FINAL REPORT

May 24, 2002

Understanding Community Justice Partnerships: Assessing the Capacity to Partner

Caterina Gouvis Roman, *The Urban Institute*
Gretchen E. Moore, *The Urban Institute*
Susan Jenkins, *Caliber Associates*
Kevonne M. Small, *Caliber Associates*

Submitted to the National Institute of Justice.
Prepared Under Contract Number OJP-99-C-010
(T005) for the National Institute of Justice.

research for safer communities

URBAN INSTITUTE
Justice Policy Center

Acknowledgments

This report was written by Caterina Gouvis Roman and Gretchen Moore of The Urban Institute, and Susan Jenkins and Kevonne Small of Caliber Associates. Adele Harrell facilitated the focus group, provided significant assistance with the outline, and offered insightful comments on report substance and editing; we thank her for her advice and tireless support. We also thank Dan Felker, Caliber Associates, and Cornelia Sorensen, National Institute of Justice, for their assistance throughout this project.

The authors acknowledge the contributions of the focus group participants, Sarah Bryer, Catherine M. Coles, James Copple, David R. Karp, Phyllis McDonald, Susan Motika, Shelli Rossman, Carol Shapiro, Arnold K. Sherman, and Avis Vidal. We thank them for their thoughtful participation in the focus group and their time spent providing comments and suggestions on a previous draft of this report. We also would like to thank Dennis Rosenbaum who provided comments on the draft report, and the anonymous peer reviews, who provided comments on the final report. We thank Dionne Davis for helping with the meeting coordination to bring everyone together for the focus group.

We especially thank Elizabeth Griffith at the National Institute of Justice for supporting this work.

CONTENTS

Executive Summary .... *i*

PART I. ASSESSING THE CAPACITY TO PARTNER **1**

CATERINA GOUVIS ROMAN AND GRETCHEN E. MOORE

CHAPTER 1: Introduction *1*

CHAPTER 2: Defining the Key Concepts *7*
What is community justice? 7
Community as an Active Partner 8
Problem Solving 11
Capacity Building 11
Community-Level Outcomes 14
Restorative Justice Orientation 14
What is community? 15
What is a community organization? 17
What is a partnership? 18
Who are the stakeholders? 18
Summary 19

CHAPTER 3: Community Organizations Within the Community Field *20*
The Community Justice process and outcomes 20
The Role of Organizations 21
Organizations and Theory 22
Levels of Organizations 23
Types of Community Organizations 24
Institution-Based Organizations 25
Issued-Based Organizations 25
Membership-Based Organizations 26
Sample Classification of Organizational Placement 27
The Community Field 28
The Community Context 31
Summary 31

CHAPTER 4: Community Organizations as Partners *32*
Leadership 33
Defining Leadership Styles and Skills 34
Transformational Leadership 34
Leadership as a Process 35
Quantifying Leadership 38
Resources 40
Human Resources 42
Financial resources 43
Technological resources 43
Quantifying Resources 44
Organizational Orientation towards traditional power holders 44
Quantifying Orientation 46
Other Organizational Characteristics 47
Formality of Structure 47
Organizational Mission 48
Outreach and Pre-existing Networks 49
Products and Services 50
Summary 51

The views expressed are those of the authors, and should not be attributed to The Urban Institute, its trustees, or its funders.

CHAPTER 5: The Partnership ... *52*
Dimensions of Partnerships ... 53
Community Readiness/Orientation ... 54
Impetus for the Partnership ... 54
Community Structure ... 55
The Importance of Local Organizational Partners ... 57
Existence of Politics or Turf Wars ... 57
Collaborative History ... 58
Funding History and Current Funding Uncertainties ... 59
Partnership Over-Saturation ... 59
Willingness to Change and Evolve ... 60
Measuring Readiness ... 61
Partnership Intentions ... 64
Structural Complexity and Leadership ... 65
Networks Across Organizations and Among Levels ... 66
Action, Advocacy and Membership ... 68
Resources ... 70
Summary ... 70

CHAPTER 6: A Framework for Understanding Partnership Capacity ... *72*
Framework Component I: Partnership Members ... 73
Organizational Structure ... 73
Leadership ... 74
Resources ... 75
Orientation ... 75
Framework Component II: Partnership Characteristics ... 75
Lead Agency Type ... 75
Structural Complexity ... 76
Readiness ... 77
Vertical and Horizontal Integration ... 78
Additional Resources ... 79
Human resources ... 79
Financial resources ... 80
Technological resources ... 81
Framework Component III: Partnership Goals ... 82
Problem Domains ... 83
Objectives ... 84
Component IV: Activities ... 84
Framework Component V: Outcomes ... 86
Outcome levels ... 86
Community Level ... 86
Individual and Family ... 87
Systems Change ... 87
Short term, Intermediate and Long Term Outcomes ... 88
Applying the Framework to a hypothetical partnership ... 88
ABC Comprehensive Community Partnership ... 89
Component I. Member Characteristics ... 89
Component II. Partnership Characteristics ... 92
Component III, IV, and V: Goals, Activities, Outcomes ... 94
Summary of Partnership Example ... 96

PART II. COMMUNITY JUSTICE PARTNERSHIPS: A CATALOG OF JUSTICE AGENCY INVOLVEMENT, PROGRAM TYPES, GOALS AND ACTIVITIES ... 97

SUSAN JENKINS AND KEVONNE M. SMALL

CHAPTER 7 ... *97*
Types of Community Justice Partnerships ... 97
Community-Police Partnerships ... 100
Community Partners ... 100
Initiative Types ... 100
Community-Court Partnerships ... 107
Community Partners ... 107
Initiative Types ... 107

Community-Lawyer/Prosecution Partnerships 112
Community Partners 112
Initiative Types 113
Community-Corrections Partnerships 115
Community Partners 115
Initiative Types 116
Comprehensive Community Partnerships (CCP) 120
Community Partners 120
Initiative Types 120
Multi-Justice Initiatives 121
Non-Justice Federal Initiatives 124
Foundation Initiatives 126
Summary 127

PART III. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS 132

CATERINA GOUVIS ROMAN, GRETCHEN E. MOORE, SUSAN JENKINS AND KEVONNE M. SMALL

CHAPTER 8: The Conceptual Framework Revisited: Summary and Research Recommendations 132
Summary 132
Future Research 135
Conclusion 138

References 140

Appendix A

Appendix B

Prepared under contract # OJP-99-C-010 (T005) from the National Institute of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. Points of view or opinions in this document are those of the author, and do not necessarily represent the official position of the U.S. Department of Justice.

Executive Summary

Over the last few decades, research has focused on juvenile and criminal justice agencies working with communities to reduce and prevent crime. Demonstration programs across the nation have proliferated as new and innovative models aimed at community crime prevention have been developed. Many of these demonstration programs have been evaluated. As a result, the research literature on "best practices" of particular programs grows daily. However, few of the evaluations have focused on understanding the capacity of communities to be strong partners in crime reduction and prevention. Little is known about how community organizations mobilize to reduce and prevent crime and engage in community justice activities with criminal justice and other government agencies. With the nation's rapidly growing interest in initiatives that give more voice to citizen concerns and promote community restoration alongside public safety goals, it becomes critical that we ask where and how community organizations fit within community justice initiatives.

The Urban Institute, in collaboration with Caliber Associates, has synthesized the current knowledge regarding the capacity of community organizations to engage as partners in strategies to prevent crime. The goal of this project is to review what is known about the role of community organizations in partnerships, and the myriad of contextual issues—social, economic, political and spatial—that challenge or foster their ability to effect positive change within partnership initiatives. This review will assist us in answering the following questions:

- What are the factors that facilitate and strengthen the ability of community organizations to participate in community justice partnerships?
- How do these factors at the organizational level relate to the ability of partnerships to achieve their stated mission and objectives?

The report synthesizes key dimensions and characteristics that embody partnership capacity. This review leads to the heart of the report—the development of a conceptual framework to improve our understanding of community justice partnership processes. The framework is presented in Figure A. The components of the framework include:

- Member characteristics that influence partnership characteristics;
- Partnership characteristics or dimensions that are related to outcomes;
- Goals, problem domains and objectives;
- Activities; and
- Outcomes at the community, individual and family and systems levels.

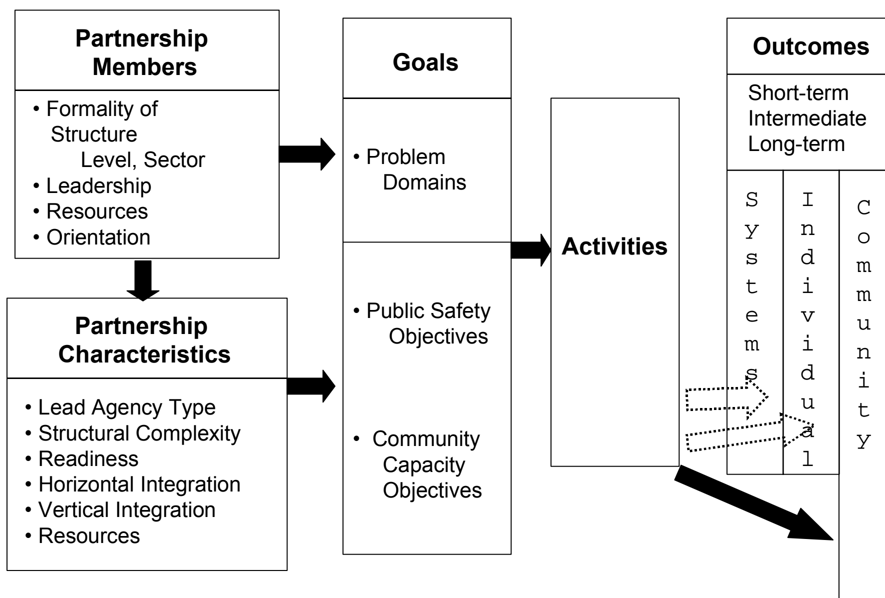


Figure A. Conceptual Framework of Partnership Capacity

The framework can be used as a tool to guide outcomes—whether they are short term or long term—to be realistically based on the resources at hand and scope of objectives. The framework enables articulation of both process and end outcomes, as well as articulation of process and end outcomes at multiple levels of change. Partnerships may not be utilizing all possible measures of effectiveness if they perceive that their efforts are best captured by end outcomes such as reductions in recidivism or number of crimes rather than by outcomes such as increasing capacity. Demonstrating changes that can occur at multiple levels also has been noted as a challenge in evaluation research (Chavis, Lee and Jones, 2001; Fawcett et al., 1997; Kubish et al., 1999).

