( $r = -.083$ ) with the coordination of services (i.e., informally agreed to provide services to offenders in the jail or community). Upon inspection of the “corrected item-total correlation” statistics, the cooperative training item showed to have the lowest correlation and was subsequently excluded from further analyses. The Cronbach’s alpha for the remaining 24 items was .92.

The second step of the exploratory factor analysis procedure was the utilization of principal component analysis and Varimax and Direct Oblimin rotations to examine and interpret the factor loadings of the remaining 24 items (Pallant, 2007). Items loaded onto six constructs. Patterns emerged which confirmed the empirical findings of Fletcher and associates (2009) and Himmelman’s (1996) theoretical conceptualization of varying levels of relationships. As discussed in Chapter 2, Fletcher and associates (2009) had followed a theoretical framework similar to Himmelman, and used exploratory factor analysis to support a model of interagency activity measures between correctional agencies and substance abuse service providers. They found two constructs that included low structure (i.e., information sharing and networking, cooperation, and coordination) and high structure activities (i.e., collaboration and consolidation).

The results of this exploratory analysis also indicated that lower relationship levels grouped together, as did higher levels. However, another pattern emerged as well. The varying levels of relationships loaded according to the elements being linked between organizations. “Elements,” such as technology and tasks, link organizations together (Weick, 1976). For example, the three lowest level networking items regarding the sharing of client information on a case-by-case basis loaded with the lowest level of service provisions (i.e., informally providing

services). The network relationship is characterized as being informal with person-to-person contacts and the “element” being linked is the client. In comparison, the higher, cooperative level of service provision loaded with the coordination of program schedules and contents, as well as meetings between organizations to discuss goals, programs, and types of services. This construct reflects an organization-to-organization relationship and the “element” being linked are services.

The next step in the exploratory factor analysis was the assessment of correlations, Cronbach’s alphas, and principal component analyses with Varimax and Direct Oblimin rotations for each of the six new constructs (Pallant, 2007). While keeping the original framework, six separate constructs were grouped and described according to the following levels of interorganizational relationship (IOR) and linked elements:

- Networking
  - Informal IOR with person-to-person contacts linking clients
- Coordination
  - Low formality IOR between organizations linking services
- Cooperation
  - Moderately formal IOR between organizations linking service providers
  - Moderately formal IOR between organizations linking data
- Collaboration
  - Highly formal IOR between organizations linking program evaluations and grant funding
  - Highly formal IOR between organizations linking management functions



Items within each of the six constructs were assessed independently, and had the appropriate positive correlations, Cronbach alphas, and factor loadings (See Table 3). Therefore, principal component analysis was used to transform the variables into z-scores with a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1 to be used in subsequent analyses (Pallant, 2007).

Table 3

*Dependent Variable Items Retained after Exploratory Factor Analysis (Factor Loadings in Parentheses)*

Scale	Variables (factor loadings)	Alpha	Percent of Variance Explained by Component
Informal IOR with person-to-person contacts linking clients	Network Referral - Make client/offender referrals on a case-by-case basis (.885)	.878	73%
	Network Needs - Share information on offenders' needs for services on a case-by-case basis (.912)		
	Network Treatment - Share information on offenders' treatment services on a case-by-case basis (.805)		
	Coordinate Services - Informally agreed to provide services to offenders in the jail or community (.807)		
Low formality IOR between organizations linking services	Coordinate Meetings - Met to discuss our missions, goals, major programs, and types of services (.581)	.702	54%

Scale	Variables (factor loadings)	Alpha	Percent of Variance Explained by Component
	Coordinate Program Content - Coordinated the content of a program to improve services for common clients (.835)		
	Coordinate Program Schedules - Coordinated the schedules of a program to improve services for common clients (.861)		
	Cooperative Service - Signed a formal agreement to provide services to offenders in the jail or community (.610)		
Moderately formal IOR between organizations linking service providers		.658	60%
	Coordinate Supervision - Informally reported problems with released offenders to an officer (.691)		
	Coordinate Training - Attended a cross-training event hosted by another organization to increase knowledge and trust between your organization and the jail (.800)		
	Collaborative Training - Hosted a cross-training event for your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners to increase knowledge and trust between members (.827)		
Moderately formal IOR between organizations linking data		.802	58%
	Coordinate Tools - Informally agreed to adopt the same standardized assessment tool for offenders (.740)		

Scale	Variables (factor loadings)	Alpha	Percent of Variance Explained by Component
	Cooperative Tools - Signed a formal agreement with the jail to adopt the same standardized assessment tool for offenders (.849)		
	Cooperative Case Management - Agreed to participate in a case management system with the jail (.729)		
	Collaborative Case Management Contribute Data - Contributed case data for the implementation of an online case management system to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners (.730)		
	Collaborative Case Management Hire Information Specialist - Contributed to the costs of hiring an information specialist to create an online case management system to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners (.745)		
Highly formal IOR between organizations linking program evaluations and grant funding		.884	70%
	Cooperative Funding - Dedicated personnel to apply for grant funding for your organization and the jail (.763)		
	Cooperative Evaluation - Agreed to a joint impact evaluation on offender outcomes with the jail (.916)		
	Collaborative Funding - Contributed to the cost of a grant writer to apply for grant funds to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners (.861)		

Scale	Variables (factor loadings)	Alpha	Percent of Variance Explained by Component
	Collaborative Evaluation - Agreed to a joint impact evaluation on offender outcomes with the jail and other re-entry partners (.812)		
	Collaborative Program Director - Contributed to the costs of hiring a dedicated project director for a partnership between your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners (.830)		
Highly formal IOR between organizations linking management functions		.782	71%
	Cooperative Program Budgetary Oversight - Shared budgetary oversight with the jail over a treatment program (.851)		
	Cooperative Program Operational Oversight - Shared operational oversight with the jail over a treatment program (.901)		
	Collaborative Universal Performance Measures - Helped develop and adhere to universal performance measures for your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners (.787)		

### ***Control Variables***

Control variables were also included in this study. Previous studies have suggested that organizational characteristics may affect interorganizational relationships (e.g., Lehman et al., 2009; Oser et al., 2009). The control variables included in this study were: type of organization (0 = non-government, 1 = government), organization size according to full-time employees (1 =

1-4; 2 = 5-9; 3 = 10-19; 4 = 20-49; 5 = 50-99; 6 = 100-999; 7 = 1,000 or more), publicly funded (0 = no public funding, 1 = less than 50 percent, 2 = 50 percent or more), and organization age (0 = less than 20 years, 1 = 20 or more years).

### ***Data Collection***

Data was collected using surveys, observations, and social artifacts. The design and implementation of the confidential, self-administered questionnaire to organizational informants is detailed below. Then, the collection of notes from observations of reentry meetings and reentry documents, such as meeting minutes and handouts, are discussed.

### ***Survey Design***

The survey questionnaire in this study was designed to collect primarily quantitative data to explore the associations between organizational motivations, culture, and commitment (See Appendix A for the entire survey). Survey questionnaires are a common mechanism for this type of correlational research (Gall et al., 2007). Notably, causal inferences are limited in this type of non-experimental research, as compared to experimental or quasi-experimental designs. Therefore, it is necessary to discuss the steps taken to reduce measurement and non-response errors during the design and implementation of the survey.

Both the design and implementation of the survey were informed by the Tailored Design Method of survey research (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). Dillman's survey method has been shown to reduce measurement and nonresponse error by employing the principles of social exchange theory. Applying social exchange principles to the design and implementation of a survey includes methods that increase the perceived rewards of responding, decrease the perceived costs of responding, and establish trust so questionnaire recipients will believe the

rewards outweigh the costs of responding. Thus, errors attributable to flaws in the research design were mitigated.

The design of an untested questionnaire required pretesting (Dillman et al., 2009). Two steps were taken to pretest the survey for this study. The first step to ensuring questionnaire quality was obtaining feedback on the draft from people who have special knowledge about designing a questionnaire or the topic being researched. Special knowledge includes “technical knowledge about the survey topic, how demographic data are collected in comparison surveys, statistical analysis techniques, survey mode effects, and characteristics of the population being surveyed” (p. 200). These specialists may provide feedback on issues such as the measurement of concepts, unintended question order effects, identification of questions that should be included but are not, and inappropriate or missing response categories. Thus, the questionnaire was reviewed by two academics outside of the dissertation committee. One was asked to review the questionnaire due to special knowledge of the topic, and the other was asked on the basis of knowledge about survey development.

The second step of developing the survey included cognitive interviews (Dillman et al., 2009). During a cognitive interview, a potential respondent is asked to think out loud while completing the questionnaire in the presence of an interviewer. The respondent is encouraged to speak about his or her thoughts about the questions and how they are forming their answers. The interviewer may also probe with questions to get an understanding of how each question is being interpreted and if the respondent understands the intent of the question. The interviewer documents any problems with the completion of the questionnaire, such as wording, question order, visual design, or navigation. Two people who were in positions of authority in an

organization were asked to complete the questionnaire using the cognitive interview technique. One person was employed within a criminal justice agency, and the other worked in a non-governmental, non-criminal justice agency.

### ***Survey Implementation***

The implementation of the surveys in this study were performed through confidential, self-administered questionnaires which were mailed or e-mailed to potential informants. This method of administration was chosen due to the nature of the sampling frame and availability of contact information. The names and mailing addresses for the organizations and their executive leaders were readily available through website and database searches; whereas direct phone numbers and e-mail addresses were more difficult to obtain. Because the organizations were quite diverse and the executive leaders were given the option of giving the questionnaire to an appropriately informed subordinate, the questionnaires were initially mailed. It was believed that mailing the questionnaires would make the transfer of the questionnaire to another person easier because it does not require computerized technologies or skills. Pursuant to Dillman and associates' (2009) recommendations for mailed surveys, five contacts with each potential informant were attempted. The final contact was via e-mails if such addresses were available.

On June 29, 2014, a pre-notice, first-class letter was mailed to each recipient. To minimize non-response rates, this mailing and all mailings were personalized by using the recipient's name, blue ink signatures, high-quality paper for letters, and references to "Central Florida" communities (Dillman et al., 2009). Also, UCF's Pegasus logo was printed on the envelopes, postcards, letterhead, and questionnaires. The purpose of this first pre-notice letter was to briefly explain that a study was being conducted to explore the relationships between

organizations and local jails. It appealed to the recipient for help with the study and notified them that they were going to receive a confidential questionnaire about their organization. The letter mentioned that a small token of appreciation would also be enclosed.

On July 4, 2014, the questionnaire was mailed, along with a cover letter, postage-paid return envelope, and a two-dollar token incentive (Dillman et al., 2009). The cover letter explained that the purpose for conducting this research study was to explore the relationships between organizations and local jails. It also stated that the recipient and the organization they represent were carefully chosen for the survey. The recipient was informed that it was important that the representative who completed the survey be someone who is able to make decisions for the organization. Moreover, if the recipient believed that another member of the organization was better able to complete the survey about the organization's interorganizational relationships with local jails, they were to pass the survey to the other representative. The cover letter also conveyed that the organization's participation in the study was voluntary, they were able to withdraw from participation at any time, by filling out and returning the survey they were indicating that they agreed to the terms of participation, and any information identifying the agency or representative would be kept confidential. Contact information was provided in case the respondent had any questions.

On July 11, 2014, a "thank you" postcard was mailed to all questionnaire recipients (Dillman et al., 2009). The purpose of the postcard was simply to remind the recipient that the questionnaire was mailed the previous week and thank the recipient if the survey was already completed and returned. The recipient was reminded who the questionnaire is intended for, the



importance of their help with the study, and the contact information of the researcher in case a replacement questionnaire was needed.

On August 4, 2014, a reminder letter, replacement questionnaire, and postage-paid return envelope was mailed to non-respondents (Dillman et al., 2009). The goal of the cover letter was to convey the importance of each response and that the recipient was receiving individualized attention. Other than omitting the incentive, this mailing resembled the same packaging and information as the original questionnaire mailing.

A final questionnaire was sent to non-respondents on August 23, 2014 (Dillman et al., 2009). According to Dillman, it is important that the final mailing be different in form than those sent previously. Therefore, the survey was duplicated online through the Qualtrics website, and delivered to non-respondents for which there were e-mail addresses. In cases where there was no e-mail address available, the questionnaire was mailed in a United States Postal Service Priority Mail letter envelope (12 ½" x 9 ½"), which made it distinctive from the prior contacts. Each e-mail or enveloped contained a cover letter and website link or questionnaire replacement. For the mailed questionnaires, a postage-paid return envelope was also enclosed. The cover letter was substantively the same as previous letters, but emphasized that they were part of a small, select group and that their participation was important.

### ***Observations and Social Artifacts***

In addition to the survey, observational notes and documents were collected for qualitative content analysis. From 2010 to 2014, this researcher acted as a non-participant observer, taking handwritten notes of conveniently sampled reentry partnership meetings. These notes recorded the county, date, and discussions of the attendees. General descriptions of

organizational affiliations were also recorded, if known. Any discussions related to reentry planning, interactions, activities, motivations, concerns, ideology, or commitments such as resources were noted.

In conjunction with observing reentry meetings, various social artifacts, such as meeting handouts, minutes, e-mails, and other various documents, were also collected. Many of these documents were obtained by signing the attendance rosters of the partnerships, which allowed for the receipt of e-mails of meeting agendas and minutes. Also, documents were intermittently distributed to attendees of meetings, and newspaper articles were collected in connection with significant events regarding the jails or other organizations.

### **Analytical Strategy**

The goal of this study is to describe and explore the independent variables of organizational motivation (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy) and culture during incarceration (i.e., rehabilitation) and after release (i.e., equal access to various services) and how they are associated with the dependent variables of commitment (i.e., linking clients, services, providers, data, program evaluations and grant funding, and management) to a reentry partnership. The primary methodology employed is a non-experimental quantitative survey, which allows for the testing of hypotheses using descriptive and correlational research designs (Gall et al., 2007). These designs permit researchers to study attributes that do not utilize interventions. Using the same theoretical framework, the content of this observer's notes taken during reentry partnership meetings, as well as meeting minutes, handouts, and related documents, were analyzed to elaborate further on the results (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The

remainder of this section will address the analytical procedures for the quantitative and qualitative data collected in this study.

### *Quantitative Analytic Strategy*

The quantitative data from the survey of organizational informants was analyzed in several stages using the appropriate techniques of correlation and multivariate regression (Gall et al., 2007). SPSS version 20 was used to perform each of the analyses. Initially, crosstabulations and Chi-squares were used to test for non-response bias, as discussed in the Sample section above. Also, correlations, Cronbach's alpha, and principal component analyses were used to perform exploratory factor analyses of the independent and dependent variables. As discussed in the Measures section, the exploratory factor analysis procedures yielded principal component measures in which each variable was transformed into a linear z-score (Pallant, 2007). Because variables were standardized, the mean (central tendencies) and standard deviations (distributions of the variables) are set at 0 and 1, respectively. Cronbach's alpha scores (internal consistency reliabilities) are reported in the Measures section above.

The next step of the quantitative analysis is the correlation of the variables (Gall et al., 2007). The bivariate analysis of paired associations is reported in the Results chapter below. The analysis includes the direction and strength of the associations, as well as assessing the level of significance (Pallant, 2007). The appropriate statistical technique would be the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, as the variables have been standardized.

Since bivariate analysis showed significant associations between paired variables, the next step was multivariate analysis. Standard multiple regression (i.e., ordinary least squares) is the most common type of multiple-regression analysis (Gall et al., 2007; Pallant, 2007). This

technique is appropriate when there are two or more independent variables measured with continuous or categorical scales, the dependent variable is continuous, and the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is linear.

### *Qualitative Analytic Strategy*

In addition to the quantitative survey, qualitative data has also been analyzed. Qualitative observations of partnership meetings and documents consisting of meeting minutes, handouts, and e-mails were used to supplement and elaborate further on the quantitative analysis. Additionally, open-ended questions asking respondents about their work with local jails, as well as the benefits and burdens of doing that work were analyzed. Directed content analysis of the observations, documents, and open-ended questions allows researchers to follow the same theoretical framework to validate or extend the study findings (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Thus, deductive reasoning is appropriate in qualitative content analyses by allowing researchers to use theoretical concepts for coding categories.

Pursuant to the recommendations of Hsieh and Shannon (2005), the qualitative content analyses of the observer's notes and meeting documents consisted of two steps. In the first step, coding categories included "motivations" to partner or not partner, "cultures" of rehabilitation or punishment in jail, "cultures" of equal or unequal access to services in the community, and "commitments or non-commitments" to the partnership. All of the text that, on first impression, appeared to represent any of these themes were highlighted. In the second step, all highlighted passages were coded according to the variables discussed in the theoretical framework (Chapter 3) and the concepts shown in Tables 1 and 2 above. Any text that did not fit into the original framework was identified and given a new code. By using directed content analysis, evidence

may support or not support a theory (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Findings are presented in the Results chapter in qualitative text format.

### **Limitations**

There are several limitations to the survey methodology of this study. The methodological errors associated with surveys, the primary data collection method herein, include the following: measurement, coverage, sampling, and nonresponse (Dillman et al., 2009; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This section addresses each of these limitations in turn.