We emphasize that partnerships are dynamic entities that move and evolve through stages where the relationships among variables are constantly changing. The framework can be applied at all stages of partnerships in that it can guide researchers and practitioners to examine framework dimensions at different periods of time throughout the life of the partnership.

Although this report was written about partnerships involving criminal justice agencies and utilizing principles of community justice, the material can be applied to any field where partnerships are utilized to achieve community outcomes. Beyond crime prevention and the criminal justice system, there is a growing literature on best practices and issues in evaluating comprehensive community initiatives (CCIs) (Connell, Aber and Walker, 1995; Connell and Kubish, 1999; Kubish, Weiss, Schorr, & Connell, 1995). The intractability of complex community issues such as poverty, economic isolation, drug use and crime, has led to the emergence of comprehensive initiatives that involve service providers from multiple sectors as well as community representatives from all types of organizations. These initiatives have shown some promise in tackling issues caused by a number of factors. This body of literature offers

many lessons about implementing, managing and evaluating community initiatives that relate directly to building effective community justice partnerships.

The report synthesizes knowledge derived from our literature review and consultation with other researchers and practitioners about factors that may affect a community's ability to organize, mobilize, and build capacity to serve as an active partner with criminal justice agencies. Time and time again, evaluations of crime prevention and intervention programs have concluded with the same lessons learned: *community organizations need to be able to leverage outside resources*, or *collaboration among organizations is key to program success*, or *lead agencies must recognize and articulate the community's needs and be able to act cohesively for the good of the community*. This report seeks to go beyond "lessons learned" and begin to break down the components of capacity for effective partnerships in community justice initiatives.

We recognize that the track record for community justice partnerships has not been without its failures. Partnerships, regardless of size, are complex entities that involve an array of variables, interpersonal and system dynamics, which must meld into an arrangement that successfully reduces crime and increases quality of life. This report does not attempt to define successful partnerships, but instead, it begins with the goal of breaking down these variables into useful dimensions.

First, we provide the definitions of key ideas and concepts within our partnership framework to clarify the boundaries of each as defined for this report:

- **Community justice** is a participatory process in which stakeholders join in collective problem solving with the goals of improving community safety, promoting community capacity for collective action, and healing the harms imposed by crime. Community organizations must be an active partner; simply having a place at the table does not constitute community justice.
- Our definition of **community** hinges on geographic boundaries that can vary across partnerships. Within community justice partnerships, physical boundaries: (1) delineate the target area; and (2) set the limits for measuring outcomes.
- **Stakeholders** are those who experience or are impacted by criminogenic situations. They can be offenders, victims, or supporters of victims or offenders. They are also residents, students and teachers, property owners, service providers, local government officials, criminal justice practitioners, civic leaders, business owners, and others who use community resources and are affected by the quality of life in the community. Because community justice initiatives aim to articulate the voice of the community and improve quality of life for everyone that uses or provides resources to the community, the range of stakeholders is broad.
- A **partnership** is a linkage between community organizations and government agencies formed for the purpose of reducing a defined social problem or improving the conditions of the community. By partnership we mean a commitment between at least one criminal justice agency and one community organization to invest resources to bring about mutually beneficial community outcomes with regard to public safety and community health

- The **capacity** of organizations and partnerships to pursue community justice is an example of community capacity directed at the joint goals of enhancing social control and improving quality of the community life (Karp and Clear, 2000). It is defined by the ability to bring stakeholders together to exchange ideas, jointly plan, and collaborate in actions intended to increase safety and strengthen the community directly or indirectly.
- We define **community organizations** to include any organization or agency that, at a minimum, meets regularly and has a name.

After discussing definitions we provide a useful typology of organizations to distinguish frontline agencies from funders and the traditional powerholders. Level one organizations are frontline community organizations. Examples include block clubs, youth peer groups, parent-teacher associations, Community Development Corporations (CDCs), churches, and local schools—at a minimum, level one organizations must constitute a local organization, meeting regularly and having a name. Businesses where residents shop and work and merchant associations are also level one organizations. Level one agencies can be divided into those that are institution-based, such as church or school organizations and businesses, those that are issue-based, and those that are membership-based, such as neighborhood watches and block associations.

The local police department, local government, housing authority, and businesses such as central banks, contractors and consultants that provide direct services to level one entities are level two organizations, or the local support organizations. These are the traditional local power holders, with concern for a larger jurisdiction (i.e. beyond the neighborhood). Level three organizations are the state, regional, and national counterparts to level two organizations. Level three organizations, such as regional and national foundations, policymakers and bureaucrats, and national news media, are more likely to fund partnerships, dedicate resources to local organizations, raise national awareness, or directly affect systems change, through the creation of laws and regulations.

Using these definitions and the organization typology as a starting point, we discuss the role of community organizations and the importance of their involvement in increasing informal social control in the community. Formal local organizations support the informal relationships among community stakeholders and assist in developing networks and joint efforts. Community organizations serve as the means through which individual residents build networks with other residents, and other organizations, both internal and external to the local community. Organizations are involved in a dynamic process involving a number of components at the different levels of control. We view organizations set within a dynamic, multi-layer community field of horizontal and vertical networks and communication patterns. Specification of "how" partners communicate and collaborate—dimensions of horizontal and vertical integration—becomes another key component of the framework.

Next, we examined the community organization; we drew from the nonprofit literature, organizational theory, community psychology, and community development, and from the results of our focus group discussion to understand characteristics of community organizations which are important to the development of capacity to partner for community justice initiatives. We identified three key organizational characteristics that influence the capacity of the

organization to be influential participants. These characteristics are leadership, resources, and orientation.

- Leaders have a key role in articulating the community voice through identification and development of core values and unifying purpose. There is a community justice process associated with generating the community voice; it is a process that includes generating consensus, using good data, and deliberating, or entering into "community dialog." This is where leaders are crucial; they use these skills to gather and articulate the community voice, or the voice of their constituents, and guide the community through these processes.
- To act as a capable partner, an organization must have some asset to bring to the partnership. This can be a tangible resource, such as money, supplies, or time, or an intangible resource, such as generating participation or having a strong understanding of community problems. The report defines examples of three types of resources—human, financial, and technological—with the understanding that an organization does not need every type of resource to be a competent partner.
- A critical area of organizational capability is the determination of readiness for and commitment to engage in joint community justice efforts. We use the word orientation to capture this element. Orientation of the organization towards traditional power holders—level two and level three agencies— is a defining feature of community organizations in community justice initiatives. Factors such as the community climate, views of legitimacy of and trust in government authority, and existing relations and experiences with other groups, can affect the capacity of an organization to partner as it moves through the stages of readiness to confront a local problem and enter into a partnership.

We also highlighted a number of other characteristics of community organizations that work dynamically with these concepts, such as formality of structure, mission, outreach, networks, products and services.

Next, we present a discussion of dimensions of partnerships that enable useful description of partnership capacity—lead agency type, structural complexity, readiness, horizontal and vertical integration, and resources. Partnerships are more likely to succeed:

- in communities which understand the issue that is being targeted, and are committed to tackle the issue; where partnership intentions are clear and agreed on;
- where partnership structures support multiple organizational contacts with clear lines of communication across organizations, as well as equal decision making among community organizations and government agencies;
- where partnerships undergo careful planning based on community needs and resources; and
- when partnerships are actively publicizing their successes and remaining open to increased community support through continued local action and diverse membership.

- In essence, success appears likely to be achieved when both horizontal integration (among community organizations) and vertical integration (between community organizations and traditional power holders) are strong.

Many of the points stated above have been known and repeated often over the years. Our intent is to synthesize current knowledge and reduce it into a common formula—a framework—that will enable systematic examination of partnership processes. The framework is a tool that will facilitate using what some researchers have referred to as a "theory of change approach" to specify relationships between inputs, activities and different types and levels of outcomes (Weiss, 1972; 1995). It is important to emphasize that the framework is more than a logic model or activity model. A framework allows for full specification of the dynamic and complex processes that typify partnerships. The components at the far left of the framework—partnership members and partnership characteristics—have a number of dimensions within them that can be assessed using a number of techniques. Chapters Four, Five and Six discuss the dimensions and briefly highlight some assessment and measurement techniques. Chapter Seven provides a brief summary of the main types of partnerships as defined by the primary justice partner or other non-community partner and continues, where possible, with more detailed examples.

Our search for measures of the various dimensions of the framework revealed both a lack of straightforward definitions that would allow description of the dimensions, and a lack of common measurement techniques. We conclude (Chapter Eight) that future research should begin with an elaboration of key constructs with continued empirical research to assess different dimensions of the constructs and how they influence partnership outcomes. This will facilitate both the linking of activities to outcomes and precise measurement of outcomes. We suggest research in a number of topical areas:

- **Levels of community participation** or "community embeddedness" within community justice partnerships. Sometimes referred to as articulation of community voice, community participation embodies community justice activities, but to date, there has been little or no research linking levels or types of community involvement with outcomes.
- Related to community participation is **the role of residents**. This report focused on the organization, not the residents themselves, as means to articulate the community voice and gain full participation in community justice activities. Although research emphasizes that engagement of citizens builds social and political capital, there is little systematic research examining how resident involvement is related to program benefits and outcomes. What happens when residents participate in community justice programs? How do programs move beyond simply delegating activities to residents to achieve true empowerment? How, when and why do residents participate?
- **The role of trust within community justice partnerships.** Building trust has been targeted as a method to increase the success of community justice partnerships, but trust is a complex construct—holding different meanings for different audiences. Furthermore, how does one build trust in an untrusting community that may have the most need for community justice activities?

- **The role of an intermediary.** Research suggests that partnerships with an entity acting as a go-between among partner agencies may be more likely to succeed because trust is higher and conflicts are managed by the intermediary. Partnerships with successful intermediaries may be achieving a unique type of systems change. The community development literature has begun to highlight the significance of the intermediary, but the research is lacking with regard to the role of intermediaries within community justice partnerships.
- Similarly, empirical research examining **networks of vertical and horizontal support** is limited in criminal justice. Theoretical and empirical research on informal social control mechanisms and differential social organization emphasizes the role of "stable interlocking organizations" (Sampson, 1999: 276) and organizational ties to extralocal resources (Bursik and Grasmick, 1993; Sampson, 1999), but criminal justice research is mostly limited to studies measuring community participation in organizations. A few researchers have applied network analysis techniques to examine the strength and depth of criminal justice collaborations (Ferguson, 2002; Hendricks, Ingraham and Rosenbaum, 2001; Kelling, et al., 1997; Moore and Roth, 2001) but this research is in its infancy.
- **The dimensions of leadership.** Transformational leadership has been proffered as a style of management for effective leadership within organizations. The criminal justice field could benefit with studies that review and summarize the large number of leadership studies that exist across substantive fields, including quantitative studies that factor analyze characteristics of leadership to examine how different leadership styles may be related to partnership outcomes.
- **Collaboration.** Collaboration is the key to successful horizontal and vertical networks and numerous surveys and instruments exist to capture collaboration. But how does one choose which survey or instruments to use? Are some more suitable for certain types of community justice initiatives? Are there instruments that measure collaboration at different stages of partnership evolution? A large body of literature exists on this topic, yet there are no standard practices for understanding or measuring collaboration within community justice programs and initiatives.
- **Community restoration and criminogenic problem solving**. Not only are community justice initiatives different from traditional crime prevention because the community becomes an active participant, but also the focus expands to include building community capacity. Research based solidly in theories of restoration and community building can further our knowledge with regard to how activities are linked to outcomes. In turn, relevant outcome measures can be developed.
- **Community-level measures.** Very closely linked to understanding restoration and criminogenic problem solving is the need for further development of measures that tap community outcomes such as community confidence, community satisfaction, or increased participation. Many community justice initiatives utilize community satisfaction surveys after community justice activities take place, but little research has been conducted to assess the utility of these tools and their appropriateness for measuring immediate and intermediate community outcomes across police, court and corrections programs.

PART I.
ASSESSING THE CAPACITY TO PARTNER

Caterina Gouvis Roman and Gretchen E. Moore

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

Over the last few decades, research has focused on juvenile and criminal justice agencies working with communities to reduce and prevent crime. Demonstration programs across the nation have proliferated as new and innovative models aimed at community crime prevention have been developed. Many of these demonstration programs have been evaluated. As a result, the research literature on "best practices" of particular programs grows daily. However, few of the evaluations have focused on understanding the capacity of communities to be strong partners in crime reduction and prevention. Little is known about how community organizations mobilize to reduce and prevent crime and engage in community justice activities with criminal justice and other government agencies. With the nation's rapidly growing interest in initiatives that give more voice to citizen concerns and promote community restoration alongside public safety goals, it becomes critical that we ask where and how community organizations fit within community justice initiatives.

The Urban Institute, in collaboration with Caliber Associates, has synthesized the current knowledge regarding the capacity of community organizations to engage as partners in strategies to prevent crime. The goal of this project is to review what is known about the role of community organizations in partnerships and the myriad of contextual issues—social, economic,

political and spatial—that challenge or foster their ability to effect positive change within partnership initiatives. This review will assist us in answering the following questions:

- What are the factors that facilitate and strengthen the ability of community organizations to participate in community justice partnerships?
- How do these factors at the organizational level relate to the ability of partnerships to achieve their stated mission and objectives?

We began with a review of the criminal justice literature. It soon became apparent that understanding the capacity to partner is a subject that spans substantive fields that utilize collaborative programming for preventive and inventive community activities. However, even within the range of fields where research exists on evaluating community partnerships, the literature is limited in addressing the nature of and methods used to assess what community organizations and government agencies bring to different partnership strategies. Often, partnerships do not undergo formal evaluation or those evaluated are assessed using inappropriate measures. Subsequently, the literature is glutted with generic lessons learned that do not support a comparison of partnerships or a more in-depth examination of different partnership structures across different partnership types or strategies within a wide range of community contexts.

To aid the development of this report, we convened a group of researchers and practitioners for one day to discuss these questions after the initial literature review was completed. The list of participants and their affiliation is provided in Appendix A. The intent of the group discussion was to bring extensive practical experience to bear on the issues being studied. The participants represented practitioners participating in all types of community justice initiatives, including community prosecution and lawyering, community policing, and community corrections, and researchers with expertise in evaluating community initiatives and examining the processes involved in community mobilization.

This report is not designed to establish the correlates of successful community justice programs and initiatives. The intent is to devise a framework for understanding the multiple levels and dimensions of capacity within community justice activities. We believe that a conceptual framework will provide a useful tool for future research examining community justice partnerships.

The conceptual framework developed in this report will be a few steps removed from a causal model which describes ways in which organizations and partnerships work together to create public safety and community restoration. A causal model would need to be ultra-multidimensional to articulate potential linkages. It would, for example, need to include hypotheses about the ways in which:

- Individuals are embedded within different community and organizational contexts;
- Community organizations and government agencies are embedded within different community contexts;
- The characteristics of all partner agencies are relevant;
- Residents interact with the community organization;
- Community organizations interact with other partners; and
- Strategies interact with partners to produce various outcomes.

All of these relationships, most of them dynamic, work together to guide and explain efforts to improve communities and reduce crime. The task of producing a testable model is further complicated by the fact that: (1) some frequently mentioned concepts, such as empowerment or philosophical orientation, are inherently vague and therefore difficult to characterize, model or measure;[1] and (2) the interplay of the levels, or the dynamic features of a partnership, make capturing the complete picture a huge challenge.

[1] Zimmerman (1995) refers to psychological empowerment as an "open-ended construct," fluctuating with context, population and developmental period, therefore making measurement difficult.

Instead we offer a conceptual framework that lays out the variables that should be considered in examining community justice partnerships that can be used in performance measurement, outcome assessment, or impact evaluation. Such a framework will be useful not only as a diagnostic tool for examining the role of community organizations in capacity-building collaborative crime prevention or reduction initiatives, but also for government agencies, private foundations and other funders seeking to fund strong community programs or create new ones. In addition, a framework will enable evaluators to utilize a common approach to understanding how community organizations function within community justice partnership initiatives. Over time, a useful framework will provide a vehicle for information sharing to the criminal justice community on the kinds of program processes and characteristics that appear more or less successful under various conditions (e.g., community, organizational, and participant characteristics). It may also provide social services, treatment, and other community organizations information on the design of promising community justice initiatives.

Our thinking is shaped by the concept of community justice. Community justice initiatives are *participatory* and *restorative*. By *restorative,* we limit the initiatives to those that build community health and collective capacity. By *participatory* we mean partnerships in which, at a minimum, community members have an active voice in making decisions about strategies and resource allocation. This definition excludes partnerships in which community members simply take part in activities planned and directed by criminal justice system agencies.

We begin with the belief that partnerships represent a unique opportunity to improve community outcomes with regard to crime prevention. Why? First, because partnerships can articulate community concern and therefore create appropriate priorities for action. Second, because partnerships, formal or informal, can mobilize degrees of collective power which single organizations cannot (Weisel, Gouvis and Harrell, 1994; Turk, 1973, 1977). Finally, because

multiple organizations working together with government agencies increases the likelihood of change across multiple levels—the individual, community, organizational and systems levels. Findings from evaluations of block watch and Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) programs, policing programs and studies of community-driven neighborhood initiatives suggest that informal social control efforts can have larger and more durable effects when community organizations partner with government agencies (Briggs, Mueller and Sullivan, 1996; Feins, 1983; Kennedy, 1994; Keyes, 1992; Moore, 1999; Stevens, 2002; Weisel, Gouvis, and Harrell, 1994).

We recognize that the track record for community justice partnerships has not been without its failures. Partnerships, regardless of size, are complex entities that involve an array of variables, interpersonal and system dynamics, which must meld into an arrangement that successfully reduces crime and increases quality of life. This report does not attempt to define successful partnerships, but instead, it begins with the goal of breaking down these variables into useful dimensions.