The first limitation of this study is measurement error which results from inaccurate answers to questionnaire items (Dillman et al., 2009). Measurement error exists in all research, and is defined as the difference between an individual's true score on an instrument and the scores obtained in a variety of conditions (Gall et al., 2007). Hypothetically, scores are composed of both the true score and measurement error. The measurement of constructs regarding organizations in reentry partnerships has been limited due to the lack of prior research informed by theoretical frameworks (See Chapter 2).

However, measurement validity and generalizability for the constructs and questionnaire items used in this study (i.e., motivations, culture, and level of commitment) have been strengthened in several ways. For example, the constructs and question items for this study have been derived from the existing theoretical and empirical literature (Gall et al., 2007). In addition to using Cronbach's alpha to provide evidence of reliability, statistical analyses were used to support construct validity by providing convergent evidence (i.e., positive correlation between

survey items that propose to measure the same construct) and discriminant evidence (i.e., low or negative correlation between questionnaire items that propose to measure different constructs).

The validity of the constructs was also strengthened by the use of qualitative content analysis of meeting observations and documents (Jick, 1979). The qualitative data provided independent measures which served to enrich the interpretation of statistical relationships, validate survey results, and resolve contradictory findings (Jick, 1979). By complimenting survey data with qualitative data, the convergence and discriminant evidence of measures may be extended.

Measurement error may also occur due to personality factors, such as social desirability, acquiescence bias, and deviance bias (Gall et al., 2007). Personality inventories have been developed and tested for self-report instruments which ask individuals about their personal experiences, thoughts, and feelings. However, these inventories may substantially add to the length of the instrument. For example, the shortest form of the Marlow-Crown Social Desirability Scale consists of six items (Fischer & Fick, 1993). To reduce bias which results from multiple personality factors, several inventories would have been required. This would have lengthened this study's survey substantially, which would have increased the risk of nonresponse error, discussed in more detail below. Therefore, personality inventories were not included in the survey.

Finally, errors in measurement may be the result of poor question wording or questionnaire construction (Dillman et al., 2009). Therefore, the Tailored Design Method of survey research was used to design questionnaire items and construction to further reduce measurement error.

The second limitation of this study is related to the extent to which the study's findings may be applied to the population from which it was based or to a population or setting beyond the current study. The methods of purposive and convenience sampling methods used to find informants and make observations of reentry meetings introduce problems associated with coverage, sampling, and nonresponse errors (Dillman et al., 2009).

Errors in coverage and sampling are considered a limitation due to the fact that the sample was not chosen randomly and individual informants were used to represent each organization. Coverage error refers to the problem with inadequate coverage of the entire population due to nonrandom samples, small samples, survey implementation problems, or differences between the sample list and population of interest (Dillman et al., 2009). Sampling error refers to the extent to which the difference between sampling statistics and population parameters may be estimated. Estimates of error and confidence levels cannot be calculated in this study due to the nonrandom sampling methods and small samples from each organization.

This study has addressed problems with survey coverage and sampling via its design. For example, by collecting the list of informants and organizations over a lengthy period of time (since September, 2010), a comprehensive list of organizations and informants was developed. In fact, the author would argue that the entire population or organizations working with jails in the three counties was included. The use of knowledgeable, individual informants as representatives of organizations does introduce a risk in selection bias (Seidler, 1974); however, appropriate precautions were taken to ensure representativeness by assessing informant competency (Kumar et al., 1993).

In addition to coverage and sampling errors, nonresponse errors are also related to the issue of generalizing the study's findings to the population of interest. Nonresponse error refers to the failure to receive a response from everyone who was sampled (Dillman et al., 2009). Nonresponse error exists when the nonrespondents are different from respondents in a way that is important to the study. Due to the voluntary participatory nature of the survey method, this type of error is inherent (Gall et al., 2007). Selection bias may result from non-participation or non-response, which has the potential to skew the results and limit the ability to generalize the results. However, as noted in the sample section above, non-response bias has been tested and reported.

This researcher mitigated nonresponse error by employing the Tailored Design Method for the implementation of the survey (Dillman et al., 2009). Each potential respondent was contacted on five occasions. Regardless of this researcher's efforts to reduce errors related to survey nonresponse, as well as coverage and sampling, findings of this study are limited. Results are limited to the local area reentry partnerships of Central Florida from which the sample was drawn, and may not be generalizable to other reentry partnerships beyond the geographical scope of this study.



## **CHAPTER 5: RESULTS**

This chapter presents the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data discussed in Chapter 4. The variables will be described and results of the bivariate quantitative analysis will be presented, followed by the multivariate. Comparisons will be made to prior studies. Then, the qualitative findings will be covered as to whether the variables of organizational motivations, culture, and relationships were absent or present as conceptualized. Most of the theoretical behaviors were supported; however, other patterns emerged which were not previously addressed by the theoretical framework in Chapter 3. These patterns suggest the need to incorporate the theory of “loose coupling” (Orton & Weick, 1990; Weick, 1976) in future research.

### **Quantitative Analyses**

This study extends the literature by developing and testing measures of organizations’ motivations to partner with jails in reentry. It has also included the rehabilitation measures used by the CJ-DATS (e.g., Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, Taxman, & Leukefeld, 2009) and partially confirmed the measures of interorganizational relationships by Fletcher and associates (2009) (See Chapter 4). The reliability and associations among those sets of variables were tested using correlations, Cronbach’s alpha, and exploratory factor analysis (i.e., principal component) (Pallant, 2007). Through this process, multiple question items loaded onto their respective theoretical constructs. The tested constructs and their question item descriptions are presented below. Respondents’ aggregated responses to the independent variables are described in Table 4 with means and standard deviations being reported.

Table 4

*Description of Independent Variables and Questionnaire Items*

Variables	Questionnaire Items	<i>N</i>	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Reciprocity	Mutual goals	67	1	5	3.96	.928
	Mutual clients	66	1	5	4.17	1.075
	Mutual services	66	1	5	3.89	1.111
Stability	Expand services to clients	64	1	5	4.52	.797
	Diversify funding sources	64	1	5	3.48	1.458
	Learn from others	65	1	5	4.26	.834
	Expand client base	64	1	5	3.69	1.207
Efficiency	Reduce costs through joint purchasing	66	1	5	2.95	1.451
	Reduce costs through joint training	65	1	5	3.22	1.409
	Reduce unnecessary redundancies in services	65	1	5	3.63	1.464
	Increase services to offenders without increasing costs to organization	66	1	5	4.23	1.093
Asymmetry	Retain decision making over service coordination	65	1	5	3.97	1.000
	Retain decision making over sharing of client information	65	1	5	4.12	1.038
	Retain decision making over leadership	65	1	5	3.66	1.108
	Retain decision making over grant funds	65	1	5	3.72	1.166
Legitimacy	Partnerships are better at assessing offender needs and risks	67	0	1	.91	.288
	Partnerships are better at implementing case management	67	0	1	.99	.122
	Partnerships are better at monitoring the behavior of released offenders	67	0	1	.75	.438

Variables	Questionnaire Items	<i>N</i>	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Rehabilitative Culture						
	Jails should match treatment to offenders' needs	66	1	5	4.48	.749
	Jails should be provide more work and educational programs	64	1	5	4.36	.824
	Jail should provide effective treatment for addictions and mental illness	65	1	5	4.63	.698
Unsubsidized Equal Access Culture						
	Equal access to Substance Abuse Treatment	65	0	1	.86	.348
	Equal access to Mental Health Treatment	65	0	1	.92	.269
	Equal access to Adult Education	64	0	1	.92	.270
	Equal access to Workforce Development	64	0	1	.86	.350
	Equal access to Physical Health Care	65	0	1	.86	.348
	Equal access to Faith-Based Support	64	0	1	.95	.213
Subsidized Equal Access Culture						
	Equal access to Welfare Benefits	64	0	1	.77	.427
	Equal access to Subsidized Housing	65	0	1	.78	.414
	Equal access to Subsidized Transportation	65	0	1	.80	.403

As discussed in Chapter 4, the exploratory factor analysis process yielded separate constructs indicating different levels of commitment to interorganizational relationships with jails. The levels were more various than the two levels (i.e., low structure and high structure) found by Fletcher and associates (2009), but did not specifically follow the theoretical constructs of networking, coordination, cooperation and collaboration proposed by Himmelman (1996). Rather, the constructs follow a more natural progression of relationship commitment which link elements between organizations. Prior research has touched on the concept of linking elements,

but followed different conceptualizations. In RPI, Taxman and associates chose to focus on the progressive stages of reentry, which models reentry as a transition from formal social controls inside a correctional facility to informal controls in the community after release. In the TJC initiative, Willison and associates (2012) lumped many of their factors, such as data collection practices and client-level information sharing, under the larger concept of “collaboration” rather than recognizing the differing levels of commitment. Both of these conceptualizations make the assumption that organizations should be highly integrated, which was one of the major criticisms discussed in Chapter 2.

The dependent variables used in subsequent analyses will follow the six factors produced by the exploratory factor analysis performed in Chapter 4 of this study. The elements linked by the constructs include: clients, services, service providers, data, program evaluations and grant funding, and management functions. The factors reflect real-world partnership development. The focus is on elements that connect organizations to each other, rather than elements that connect offenders to services. As a moderating variable, the partnerships between jails and other organizations are a means, rather than an end. The means are the elements that connect organizations together. Therefore, “clients” can link two organizations together simply through informal person-to-person contacts. The linking of “services” would require a comparatively closer relationship in which organizations meet to coordinate the content and schedules of their programs. At the next level, the linking of “service providers” through coordinated and collaborative training requires more formality than linking services. Likewise, linking “data” also requires moderately formal arrangements regarding tools and case management. Finally, the complexity of linking “program evaluations and grant funds,” as well as “management

functions,” requires a highly formal relationship commitment between organizations typically involving the sharing of costs. The constructs and their respective question items are presented in Table 5. Respondents’ aggregated responses to the dependent variable items are described with means and standard deviations being reported.

Table 5

*Description of Dependent Variables and Questionnaire Items*

Variables	Questionnaire Items	<i>N</i>	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Informal IOR with person-to- person contact linking clients	Network Referral – Make client/offender referrals on a case-by-case basis	49	0	1	.76	.434
	Network Needs – Share information on offenders’ needs for services on a case-by-case basis	47	0	1	.83	.380
	Network Treatment – Share information on offenders’ treatment services on a case-by-case basis	42	0	1	.69	.468
	Coordinate Services – Informally agreed to provide services to offenders in the jail or community	55	0	1	.76	.429

Variables	Questionnaire Items	<i>N</i>	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Low formality IOR between organizations linking services	Coordinate Meetings – Met to discuss missions, goals, major programs, and types of services	60	0	1	.78	.415
	Coordinate Program Content – Coordinated the content of a program to improve services for common clients	54	0	1	.65	.482
	Coordinate Program Schedules – Coordinated the schedules of a program to improve services for common clients	53	0	1	.58	.497
	Cooperative Service – Signed a formal agreement to provide services to offenders in the jail or community	57	0	1	.40	.495
Moderately formal IOR between organizations linking service providers	Coordinate Supervision – Informally reported problems with released offenders to an officer	48	0	1	.48	.505
	Coordinate Training – Attended a cross-training event hosted by another organization to increase knowledge and trust between your organization and the jail	55	0	1	.64	.485
	Collaborative Training – Hosted a cross-training event for your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners to increase knowledge and trust between members	58	0	1	.34	.479

Variables	Questionnaire Items	<i>N</i>	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Moderately formal IOR between organizations linking data	Coordinate Tools – Informally agreed to adopt the same standardized assessment tool for offenders	47	0	1	.40	.496
	Cooperative Tools – Signed a formal agreement with the jail to adopt the same standardized assessment tool for offenders	50	0	1	.18	.388
	Cooperative Case Management – Agreed to participate in a case management system with the jail	52	0	1	.27	.448
	Collaborative Case Management Contribute Data – Contributed case data for the implementation of an online case management system to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners	54	0	1	.19	.392
	Collaborative Case Management Hire Information Specialist – Contributed to the costs of hiring an information specialist to create an online case management system to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners	55	0	1	.05	.229
Highly formal IOR between organizations linking program evaluations and grant funding	Cooperative Funding – Dedicated personnel to apply for grant funding for your organization and the jail	57	0	1	.28	.453

Variables	Questionnaire Items	<i>N</i>	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Highly formal IOR between organizations linking management functions	Cooperative Evaluation – Agreed to a joint impact evaluation on offender outcomes with the jail	56	0	1	.13	.334
	Collaborative Funding – Contributed to the cost of a grant writer to apply for grant funds to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners	55	0	1	.15	.356
	Collaborative Evaluation – Agreed to a joint impact evaluation on offender outcomes with the jail and other re-entry partners	56	0	1	.16	.371
	Collaborative Program Director – Contributed to the costs of hiring a dedicated project director for a partnership between your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners	57	0	1	.14	.350
	Cooperative Program Budgetary Oversight – Shared budgetary oversight with the jail over a treatment program	54	0	1	.11	.317
	Cooperative Program Operational Oversight – Shared operation oversight with the jail over a treatment program	53	0	1	.15	.361
	Collaborative Universal Performance Measures – Helped develop and adhere to universal performance measures for your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners	56	0	1	.27	.447



### *Bivariate Analysis*

Testing the reliability and loadings of the factors was required to address the seven research questions and related hypotheses of this study. As discussed in Chapter 4, principal component analysis was used to test whether factors loaded onto a single construct. During this process, the original variables were transformed into a new, z-score variable with a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1 (Pallant, 2007). As shown in Tables 4 and 5 above, a total of eight independent variables and six dependent variables resulted from the exploratory factor analysis. These variables were transformed and used to examine the associations between independent and dependent variables using bivariate and multivariate analyses.

Control variables were also included in the analyses. Previous studies have suggested that organizational characteristics may affect interorganizational relationships (e.g., Lehman et al., 2009; Oser et al., 2009). The control variables included in this study were: type of organization (government or non-government), organization size (ordinal scale of full-time employees), publicly funded (no public funding, less than 50 percent, or 50 percent or more), and organization age (less than 20 years or 20 years or more).

Also, the qualitative analysis of this study indicated that there were county differences (See the Qualitative Analyses section of this chapter below). Therefore, organizations were coded according to the county in which they had interactions. If an organization had interactions with multiple counties ( $n = 8$ ), then judgment was used by the researcher's knowledge to code the organization to the county with the most interactions, which resulted in the following number of organizations being coded to the respective counties: County A = 30, County B = 30, and County C = 17. County B was used as the reference in the regression model.

To examine the degree of influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was used to describe the strength, direction, and statistical significance of the associations (Pallant, 2007). The original research questions predicted that organizations reporting higher levels of each of the independent variables (reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, legitimacy, rehabilitation, and equal access) would be more likely to report higher levels of the dependent variables of partnership commitment (i.e., informal linking of clients, low formality in linking services, moderately formal linking of service providers, moderately formal linking of data, highly formal linking of program evaluations and grant funding, and highly formal linking of management functions). The correlation coefficients, direction, and significance of the associations for all the variables are reported in Table 6.

Table 6 *Intercorrelations for Variables*

	Correlations																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1 Gov't Org		.492**	.446**	.322**	.129	.099	-.287*	-.300*	-.181	-.059	-.022	-.345**	-.163	-.182	-.301*	-.083	-.031	-.046	-.129	.047
2 Org Size (FTEs)			.645**	.473**	.056	.133	.024	-.144	-.148	.054	-.141	-.079	.072	-.014	-.166	.206	.097	.155	.318**	.084
3 Public Fund				.458**	.067	.051	-.094	-.112	-.131	.190	-.084	-.183	-.028	-.064	-.057	.110	.169	.055	.213	.079
4 Org Age					-.010	.132	-.230	-.237	-.275*	-.150	-.035	-.053	-.149	-.270*	-.172	.139	.077	-.004	.167	.101
5 County A						-.425**	-.201	-.065	-.053	-.075	-.104	-.010	.061	-.081	.026	-.097	-.056	-.074	.005	.068
6 County C							.139	.079	-.067	.058	.106	.027	.020	-.020	-.076	.282*	.244*	.286*	.164	.071
7 Reciprocity								.540**	.500**	.580**	-.049	.356**	.342**	.232	.460**	.270*	.177	.331**	.196	.302*
8 Stability									.729**	.567**	.074	.455**	.528**	.519**	.487**	.347**	.170	.323**	.207	.283*
9 Efficiency										.606**	.073	.244	.284*	.393**	.478**	.215	.123	.252*	.077	.296*
10 Asymmetry											.030	.116	.233	.348**	.471**	.300*	.174	.297*	.267*	.268*
11 Legitimacy												-.111	-.108	.150	.053	.005	.169	.210	.134	.138
12 Unsubsidized Equal Access													.680**	.313*	.363**	.333**	.159	.186	.174	.171
13 Subsidized Equal Access														.443**	.377**	.293*	.087	.190	.219	.228
14 Rehabilitation															.499**	.349**	.291*	.287*	.194	.174
15 Link Clients																.576**	.372**	.427**	.299*	.374**
16 Link Services																	.350**	.504**	.367**	.432**
17 Link Providers																		.455**	.479**	.455**
18 Link Data																			.655**	.673**
19 Program Eval and Grant Fund																				.594**
20 Link Mngmt																				

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 6, the informal linking of clients was negatively and significantly associated with one of the control variables. Government agencies were significantly less likely to link clients ( $p < .05$ ). As predicted, all but one of the theoretical independent variables were positively and significantly associated with informally linking clients ( $p < .01$ ). Legitimacy was positive but not significant, which holds true for its association with all the dependent variables. As shown in Table 4, there was a high degree of agreement by respondents. Therefore, the non-significant associations between legitimacy and the dependent variables may be due to a lack of variation in the measure. Reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, unsubsidized equal access, and subsidized equal access were all significantly associated with medium strengths (Pallant, 2007).