The following chapters synthesize knowledge derived from our literature review and consulting experienced researchers and practitioners about factors that may affect a community's ability to organize, mobilize, and build capacity to serve as an active partner with criminal justice agencies. Time and time again, evaluations of crime prevention and intervention programs have concluded with the same lessons learned: *community organizations need to be able to leverage outside resources*, or *collaboration among organizations is key to program success*, or *lead agencies must recognize and articulate the community's needs and be able to act cohesively for the good of the community*. This report seeks to go beyond "lessons learned" and begin to break down the components of capacity for effective partnerships in community justice initiatives. The report is divided into three parts. Part One (Chapters Two to Six) includes the literature and

theory leading to the conceptual framework and ends with a presentation of the framework components and an application of the framework. Chapter Two provides the definitions of key ideas and concepts within our partnership framework. Chapter Three discusses the role of community organizations and the importance of their involvement in increasing informal social control in the community. Chapter Four examines the dimensions of community organization that relate to the capacity to partner for collective betterment of the community. Chapter Five follows with a discussion of dimensions of partnerships that enable useful description of partnership capacity. Chapter Six presents the conceptual framework and Part Two (Chapter Seven) provides an extensive catalog of partnership programs across the country. We simply describe partnerships that exist, without making the assertion that these partnerships are successful. Part Three (Chapter Eight) concludes the report with a summary and recommendation for continued research to inform the development, implementation and assessment of community justice partnerships.

CHAPTER 2:
Defining the Key Concepts

Because many of the concepts or constructs we are studying are fuzzy in nature—with numerous, and often conflicting definitions—this chapter presents definitions for some key concepts before turning to the more analytical chapters of this report. Definitions are not intended to be definitive, rather defining the key concepts at the outset will help defray potential confusion within the dense task of understanding organizational capacity to partner. The key concepts include community justice, community, partnership, capacity, and community organization.

WHAT IS COMMUNITY JUSTICE?

Karp and Clear (2000:324) recently defined community justice as broadly referring to "all variants of crime prevention and justice activities that explicitly include the community in their processes and set the enhancement of community quality of life as a goal." The defining features of community justice include (Bazemore, 2001; Clear and Karp, 1999; Karp and Clear, 2000):

- A view of the community as an active agent in the partnership;
- Public safety through problem solving;
- Capacity building;
- The analysis of outcomes at the community level; and
- A restorative justice orientation.

We adopt this description for our report and add that a *restorative justice orientation* simply means that attempts are made to address and redress harm done to the community, but that the harm does not have to be a particular offense by an offender. Our definition of community justice includes any partnership between criminal justice (and other government) agencies and the community that has a community focus and *indirectly or directly* enables crime

prevention or crime control at the neighborhood or community level as specified by community stakeholders. The following sections expand on the features described by Karp and Clear.

Community as an Active Partner

In community justice, the community is viewed not as an indifferent or passive subject, but as a partner within a democratic paradigm. Citizens "add value" (Wray and Hauer, 1997) by "building a broader constituency for the performance measurement process, clarifying a community's vision and priorities, and strengthen accountability for program performance between citizens and public officials." Wray and Hauer list the following five ways that citizens can "add value" to the process of increasing accountability of services and improving quality of life in the community: Community as Visionaries, Citizens as Customers, Citizens as Co-producers of Services, Citizens as Evaluators, and Citizens as Owners. These roles are not mutually exclusive. While each of these are important roles that the community can play with regard to improved community outcomes, we were more interested in discovering a classification that would assist in clarifying the extent of community participation in community justice partnerships—to differentiate between non-participatory activities and true participatory activities.

Arnstein's model of citizen involvement (1969), based on a typology of citizen participation in United States federal social programs, allows us to classify community participation in this way. Figure 2-1 reproduces Arnstein's model and adds an arrow to illustrate the rungs that are representative of community justice activities. Arnstein's ladder illustrates several important aspects of community participation. First, there are different levels of participation; at any point in time one level may be more appropriate than another. Second, the ladder can be used to illustrate participation in any situation that involves the "haves" and "have-nots" or a struggle for power where those without power seek to have a voice at the table.

Finally, each step on the ladder has two end points: the openness of agency that has historically held the power (in this case—the government) to include the community in decision-making processes, and the ability of the community to act in such a capacity. Therefore, each rung of the ladder represents a measure of both the level of participation of the community organization and the structure of the partnership dictated by the degree of power shared by, in the simplest example, a government agency and a local community organization.

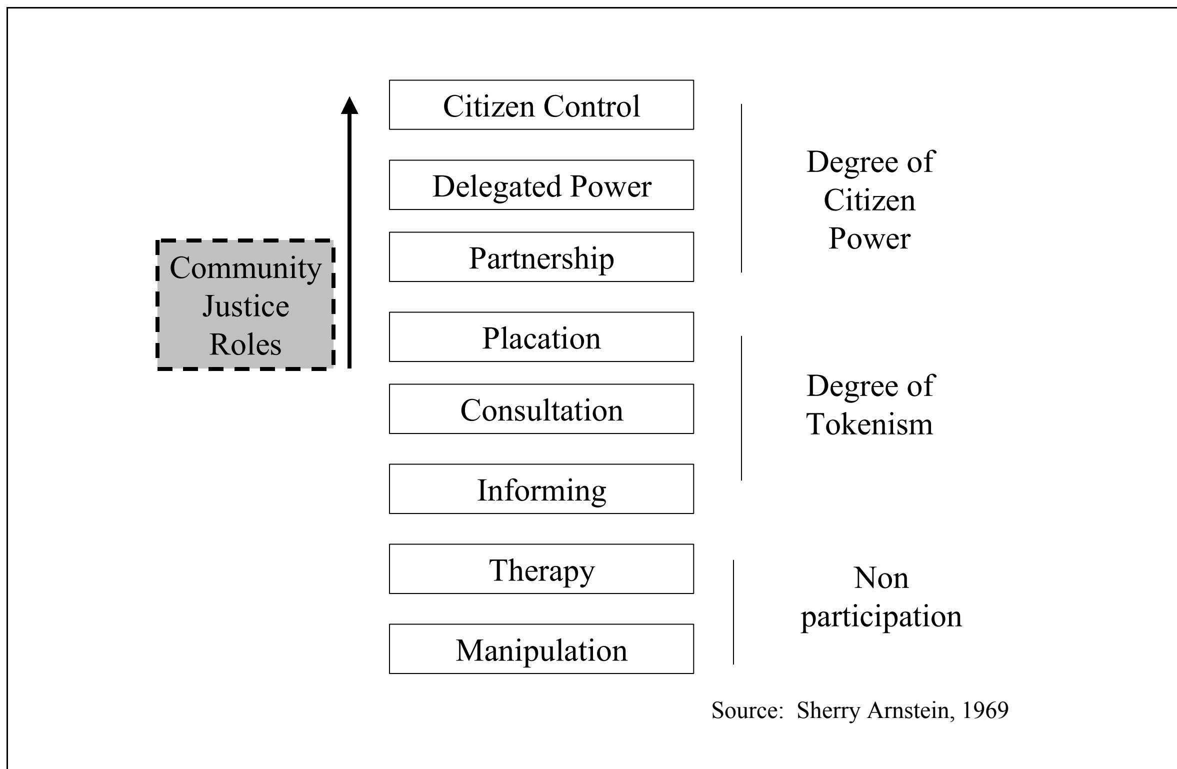


Figure 2-1. Arnstein's Model of Social Participation

It is important to stress that depending on the needs of the partnership, there is no intended value in the continuum (e.g. from good to bad); however, we seek to understand relationships between justice agencies and communities within a continuum of power exchanges. As Arnstein discusses, "there is a critical difference between going through the empty ritual of participation and having the real power needed to affect the outcome of the process" (Arnstein, 1969: 216). We envision this list as a measure of the highest level of participation achieved by each

community partner, which will aid in development of a measure to capture community embeddedness or *vertical integration* within the *partnership structure*.

The two lowest levels on the ladder, *manipulation* and *therapy*, embody just the opposite of community justice because they are both non-participation levels. Within these two levels, the traditional powerholders are educating or “curing” the participants. The aim is only to educate the community and achieve public support through the presentation of a proposed plan. Therapy is one step above manipulation in that some interaction to heal what is “wrong” with the community is taking place, as opposed to powerholders having limited interaction with the community. The next step, *informing*, is described as an important first step towards legitimate participation, although the emphasis at this level is on one-way flow of information, not a conversation. *Consultation* is the next step, and includes surveys and neighborhood meetings with public agencies, but is described by Arnstein (1969) as a "window dressing ritual." *Placation* is, perhaps, the lowest level of participation that can be considered in community justice activities; citizens are given roles to advise or plan, but the "power holders" (i.e., justice and government agencies) have the right to judge the legitimacy or feasibility of the advice. This step can only be considered community justice if the judgment process includes open deliberation with the community organization and the power holders. In the next step, named *partnership*, power is redistributed between the community and power holders; planning and decision-making responsibilities are shared. *Delegated power* occurs when citizens hold a clear majority of seats on committees with powers to make decisions. Finally, in the rare *citizen control* or ownership step, the community maintains the entire job of planning, policymaking, and managing a program. The highest steps in the ladder naturally aligns with the concept of community justice.

Problem Solving

Unlike the premise of the traditional war on crime—solving the problem by removing the criminal from society through mass incarceration, under community justice, crime and disorder are "fought" through a different kind of problem solving. Problem solving can be direct in that it finds proactive solutions for the specific public safety problem at hand. It can also work indirectly to address quality of life issues as part of a longer term crime prevention strategy. Community justice partnerships can provide a forum, such as a neighborhood meeting, for agencies and local organizations to exchange information, discuss and debate problems, and arrive at agreed upon strategies for collective action. This approach assumes that responsibility for community safety belongs to all stakeholders, including community members, service agencies, and the criminal justice system, and, therefore seeks to include all stakeholders in the problem-solving process.