The next level of interorganizational relationship commitment was the low formality of linking services. The County C variable was positively and significantly associated with this dependent variable ( $p < .05$ ). Again, all of the theoretical independent variables were positively associated with the linking of services. Six of the predictors are significant ( $p < .05$ ) with strengths in the lower medium range (Pallant, 2007). Legitimacy and efficiency were not found to be significant.

In comparison to the first two independent variables, the moderate formality of linking service providers had small associations with most of the predictors. The directions of the associations were positive, as predicted. However, only rehabilitation was found to be significantly associated ( $p < .05$ ) with a strength of  $r = .291$ . The County C variable was positive and significant as well.

Next, County C and five of the theoretically predictive variables were statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) in their positive association the moderate formality of linking data. These included reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and rehabilitation. These five were of low to moderate strength. Although the other three predictors were not significant, they were also positively associated with higher levels of linking data.

The dependent variable of program evaluations and grant funding was interesting. All of the theoretical independent variables were positively associated as predicted; however, their strengths were relatively low with most of them not being significant. The only predictor that was significant ( $p < .05$ ) was asymmetry. Also, the control variable of organizational size was also significantly associated ( $p < .01$ ) with the higher commitment of program evaluations and grant funding. With moderate strengths of  $r = .267$  for asymmetry and  $r = .318$  for organizational size, this suggests that larger organizations are reporting higher levels of asymmetry (e.g., authority over decision making and resources) and higher levels of formality in linking organizations together through evaluations and grant funds. Moreover, the negative association with the control variable of organizational type, although not significant, may indicate that government agencies are less likely than non-government agencies to be engaging in these types of relationships.

The final dependent variable of highly formal relationships to link management functions was also positively associated with all of the theoretical predictors. With moderately low strengths, reciprocity, stability, efficiency, and asymmetry were significantly ( $p < .05$ ) associated. Like program evaluation and grant funding, it seems that higher levels of having a rehabilitative culture are not significantly associated with the high formality of linking

management functions. However, rehabilitation had remained significant with the four lower levels of relationship commitment with moderate to weaker strengths ranging from  $r = .499$  to  $.287$ .

The seven hypotheses presented at the beginning of Chapter 4 predicted that reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, legitimacy, equal access (unsubsidized and subsidized), and rehabilitation would be positively associated with the various levels of relationship commitment to jails.<sup>2</sup> The correlation results in Table 6 support the hypotheses' predictions for all but legitimacy. Generally, organizations that reported having higher levels of predictors also reported having higher levels of relationship commitment. The strongest predictor of relationship commitment was asymmetry, followed by rehabilitation, stability, reciprocity, efficiency, equal access, and legitimacy. Specifically, asymmetry was significantly associated ( $p < .05$ ) with five levels of commitment (i.e., linking clients, services, data, evaluations, and management) with strengths ranging from  $r = .267$  to  $.471$ . Rehabilitation was significantly associated ( $p < .05$ ) with four levels of commitment (i.e., linking clients, services, providers, and data) with strengths ranging from  $r = .287$  to  $.499$ . Stability was significantly associated ( $p < .05$ ) with four levels of commitment (i.e., linking clients, services, data, and management) with strengths ranging from  $r = .283$  to  $.487$ . Reciprocity was significantly associated ( $p < .05$ ) with four levels of commitment (i.e., linking clients, services, data, and management) with strengths ranging from  $r = .270$  to  $.460$ . Efficiency was significantly associated ( $p < .05$ ) with three levels

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<sup>2</sup> Originally, the dependent variables of relationship commitment in the hypothesis statements were expressed as "networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration". Subsequent to the exploratory factor analysis, however, the dependent variables of commitment followed a similar progression of relationship complexity, and are expressed as: informal IOR with person-to person contacts linking clients; low formality IOR between organizations linking services; moderately formal IOR between organizations linking service providers; moderately formal IOR between organizations linking data; highly formal IOR between organizations linking program evaluations and grant funding; and highly formal IOR between organizations linking management functions.

of commitment (i.e., linking clients, data, and management) with strengths ranging from  $r = .252$  to  $.478$ . Finally, the two equal access predictors (subsidized and unsubsidized) were both significantly associated ( $p < .05$ ) with two levels of commitment (i.e., linking clients and services) with strengths ranging from  $r = .293$  to  $.377$ . Legitimacy had positive associates with the dependent variables, but none of them were significant ( $p < .05$ ).

In sum, all of the predictors were positively associated with the dependent variables, as hypothesized. Except for legitimacy, all of the predictors had low to moderate strengths across the dependent variables, while being significantly associated with at least two dependent variables. Legitimacy in partnerships had low correlations and was not significant with any of the various levels of relationship commitment. As a measure, legitimacy did not perform as well as the other constructs during the exploratory factor analysis (See Chapter 4) most likely due to a lack of variation. It may be that the high degree of agreement by respondents on those question items reflected more of a constant, rather than a variable.

### ***Multiple Regression***

Bivariate analysis indicated that the predictors are positively associated with the various levels of interorganizational relationships. Therefore, multiple regression may be used to permit for a more sophisticated exploration (Pallant, 2007). Multiple regression allows researchers to test how well a set of variables is able to predict an outcome (Adjusted  $R^2$  for small samples), as well as indicating which individual variables make the strongest contribution (Beta) in explaining the dependent variable and whether an independent variable is making a significant ( $p < .05$ ) unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable.

However, detecting unique contributions of single predictors may be difficult if they overlap with other independent variables in the model (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Pallant, 2007). As predicted by Oliver (1990), the theoretical constructs used in this study are associated with each other. As shown in Table 6, the strengths range from low to high, with several of them being significant ( $p < .05$ ). “The existence of substantial correlation among a set of [independent variables] creates difficulties” with multicollinearity (Cohen & Cohen, 1983, p. 115). Consequently, the coefficients of highly correlated predictors are reduced when they are analyzed simultaneously in a regression model.

Using multiple regression in this study is further complicated by the size of the sample relative to the number of predicting variables. Although the sample size ( $N = 68$ ) is relatively large for a study using organizations as the level of analysis, it is small for the purposes of performing multiple regression. Although different guidelines exist to determine the number of cases needed for multiple regression, 15 subjects per predictor would be a minimal estimate (Pallant, 2007). A sample size of  $N = 68$  would allow for the use of 4 predictors. After model fitting (discussed in the next section), the multiple regressions will contain 9 predictors. Technically, there is not enough power with the current sample size relative to the number of predicting variables being used in the models to draw definitive conclusions. Regardless of the issues with significantly correlated predictors, low sample size, and number of predictors, the results of the bivariate analyses suggest that the associations between the variables should be further explored through multiple regression.



### *Model Fitting*

The exploratory nature of the analysis began with each of the six dependent variables being regressed on the four controls, two county, and eight independent variables. Sequential regression was used in each of the six separate models with the control variables being entered first, and the two county and eight theoretical variables being entered second (Pallant, 2007). This two-step process allows for the determination as to whether the theoretical variables are able to explain variance beyond the effects of the controls.

When performing multiple regression, SPSS performs collinearity diagnostics for the examination of problems with multicollinearity (Pallant, 2007). Specifically, high values of the variance inflation factor (VIF) suggest that there may be multicollinearity between independent variables. Three of the controls variables, organizational size, public funding, and age, all had high VIF values. Theoretically, these three variables would be closely related. Larger organizations are more likely to be older and receive public funding. The decision was made to omit the public funding and age variables from subsequent analyses due to collinearity. All six models were re-run and reassessed having omitted two of the control variables, but retaining the two controls of organization (i.e., government) and size. The VIFs for the two control variables were greatly improved.

Reassessment of the VIFs in the models containing two controls suggested collinearity problems with four theoretical variables: stability, efficiency, unsubsidized equal access, and subsidized equal access. Furthermore, the standardized Beta coefficients in some of the models were indicating negative associations which may also suggest multicollinearity. As discussed in Chapter 3, the factors which affect relationship formation between organizations may each be

sufficient, but it is more likely that they are interactive (Oliver, 1990). Indeed, correlations between the independent variables were significant and moderately strong, with Stability being significantly associated with the greatest number of independent variables and having the strongest association with Efficiency ( $r = .729$ ). Stability had the highest VIF value in the multiple regression model and was omitted. The six models were re-run and reassessed. The VIF for the Efficiency variable was reduced to a more satisfactory value indicating that it had collinearity with Stability.

The omission of two control variables and Stability had little effect on the VIF values for the two Equal Access variables (Subsidized and Unsubsidized). They remained relatively high and of equal value. However, inspection of the Beta values indicated that the Subsidized Equal Access variable was negative in most of the models suggesting a problem with collinearity or a negative association. It was subsequently omitted from the six models, which resulted in a satisfactory reduction of the VIF for the remaining Unsubsidized Equal Access variable.

Now that two control and two theoretical variables had been omitted from the six models, each model was re-inspected. VIF values were satisfactory. However, the theoretical variable of Efficiency had a negative Beta coefficient values in four of the models, despite having been positively associated with the dependent variables in the correlations (See Table 6 above). Theoretically, this result was both expected and explainable. As noted in Chapter 3, the construct of Efficiency is derived from transactional cost theory (Oliver, 1990). Organizations may partner with others in an effort to reduce costs through actions such as joint training and purchasing. However, the driving motivation is to reduce costs. Organizations must also consider the costs associated with partnering, such as contract planning and monitoring. If the

organization feels the costs of the partnership or providing a good or service is too expensive and they can function without it, the organization may rationally choose to not partner or provide the service (Alexander, 1995; Williamson, 1981, 1985). Therefore, the variable of Efficiency was subsequently omitted from further analyses based on empirical and theoretical bases, in addition to the variables of public funding, age, Stability, and Subsidized Equal Access.

### ***The Models***

Two of the multiple regression models were significant ( $p < .05$ ) indicating that the predicted effect was supported for two dependent variables: informal linking of clients and low formality of linking services. A third model of moderate formality of linking data was moderately significant ( $p = .07$ ). Interestingly, the model for linking program evaluation and grant funding which included only the control variables was significant ( $p = .02$ ), but lost its significance after the sequential addition of the county and theoretical variables ( $p = .14$ ). The tables for these four models will be presented and discussed in further detail below. Two models which failed to be significant included: moderate formality of linking service providers which explained 2 percent of the total variance ( $F(9, 54) = 1.12, p > .05$ ) and highly formal linking of management functions with 3 percent variance explained ( $F(9, 54) = 1.18, p > .05$ ) (See Appendix B for non-significant model Tables). The theoretical predictors in those models were not significant ( $p > .05$ ), but were all positively associated with the dependent variables with low strength.

The first significant model of informal interorganizational relationships with person-to-person contacts to link clients explained 36 percent of the total variance ( $F(9, 54) = 4.94, p < .005$ ) (See Table 7). In comparison to the control variable model, the county and theoretical

independent variables explained an additional 31 percent of variance. The only significant variable that made a unique contribution was rehabilitation, which was positively associated with linking clients with moderate strength (beta = .32,  $p < .05$ ). None of the other theoretical variables (i.e., reciprocity, asymmetry, legitimacy, unsubsidized equal access, and rehabilitation) were significant, ( $p > .05$ ), but were positively associated, as predicted, with weak strength.

Table 7

*Regression Results: Informal IOR with Person-to-Person Contacts Linking Clients Regressed on Two Control Variables, Counties A and C, Reciprocity, Asymmetry, Legitimacy, Unsubsidized Equal Access, and Rehabilitation*

Variable	Beta ( $\beta$ )	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1			
Government Organization	-0.40	-2.26	.03
Organization Size	0.22	1.25	.22
Step 2			
Government Organization	-0.12	-.76	.45
Organization Size	-0.06	-.31	.76
County A	0.18	1.34	.19
County C	-0.03	-.23	.82
Reciprocity	0.21	1.51	.14
Asymmetry	0.23	1.75	.09
Legitimacy	0.04	.35	.73
Unsubsidized Equal Access	0.13	1.10	.28
Rehabilitation	0.32	2.72	.01

*Notes:* Adjusted  $R^2 = .05$  for the two control variables in Model 1;  $F(2, 61) = 2.70, p = > .05$ .  
Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.36$  for all variables in Model 2;  $F(9, 54) = 4.94, p < .001$ .

The second model that was significant was low formality interorganizational relationships between organizations linking services which explained 17 percent of the total

variance ( $F(9, 54) = 2.39, p < .05$ ) (See Table 8). The control variables explained 4 percent of the variance in the model, with the theoretical models explaining an additional 13 percent. None of the variables made a unique, statistically significant contribution ( $p > .05$ ). The theoretical variables of asymmetry, unsubsidized equal access, and rehabilitation were positively associated with the outcome, while reciprocity and legitimacy were negative. Overall, the strengths were low.

Table 8

*Regression Results: Low Formality IOR between Organizations Linking Services Regressed on Two Control Variables, Counties A and C, Reciprocity, Asymmetry, Legitimacy, Unsubsidized Equal Access, and Rehabilitation*

Variable	Beta ( $\beta$ )	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1			
Government Organization	-0.32	-1.80	.08
Organization Size	0.36	2.07	.04
Step 2			
Government Organization	-0.12	-.67	.50
Organization Size	0.19	.91	.37
County A	-0.10	-.67	.51
County C	0.19	1.33	.19
Reciprocity	-0.05	-.29	.78
Asymmetry	0.20	1.34	.19
Legitimacy	-0.03	-.24	.81
Unsubsidized Equal Access	0.23	1.67	.10
Rehabilitation	0.21	1.55	.13

Notes: Adjusted  $R^2 = .04$  for the two control variables in Model 1;  $F(2, 61) = 2.26, p > .05$ .  
Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.17$  for all variables in Model 2;  $F(9, 54) = 2.39, p < .05$ .

A third model in this exploratory study was found to be moderately significant. Moderately formal interorganizational relationships between organizations to link data had a  $p = .07$ . The initial model with the control variables explained less than one percent of variance, and the whole model explained 11 percent of variance ( $F(9, 54) = 1.91, p > .05$ ) (See Table 9). None of the variables made a unique, statistically significant contribution ( $p > .05$ ). In this model, all of the theoretical predictors were positive and weak.

Table 9

*Regression Results: Moderately Formal IOR between Organizations Linking Data Regressed on Two Control Variables, Counties A and C, Reciprocity, Asymmetry, Legitimacy, Unsubsidized Equal Access, and Rehabilitation*

Variable	Beta ( $\beta$ )	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1			
Government Organization	-0.20	-1.11	.27
Organization Size	0.23	1.25	.22
Step 2			
Government Organization	-0.02	-.08	.93
Organization Size	-0.01	-.03	.98
County A	0.01	.07	.95
County C	0.21	1.40	.17
Reciprocity	0.19	1.15	.26
Asymmetry	0.11	.70	.49
Legitimacy	0.18	1.47	.15
Unsubsidized Equal Access	0.07	.48	.63
Rehabilitation	0.16	1.17	.25

*Notes:* Adjusted  $R^2 = .00$  for the two control variables in Model 1;  $F(2, 61) = .836, p > .05$ .  
Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.12$  for all variables in Model 2;  $F(9, 54) = 1.91, p > .05$ .

The final model to be discussed is the highly formal interorganizational relationships between organizations linking program evaluations and grant funding. Interestingly, the model for the control variables of government organization and size, which were entered in the first step of the regression, was significant and explained 9 percent of the variance ( $F(2, 61) = 4.26, p < .05$ ) (See Table 10). The addition of the two county and five theoretical variables at step two of the regression actually reduced the variance explained to 8 percent of variance and rendered the model insignificant ( $F(9, 54) = 1.59, p > .05$ ). Except for reciprocity, all of the theoretical

predictors were positively associated with the dependent variable. None of the variables made a unique, statistically significant contribution in the whole model ( $p > .05$ ). The strengths of the variables ranged from weak to moderate.

Table 10

*Regression Results: Highly Formal IOR between Organizations Linking Program Evaluations and Grant Funding Regressed on Two Control Variables, Counties A and C, Reciprocity, Asymmetry, Legitimacy, Unsubsidized Equal Access, and Rehabilitation*

Variable	Beta ( $\beta$ )	$t$	$p$
Step 1			
Government Organization	-0.45	-2.65	.01
Organization Size	0.47	2.74	.01
Step 2			
Government Organization	-0.40	-2.11	.04
Organization Size	0.48	2.14	.04
County A	-0.09	-.56	.58
County C	0.02	.11	.91
Reciprocity	-0.10	-.60	.55
Asymmetry	0.26	1.64	.11
Legitimacy	0.13	1.06	.29
Unsubsidized Equal Access	0.09	.65	.52
Rehabilitation	0.02	.16	.87

*Notes:* Adjusted  $R^2 = .09$  for the two control variables in Model 1;  $F(2, 61) = 4.26, p < .05$ .  
Adjusted  $R^2 = .08$  for all variables in Model 2;  $F(9, 54) = 1.59, p > .05$ .

In summary, results from the multiple regression models were informative and mixed. The fitting of the models resulted in the omission of several variables for theoretical and collinearity purposes. According to transactional cost theory, organizations that are concerned about expenditures such as human resources time or money may rationally choose to not



participate in partnerships (Alexander, 1995; Williamson, 1981, 1985). Also, theoretical constructs which explain organizational behavior may interact with each other (Oliver, 1990). Both of these hypotheses resulted in the deletion of two predictors from the models: stability and efficiency. Collinearity concerns also resulted in the omission of public funding, age, and subsidized equal access variables from the models.

The two models depicting the lowest levels of relationship commitment, the linking of clients and services, were found to be significant and explained 36 percent and 17 percent of total variance, respectively. The only significant predictor, however, was rehabilitation in the linking of clients. One of the models, the linking of data, was moderately significant ( $p = .07$ ) and explained 12 percent of the total variance, with none of the individual variables being significant. The other three models, linking grants and evaluation, linking providers, and linking management, were not found to be significant.

In all, six dependent variables were each regressed on nine independent variables. Of the six models, two were significant, one was moderately significant, and three were not significant. A total of 54 independent variables were assessed, with only 3 of them being significant. Of the theoretical variables, 3 of them had negative regression coefficients while the other 51 were positive. This small number of statistically significant and negative coefficients would have been produced by chance alone (3 of 54).

The hypotheses proposed at the beginning of Chapter 4 were not supported by the multivariate analyses. That is, none of the predictors (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, legitimacy, rehabilitative culture or equal access) were found to be significantly associated with the dependent variables. However, one clear pattern which emerged from the six

models was the predominantly positive associations of the theoretical variables with the various levels of relationships organizations have with jails. Overall, higher degrees of reciprocity, asymmetry, legitimacy, unsubsidized equal access, and rehabilitation indicated higher degrees of partnering with jails, as predicted. The lack of significant contributors to the model variances is most likely a function of using a small sample size with a larger number of predictors. Teasing out unique contributions of single predictors will require larger sample sizes (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Pallant, 2007), particularly due to the predicted interactions between the variables (Oliver, 1990).

### **Qualitative Analyses**

To further explore the relationships between organizations, content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data from meeting observations (n = 23), documents such as meeting minutes (n = 31) and other social artifacts (n = 56), and open-ended survey questions. The theoretical framework found in Chapter 3 was used to conceptualize the themes and patterns of the qualitative data. This type of directed content analysis uses deductive reasoning for coding to validate or extend study findings, as well as supporting or not supporting a theory (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

Coding involved a two-step process. First, the major concepts of motivation, culture, and level of commitment were coded, and then their respective dimensions. The concept of motivations included the dimensions of reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy. Culture was coded according to beliefs of rehabilitation in jail, as well as notions of equal or unequal access to services in the community. Finally, the dependent variable of level of

commitment included the dimensions of networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration. Text that did not fit into these categories was given a new code.<sup>3</sup>

The qualitative data provide supporting evidence for the concepts of organizational motivations and levels of commitment and their respective dimensions. Culture, as it was conceptualized, was not visibly evident. The remainder of this chapter will present the results of the qualitative data analysis. First, data supporting the dimensions of organizational motivations will be presented. Next, findings for culture and levels of commitment will be presented.

Then, and perhaps more interestingly, patterns in organizational behavior that were not conceptualized in Chapter 3 will be presented. The data suggest that the relationships between organizations were influenced both externally and internally. Using a case study approach, the three counties will be analyzed as to the external forces which influenced each of them to hold formal reentry meetings. Only one county was able to sustain those meetings throughout the duration of this study, however. An exploration of the internal characteristics (i.e., partnership structure, leadership goals, and events) which may have influenced the counties' abilities or

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<sup>3</sup> During coding, the concepts of organizational motivations and levels of commitment were not mutually exclusive. Distinctions were made between the sharing of resources and asymmetry. As discussed in Chapter 3, organizations have a higher level of commitment to their relationship if they share resources to benefit each other (i.e., cooperation) or the collective partnership (i.e., collaboration) (Himmelman, 1996). For purposes of coding, these higher levels of commitment were accomplished by organizations that shared their own resources, not external grant funds. That is, sharing temporary, external resources was not coded as cooperation or collaboration. Rather, any attempts to acquire external grants and power over the disbursement of resources, such as funds or information, were coded as asymmetry. Obtaining scarce resources or centralizing the control over those resources are characteristics of asymmetry (Oliver, 1990; Provan & Kenis, 2007). In comparison, cooperation and collaboration is achieved by the sharing of (not obtaining and controlling) human, technical and financial resources (Himmelman, 1996).

It was possible that the same event could be coded as both asymmetry (a motivation) and cooperation or collaboration (level of commitment). For example, two organizations had co-sponsored a training event open to the community, but one organization spent down grant funds to finance its contribution, while another organization donated staff time, facilities, or other resources which were expensed from its own operating budget. Thus, the first organization was coded with asymmetry due to its control over external resources as its motivation for participation. The second organization, however, was coded as being collaborative by donating its own resources to an event which benefits several organizations that did not contribute.

inabilities to sustain meetings will be presented. The themes of external pressures and the termination of formal partnerships support an underlying theory which potentially explains the divide between the idealistic “continuum of care” touted by some (Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002; Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003) and the realities of partnering with rule-based criminal justice agencies. As discussed below, it is predicted that the gap between ideal models and empirical reality may not be bridgeable due to “loose coupling” (Crank & Langworthy, 1996; Hagan, 1988; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Orton & Weick, 1990). Finally, this chapter will conclude with a summary of the findings.

### *Motivations*

Qualitative data supported all the theoretical variations which motivate organizations to voluntarily enter into partnerships, as outlined in Chapter 3. The dimensions of reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy were all confirmed in all three counties. The constructs were found to be exhaustive, as all organizational motivations fit into the proposed categories.

However, the various motivations were not found to be mutually exclusive. Although the dimensions of organizational motivations to partner will be discussed separately, theoretical overlaps became evident during meeting observations. For example, discussions about writing grant proposals resulted in multiple viewpoints being expressed, such as concerns about the legitimacy of ‘chasing grants rather than focusing on serving offenders’ needs,’ the inefficiency of investing time in drafting grant proposals that are not submitted or won, determining mutually beneficial reciprocal goals, and deciding which organizations in the community have resources

that are important to accomplishing the partnership's goals. The qualitative themes of reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy are detailed below.

### ***Reciprocity***

According to Oliver (1990), reciprocity refers to the pursuit of mutual goals through consensus and cooperation between organizations. The concept is grounded in exchange theory which characterizes the formations of linkages as being harmonious, equitable, and mutually supportive. In this study, reciprocity was observed when members expressed a desire to help others obtain their goals, as well as times when mutually beneficial goals and functions were questioned. One participating organization expressed its desire to help the partnership by aiding in grant writing. It was clear that this was an organizational perspective, as the representative stated that his departmental leader was 'committed to doing what the county needed.' In an e-mail to a different county, the same organization asked for a meeting to discuss the reentry project and "how we can best work with you to achieve our objectives and gather information that would be of value to you in developing your partnerships and programs." By participating in the grant application and project planning processes, partnering organizations would be required to collect data which would have been mutually beneficial to all parties.

In a separate instance, one community-based organization questioned whether it wanted to continue a partnership with the jail after investing more than two years in the relationship. The organization's leader felt that the partnership's goals and plans seemed to be "constantly changing." The leader pointedly asked, "Where do you see us? What do you see as our role?" Feelings of frustration were also expressed over the lengthy process of implementation. "I know things move slowly, but there are a lot of other things we can be involved in." However, the

desire for a reciprocal relationship was clear when the statement was followed up with, “I keep holding the line because this is where we want to be.”

Alternatively, limited reciprocity was also displayed. In an attempt to invite an organization to partner in a Second Chance grant application, one jail found that the invitee was not interested. The invitee restricted its participation to the sub-population of jail inmates with whom they were already contractually obligated to serve. They were not willing to expand their reciprocal relationships outside of the pre-existing contractual boundaries. Indeed, it was rumored that the organization was partnering with others to compete against the jail for the same grant, suggesting that there were stronger reciprocal relationships with another organization.

### ***Stability***

According to resource theory, organizations may form relationships as a response to planning and implementing complex social programs (Oliver, 1990). Incorporating reentry into the system of criminal justice would require the complex process of linking information and resources. In an effort to plan for such linkages, each of the three counties in this study developed Strategic Plans. Planning discussions illuminated the complexity of reentry concerning several issues, such as determining target populations, adopting and implementing of assessment tools, and sharing data with partners.

Similar to prior studies (Taxman et al., 2002b), several discussions between jails and community-based organizations centered on the complexity of planning reentry for a diverse jail population. Community partners were not always aware that jails must deal with inmate populations that typically have short stays (48 hours or less) and are a mixture of both pre-sentenced and sentenced. Moreover, the average length of stay is relatively short for program

planning (e.g., 20 days). Inmates may be divided according to whether they are in community corrections and whether they are being electronically monitored or in work release. Jail members spent time educating community members about jail populations and their relative complexity, as compared to prison populations. As noted by one partnership member, the ‘state prison system has time to develop plans for release, which begins one year before release. Jails don’t have that kind of time.’

One jail dealt with the issue of population targeting by opening a reentry pod through which all inmates would flow while they were incarcerated. However, some community-based partners did not agree with that approach, and felt that targeted intervention was the better tactic. ‘Studies show that throwing services at people who aren’t ready to make changes in their lives can make things worse.’ Focusing on the adoption and implementation of an assessment system to determine inmates’ needs was the universal approach used by all three jurisdictions to deal with the issue of determining the target population. Rather than focusing on defining the “reentry population,” the emphasis was shifted to evaluating offenders’ needs.

In conjunction with using assessments, one jurisdiction decided to create a system that enabled multiple organizations to share the data for case management purposes. However, this produced a new set of problems. In 2011, the reentry task force formed an assessment committee which explored various assessment tools, such as the PACT, TCU, LSIR, CAIS, and JAILS. They settled on the Ohio Risk Assessment System (ORAS), as it was free and could be automated. Although the tools were free in the public domain, planning required investigations into an online vendor to store and process the instruments to make them available to more than one organization. This was particularly important, as the jail was administratively separated

from community corrections making sharing information between two correctional agencies more difficult. Also, a pilot study was performed to assess whether services existed in the community that matched the offenders' needs. Difficulties in obtaining and coordinating office space, technology, and a vendor resulted in using the paper version of the instrument for the pilot study. Moreover, the jail's legal counsel claimed that plans to have the data stored off-site in the future created a conflict with the FBI data agreement. After investing two years into the project, the jail nearly abandoned it due to logistical and legal obstacles.

This exemplifies the dual edge of stability. Prior research has examined the fragmentation of authority and funding in criminal justice agencies (Crank & Langworthy, 1996). Like policing, correctional agencies are often fragmented which increases organizational and system complexity. Including non-criminal justice agencies to create a "Reentry Partnership Continuum" as proposed by Taxman and associates (2002) increases the complexity even further. Organizations may attempt to share information to create stability to address a larger problem, but the logistical processes of formally sharing information across organizations may yield one of two results. Either, the organizations will succeed and form an interorganizational relationship based on sharing data. Or, they may decide to keep the status quo and remain fragmented due to the complexity of the situation.

### *Efficiency*

Organizations may be motivated to work in partnership with others as a way of reducing their costs (Oliver, 1990). Members of the reentry partnerships in this study expressed concerns about gaps in services, reducing redundant services, and reducing or externalizing costs.



Generally, costs were discussed within the context of jail costs of supervising offenders, assessing offender needs, and providing social service programs.

Counties discussed methods for reducing the costs of monitoring inmates and keeping costs low for social service provisions. One county noted that jail and community costs could be reduced if GPS monitoring was used more often. ‘It costs \$79.41 per day in jail, as compared to \$8 a day for GPS. So, GPS is cost effective.’ Moreover, it was mentioned that there are ‘intangible costs since an inmate cannot work and spend money in the community.’ Another county noted that there was a ‘gap in services because jail programs were less than 1 percent of the jail budget.’ Efforts to win grant funding to increase jail services had been unsuccessful, so the discussions turned to streamlining referrals to service providers in the community. The costs of service provision would be externalized to the community and referrals would be made to partners that already received tax or grant money to provide those community services.

Reentry partners also discussed reducing costs, service gaps, and service redundancies in the areas of assessment utilization and program provisions. The costs associated with using risk assessment tools was at the forefront of early planning discussions. One county quickly dismissed the incorporation of risk assessments into reentry planning due to the expense. “Five dollars for each assessment is too much, especially if no services exist to fill the need.” In comparison, another jail had been using an assessment tool, but found it ‘time intensive and costly.’ When the contract expired with the private vendor, they began using a free public domain instrument. Although reentry partners had discussed the redundancies in assessing inmates’ needs in both the jail and community, the relationships between the jail and community

service providers had not progressed to the point that they could address the issue by actually sharing assessment data.

All three counties developed resource directories as a means of identifying and closing service gaps between jails and the community; however, one county also used it to address service redundancies and shop around for less expensive alternatives. This jail created a reentry pod which was responsible for coordinating services and developing a course structure. Rather than “opening the flood gates” and inviting everyone in the community to provide services, the program committee had been assessing programs for several months and compiling a resource directory. When the reentry pod opened, the partners used their resource directory of service programs to determine the jail’s program curriculum using a high school model of “core courses” and “electives.” Core courses were structured around the average time inmates spend in jail (approximately 20 days). Those inmates that stayed longer could participate in more electives, as well as having the opportunity to serve as program mentors. Moreover, mornings would focus on classroom lectures, while the afternoons were reserved for activities.

Developing a resource directory also allowed the partnership to shop for alternative service providers. The jail was looking for ‘a shorter, less expensive version of MRT [Moral Reconciliation Therapy] because many inmates do not want to do the MRT because it’s so demanding.’ In reply, a partner recommended “Thinking for a Change [T4C] which is free and materials can be printed off the web. But, there is an expense to have a certified trainer.” In later discussions, expense continued to be an issue when comparing MRT and T4C. “MRT is expensive, but more flexible.” Yet, ‘T4C breaks it down to the basics and is relatively easy to implement. The only thing is that you need two trainers.’ When it was mentioned that not all

inmates can finish T4C, it was noted that a community-based partner was willing and able to “pick them up” and continue the program after release.

The county was also able to shop around for services to help inmates obtain valid state identifications. Without proper identification, inmates had greater difficulty finding legitimate means of supporting themselves and their families. In response to the state’s difficult process of conferring valid forms of identification, one non-profit organization had been created to help marginalized citizens. The non-profit quoted a cost of \$200 for each inmate. Although the costs would be charged to the inmate fund, rather than taxpayers, jail officials felt that the \$200 fee was too expensive. So, the jail decided to seek the help of the Department of Vital Statistics and local health department to obtain the documents required to get a valid form of state identification. Although it was not as convenient, the costs would be greatly reduced.

### *Asymmetry*

Organizations are motivated to gain and control resources, information, and decision-making as a means of managing their independence and interdependencies (Oliver, 1990). Centralized control indicates that the governance structure of a partnership is more asymmetrical, while decentralized control indicates a more symmetrical structure (Provan & Kenis, 2007). Partnership members from all three research sites used their partnerships in attempts to gain grants and property, as well as recruiting partners and volunteers.

All three reentry partnerships investigated and applied for multiple grants in efforts to gain funding and technical assistance, sometimes in competition with each other. One county in particular applied for numerous grants between 2009 and 2012 in hopes of bringing in additional resources. At one point, they had applied for at least five different grants in the same year. It

was apparent that the grants were written in an effort to bring in federal dollars, as the reviewers of a 2009 application noted that ‘the applicants were trying to reduce costs, but provided no supporting information in the problem statement...In the outcomes section, program effectiveness was proposed to be measured by cost reductions.’ On more than one occasion, members of county agencies commented that they were instructed by the mayor to ‘strategically look at increasing programs at the jail by using grants and non-traditional resources.’ As one member remarked, ‘we need to do better planning because we’ve just been pulling things out of our ears and doing a remarkably bad job of doing it.’ They did manage to win a relatively small planning grant in 2011 which was used in part to provide training to jail staff, local correctional agencies, and local community-based partners at a regional level. The management of those funds remained asymmetrical, as the jail had administrative and fiscal responsibility.

There was one other grant awarded to another county during this study. Interestingly, this county’s approach to grant applications was very different. As one member noted, “I can tell you that groups do chase the grants. We try to choose our projects and then go after grants that fit our projects, rather than choosing a grant and trying to tailor the projects to the grant.” This group had investigated other grants such as Second Chance, but decided that they were not a good fit and did not submit applications. However, they did determine that the Edward Byrne Memorial Grant was a good fit, and won an award. The funds were used to pilot their risk assessment system. The third county in this study had also applied for grants, but did not receive any awards.