Capacity Building

Some community justice partnerships may explicitly articulate building community capacity to combat crime as a long-term goal and undertake specific activities that help build formal and informal social control and capacity for joint action to solve problems. An issue at the heart of many research and policy discussions is that some neighborhoods experience both the greatest need for services and justice while, often, they have the lowest capacity to deal with deeply rooted community problems. In disadvantaged areas, the impact of traditional criminal justice practices as a means of creating fundamental change may be limited (Miethe and Meier, 1994; Reiss and Roth, 1993). The effects of traditional efforts may be overwhelmed by the enormity of the crime problem and related issues. Extremely disadvantaged communities may have:

- Severe physical disorder such as decaying, vacant and abandoned buildings (Skogan, 1990);

- Large numbers of people in need of substance abuse treatment;
- An intimidating "oppositional culture" that glamorizes violence (Anderson, 1990);
- Large numbers of unsupervised teen-agers and other signs of social disorder (Sampson and Wooldredge, 1987);
- High levels of fear (Kelling and Coles, 1996), and distrust of the government (Coleman, 1988, 1990); and
- Structural disinvestment/decaying economic base (Wacquant 1993; Wilson, 1987, 1996).

The term *community capacity* refers to the ability to mobilize collective action toward defined community goals. Community goals, by definition, are more than a collection of individual self-interested goals, and collective action entails individuals acting together with a concern for a particular problem. Community capacity has been defined in many ways; two examples are (1) as a collection of attributes, and (2) as active informal ties. To illustrate the first, we rely on Mayer's (1994) definition of capacity, "Community capacity is the combined influence of a community's commitment, resources, and skills which can be deployed to build on community strengths and address community problems." This definition refers to tangible and intangible goods, with or without the activation of those goods, that the community possesses. A more "active" definition of capacity is embodied in the following definition:

> "Community capacity is the degree to which people in a community demonstrate a sense of *shared responsibility* for the general welfare of the community and its individual members, and also demonstrate *collective competence* by taking advantage of opportunities for addressing community needs and confronting situations that threaten the safety and well-being of community members" (Mancini et al., 2000: 5).

This definition illustrates the *active* attributes of capacity; it includes both the willingness and demonstration of actions such as shared responsibility and collective competence.

When community capacity is defined as the ability to trust one another, work together to solve problems, resolve conflicts, and network with others to achieve agreed-upon goals, it is synonymous with collective efficacy (Sampson, 1999; Sampson, Morenoff and Earls, 1999; Sampson, Raudenbush, and Earls, 1997) and entails the activation of social ties to achieve

common community goals. Capacity can be *developed* through the cultivation of the informal community and the relationships to formal organizations and institutions. It is also developed through community education to inform, galvanize commitment, develop skills, and mobilize resources such as financial, human, and technological resources. In this active sense, capacity is fluid; it can be developed and can deteriorate. When it shifts, community well being may also ebb and flow.

Capacity is not, however, always a good thing. Fukuyama (2000) and others have argued that capacity can be generated around negative conceptions and that bad results can occur through capacity; such as the formation of hate groups. The definition of capacity used in this report avoids the negative ends by defining capacity to be the generation of community concern, or the broad community voice. The community voice is generated through a process of public deliberation about the common good (Thacher, 2001), or dialog in the community (Pranis 1998), as opposed to declarations of self-interest. Through public deliberation, new information is generated about social problems and the capabilities of government and the community to solve them. Through deliberation and dialog, harmony among community members emerges. According to Pranis (1998), harmony depends on (1) clear communication of expectations people have of one another, (2) use of constructive conflict resolution methods when disagreements arise, (3) shared commitment to the well-being of everyone, (4) willingness to act on behalf of the whole community, not just self.

The capacity of organizations and partnerships to pursue community justice is an example of community capacity directed at the joint goals of enhancing social control and improving quality of the community life (Karp and Clear, 2000). It is defined by the ability to bring stakeholders together to exchange ideas, jointly plan, and collaborate in actions intended to increase safety and strengthen the community directly or indirectly.

Community-Level Outcomes

Community justice goals are evaluated in terms of community outcomes. Community outcomes can be measured in terms of capacity-related qualities, such as increases in: social capital (Coleman, 1988, 1990), civic engagement (Putnam, 1993, 2000), participation in voluntary organizations, the willingness of community members to intervene and enforce the local norms (collective efficacy) (Sampson, Raudenbush and Earls, 1997), place attachment, and community confidence (Perkins et al., 2001; Perkins et al., 1990). Increases in various types of capacity, at the individual and community level, affect end outcomes such as increased public safety, decreased fear, decreased crime and disorder, as well as in a more physical sense through improved housing stock and neighborhood infrastructure.

Restorative Justice Orientation

Given that community justice focuses greatly on community outcomes achieved through problem solving and capacity building, it follows that community justice rejects punishment as the only sanctioning process by emphasizing individual rehabilitation and community restoration.

Restorative justice, although based in age-old practice, has only recently become more utilized within the sanctioning process. Restorative justice examines the relationship between the offender, victim, and the community and calls for offender accountability, via answering to individuals who are affected by the criminal behavior. Many restorative justice programs mandate that the offender(s) give back to the community in such ways as community service or family group conferencing where the offender meets with the victim and the friends or family of the victim to decide the resolution to the criminal incident. Restoration does not solely mean restoring the victim(s) to his or her status prior to victimization. It also applies to the broader goals of restoring the community through contributions to community well being, increased

social integration of the offender into the community, and heightened community solidarity. Community justice thus can include local initiatives to provide social services, increase the institutional base, increase economic opportunities, increase neighborhood public health, and improve the physical environment of the neighborhood.

According to Karp and Clear (2002) there are two relevant communities involved in community justice activities: the macro community, or the neighborhood as a whole, and the micro community, or those people affected by a specific criminal event. This report focuses on the macro community involvement in community justice activities.

WHAT IS COMMUNITY?

An amorphous term challenging rigorous thinking about community justice is *community*. Community means different things to different people in different contexts, but is usually defined in part by some type of boundary. Using human networks as boundaries, community consists of those people and organizations who are members of an area or group and know its needs. These networks may or may not overlap with physical neighborhood boundaries. Using race, religion, or other divisional criteria such as unions, a community can consist of those people with similar beliefs, national traditions, history, or work. Using geography as boundaries, community is a small geographic area as part of a larger area, such as a city, where people live, and are bound by political, police, or cultural boundaries. For the purposes of this research, we define community using the **physical** boundaries of communities. Within community justice partnerships, physical boundaries: (1) delineate the *target area;* and (2) set the limits for *measuring outcomes*.

Physical boundaries are important for community justice initiatives because community restoration implies a targeted geographic space. The physical boundaries are typically

administrative or neighborhood boundaries. The community may not be internally homogenous with regard to race and socio-economic characteristics. The target area usually is selected for its disproportionate crime or other social problem, relative to population. For example, Maryland HotSpot Community sites were selected by county and city officials based on two factors: the amount of crime and fear of crime, and the community's ability and willingness to mobilize a coordinated response. Hotspot communities are defined geographically as neighborhoods, about .25 to .50 mile in radius, which have some natural social identity. Comprehensive Community Program sites were chosen in a similar fashion. Weed and Seed sites range in size from several neighborhood blocks to 15 square miles, and are chosen by the local jurisdiction based on a variety of factors such as crime rates and the "potential" to address the problem. SafeFutures sites were defined target areas selected to represent urban, rural, and American Indian communities that demonstrated some prior experience with and a continuing commitment to reducing crime and victimization, and they ranged in size from small circumscribed neighborhoods to large scale multi-jurisdictional areas, such as counties.

Target areas that are drawn using administrative boundaries provide a measurement unit that can be utilized for program evaluation and measuring community outcomes. Data from police, courts, corrections, social welfare, and department of public works can often be collected at the same unit of analysis, such as the census tract, zipcode or political district. Data collection of social indicators or performance measures can be used to further research by testing theories, measuring the impact of a program or determine if a program met its goals, and helping neighborhoods build capacity by obtaining and using local-level data to support applications for federal, state and local funding.

There are many different levels associated with physical boundary definitions, from the smaller or more micro area, the "face-block" level to the larger community such as a region of a

county (e.g., West Contra Costa County). Janowitz (1951) used the term "community of limited liability" to delineate official, institutional boundaries such as political wards or police districts. A resident's identification with certain administrative boundaries, such as political wards, is limited and generally dependent on the issue being raised. Hunter and Suttles (1972) called communities that have a social boundary where not every resident may agree on the exact boundaries "nominal communities."[2]

The purpose of the partnership or initiative dictates the boundaries of the community. For example, a local open-air drug market initiative with a police-community-public service agency partnership (Washington D.C., Metropolitan Police Department 1999 Open Air Drug Market Initiative, report forthcoming) may target one or two face blocks where the drug market thrives. Other partnerships, like the Maryland HotSpot Communities, may target sites using established community boundaries (which were also administrative boundaries) because the goal is to implement meaningful partnerships to create priorities for problem-solving with established neighborhoods.

WHAT IS A COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION?

We define community organizations as including any organization or agency that, at a minimum, meets regularly and has a name. We consider both the Main St. Block Association — that meets once a month, has 10 volunteers members from the block and a leader— and the bureaucratic East Side Youth Alliance—a 501(c)(3) with 100 active members, and a paid staff— *community* organizations. A discussion of the role and types of community organizations is provided in Chapter Three.

[2] Nominal communities have the same boundaries as communities of limited liability when residents utilize fixed or specific boundaries to identify their community.