As noted in Chapter 3, grant administration may appear to be asymmetrical with jails being the central leaders; however, it is possible that the relationships are more symmetrical as

partners benefit in other ways. In this study, several partners used their relationships with a jail to facilitate the acquisition of grants and property. This researcher attended one grant meeting by a partner to apply for funds from the Department of Labor, with the jail playing a supportive role rather than one of administration. In a separate grant, a local state college obtained grant money to provide GED and Career Pathways educational programming to local citizens, which included inmates. In yet another grant, a local health care provider received funds to open a resource center which would serve client referrals from the local court and probation office, as well as other client sources. Finally, another organization was attempting to acquire an abandoned building to house and serve clients in the community. The organization used its relationship with another member to gain access to the local Public Safety Coordinating Council to solicit support for the project. The support of community leaders was important, as the organization was trying to convince the municipality to donate the property. The building would then be owned by a for-profit spin-off of the non-profit and would be used as a means of financially supporting the non-profit.

Jails and their partners also used their relationships to recruit more partners. All three partnerships intermittently discussed the benefits of recruiting various organizations to partner with them. Many of the proposed partners were criminal justice agencies, such as police and state attorneys, but other potential invitees would bring diverse skills and resources to the table. For example, it was suggested that the Department of Labor should be invited because they “control lots of money around reentry.’ Typically, an organization would be invited to help in the provision of services inside and outside the jail. One jail repeatedly announced they ‘needed to engage more than FBOs, particularly to meet housing and employment needs.’

However, there was also a pattern of learning to control who was invited. ‘We want to be careful about bringing in community providers because some of them are very small and lack capacity. We want to be the ones who “drive the bus.”’ ‘We brought several to the table before, but lost several due to a lack of direction.’ After losing the interest of initial partners due to a lack of vision, recruitments for partners were later limited to those that had a strategic purpose. One county learned to follow up discussions about inviting an organization with a question as to whether anyone at the table had an informal, personal contact within the targeted organization. Using personal contacts as a means to invite organizations to the table, at least briefly, was more successful as the partnership gained focus and could articulate how the new partner would fit in.

Member partners would also use reentry meetings as an opportunity to solicit volunteers. It was rather common to receive an e-mail or hear an announcement at a task force meeting about an organization’s special event which required volunteers. At one meeting, it was suggested that interns and graduate students could be used to provide educational programs and other services in the jail. One member (not a jail) even recommended that the local university create class projects to recruit sponsors for jail inmates. Although this was an example of an earlier “Hail Mary” approach to recruitment, reentry partners were eventually able to develop more focus and link students to research and training opportunities within several local criminal justice agencies.

The construct of asymmetry is also indicated by an aversion to relinquishing control over information, resources, or decision-making (Oliver, 1990). These jurisdictions were not immune to such struggles. During the early formation of the partnerships, one community-based organization (CBO) sought partnerships with all three jails. The CBO had been serving local

citizens by connecting them to local goods, services, and programs through its online resource directory, as well as providing services to released inmates as part of their mission. Early attempts to create information linkages between the CBO and two of the reentry partnerships were unsuccessful, and the CBO discontinued its partnership efforts with those two jurisdictions. In comparison, the third jail has worked closely with the CBO during planning and implementation of services. The linking of services has begun to take root, but the formal sharing of information has yet to transpire. Although the CBO had already created an online resource directory, the partnership has thus far maintained a separate directory. At this point, it is unclear as to whether the partnering organizations will merge their directories in the future.

### *Legitimacy*

Legitimacy for a partnership is attained when it is socially supported as the proper way to do business (Oliver, 1990). In this study, reentry partners directly and indirectly expressed concerns about legitimacy. After two years of planning, one leader stated that they were ‘still struggling to get the word out effectively that reentry is not just a program, but an initiative.’ Efforts to gain legitimacy included discussions about getting community support through various marketing methods, using community language, and providing training to community-based organizations. Also, there were discussions about influencing judges and prosecutors by employing a validated assessment system and implementing evidence-based programming.

Multiple discussions centered on getting buy-in from taxpayers and organizations recruited for participation in the partnership. Propositions such as promoting reentry through social media markets, creating welcome letters and informational packets for new partners, and getting buy-in from the local Public Safety Council were discussed. Likewise, members wanted

to ‘make it more attractive to the community’ by discussing reentry in terms of jobs, tax credits for hiring ex-offenders, and building bridges to increase public safety and reduce recidivism. One jail leader suggested that using evidence-based programs would make it easier to use money budgeted for General Funds, rather than Inmate Welfare Funds. “We can spend \$2 million inside the fence, but it needs to connect to the community.” Members speculated that providing training to community-based organizations would help to connect jail programs to those used in the community.

There were similar concerns about being legitimate in the eyes of fellow criminal justice officials, particularly judges and state attorneys. The partners believed that it was essential to assess offenders’ needs and make several programs available to meet those needs, but fidelity would be key to getting buy-in from the courts. Members expressed their belief that implementing a valid assessment system would be ‘one way to hook the SA and courts and get them on board.’ At one point, a community-based organization had approached one of the county jails seeking access to present their services to inmates. However, the organization was denied its request because it was unable to provide a defined curriculum. There was concern that the presentation was merely an effort to recruit clients, and the jail ‘didn’t want to endorse a group that did not have a designed program.’ One member commented that ‘do-gooders can do harm,’ while another stated that ‘judges rely on jails to have legitimate programs for sentenced defendants.’

### *Culture*

In addition to organizational theories, the qualitative analyses of this study included the concept of culture. It has been suggested that organizations favoring rehabilitation during



incarceration may be more likely to partner to provide a greater variety of services (Oser et al., 2009). Along this same vein, supporting offenders' equal access services in the community after release (Travis, 2002) may also motivate organizations to partner with correctional agencies in reentry.

Although cultures of favoring rehabilitation and equal access were not directly observed as conceptualized, one county exhibited a spiritual culture. This was evidenced primarily by a prayer at the beginning each observed meeting. One faith-based partner was particularly active in the reentry activities, and they hosted several reentry meetings. Several members, both faith-based and non-faith based alike, shared their stories of how religious beliefs and activities inspired inmates and releasees, as well as service providers. Although spiritual culture was not conceptualized, it may be argued that it is associated with rehabilitation.

### *Level of Commitment*

The various organizational motivations and cultures discussed above have a theoretical effect on interorganizational relationships. Organizations interact with each other when they perceive themselves to be dependent on each other for clients, technology, inputs and outputs, and such (Alexander, 1995). These interdependencies are the bases for relationships which range from a single transaction to a complete merger. According to Himmelman (1996), partnerships between organizations can be conceptualized at different levels: networking, coordination, cooperation, and collaboration. Networking organizations work informally through personal contacts. Coordination is characterized by informal interactions at the organizational level which result in the exchange of information and altering of activities for mutual benefit. Cooperation is considered to be formal organization-to-organization contacts

which involves sharing resources for the mutual benefit of the two partners. Finally, collaboration is also formal organization-to-organizational work involving the expenditure of resources, but the partnering agencies seek to benefit all the partners and not just each other.

The analysis of the qualitative data regarding partnerships with the jails supported the quantitative exploratory factor analysis. The connections between organizations were manifested in the linking of elements, such as services, service providers, and data. The groundwork for connecting lower elements required less effort and time in comparison to linking higher level elements. Rather than following the wording of Himmelman's (1996) concepts strictly, the presentation of the various levels of commitment will follow the results of the exploratory factor analysis: low formality IOR linking services, moderately formal IOR linking service providers, moderately formal IOR linking data, and highly formal IOR linking program evaluations and grant funding.

Two interorganizational relationships are omitted from the qualitative analysis: informal linking of clients and highly formal linking of management. The informal linking of clients is the sharing of information on a case-by-case basis. These types of relationships were not directly observable because information is exchanged between individuals, rather than organizations. These types of observations were not included in the design of this study. Linking management functions was also not directly observed, so it too is excluded from the qualitative analysis.

### ***Low Formality IOR Linking Services***

The most common form of interorganizational relationship observed in all three counties was the linking of services. Participants were observed sharing information about their respective programs and events at every reentry meeting. This type of partnership requires the

lowest level of formality and commitment at the organizational level. The informal sharing of program information required little commitment beyond attending the meetings. It was accomplished during the early formation of the partnerships and was ongoing. As one county sustained its reentry meetings after two years, new members would begin their relationship at this level even though founding members had achieved higher levels of relationships. Sharing information about programs became more formal after approximately one year, as the partnerships produced formal resource directories and jails made formal presentations about the services and providers occurring in the jail.

Sharing information about services laid the groundwork for partners to alter their program schedules and content to improve services for common clients. However, the service linkages varied. Two county jails ended formal reentry meetings during the course of this study. The coordination of services for these two counties was limited to services provided inside the jail. The jails invited community-based organizations to the meetings and resource fairs, and asked them to educate jail officers about their services and provide services in the jail. In one example, a non-profit organization came to the jails on various occasions to help inmates obtain proper identifications. Prior to coordinating these services with the jail, however, the non-profit expressed its concern about arrestees being booked and not having their drivers' licenses returned upon release from the jail. During the reentry meeting, they learned that by law jails were required to destroy invalid drivers' licenses. Unlike the other disadvantaged groups the non-profit agency had worked with, jail inmates may be more likely to have licenses which are invalid due to suspension. Moreover, organizations outside the criminal justice system may not

be legally required to destroy them. Sharing this information encouraged the coordination of the services inside the jail.

In comparison to the two counties that only coordinated services inside the jail, the third county was able to sustain its formal meetings throughout the course of this study and was observed coordinating services both inside the jail and into the community. In August, 2011, the jail expressed its desire to “make sure the jail offers the same services that are offered in the community that anyone can get,” and created a program committee tasked with surveying service providers in the jail, “including faith-based, volunteers, and paid and licensed programming.” The committee was to use the questionnaire to “evaluate current programming, plan for additional services and assist them in maximizing the benefits of their programs.” The drafting and utilization of a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) was also recommended. The program committee followed through on the plan to evaluate the quality of the programs and linking them to services available in the community, as well as formalizing agreements by using MOUs.

Over the next two years, the committee reported on their progress, and numerous providers and programs were coordinated inside the jail’s reentry pod that opened in the latter part of 2013. Several of those services were linked to the community. Some linked both content and schedules. For example, Thinking for a Change was being used by the correctional agencies and a partnering community-based organization. The jail adjusted its schedule for Thinking for a Change so that inmates could continue the program with the community partner after release. Another community-based partner announced that it planned to offer Thinking for a Change to

their clients, as well. Plans were also being made to incorporate another program called Family Reunification which could be linked.

### ***Moderately Formal IOR Linking Service Providers***

By sharing information and coordinating services between the jail and community, a natural progression was made to linking service providers through unified training efforts. After more than two years of partnering, the relationships between the correctional agencies and the community-based organization in one county had progressed so that the partners were sharing training costs for multiple training events. The training included evidence-based programs such as Thinking for a Change and Motivational Interviewing.

Other organizations also linked providers through training events. In the middle of 2012, one community-based organization sponsored a training event on the Ohio Risk Assessment System (ORAS). At the time, the three partnering jails were using other assessment systems which were expensive or had decided to not assess inmates' risks and needs altogether to avoid the expense. The community-based organization invited personnel from the local jails and community correctional agencies to participate in the ORAS training event. Ultimately, all three jails adopted the ORAS.

### ***Moderately Formal IOR Linking Data***

As a result of experiencing the ORAS training sponsored by a partnering organization, one county jail has been earnestly planning to share the ORAS data with at least one community-based organization for case management purposes. Soon after the ORAS training event, the partnership applied for an Edward Byrne Memorial Grant for planning purposes. They received the grant and was able pilot the ORAS and hire student interns to help with the process. There

were legal and logistical delays, but the jail was finally able to begin full implementation of the ORAS in mid-2014. (See the “Loose Coupling” section below for more details.) Many of the problems which caused the delays were due to the plans of sharing the data in a case management system with other organizations. The commitment to sharing the assessment data was more lengthy and difficult than linking services and providers. It took the partners nearly two years to navigate the process, and was nearly abandoned at one point.

### ***Highly Formal IOR Linking Grant Funding and Program Evaluations***

After the linking of services, the linking of grant funding and program evaluations was the second most commonly observed activity at reentry meetings overall. The writing of grant proposals would require that the applicants dedicate personnel or contribute to other costs. It may also require that partners agree to an evaluation of any programming connected with the grant. Therefore, this level of commitment ranks higher than others due to the “gamble” organizations must take by committing resources and agreeing to evaluations prior to “winning” a grant.

Linking grant funding and program evaluations was common to all three counties, but to varying degrees. One county applied for grants, but did not receive any. Another county which had sustained and grown its interorganizational relationships occasionally exhibited threads of grant seeking and evaluations at meetings. As discussed above, they did receive a grant to assist in the planning of an assessment system. Also, partners reported the receipt of grant money to provide services in areas such as education or substance abuse treatment. They had partnered with the jails to facilitate access to their target populations which crossed with the jail’s

population. Overall, however, grants and the resulting program evaluations were not the focus of the meetings.

In comparison, grants and evaluations were quite often the focus of the third county. They had applied for numerous grants, and did receive one in 2011. Part of those funds were used to co-sponsor a seminar to educate officers and community service providers on evidence-based programming. The jail used grant funds to cover the costs of hiring presenters/trainers, designing and printing invitations, morning refreshments, name labels, staff time for processing registrations, and printing handouts. Two other partnering spent their own budgets to provide the facilities, one presenter, posters, surveys, and staff time to coordinate the other presenters.

The irony is that although this level of organizational commitment is higher than others due to the commitment of resources, it appears to have a weak foundation. Grant applicants seem to quickly forget their promises when grants are lost. For example, one survey recipient called this researcher to explain that his for-profit organization had absolutely no relationship with the jail and did not provide services to offenders. Surely, the survey had been sent in error. He continued to explain why his organization could not be involved with the jail, until he was asked whether he had participated in a grant application. He quickly acknowledged that he had participated, but they had not won the grant. The promise of sharing resources may bring community-based organizations to the table, but it seems likely that they will leave when the resources do not materialize or dissolve.

### *Loose Coupling*

Analysis of the qualitative data revealed that the theoretical underpinnings for organizations' motivations and levels of commitment outlined in Chapter 3 were confirmed, but

not mutually exclusive. However, the data also indicate that the theories conceptualized in Chapter 3 are not exhaustive in explaining organizational behavior. As of the latter part of 2014, only one of the reentry partnerships was able to continually sustain formal meetings between members for the duration of this study from March, 2010 to September, 2014. The other two counties ended formal meetings in mid-2013. Interestingly, one of them has reappeared in September, 2014 with a formal invitation to partner in providing services to inmates. These empirical observations must be addressed.

The following is an analysis of the single county that sustained “loose coupling” (Orton & Weick, 1990; Weick, 1976) and the two counties that “decoupled” (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). That is, the jail that maintained formal meetings with community-based organizations will be compared to the two jails that ended formal meetings. Both the theoretical underpinnings and patterns of behavior will be discussed.

The common theme in the reentry movement has been the development of partnerships between criminal justice and community-based organizations (Byrne et al., 2002; Willison et al., 2012; Winterfield & Brumbaugh, 2007). These interorganizational relationships are perceived to be a rational management approach for the implementation of reentry. In other words, partnerships are presumed to be the “rational technology” (i.e., means) which will “produce the desired outcome” (i.e., end) (Thompson, 2008). External influences have exerted pressure on correctional agencies as a means of instituting the prescribed organizational change (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Two mechanisms which may cause organizational change include coercion and imitation (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Coercive change is imposed through formal rules, laws, and sanctions. Imitation exists when organizations mimic others that model behaviors which are



deemed appropriate for the field. “When organizational technologies are poorly understood, when goals are ambiguous, or when the environment creates symbolic uncertainty, organizations may model themselves on other organizations” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 151).

In this study, two coercive mechanisms instituting changes in organizational behavior were observed that affected all three jails. First, the state of Florida requires that each board of county commissioners institute a Public Safety Coordinating Council comprised of various criminal justice and community-based leaders (Criminal Procedure and Corrections, § 951.26, Fla. Stat., 2014). The statute directs the council to assess correctional populations and programs, and allows for development of reentry plans that coordinate services between public safety officials and community organizations. By definition, the statute is coercive in directing the behaviors of criminal justice agencies. The second form of coercive institutionalization was grants, such as those offered by Second Chance. Although applications are voluntary in nature, the grants stipulate rules in exchange for incentives to cooperate. Meeting observations and social artifacts indicated that all three jurisdictions applied for various grants for reentry purposes.

Another external mechanism for organizational change influenced all three counties. Each of the jurisdictions mimicked the Transition from Jail to Community (TJC) model (Willison et al., 2012) for planning and implementing reentry. The TJC model instructs jails and partnering organizations about the system dimensions of leadership, collaboration, data utilization, targeted interventions, and self-evaluation and sustainability. The model was presented to potential partners by all three jails and other community-based organizations. In sum, Florida statutes, grant opportunities, and the TJC were external influences which provided

coercive incentives and a model to mimic organizational change. The presence of these external influences appear to be related to the development of formal meetings between jails and other organizations, as well as the creation of strategic plans. Conversely, had the statutes, grants, and TJC model been absent, it is unlikely that the three jurisdictions would have changed their behaviors by conducting formal meetings and plans between organizations.

As previously stated, the implementation of reentry is premised on the development of partnerships between organizations. Open systems theory tells us that organizations are connected to each other in systems of multiple technical flows of inputs, throughputs, and outputs (Scott & Davis, 2007). In the case of reentry, partnerships are meant to form a system by which organizations are linked together by flows of various elements, such as offenders and case management information. According to Weick (1976), linkages are created through elements such as technology, tasks, territories, positions, offices, responsibilities, opportunities, rewards, sanctions, intentions and actions, events, means and ends, processes and outcomes, and hierarchical positions such as staff and administrators.