WHAT IS A PARTNERSHIP?

A partnership is a linkage between community organizations and government agencies formed for the purpose of reducing a community's defined social problem or improving the conditions of the community. By partnership we mean a commitment between at least one criminal justice agency and one community organization to invest resources to bring about mutually beneficial *community* outcomes with regard to public safety and community health. The partnership becomes a new entity that has its own social and political structure. As long as there is one community organization and one government agency involved in the community justice strategy, we use the term partnership interchangeably with the terms *initiative*, *alliance*, *collaboration/collaborative*, and *coalition*.

The relationships created among and between partner agencies and organizations can be explicitly stated and roles and responsibilities defined from the outset. In reality, however, partnerships are more fluid—changing over time, under different contexts and priorities. Partner organizations can have different levels of integration within the partnership, often dictated by the characteristics that each organization brings to the partnership mission.

WHO ARE THE STAKEHOLDERS?

For community justice initiatives, the process begins with defining the immediate parties to criminal incidents and/or criminogenic situations (Karp and Clear, 2000; Bazemore and Pranis, 1997). The range of stakeholders who experience or are impacted by criminogenic situations is extremely broad. They can be offenders, victims, or supporters of victims or offenders. They are also residents, students and teachers, property owners, service providers, local government officials, criminal justice practitioners, civic leaders, business owners, and others who use community resources and are affected by the quality of life in the community. As community boundaries relate to the purpose of the partnership, so do the relevant stakeholders. However,

because community justice initiatives aim to articulate the voice of the community and improve quality of life for everyone that uses or provides resources to the community, the range of stakeholders is very broad.

SUMMARY

The definitions provided in this chapter lay out what we mean by community justice—namely that it is a participatory process in which stakeholders join in collective problem solving with the goals of improving community safety, promoting community capacity for collective action, and healing the harms imposed by crime. The chapter further describes a typology of citizen involvement in community justice and describes who we mean when we refer to the stakeholders. Our definition of community hinges on geographic boundaries that can vary across partnerships. Finally, we examined the concept of capacity and what it means at the community level and to organizations and partnerships engaged in community justice initiatives.

CHAPTER 3: Community Organizations Within the Community Field

THE COMMUNITY JUSTICE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES

In recent years, research has begun to focus on defining the processes that represent restorative outcomes for communities participating in community justice initiatives. Karp and Clear's *Community Justice Integrity Model* (1999; 2000), reproduced in Figure 3-1, illustrates the processes and outcomes of community justice.

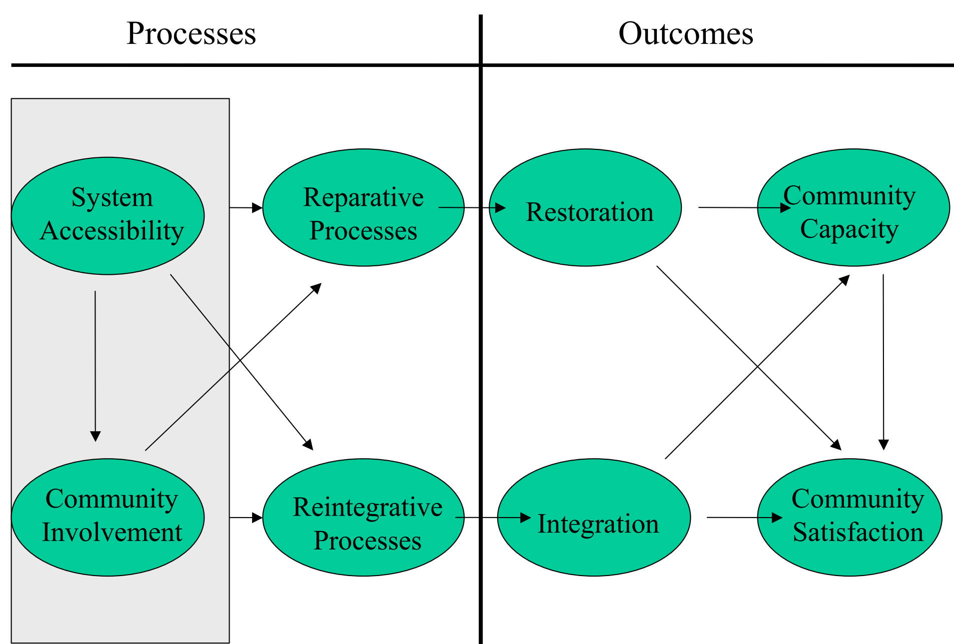


Figure 3-1. Karp and Clear Community Justice Integrity Model

Karp and Clear's work makes a significant contribution to our theoretical understanding of the pathways between reintegration and community reparation and community outcomes. However, the criminal justice literature is greatly lacking with regard to addressing or even

defining processes that produce system accessibility and how accessibility relates to community involvement. Their model provides an excellent starting point from which we can further articulate the community's role in achieving public safety as well as increased community capacity. We hope to advance the discussion by focusing precisely on these processes. The remainder of this report will describe the processes operating between the two leftmost constructs (gray box added for emphasis)—system accessibility[3] and community involvement. The remainder of this chapter will focus on the role of the organization within these processes and the theoretical basis underlying the role of the organization.

THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONS

Organizations serve several functions in community justice partnerships. Organizations, first and foremost, act as mobilizing agents. They also develop leadership, build community solidarity, and engage individual citizens in collective interests. These roles are described below.

Organizations mobilize members of the informal community within the area. They provide opportunities for individuals to share information and act collectively to respond to a problem. Although individual residents within an organization can subjectively feel empowered to act, it is the organization that provides the structural access to power and resources (Breton, 1994). Organizations also provide stability over time as individuals move, tire, or refocus their efforts and priorities elsewhere (Skogan, 1998).

Organizations cultivate leadership by providing opportunities for individuals to act in this capacity. In turn, organizational leaders can help to develop other leaders and galvanize committed followers in the community. Leadership is important for the individual and the community—it builds both individual human capacity and the capacity of a community. Strong

[3] System accessibility refers to the community's access to the formal legal system.

leaders can inspire a community, make things happen, and coordinate activities; the outputs of leadership build stronger communities.

Organizations build solidarity by providing a forum that can be used to educate residents and the public about problems and strategies for solutions. The process of education, sharing, discussing and debating (i.e., articulation and development of community voice), can lead to building consensus about local problems. This, in turn, gives the group power and solidarity when presenting to local government, or collaborating with local law enforcement to address problems.

The community, organized as a group, can generate participation and develop the community resident side of the partnership for justice initiatives. The community belongs in this partnership, by virtue of democracy and community justice. Public service provision is fundamentally different when those receiving services are not engaged in the process of defining the nature of services to be delivered or problems to be addressed (Alinksy, 1969; Duffee, 1996; Putnam, 2000; Spergel, 1976).

ORGANIZATIONS AND THEORY

Formal local organizations support the informal relationships among community stakeholders and assist in developing networks and joint efforts (Mancini et al., 2000). Community organizations serve as the means through which individual residents build networks with other residents, and other organizations, both internal and external to the local community. According to contemporary social organization/disorganization theorists, these networks of association can be used as agents of informal social control. When the networks are strong, they are associated with reductions in crime and disorder. Thus, community justice initiatives can enhance a community's responsibility for social control through processes that build community capacity to improve conditions relevant to quality of community life. Building community

capacity creates a structure within which prevention is supported by community members feeling responsible for other community members and by community members collectively accomplishing results that otherwise would be unattainable (Mancini et al., 2000). This willingness of residents to act together or cohesively for the common good of the neighborhood is often referred to as *collective efficacy*, which has become a key feature of current models of social disorganization theory. Collective efficacy links neighborhood cohesion with the developed beliefs and common expectations among residents for intervening to support informal social control (Sampson and Raudenbush, 1999:612-613). Formal institutions (i.e., organizations) help foster formal and informal networks of bonds among those involved in the institutions. These bonds foster informal social control that is directly related to collective efficacy.

Levels of Organizations

Community development researchers have developed an organizational classification system that specifies levels and sectors for organizations (Ferguson and Stoutland, 1999). We found the Ferguson and Stoutland (1999) classification method very useful for describing how local community organizations fit into the larger system of partnerships. "Levels" refer to the position of the organization, captured hierarchically from level zero to level three, from the informal neighborhood networks to state and national funders and policymakers. We borrow from the level classification and modify it in assigning each agency and organization to a level.

For our conceptual framework, we combine Ferguson and Stoutland's level zero (entities without paid staff) and level one (frontline organizations) into a *level one* organization. A *level one* partner can be a block club, youth peer group, parent-teacher association, Community Development Corporation (CDC), church, or local school—at a minimum, it must constitute a local organization, meeting regularly and having a name. Businesses where residents shop and

work and merchant associations are also level one organizations. The local police department, local government, housing authority, and businesses such as central banks, contractors and consultants that provide direct services to level one entities are *level two* organizations, or the local support organizations. These are the traditional local power holders, with concern for a larger jurisdiction (i.e. beyond the neighborhood).[4] *Level three* organizations are the state, regional, and national counterparts to level two organizations as described by Ferguson and Stoutland. Level three organizations, such as regional and national foundations, policymakers and bureaucrats, and national news media, are more likely to fund partnerships, dedicate resources to local organizations, raise national awareness, or directly affect systems change, through the creation of laws and regulations. Every organization or agency also belongs to one of three institutional sectors: for-profit, nonprofit or governmental. Within the nonprofit sector, an agency can be described as grassroots (no paid staff) or not grassroots (having paid staff). Research has shown that once an organization relies on paid staff, it begins to function differently (Ferguson and Stoutland, 1999; Milofsky, 1988). Describing organizations by level and sector may be particularly useful for understanding partner entity relationships because organizations at the different levels have different responsibilities and bring varying resources to the partnership. It is important to point out that individuals and some organizations can bridge levels within the system or partnership.

Types of Community Organizations

Front-line *(level one)* community organizations, vary in their mission and membership orientation. These differences can affect the role in community justice partnerships and ability to

---

[4] Ferguson and Stoutland include the neighborhood police station and other local branches of local government within level one. We felt it was more appropriate to classify these organizations as a branch or extension of central administration, and not as a separate local neighborhood entity or frontline agency. Therefore, for our classification, local government agencies fall into level two.

mobilize resources for collective action. We believe it is useful to further distinguish frontline organizations as institution-based organization, issue-based organizations or membership-based organizations.

Institution-Based Organizations

Some frontline organizations are affiliated with institutions that have a primary mandate to serve community residents in specific ways. Prominent examples include school-based associations such as Students Against Drunk Driving (SADD), Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA), and other youth leadership organizations. Their affiliation with a school leads them to focus on the education and well-being of youth with a school district or neighborhood. Similarly, faith-based organizations affiliated with America's religious congregations and faith-based charity groups serve local areas and often rally around the issues of health care, poverty, and crime and justice in the local area in which communicants live or have an interest. Their activities include, for example, food banks, recreational programs, substance abuse services, and homeless shelters. Faith-based organizations include local congregations of churches, synagogues, mosques and other houses of worship, and non-profit organizations that have a religious affiliation, such as Catholic Charities or the Salvation Army.

Issued-Based Organizations

Issue-based organizations not affiliated with institutions can extend beyond the boundaries of one block or neighborhood, but are included in this analysis if they have some geographic focus. Neighborhood Youth Service Group/Youth Collaboratives focus on issues surrounding local youth and work on a smaller level (not city- or county-wide). These groups develop, implement and run a variety of programs from after-school programs, developmental programs, youth diversion programs. The programs are often prevention focused, such as recreation and culture programs, social competency programs, summer programs, and tutoring or other

education programs. Youth intervention targets a different group, typically youth with delinquent or non-criminal behavior or first-time offenders. Youth intervention programs range from counseling and therapy to restorative programs and youth courts; the most common example of intervention is the neighborhood advisory board, or youth counsel.

Collaborative boards and alliances are other types of organizations that fall under the issue-based category. Boards and alliances are set up to increase comprehensive service provision around a particular issue, like health care or youth violence. Boards and alliances generally involve a large number of partners that come together including representatives from school districts, law enforcement, business associations, and political organizations. *Community-based organizations* (CBOs) are another example of issue-based groups. CBOs often support neighborhood efforts by acting as an umbrella group for many neighborhood groups, assisting in community organizing, offering services such as technical support or a meeting place, or providing a structured program that neighborhood residents can initiate in their own area. *Community development corporations (CDCs)* can be viewed as a subset under this category. CDCs are collaborations of many local non-profit and community based organizations with a general mission of community revitalization with regard to improving housing and increasing economic development.

Membership-Based Organizations

Organizations, such as neighborhood watches, block watches, crime watches, block associations, and business improvement districts (BIDs), are groups of community stakeholders from a specific geographical location who gather to address a particular pressing concern or quality of life in general within that geographic area. In block watches, residents and local law enforcement officers meet to discuss issues in the neighborhood, share information, and strategize about crime prevention. Similar to the Neighborhood Watch, block and tenant

associations are comprised of a group of residents, business representatives, and other interested citizens that devote their time and energy to improve and enhance a well-defined, geographic area in which they and others live. Neighborhood associations in most cities focus on quality of life issues, related to planning and the environment, and increasing social interaction and strengthening the social networks in the community through sponsoring block parties, festivals, and other events. Business Associations are comprised of business owners and/or employees within a specific geographic area who meet regularly with the express goal of improving the business capacity of the area. These groups work towards economic revitalization, through reducing crime and drug use, homelessness and increasing zoning opportunities and improving parking. BIDs are geographically defined areas where businesses within the area agree to pool money to be used for the betterment of the community. BIDs have broader goals such as making the area clean and safe, advocacy for the interests of the local businesses, information to enhance economic development and public improvements.

Sample Classification of Organizational Placement

As stated earlier in this chapter, a classification scheme that captures sectors and levels of organizations can be useful for examining partnerships. A classification example would look like Table 3-1, below:

Table 3-1. Sample Classification of Partnership Entities

Entity	Level	Institutional Sector
City X Police Department	2	Government
City X Housing Authority	2	Government
Main St. Block Association	1A*	Nonprofit Grassroots
ABC Church	1B	Nonprofit
City X Bank (branch of centralized bank)	1	For profit
Federal Probation	3	Government
State Probation	3	Government

*If level one community organization, specify membership-based (A), institution-based (B), issue-based (C).

THE COMMUNITY FIELD

Figure 3-2 illustrates the multidimensional configuration of relationships that occur within the community. This configuration or interaction of relationships is referred to as the *community field* (Sharp, 2000; Wilkinson, 1991). The community field includes individuals, formal local organizations, formal justice agencies and other institutions, interaction between residents and the local organizations, and interaction between these local organizations and other justice and non-justice partners. All of these elements are embedded within a community context.

The community field includes three layers describing differences in social organization. The top (most structured) layer is public agencies and formally organized institutions. The middle layer is the local community organization, in various forms. The bottom (least structured) layer is the fluid informal associations among residents and stakeholders. The layers help illuminate the somewhat complex layering of different community dimensions, all of which have an impact on social ties and the development of informal social control. The interplay of the three layers is a dynamic process that is differentially realized across neighborhoods (Sampson and Raudenbush, 1999).

The first (top) layer is refers to the traditional power holders, e.g., public agencies. These may include the police/sheriff department, and city and county government agencies, such as housing authorities, department of public works, and other social service agencies. Within the typology of organizations discussed earlier in this chapter, these agencies are referred to as level two and level three support entities (Ferguson and Stoutland, 1999).

The middle layer is represented by frontline *(level one)* organizations such as nonprofit organizations, religious organizations, school organizations and local business organizations, among others. This is the focus area of this report; the roles of these organizations and the

relationships between these organizations and the informal community, other frontline organizations, and the traditional power agencies.

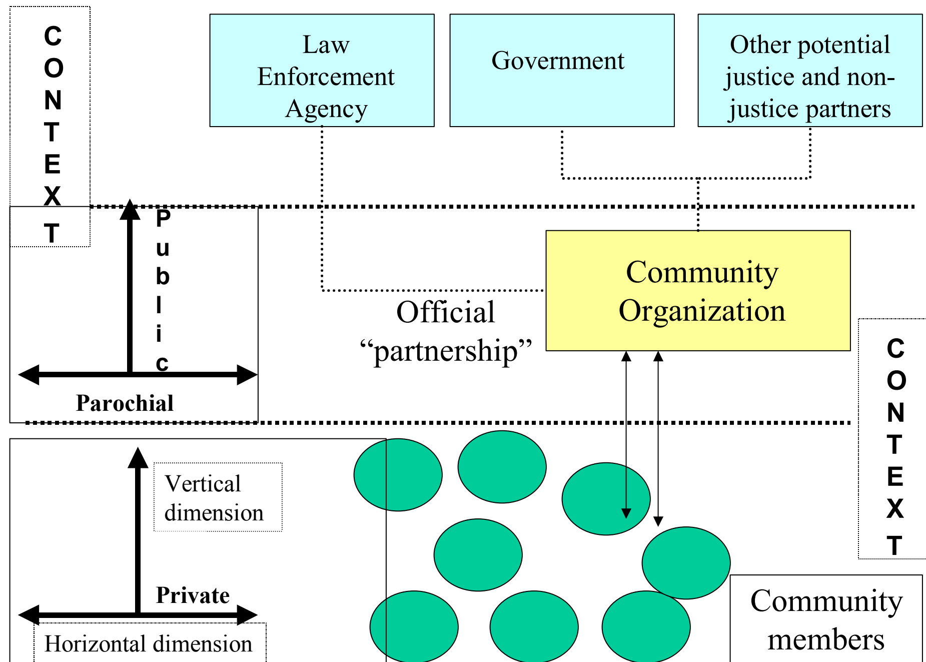


Figure 3-2. The Community Field

Finally, there are individual residents embedded within a network. Within the community member level, residents operate through both horizontal and vertical dimensions (Bursik and Grasmick, 1993; Hope, 1995; Hunter, 1985). The horizontal structure is the dimension of "social relations among individual and groups sharing a common residential space" and the production of mutual respect, trust, and reciprocity. This dimension is also been referred to the *private* level of control, based on Albert Hunter's (1978, 1985) three levels of informal social control.

The vertical dimension is the connection to power and resources, through institutions, politics, or individuals, also known as *public* control (Hunter, 1985). The vertical dimension is used to "get things done" for the individuals (Hope, 1995) and essentially, is the link to

community organizations. It is at the vertical dimension that the articulation of the community voice begins.

Similar to the bottom layer of community members, there are both horizontal and vertical processes among organizations at the middle and top levels. At the middle layer, horizontal networks exist among organizations in the community. Hunter would call this the *parochial level* representing the role of the broad interpersonal networks that are created through the interlocking of local institutions, such as stores, schools, churches and voluntary organizations. Civil society and social capital theories hold that participation in organizations builds trust in individuals and institutions. The presence of trust helps build networks and in turn, community (DeVita and Fleming, 2001; Ferguson and Dickens, 1999; Ferguson and Stoutland, 1999). This parochial level of institutions plays an important role in the community. Kornhauser (1978) argues that when the horizontal links among institutions within a community are weak, the capacity to defend local interests is weakened.