Elements which flow between organizations link them together, making the organizations interdependent or “coupled” (Weick, 1976). However, the elements which “couple” organizations together can also be described as “loose.” That is, the elements which flow through the system are highly responsive to each other, but maintain evidence of separateness (Orton & Weick, 1990; Weick, 1976). “Loose coupling is evident when elements affect each other suddenly (rather than continuously), occasionally (rather than constantly), negligibly (rather than significantly), indirectly (rather than directly), and eventually (rather than immediately)” (Orton & Weick, 1990, p. 203).

The concept of loose coupling provides a lens through which to view complex organizations and systems (Weick, 1976). The “imagery of coupling suggests the idea of building blocks that can be grafted onto an organization or severed with relatively little disturbance to either the blocks or the organization” (p. 3). Over time, the coupling of elements may appear or disappear depending on the context and needs of the organizations (Orton & Weick, 1990). Organizations may take advantage of loose coupling through “local adaption” and modification. Another use for loose coupling is that it may be used to seal off an element that has become detrimental to the system. According to Meyer and Rowan (1977) this method of “decoupling” may be employed by institutional organizations to avoid evaluations of performance and hide the inefficiencies of their work from the public. Decoupling involves minimizing unified goals, interdependencies, and inspections. As a result, coordination and “mutual adjustments among structural units are handled informally” (p. 357).

The jails in this study were observed using either “decoupling” to end formal meetings or “adaptation” to maintain formal meetings. Two of the jails discontinued formal meetings with the community, which indicates the employment of decoupling. The third jail was able to continually maintain formal meetings with community-based organizations, which indicates the ability to use loose coupling as a means to adapt to change. Content analysis revealed that the behaviors of decoupling and adaptation may have been affected by each jail’s partnership structure, leadership goals, and events. An analysis of each county will be presented in its entirety.

### ***County A***

The jails in this study each had a different partnership structure. Partnership structures were directly related to the administrative structures found in each county. As discussed in Chapter 4's sampling section, County A's jail, community corrections and probation were all administered by the county commission. In fact, the county also administered several other county agencies that were actively involved in reentry meetings and grant applications. Three of those agencies provided various social services (e.g., physical and mental health, education, substance abuse) needed by offenders. Moreover, these county agencies held contracts with various non-government service providers in the community. In this case, the county's control over multiple agencies and the contractual ties with community-based organizations served to tie the partners together more closely, as compared to the other two counties. As a result, the partnership structure for County A was more hierarchical. Formal meetings and grant applications were often limited to the county agencies and their contractual partners.

The leadership's goals were unique to County A, as well. Although executive leaders, such as the chief of corrections, chief judge, or sheriff, attended few, if any, meetings in any of the counties, the middle managers that did attend the meetings conveyed the intentions and goals of their superiors. In the case of County A, the mayor's intentions were mentioned on multiple occasions. The jail had drastically reduced services and shifted the costs from the general fund to the inmate welfare fund. As result, contractual services were reduced, and the jail relied more heavily on faith-based programs. The mayor directed the agencies to aggressively seek new funds to improve services. For example, one county partnership member commented on how the mayor wanted the 'group to strategically look at increasing programs at the jail by using grants,

nontraditional sources and to find resources to apply for grants for continuum of care.’ Pressure seemed to be mounting, as the county’s first two attempts to win general planning grants failed. While the other two counties had discussed grant options and made applications, the compulsory theme of acquiring new resources as the main method of providing services was unique to County A.

The partnership structure and leadership goals set the stage for interpreting events which initially led to the decoupling of organizations from the reentry partnership, as well as the eventual decoupling of the jail from formal meetings with the community. At the beginning of this study, a county coalition and community-based organization, both with missions to address the problem of homelessness, had been partnering with the jail. The county coalition had been created in response to the call of the National Alliance to End Homelessness under the Bush administration. County A partnered with other local counties to form the coalition, comprised of numerous government, non-profit, and for-profit organizations. In 2008, they had submitted a Ten-Year Report plan to end homelessness in the local region. It was estimated that the coalition’s plan to end homelessness in the region would require a one-time capital investment of \$106 million, as well as \$50 million in annual funding for implementation. According to the coalition’s report, “there are significant new private dollars that could be brought to the table with the right permanent coalition with the right comprehensive plan with the right leadership and right constituents having a seat at the table.” In anticipation of receiving the estimated funding, County A formed the public-private coalition under the county administrative structure.

In addition to the newly minted county coalition, a well-established community-based organization had been consulted on the issue of homelessness. This relationship extended to the

local reentry movement, as reentry was considered to be a problem which contributed to homelessness. The community-based organization held a prominent position in leading the reentry grant applications and meetings in both County A and County B.

However, both the community-based organization and county coalition discontinued their participation in the reentry meetings. The millions needed to fund the coalition under County A's administration never materialized. The coalition was subsequently dissolved and restructured as a non-profit with new leadership outside of the county's administrative structure. The community-based organization which had been a leader in the reentry grant applications, failed to acquire new resources by winning funding for itself or either County A or County B. Its leader soon stepped down from office and re-emerged later as a for-profit consultant in County C. In sum, County A had attempted to use the same non-profit and for-profit organizations for both the homeless and reentry initiatives. As a result, many organizations withdrew or decoupled themselves as homeless resources became scarce and as the mission shifted from homelessness to reentry.

In addition to the decoupling of partnership members, the jail in County A experienced a crisis event which led to its own decoupling from formal community meetings. In mid-2013, the jail was heavily criticized for a failure in its home confinement program. Earlier that same year, the county's GPS monitoring program (contracted to a private company) had also experienced a crisis, which resulted in the suspension of the program by the chief judge. This latest incident was immediately followed by an investigation into jail practices and the county mayor's request for the resignations of certain jail officials, who retired soon after. Formal reentry meetings ended; however, informal communications indicated that inmate programs services and reentry

were restructured under the auspices of County A's community corrections. Reentry would no longer be overseen by the jail. Subsequently, new officials were appointed, a private consultant was hired, and the county was denied a Second Chance Demonstration grant. The jail encountered an event which jeopardized its legitimacy and threatened the public image of the jail, criminal justice system, and county. As predicted by Meyer and Rowan (1977), the county decoupled the jail from the functions of managing inmate programs and reentry to minimize evaluations and handle interdependencies informally.

However, as explained by Orton and Weick (1990), loose coupling allows elements to reappear. Within days of each other in the latter part of 2014, the county settled the lawsuits stemming from the 2013 incident and sent a formal e-mail to prior reentry partners announcing the re-emergence of reentry. The e-mail officially informed the partners that community corrections was taking over the inmate programs, and they were inviting service providers to attend a workshop on evidence-based practices. The timing of the settlement and restructuring of reentry resulted in renewed support from the mayor and Criminal Justice Public Safety Coordinating Council. Interestingly, a former partner from a non-profit organization who had been advising County A on evidence-based programs and the county's recently implemented risk assessment was effectively decoupled from the partnership by the county. The non-profit partner was replaced by a paid private consultant. Of course, one thing had not changed. The county was still aligning itself to qualify for grants by "developing a new list of providers that embrace the EBP concept and that will partner with us on developing new programs, reporting outcome measures and applying for future grant opportunities."

### ***County B***

Like County A, the jail in County B was also administered by the county commission. Community corrections and probation were different, however, in that they were managed by a private corporation. This differentiation in structure alone created fewer linkages as compared to the other two counties in this study. The utilization of a private corporation for administering community corrections clearly affected shared activities with the jail. The private corporation did not attend the jail's reentry meetings. In fact, the only time the private corporation interacted with other criminal justice agencies was in connection with training events sponsored by another organization, such as an ORAS training sponsored by a community-based organization. County B also had the fewest linkages to other county government agencies. Only one agency was involved in reentry in this county, as compared to three in County A and two in County C.

An analysis of leadership goals in County B did not yield the clarity found in the other two counties, which may actually be an indicator as to why reentry meetings ended. In early 2010, this jail experienced a leadership change and 16 employees were fired following major incidents involving inmates. In one incident, a Bloods gang leader escaped. In another, the jail accidentally released an inmate after he identified himself as another man. Subsequently, a new chief for the jail was named in the latter part of 2010. At the time, the reentry partnership was being chaired by the leader for a community-based organization focused on homelessness. Meetings were canceled due to conflicting schedules and such, but meetings were eventually administered by a coordinator who worked for the jail and served on the Public Safety Coordinating Council under the chief judge. At one point, the coordinator asked if anyone would volunteer for the reentry chair position, but no one was interested. Since no one



volunteered, she said she would have the chief judge appoint someone. This never transpired. Meanwhile, reentry meetings continued, a strategic plan was drafted, federal grant applications were completed but denied, and ambitious tentative plans for committing jail resources were discussed (e.g., creating a central reentry center, developing a program pod, implementing employment programs, and retraining classification officers). However, the coordinator could only speculate as to the directions of the chief of corrections and chief judge, and none of these plans were implemented.

County B ended its formal reentry meetings in the latter part of 2012. For two years, the jail coordinator led the reentry meetings. However, she was transferred to another position within the jail. She informed the partners through an e-mail that “all meetings have been cancelled until further notice.” The new coordinator would be assuming the responsibility of all reentry efforts and scheduling future meetings, which has not transpired after two years. Formal communications and meetings were effectively decoupled for some unknown reason. Perhaps the reentry meetings served their temporary, loose coupling purpose.

### ***County C***

The last county included in this study, County C, was the only jail which maintained its formal reentry meetings throughout the duration of this study. Analysis of partnership structure indicates a provided a third variation. In this case, the sheriff’s office administered the jail, while the county commission administered community corrections and probation. In comparison to County A which had a single county administrator for the jail and community corrections, County C’s structure was less hierarchical. In comparison to County B, the divided administrations were similar, but in County C both administrations were public agencies and

both participated in formal reentry meetings throughout the study. This indicates stronger ties between the jail and community corrections. Also, the jail itself was perhaps a stronger link because it was within the sheriff's administrative control. This was the only county that had a Constitutional Officer actively participating in reentry efforts.

In addition to administering the jail, the sheriff also controlled departments in law enforcement and juvenile services. This made County C unique in that it had substantially greater participation by these other two departments. Evidence from survey respondents indicated that law enforcement from this county was very connected to the jail. In fact, the boundaries were blurred, as one respondent indicated that "we are the jail." In comparison, law enforcement respondents from other counties did not perceive much, if any, connectedness with the jails. Police viewed the system from a front-end perspective in which arrestees are considered "inputs" into the next criminal justice agency. Police in other counties tended to describe their work with jails as "taking arrestees there to book them into jail" and using "efficient and effective methods of booking arrests." Therefore, content analysis indicated that there was a stronger coupling between law enforcement and corrections in County C.

A final characteristic of County C's partnership structure was the utilization of three co-chairs. In comparison, County A was chaired by a jail manager and County B effectively had no chair. County C designated co-chairs with one each from the jail, community corrections, and a community-based organization. The co-chairs all held managerial positions within their respective organizations, who worked together to keep each other informed about current events. Co-chairs were able to effectively communicate concerns, such as lacking information, to each other. The co-chair of the community-based organization was very informed about inmate

programs and was able to contribute ideas for planning and resources for implementation. Occasionally, however, there were times that criminal justice agencies had to remind non-criminal justice members that plans had to be reviewed and authorized by the Public Safety Coordinating Council.

In addition to having a unique partnership structure, County C was also distinctive in its leadership goals and culture. The co-chairs expressed and implied a desire to work together, even when their visions for the partnership diverged. Reentry conceptualized as a partnership between government and community-based organizations was regarded as legitimate. The sharing of information was indicated by the regular recording and dissemination of meeting minutes to all members. The hosting of meetings was shared at various faith-based and government venues, alike. Expenses were also shared by both government and non-government organizations in the training of evidence-based programs. Finally, the goal of working together was expressed in memorandums of understandings between the jail and multiple service providers in the community.

Interestingly, while program planning and implementation was based on the utilization of evidence-based programming, members of both government and non-governmental organizations openly exhibited their spiritual beliefs. Meetings began with prayers, and members shared information regarding baptisms and the like. In an expression of appreciation for his organization's culture, one government member stated:

We don't have to check our faith at the door. We get to be who we are at home....It's a blessing that our administration has taken us in this direction. In the past, we got very good at arresting people and processing them. But our leader recognized the cycle of re-

arresting the same people....We need to provide services to the community, rather than just processing people. That message was from the top down. Who doesn't want a more fulfilling career? I've toured other institutions, and they have the same stigma and attitude portrayed on TV.

One member followed up with a comment that their administration does not chase grants like other counties. Rather, they choose their goals and projects first, and then apply for grants that may fit.

Together, the partnership structure and leadership goals allowed for the partnership to adapt and remain coupled through events that may have decoupled other partnerships. One event that required the ability to adapt was a change in the jail co-chair in the latter part of 2012 due to a retirement. The change in jail leadership as a co-chair may have introduced some degree of instability; however, the new co-chair was able to continue the work with the other co-chairs and partnership members.

Members exhibited the ability to adapt again in discussions about the partnership structure and vision. In 2011 and 2013, the partnership discussed attempts to expand its structure and membership. At the latest discussion, one member presented a matrix proposing 20 sub-committees in various dimensions or "zones of influence," such as mental health, transportation, child welfare, and education. The structure resembled a model, such as the TJC model, and, as noted by the presenter, required that the partnership hold a community stakeholder meeting to get buy-in and participation. Although the members supported the concept of the sub-groups, they began to note the logistical problems. Primarily, each sub-committee requires a chair, plus enough members to do the work. There simply were not enough partners, meaning that each

would have to chair multiple committees. So, the discussion turned to planning for the larger zones, such as social welfare and health, and mapping out needs and services within the county. Rather than developing sub-committees for every possible need and service, the partnership planned to assess inmates' actual needs and existing community services. It was reasoned that there is no need to create committees for non-existing needs or services. This exhibited the advantage of using loose coupling. That is, the members worked toward adapting a model or standard to fit local needs.

A final example of an event which challenged the coupling of organizations was the implementation of a new structure in the jail. The change was centered on the introduction of a reentry pod, which affected plans and services inside the jail. The jail partnership co-chair made direct apologies to several community service providers for the disruption. However, the jail also asked for input from the community-based organizations in the program planning for the new reentry pod and implemented many of their recommendations. Again, the partnership was able to negotiate through events which may not have been overcome by other reentry partnerships.

### **Summary**

In summary, bivariate and multivariate analyses were used to determine whether organizations' motivations and culture were positively associated with their levels of commitment to interorganizational relationships as hypothesized. Bivariate analysis indicated that all of the predictors were positively associated with the various levels of relationship commitment to jails. Except for legitimacy, all of the predictors (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, unsubsidized equal access, subsidized equal access, and rehabilitation)

had low to moderate strengths across the six dependent variables (i.e., linking clients, services, service providers, data, program evaluation and grant funds, and management), while being significantly associated with at least two dependent variables.<sup>4</sup>

Multiple regression results were mixed. Issues with collinearity resulted in the omission of two control variables (i.e., public funding and age) and two theoretical constructs (i.e., subsidized equal access and stability). The theoretical construct of efficiency (i.e., the desire to reduce costs) was also removed due to negative coefficients. Of the six, two models depicting the lowest levels of relationship commitment, the linking of clients and services, were found to be significant and explained 36 percent and 17 percent of total variance, respectively. Only one variable, rehabilitation, was significant in predicting clients, however. A third model, moderately formal levels of linking data, approached significance and explained 12 percent of the total variance, but again no predictors were significant. A fourth model, highly formal levels of linking of grants and evaluations, was originally significant with the control variables (i.e., government organization and size) and explained 9 percent of variance, but became insignificant when the theoretical variables were added in the second step of the modeling procedure. The final two models, linking providers and linking management, were not found to be significant in any way. Overall, the theoretical predictors were the correct direction, but not significant and weak. The lack of significant contributors to the models was most likely due to the small sample size (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Pallant, 2007) and theoretically predicted interactions between variables (Oliver, 1990).

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<sup>4</sup> There was a high degree of agreement by respondents regarding legitimacy (See Table 4); therefore, the non-significant results may be a function of the variable due to a lack of variation. Since this study is exploratory, legitimacy was retained in the multivariate analyses due to its theoretical relevance.

In addition to the quantitative analyses, directed content analysis was used to validate the theoretical framework (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Themes were coded using the same concepts defined in Chapter 3, and the presence of the theoretical constructs of organizational motivations and varying levels of interorganizational relationships were confirmed, except for two. The study's methodology did not allow for the observation of person-to-person contacts about clients, so this lowest level of partnering could not be confirmed. Also, the formal linking of management functions, such as sharing budgetary and operational oversight, was not observed. Finally, culture, as it was conceptualized, was not observed. The remaining constructs were confirmed but not mutually exclusive or exhaustive. Directed content analysis allowed for the coding of themes which extend this study's findings.

Two of the counties in this study ended formal reentry meetings, and one was able to maintain those formal ties. Using a case study approach and the theory of "loose coupling" (Orton & Weick, 1990; Weick, 1976), the three counties were analyzed as to their external and internal characteristics that may explain the different meeting outcomes. All three counties were subject to external pressures that may have influenced them to be alike (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) and begin formal reentry meetings. These included Florida statutes, external grants, and the Transition from Jail to Community model.

However, complex organizations and systems are often loosely coupled in that the elements which link them may appear or disappear depending on the context and needs of the organizations (Orton & Weick, 1990). Organizations may use loose coupling to adapt to local needs. Alternatively, they may "decouple" as a way to avoid evaluations and minimize interdependencies and inspections (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Comparing the internal

characteristics of partnership structure, leadership goals, and events, County A's partnership was dominated by non-criminal justice government agencies and the leadership focus was on grant funding. Subsequent to a crisis in the home confinement program, the jails formal reentry meetings ended. County B, on the other hand, had the least government agency involvement and little leadership from a position in authority. County B also ended its formal meetings. County C was able to maintain formal meetings throughout the duration of the study with a less hierarchical partnership structure. Also, it was the only county that involved law enforcement because the sheriff was the jail administrator. The county-administered community corrections agency and one community-based organization in particular were very involved in the partnership, as evidenced by their co-chair positions with the jail. County C exhibited the ability to use loose coupling to adapt, as the leadership consistently held the belief that partnering was the best way to accomplish the implementation of a reentry partnership. There was a spiritual culture which was also observed which was unique to this group, as was the emphasis on using evidence-based practice whenever practical and memorandums of understanding between the jail and service providers.

Both the quantitative and qualitative analyses suggest that there are certain realities of partnering with rule-based criminal justice agencies. The theoretical explanations and empirical support for the existence of loose coupling in criminal justice is not new (Crank & Langworthy, 1996; Hagan, 1989). "Organizations can take on new appendages, while at the same time selectively ignoring the activities of these new appendages" (Hagan, 1989, p. 119). This suggests that the idealistic system-level integration and continuum of care touted by some (Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002; Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003) may



not be obtainable. However, by advancing measures of moderate variables, we may better understand whether partnerships are necessary, and if so, the linkages and levels which are sufficient to yield the desired outcomes.

## CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

This study explored the associations between the independent variables of organizational motivations (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy) and culture (i.e., rehabilitation and equal access to services) with the dependent variable of organizational commitment to local jail reentry partnerships. The common theme of offender reentry is the development of partnerships between organizations (Byrne et al., 2002; Willison, et al., 2012; Winterfield & Brumbaugh, 2007). Reentry partnerships have been conceptually depicted as a moderating variable between the correctional institution and the successful reintegration of offenders into the community. Consequently, reentry literature has been driven by two assumptions. The first assumption is that the development of partnerships between correctional agencies and community-based organizations are necessary for the delivery of services during incarceration and after release. Theoretically, the continuation of services into the community would improve offender reintegration and reduce recidivism. The second assumption is that the level of relationships between organizations must be collaborative and organizations must develop a fully integrated system in order to sufficiently demonstrate positive outcomes. The goal of full integration would be the development of a seamless continuum of services between organizations (Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002; Taxman, Young, & Byrne, 2003).

Partnerships represent the latest rational management approach for the implementation of reentry. Yet, it is a moderating variable about which we know very little. The review of the reentry literature in Chapter 2 demonstrated several shortcomings. The primary limitation has been that prior research has not been well grounded in the long-standing theories that explain

organizational behavior. The majority of research has been limited to issues of fidelity in process and outcomes evaluations in which moderating variables of partnerships are often qualitative or assumed. These studies consist of quasi-experimental outcome evaluations which measure offender outcomes, but omit measures of the partnerships (e.g., Miller & Miller, 2010; White et al., 2008; Wilson & David, 2006). The few studies using theory to measure organizations' interactions were limited to relational coordination (Bond & Gittel, 2010) and interagency activities (Fletcher et al., 2009). Others took a system-level approach which assumes organizations want to be fully integrated (i.e., Lattimore & Visher, 2009; Taxman et al., 2003; Taxman, Henderson, & Belenko, 2009; Taxman, Young, Byrne, Holsinger, & Anspach, 2002; Wexler & Fletcher, 2007; Willison et al., 2012). Moreover, the only theory used to explain the development of partnerships has been resource dependency theory, which posits that organizations are motivated to form partnerships to obtain resources (Lehman et al., 2009).

Another criticism of the existing literature was the reliance on federally funded projects, such as the Reentry Partnership Initiatives (RPI), Transition from Jail to Community (TJC), and Serious and Violent Offender Reentry Initiative (SVORI). Findings stemming from such projects may be limited by selection bias or social desirability, as demonstrations are chosen for their positive characteristics and grant recipients may respond more favorably to questions. Perhaps more importantly, research from federally funded projects may be fundamentally flawed because organizations would be motivated to partner for the grant funds alone. If the funding dissolves, this has serious implications for the sustainability of the partnerships. Indeed, two of the counties included in this study decoupled after failing to obtain grant funding. The one national survey which did not stem from a reentry project was the National Criminal Justice

Drug Abuse Treatment Studies (CJ-DATS); however, it was limited to correctional agencies and substance-abuse service providers.

The utilization of organizational theories to guide research would allow for the operationalization of theoretical constructs to strengthen causal relationships and inform future practice and research. Researchers and practitioners may better predict who partners, why, and to what extent. Because prior research has not been well grounded in the well-established theories that explain organizational behavior, Chapter 3 served to develop an appropriate framework for this study. Oliver (1990) was used to inform the conceptualization and operationalization of five organizational motivations for developing voluntary interorganizational relationships: reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy. Theoretically, organizational culture may also affect partnering, so attitudes toward rehabilitation inside the jail (Oser, Knudsen, Staton-Tindall, Taxman, & Leukefeld, 2009) and equal access to services in the community (Travis, 2002) were also measured. Finally, the dependent variable of organizations' levels of commitment were developed using Himmelman's (1996) typology of organizational relationships (i.e., network, coordination, cooperation, collaboration) and following the findings of Fletcher and associates' (2009) exploratory factor analysis of interagency activities used in CJ-DATS.

A mixed methods approach was used in this study to validate measures and explore associations between constructs. The quantitative analysis required that the measures used in this study be tested prior to examining the associations between independent and dependent variables. Exploratory factor analysis was used to assess the internal consistency of the measures, as multiple survey items were used to create scales with each measuring a single

construct. Correlations and Cronbach's alpha were used to assess the internal consistency of the items for each theoretical construct (Pallant, 2007). Then, principal component analysis was used to see whether items loaded onto single constructs. Both Varimax and Direct Oblimin were used to examine unrotated and rotated loadings, as appropriate.

New measures were developed in this study. The measures of motivations (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy) are a unique contribution to the literature, while the levels of commitment yielded a greater number of factors than that of Fletcher and associates (2009). Six dependent variables related to the linking of elements between organizations (i.e., clients, services, service providers, data, program evaluations and grant funding, and management) were used in the quantitative and qualitative analyses. The commitment levels for linking the elements ranged from informal to highly formal. Qualitative analyses confirmed the presence of most of the variables in this study.

Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were used in this study to examine the degree of influence organizational motivations (i.e., reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy) and cultures (rehabilitation and equal access) have on interorganizational relationships in the jail reentry partnerships of three counties. It was hypothesized that organizations reporting higher levels of each of the independent variables would be more likely to report higher levels of the dependent variables. The quantitative findings described the variables used in the study. Then, correlations and multiple regression were used to address the research questions.

Pearson product-moment correlations confirmed the hypotheses that the predictors of reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, legitimacy, equal access (unsubsidized and

subsidized), and rehabilitation were positively associated with the various levels of interorganizational relationships. Legitimacy had low correlations and was not significantly associated with any of the dependent variables, most likely due to the lack of variation in the measure. All other theoretical variables, however, were significant with at least two dependent variables, and their strengths ranged from low to moderately high. Four of the dependent variables (i.e., linking clients, services, data, and management) had multiple predictors that were significant. In comparison, linking providers was significant with only one predictor (i.e., rehabilitation). Likewise, linking program evaluation and grant funding had a single significant predictor (i.e., asymmetry). The bivariate analysis provided evidence of the positive associations between organizations' motivations and cultures and various levels of interorganizational relationships.

Based on the findings of the bivariate analysis, multiple regression was used for a more sophisticated exploration (Pallant, 2007). Initially, the model fitting process resulted in the omission of four variables due to collinearity (i.e., public funding, organizational age, Stability, and Subsidized Equal Access) and the variable of Efficiency due to negative Beta coefficients which were theoretically explained by transactional cost theory (Williamson, 1981, 1985). Each of the dependent variables was then regressed on the remaining variables of reciprocity, asymmetry, legitimacy, unsubsidized equal access, and rehabilitation, controlling for government organizations and organization size. Dummy variables were also used for Counties A and C, with County B being the reference group.

In the multiple regression models, the lowest levels of relationship commitment, the informal linking of clients and low formality of linking services, were found to be significant and

explained 36 percent and 17 percent of total variance, respectively. A third model of moderate formality of linking data was moderately significant ( $p = .07$ ) and explained 12 percent of the total variance.

Although rehabilitation was the only theoretical variable that reached statistical significance in the six models, the majority of predictors were positively associated with the outcomes, as predicted. The strengths of the associations were weak. The inability to detect statistically significant theoretical variables was likely due to utilization of a small sample size. Identifying the unique contributions of theoretically related variables (Oliver, 1990) will require larger sample sizes (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Pallant, 2007).

Interestingly, the control variables were also informative in the multiple regressions. By themselves, the controls variables were able to explain 9 percent of the variance of the linking of program evaluations and grant funding. Both of the control variables, type and size of organization, were significant predictors. The control model was significant, but adding the theoretical variables rendered it insignificant.

In addition to the quantitative measures and analyses, content analysis of qualitative data from meeting observations, various documents such as meeting minutes, and open-ended survey questions were analyzed for themes and patterns. Directed content analysis procedures were used to support and extend the theoretical findings (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The theoretical constructs of reciprocity, stability, efficiency, asymmetry, and legitimacy were all present. These motivations for organizations to voluntarily enter into partnerships were found to be exhaustive, but not mutually exclusive. In comparison, the constructs of rehabilitation and equal access, as they were conceptualized, were not directly observed. One county, however, openly

exhibited a spiritual religious culture which may indicate a more rehabilitative culture. Finally, the dependent variable of varying levels of commitment to interorganizational relationships was also confirmed. The jails were coordinating services inside the jail, while one jail was observed altering program content and schedules to link those services into the community as well. Organizations were also linking providers through shared training events, and one county was progressing toward linking risk assessment data. The effort and commitment of these linkages was progressively difficult and more time consuming. Finally, organizations were also observed attempting to link program evaluations and grant funds which required expenditures of time and resources. The directed content analysis, however, was not exhaustive in accounting for all organizational behaviors.

In addition to the findings of the quantitative and qualitative analyses, the three counties in this study were found to have differences regarding the continuation of formal reentry meetings. One county was able to adapt and sustain formal meetings with their partners, while two counties terminated formal meetings. A case study methodology was employed to examine the three counties' similarities and differences using the theory of loose coupling (Orton & Weick, 1990; Weick, 1976).

It was found that all three counties experienced the same external pressures to initiate formal meetings for reentry. Theory tells us that changes in organizational behavior may be instituted through external coercive and mimetic mechanisms (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). The mechanisms of change experienced by these three counties included Florida law, federal grants, and the Transition from Jail to Community model. Without these pressures, it is unlikely that all three counties would have instituted the formal reentry meetings.



Whether organizations are truly partnering, though, depends on the linkage of various elements, such as technology, tasks, offices, responsibilities, and hierarchical positions such as staff and administrators (Weick, 1976). These linkages may be “loose” in that the elements that flow through a system are responsive to each other while retaining qualities of separateness. Organizations are therefore “loosely coupled,” as the coupling of elements may appear or disappear over time (Orton & Weick, 1990).

Two of the counties in this study terminated their formal reentry meetings. An analysis of each jail’s partnership structure, leadership goals, and local events may indicate why only one county maintained formal meetings. In the case of the two counties that ended formal meetings, theory states that organizations may become “decoupled” to avoid evaluations of performance or hide inefficiencies through the reduction of interdependencies and inspections (Meyer & Rowan, 1977).

In County A, county agencies dominated the partnership structure, as the jail, county corrections and probation, and several participating agencies were all administered by the county government. Moreover, several of these county agencies had contractual ties with community-based organizations. The involvement of numerous county agencies and their contractual non-government partners served to create a more hierarchical partnership with tighter couplings. The common leadership goal conveyed by middle managers was the county mayor’s compulsory theme of obtaining outside resources as the main method of providing services. Partnership development was also affected by events which transpired early in the reentry efforts. County A had attempted to use the same non-profit and for-profit organizations for two initiatives: homelessness and reentry. The county had anticipated the receipt of millions of dollars in

revenue for homelessness, but many organizations withdrew from the initiatives when the new money never materialized. A crisis with the home confinement program preceded the resignations of jail officials, restructuring of inmate programs from the jail to community corrections, and an end to the formal reentry meetings for more than a year. As predicted by Meyer and Rowan (1977), the county decoupled the jail from the formal reentry meetings to minimize evaluations and handle interdependencies informally.

County B also “decoupled” by ending formal reentry meetings. Like County A, County B’s jail was administered by a county commission, and local law enforcement did not participate in the meetings. However, County B was different from both of the other counties in that community corrections and probation were managed by a private corporation that did not participate in the reentry meetings. Therefore, County B had the fewest linkages in its partnership structure. Moreover, County B never garnered support or participation from upper management, as meetings were led by a coordinator with little, if any, decision making authority.

County C was the one county that was able to maintain its formal reentry meetings. It serves as an example of how organizations may use loose coupling to their benefit by adapting and modifying their couplings with other organizations (Orton & Weick, 1990). County C was different in that the jail had a stronger coupling with police. The jail was administered by the sheriff who also controlled law enforcement and juvenile services. Also, the community corrections department (administered by the county) and one community-based organization were active participants. Rather than a single chair, County C used three co-chairs from the jail, community corrections, and community-based organization. The leaders worked together by sharing visions, responsibilities, resources, and information with all members. An open culture

of religious spirituality mixed with a preference for evidence-based programming was also observed. Like the other counties, County C encountered events which could have resulted in decoupling. For example, there was a change in the jail's co-chair. Also, there were times when the visions of the leaders visibly conflicted. Most recently, the jail made a major change in its service structure by implementing a reentry pod. Nonetheless, the partnership was always perceived as the legitimate way to implement reentry. By sharing and exchanging ideas, responsibilities, resources, respect, and cultures, this partnership was able to negotiate through difficult events and adapt prescribed methods to fit local needs.

This study has both research and practical implications. It has developed measures for moderating variables in reentry which may allow researchers to relate those variables to reentry program outcomes in future research. By examining the causes of interorganizational relationships and their level of commitment presumably we may be able to address the assumptions that partnerships are necessary, as well as understanding the sufficient level of commitment required for the desired outcome of reducing recidivism and increasing public safety. However, the qualitative analysis of this study confirms prior research in the use of loose coupling by criminal justice agencies. It may be unlikely that government agencies will tightly couple with non-profits and for-profits. Indeed, they may not need to in order to achieve the same outcomes.

There are practical implications of researching partnerships as well. By exploring the associations between organizational motivations and cultures with varying levels of commitment to interorganizational relationships, correctional officials will better understand who will partner,

why and to what extent. As a result, we may better understand the extent to which reforms targeting offender reentry can be successfully planned, implemented, and sustained.

Future research should develop a valid measure of legitimacy, explore measures of leadership styles, and confirm and apply the measures developed in this study to a larger sample. The development of a valid measure of legitimacy is needed. Legitimacy refers to the expectation that organizations “appear in agreement with the prevailing norms, rules, beliefs, or expectations of external constituents” (Oliver, 1990, p. 246). This study took a normative approach to measuring legitimacy by asking whether partnerships or jails alone were better in assessing needs and risks of inmates, providing services, implementing a case management system, and monitoring the behaviors of released offenders. The partnerships were found to be quite legitimate with a high degree of agreement by survey respondents. Indeed, the high amount of agreement was problematic in the statistical analysis. It is possible that the measure of legitimacy may be improved by including measures of legitimizing processes, such as those conceptualized by DiMaggio and Powell (1983). According to DiMaggio and Powell, three mechanisms precede the institutional changes of normative, coercive, and mimetic isomorphism. Normative pressures typically stem from professionalization. Therefore, future surveys may include questions about the influences of formal education and professional networks on decision makers’ perceptions of partnerships. In addition to normative pressures, organizations behave according to coercive and mimetic pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). This study found that the counties all experienced similar coercive and mimetic influences from state statutes, grants, and TJC model. These factors may have also had varying degrees of motivation. Therefore,

future research may explore the various regulatory, mimetic, and normative mechanisms of institutional isomorphic change conceptualized by DiMaggio and Powell.

In addition to improving the measure of legitimacy, measures of leadership styles should also be explored in association with reentry partnerships. The qualitative analysis portion of this study indicated that jail leaders were influential in the decoupling or adaptations of the partnerships. The conceptualization and operationalization of leadership styles is well established (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Bass, 2008; Hartog, Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). The two major categories of leadership include transformational leaders and transactional leaders. Transformational leaders are able to motivate followers emotionally and inspire them to transcend self-interests and do more than originally expected. They are also able to charismatically inspire a realistic vision for the future, stimulate followers intellectually by challenging them with new ideas, and individualize or mentor each subordinate to their full potential. In comparison, transactional leadership is not as closely related to inspiring new ways of doing business. This type of leader motivates subordinates primarily through clarification of performance criteria. Followers are rewarded on the basis that they meet those criteria, or they are reprimanded when standards are not met. These leaders may be active or passive in their search for errors. Active transactional leaders seek out deviations and irregularities, whereas passive leaders wait for problems to materialize before taking action. Measures of leadership styles may be applied to interorganizational structures and relationships (Campbell, 2008; Roman et al., 2002; Vangen & Huxham, 2003). Therefore, leadership measures and their associations with partnerships should be explored.

Finally, future research should confirm and apply the measures developed in this study to a larger sample. This study provides support for the direction of the associations between the organizations' motivations and cultures with the commitment to linking various elements between organizations. However, findings were limited due to the size of the sample and interactions between variables. Research with larger numbers of organizations is needed to analyze the strength and significance of the theoretical constructs that predict organizational behaviors. Moreover, it would seem that both characteristics of the counties and organizations matter, as well.

Potentially, a three-step survey methodology could be employed at the national level to confirm the measures of this study, further explore their associations, and improve generalizability. The Census of Jails reported that there were 2,859 local jail jurisdictions in 2006 throughout the U.S. (Stephan & Walsh, 2011). The first step would be to use the Census to identify and survey a diverse set of jails that are administered at the local level. Stratified random sampling may be used, which would need to be disproportionate to include the 37 jails operating under contract by private or public agencies. Other characteristics that may be used for stratification purposes include jail size and court orders to reduce populations or improve conditions. Consideration may also be given to including state-operated facilities in Connecticut, Delaware, Hawaii, Rhode Island, Vermont, and Alaska which were excluded from the Census. A survey to a substantial number of jail jurisdictions, perhaps 1,200, would be used to ask if the recipients are engaged in reentry partnerships. They would also be asked about the structure and administration of the partnership, application and receipt of any reentry grants, and other

qualifying or stratifying questions. From those results, a certain number of stratified jail jurisdictions would be randomly selected and surveyed about their partnership members in the second step of the methodology. It would be important to clearly identify partnering members' roles and services, contact information, and decision-makers (e.g., executives). Finally, the third step would be the implementation of this study's survey to reentry partners, with an improved measure of legitimacy. By using a nationally representative sample with a large number of organizations, the construct validity, causal inferences, and generalizability of reentry partnerships will be strengthened. Indeed, until these measures are developed, the necessity and sufficiency of relationships between organizations to affect change cannot be determined.

## **APPENDIX A: SURVEY INSTRUMENT**





Welcome to the Offender Re-entry Partnership Survey!

Thank you for your assistance in learning more about the organizations that are working hard to make our communities safer. Your answers will help us to better understand how organizations partner with local Florida jails to provide services to offenders re-entering their communities after incarceration.

If you are informed about your organization's re-entry activities and have the authority to decide whether to work with a local jail, then we want to hear from you! If you feel that someone else is better suited to participate in the study, we ask that you please pass the questionnaire on to them for completion.

This survey consists of a series of questions and statements about organizations working with local jails. There are many reasons why organizations may (or may not) want to work with jails. They may simply have different goals. Therefore, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers to the survey questions.

When answering each question, think about your organization. We would like you to **summarize your observations of your organization** and its work with our local jails.

This survey will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete. We know that you are busy, so we really appreciate your time and consideration in completing it. In return for your efforts, a report of the findings will be provided to you upon completion of the primary researcher's dissertation.

Your participation is completely voluntary, and all of your responses will be kept confidential. Neither you nor your organization will be identified in any research findings. By filling out the survey and returning it, you are indicating that you agree to participate. This study has been approved by UCF's Institutional Review Board, IRB number SBE-14-10341.

Your knowledge is invaluable to your community's safety, as well as research efforts throughout the country. Thank you for your help!

*Please answer openly and truthfully.* If you have any questions, please e-mail them to [Gail.Humiston@ucf.edu](mailto:Gail.Humiston@ucf.edu)

Before we get started, we want to provide you with a **general description of "offender re-entry."**

"Offender re-entry" can be defined as any plan related to an inmate's transition to free living. It includes all activities and programming which prepare offenders to return to the community. The goal of re-entry is to reduce criminal behavior, increase public safety, and improve well-being.

Offenders re-entering the community may need many services inside the correctional facility and after release. These services may include surveillance/supervision, substance abuse treatment, mental health treatment, life skills training, education, workforce development, physical health care, faith-based support, mentoring, getting identification, family support, and help with applying for government benefits.

Jails and community-based organizations may be providing these services. The organizations may be working separately to provide these services, or they may be partnering and working together.

**So, let's get started! First, we just want to ask you some quick background questions.**

1. Does your organization provide services for convicted offenders?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

2. Do you make the decision for your organization to attend (or not attend) local jail meetings about offender re-entry?

- Yes
- No

3. Have you or a member of your organization attended meetings with the following county jails to discuss offender re-entry?

	Yes	No	Don't know
Orange County	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Osceola County	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Seminole County	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lake County	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Brevard County	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



4. If yes, what is the longest amount of time that your organization continued to meet with one of these jails?

- Only once
- 6 months or less
- More than 6 months, but less than 2 years
- 2 years or more
- Don't know

5. Of the following choices, which one best describes your type of organization?

- Government, Criminal justice agency (CJ)
- Government, Non-CJ agency
- Non-profit, Faith-based organization (FBO)
- Non-profit, Non-FBO
- For-profit organization
- Other

6. What proportion of your organization's revenue comes directly from public funding, such as grants or taxes?

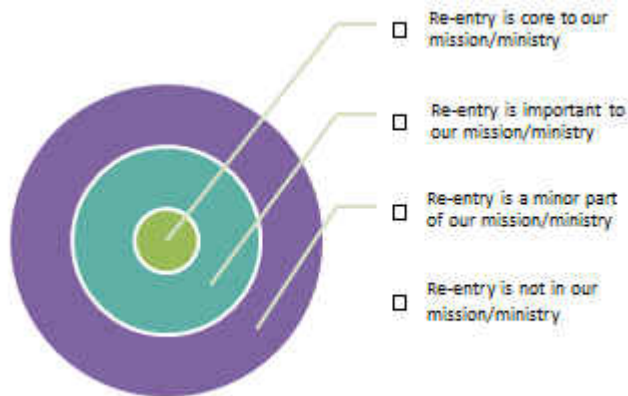
- None
- Less than 50 percent
- 50 percent or more

7. How many people does your organization employ full time?

- 1-4
- 5-9
- 10-19
- 20-49
- 50-99
- 100-999
- 1,000 or more

In the next questions, we are asking you to PLEASE SUMMARIZE YOUR OBSERVATIONS OF YOUR ORGANIZATION on the topic of offender re-entry.

8. We want to get an idea of how central offender re-entry is to the mission/ministry of your organization. A bulls-eye target is illustrated below. The heart of the target represents what your agency does, and each ring takes you further away from your core mission/ministry. Where does offender re-entry fit in your organization's mission/ministry?



9. To what degree would your organization agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
This organization's goals and offender re-entry goals overlap.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
This organization's clients include individuals who were previously incarcerated and are re-entering the community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
This organization provides at least one, but not all, of the services that offenders may need when re-entering the community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
This organization has worked well with local jail personnel.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. How important or unimportant is it to your organization that participation in offender re-entry planning does the following?

	Extremely Important	Somewhat Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Not at all Important
Allows your clients to obtain goods and services that your organization cannot provide.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Helps your organization diversify its funding sources.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provides your organization with opportunities to learn from other professionals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Allows your organization to expand its client base.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. How important or unimportant is it to your organization that participation in offender re-entry planning does the following?

	Extremely Important	Somewhat Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Not at all Important
Helps reduce your organization's costs through joint purchasing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Helps reduce your organization's costs through joint training.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Helps reduce unnecessary redundancies in services provided by your organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Helps increase services to offenders without increasing costs to your organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. How important or unimportant is it to your organization that it retains decision-making authority in the following areas?

	Extremely Important	Somewhat Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Not at all Important
Coordinating services between members in a partnership so that responsibilities are distributed fairly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coordinating the sharing of client information between members in a partnership.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Assigning leadership positions in a re-entry	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

partnership.

Distributing grant funding between members in a re-entry partnership.

13. Would your organization believe that EITHER "Jails alone" OR "Partnerships between Jails and Community Organizations together" are the better way to do the following?

	Jails <b>alone</b> are better at doing this	Partnerships between Jails <b>and</b> Community Organizations <b>together</b> are better at doing this
Assessing the needs and risks of jailed offenders re-entering the community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Providing services directly to jailed offenders re-entering the community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Implementing a case management system of services for jailed offenders re-entering the community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Monitoring the behavior of offenders released to the community in case they violate court orders or commit more crime.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The previous questions were focused on offender re-entry. The next two blocks of questions are asking about **the general beliefs or philosophies of your organization.**

14. Would more people in your organization believe that the following public services and benefits should be provided to "Non-offenders and Offenders equally" OR "Non-offenders before Offenders"?

	Offenders and Non-offenders should receive <b>equal access</b> within the community	Non-offenders should be served <b>before</b> <b>Offenders</b> within the community
Substance Abuse Treatment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mental Health Treatment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Life Skills Education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Adult Education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Workforce Development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical Health Care	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Faith-Based Support	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Welfare Benefits	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Subsidized Housing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Subsidized Transportation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. To what degree would more people in your organization agree or disagree with the following statements?					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Severe punishments should be used on criminals to deter others from committing crime.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Prisons and jails should be used to keep criminals where they can't bother law abiding citizens.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Prisons and jails should be used to punish addicts to stop them from using drugs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Proper assessments should be used to match each offender's needs to the treatments provided in jail.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jail inmates should be provided with more work and educational programs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jail inmates should be provided with effective treatment for addictions and mental illness.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The previous questions were asking about general beliefs and philosophies. The next four blocks of questions will be asking about **your organization's re-entry partnership activities**. Please remember to **summarize your observations of your organization**.

16. In the last year, has your staff made personal contacts with people they know at the jail to do any of the following?				
	Yes	No	Don't know	Does not apply
Take client/offender referrals on a case-by-case basis.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Share information on offenders' needs for services on a case-by-case basis.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Share information on offenders' treatment services on a case-by-case basis.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

17. In the last year, has your organization participated in any of the following activities with a local jail?				
	Yes	No	Don't know	Does not apply
Met to discuss our missions, goals, major programs, and types of services.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Informally agreed to provide services to offenders in the jail or community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Informally agreed to adopt the same standardized assessment tool for offenders.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Informally reported problems with released offenders to an officer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coordinated the <b>content</b> of a program to improve services for common clients.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coordinated the <b>schedules</b> of a program to improve services for common clients.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attended a cross-training event hosted by another organization to increase knowledge and trust between your organization and the jail.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

18. In the last year, has your organization participated in any of the following activities with a local jail?

	Yes	No	Don't know	Does not apply
Dedicated personnel to apply for grant funding for your organization and the jail.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Signed a formal agreement to provide services to offenders in the jail or community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Signed a formal agreement with the jail to adopt the same standardized assessment tool for offenders.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Agreed to participate in a case management system with the jail.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hosted a cross-training event to increase knowledge and trust between your staff and the jail.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Shared <b>budgetary</b> oversight with the jail over a treatment program.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Shared <b>operational</b> oversight with the jail over a treatment program.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Agreed to a joint impact evaluation on offender outcomes with the jail.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. Some re-entry activities may benefit not only your organization and the jail, but other re-entry partners as well. In the last year, has your organization participated in any of the following activities?

	Yes	No	Don't know	Does not apply
Contributed to the cost of a grant writer to apply for grant funds to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Contributed case data for the implementation of an online case management system to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Contributed to the costs of hiring an information specialist to create an online case management system to be used by your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Helped develop and adhere to universal performance measures for your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hosted a cross-training event for your organization, the jail, and other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



re-entry partners to increase knowledge and trust between members.				
Contributed to the costs of hiring a dedicated project director for a partnership between your organization, the jail, and other re-entry partners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Agreed to a joint impact evaluation on offender outcomes with the jail and other re-entry partners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Okay, the survey is almost done! We just want to give you an opportunity in the next three questions to tell us about your organization's experiences. **We really appreciate your help with this!**

20. In general, please describe the **type of work your organization** does with each of the three following jails. If your organization is not working with the county, please write "N/A" for "not applicable."

a. Orange County

b. Osceola County

c. Seminole County

21. Please describe the **most important benefit** your organization has received as a result of working with each of the following jails. If your organization is not working with the county, please write "N/A" for "not applicable." (If you need more room to write, please use the blank page in the back of the survey.)

a. Orange County

b. Osceola County

c. Seminole County

22. Please describe the **biggest challenge** your organization has faced as a result of working with each of the following jails. If your organization is not working with the county, please write "N/A" for "not applicable." (If you need more room to write, please use the blank page in the back of the survey.)

a. Orange County

b. Osceola County

c. Seminole County

23. How certain are you of your responses up to this point?

Completely certain

Certain

Neither Certain nor Uncertain

Uncertain

Not certain at all

Now, we just need some **background information about you.**

24. Please describe your position with your organization.

25. Does your position allow you to make decisions for the organization, such as service provisions, training, or commitment of resources?

Yes

No

26. What is your gender?

Male

Female

27. How would you describe yourself?

White/Caucasian

African American

Hispanic

Asian

Native American

Pacific Islander

Multi-racial

Other

28. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

Less than High School

High School / GED

Some College

2-year College Degree

4-year College Degree

Master's Degree

Doctoral Degree

Professional Degree (JD, MD)

29. How long have you worked at this organization?

Less than 1 year

1 - 3 years

More than 3 years

30. What is your contact information? (Please feel free to enclose your business card instead, if that's easier.)

Title & Name	<input type="text"/>
Best e-mail	<input type="text"/>
Name of Organization	<input type="text"/>
Department	<input type="text"/>
Street Address 1	<input type="text"/>
Street Address 2	<input type="text"/>
City	<input type="text"/>
State	<input type="text"/>
Zip Code	<input type="text"/>
County	<input type="text"/>
Phone	<input type="text"/>

Thank you for completing the Offender Re-entry Partnership Survey!

A report of the findings will be sent to you at the address or e-mail you provided above.

We really appreciate your time and assistance in learning more about the organizations that are working hard to improve the safety of their communities!

## **APPENDIX B: NONSIGNIFICANT MODEL TABLES**

Table 11

*Regression Results: Moderately Formal IOR between Organizations Linking Service Providers Regressed on Two Control Variables, Counties A and C, Reciprocity, Asymmetry, Legitimacy, Unsubsidized Equal Access, and Rehabilitation*

Variable	Beta ( $\beta$ )	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1			
Government Organization	-0.14	-.78	.44
Organization Size	0.16	.90	.37
Step 2			
Government Organization	-0.01	-.06	.96
Organization Size	-0.03	-.14	.89
County A	0.02	.09	.93
County C	0.21	1.34	.19
Reciprocity	0.06	.33	.75
Asymmetry	0.04	.26	.80
Legitimacy	0.12	.96	.34
Unsubsidized Equal Access	0.07	.46	.65
Rehabilitation	0.23	1.58	.12

*Notes:* Adjusted  $R^2 = -.02$  for the two control variables in Model 1;  $F(2, 61) = .43, p = > .05$ .  
Adjusted  $R^2 = .02$  for all variables in Model 2;  $F(9, 54) = 1.12, p > .05$ .

Table 12

*Regression Results: Highly Formal IOR between Organizations Linking Management Regressed on Two Control Variables, Counties A and C, Reciprocity, Asymmetry, Legitimacy, Unsubsidized Equal Access, and Rehabilitation*

Variable	Beta ( $\beta$ )	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1			
Government Organization	0.01	.03	.98
Organization Size	0.05	.25	.80
Step 2			
Government Organization	0.21	1.06	.29
Organization Size	-0.17	-.73	.47
County A	0.12	.71	.48
County C	0.02	.13	.90
Reciprocity	0.26	1.51	.14
Asymmetry	0.10	.62	.54
Legitimacy	0.16	1.22	.23
Unsubsidized Equal Access	0.12	.81	.42
Rehabilitation	0.05	.37	.71

*Notes:* Adjusted  $R^2 = -.03$  for the two control variables in Model 1;  $F(2, 61) = 0.08, p = > .05$ .  
Adjusted  $R^2 = .03$  for all variables in Model 2;  $F(9, 54) = 1.18, p > .05$ .



**APPENDIX C: IRB APPROVAL LETTER**



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board  
Office of Research & Commercialization  
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501  
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246  
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276  
[www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html](http://www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html)

### Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1  
FWA00000351, IRB00001138**  
To: **Gail D. Humiston**  
Date: **June 13, 2014**

Dear Researcher:

On 6/13/2014, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review: Exempt Determination  
Project Title: Offender Reentry: A Mixed Model Study of Interorganizational  
Commitment to Partnership  
Investigator: Gail D. Humiston  
IRB Number: SBE-14-10341  
Funding Agency:  
Grant Title:  
Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in IRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewska, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 06/13/2014 04:25:55 PM EDT

IRB Coordinator

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