The vertical dimensions are the relationships between local organizations and the traditional power holders. Again, this refers to the *public* level, where the emphasis is on external resources and the ability of a neighborhood to influence community and government agencies in their allocation of resources to neighborhoods.

These dimensions operate in an ever-changing context of the community. The community context includes such variables as the history and composition of the community, including racial/ethnic heterogeneity, economic level, level of crime/fear of crime, and political climate.

The structure and purpose of the partnership sets the tone for the developing relationships among and between the public-level agencies and the community organizations. This, in turn, influences the end outcome(s) for the community. Hence, understanding the capacity of organizations can not be achieved through examination of organizations in isolation.

The Community Context

Local action—involving residents, local organizations, and partnerships with other organizations—must be understood in the context of the relationships between these actors, groups, and actions. The social structure or "community context" can include structural characteristics of the neighborhood, such as concentrated disadvantage, residential stability, population density, and homogeneity as well as environmental characteristics, such as the local political environment. These factors can influence both the capacity of individual organizations and the partnership overall. Because it is difficult to distinguish the difference between its effects on organizations versus the partnership, and a discussion of context in more than one place may be confusing, we chose to discuss context in light of its influence on partnership capacity, which is discussed in Chapter Five.

SUMMARY

Organizations are involved in a dynamic process involving a number of components at the different levels of control. Viewing organizations set within a dynamic, multi-layer community field, there are several implications for our conceptual framework:

- *Community* represents a well-defined geographic area, providing the ability to focus mission and thereby define potential partners, strategies for partnership development and measurement of outcomes.
- Delineation of "who" the partners are, including partners representing both the community and traditional power structures, becomes a key component to articulate change.
- Specification of "how" partners communicate and collaborate—dimensions of horizontal and vertical integration—becomes another key component of the framework.

CHAPTER 4: Community Organizations as Partners

Partnerships, by definition, involve more than one party working together to solve problems and/or improve situations. Partnerships are expressed through relationships where each partner invests time and resources. A community organization must be capable of producing some asset —whether it is a community voice, resources, or the ability to problem solve—and have the ability to deliver on the commitments they make. In the simplest example, a relationship must embody the provision of assets and the assumption of risk. By partnering, partners risk money, time, influences, or other assets in pursuit of commonly defined goals (Walker, 1999).

In our efforts to understand these partnerships, we first wanted to document the characteristics of organizations that assist them in acting as partners with other agencies in community justice initiatives. Organizations need not have extensive financial resources, or be laden with political connections to act as a *partner*, but they must have some capacity to benefit the partnership. Our extensive research in a number of fields, including the nonprofit literature, organizational theory, community psychology, and community development literature, and conversations with practitioners and researchers identified three factors associated with the capacity of organizations to participate in partnerships, regardless of the impetus behind the partnership. These dimensions of organizational capacity are leadership, resources, and orientation. While other characteristics of community organizations such as organizational demographics, vision and mission, outreach and networks, and products and service are noted by some as key organizational descriptors, the trio of leadership, resources, and orientation were seen as central to determining the capacity to partner in community justice activities.

LEADERSHIP

Leadership is key in facilitating the partnership process. Leadership roles in community organizations are diverse in both quality and level of formality—from volunteers to paid employees and trained leaders such as VISTA workers. Leaders do many things; they motivate and mobilize others, articulate the community voice and the organization's goals and missions, and establish the systems and mechanisms to achieve those goals. Their role enhancing other aspects of the organization, such as outreach, resources, and implementation of projects, makes them a crucial part of an organization.

Leaders play a vital role in developing connections, or networks, both within an organization and between an organization and other organizations, agencies, and institutions (Deich, 2001). This outreach helps to increase public relations and strengthen the horizontal dimensions or networks of the organization. Additionally, networked organizations are stronger than organizations without networks. Research shows that isolated organizations are the ones most likely to struggle and fail (Glaskiewicz and Beielefeld, 1998). Leaders foster the horizontal links within the community and the vertical links to powerholders within government agencies. To build and maintain connections, leaders must possess the skills of consensus building, networking, exercising nonjurisdictional power, institution building, and flexibility (Gardner, 1990).

Leaders have a key role in articulating the community voice through identification and development of core values and unifying purpose. There is a community justice *process* associated with generating the community voice; it is a process that includes generating consensus, using good data, and deliberating, or entering into "community dialog." This is where leaders are crucial; they use these skills to gather and articulate the community voice, or the voice of their constituents, and guide the community through these processes.

In the sections that follow, we discuss types of leadership, as well as key leadership skills and research practices for quantifying leadership.

Defining Leadership Styles and Skills

A good leader is not merely a title, but rather a complex set of dynamic qualities that embody *leadership*, such as the ability to share power, be flexible, see the big picture, and demonstrate trustworthiness and patience, energy and hope. There is no universal definition of leadership, but there are common characteristics, set forth by a variety of scholars in the area (Barnard, 1948; Bass, 1990; Kotter, 1990; Rost, 1993; Yukl, 1998). Descriptions of leadership skills identified a number of attributes such as the ability to teach and lead by example. Through interacting with others, particularly interacting with and observing those with an admired status, residents will learn and model behavior that they believe will result in positive outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Other leadership skills include the ability to formulate a vision, interpersonal and organizational abilities (Kelley, 1995). Discussions of leadership that stood out as particularly relevant to this research included the concept of **transformational** leadership as this pertains to the capacity for instigating change and the vision of leadership as a process within a democratic process.

Transformational Leadership

We found the term *transformational leadership* to fit best within the concept of leadership within community justice. Transformational leadership aligns directly with dimensions of community justice—this leadership "generates awareness and acceptance of the purposes and the mission of the group as they (the leaders) stir their employees (community members) to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group (community)" (Bass, 1990: 10).

Transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) is based in trust and communication; it can be expressed by the following leadership skills: developing leadership and effective followership, building interconnectedness, mobilizing and empowering the informal community, and articulating the community voice (adapted from Hickman, 1997). Figure 4-1 illustrates how transformational leadership connects the informal community (i.e., residents, stakeholders) with formal community organizations within the Community Field (Figure 3-2 in Chapter Three).

.

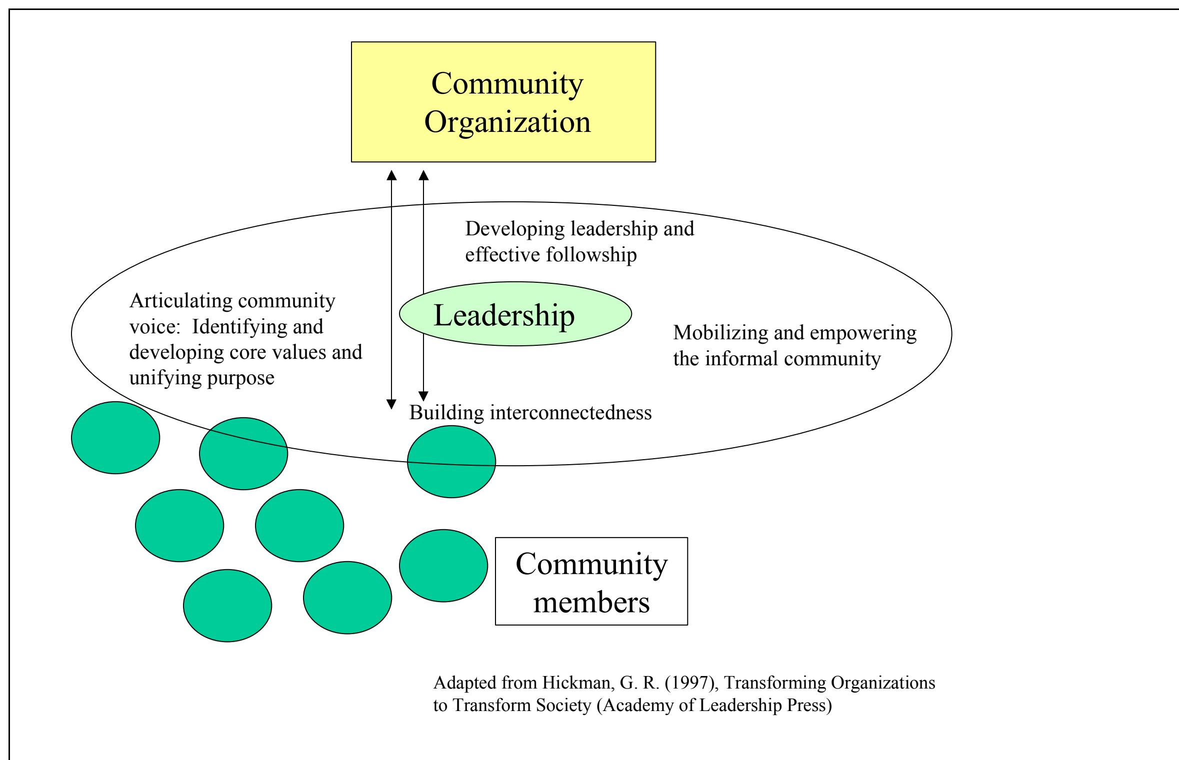


Figure 4-1. Transformational Leadership

Leadership as a Process

Leadership is a process in which voices of stakeholders coalesce into views of the collective in which genuine common goals are more than an aggregation of individual preferences (Bennet, 1998). In the process of formulating community opinion strong leaders

must overcome misguided information or false assumptions about problems, and avoid the risk that vocal community subgroups who, particularly if they have power, will most likely overshadow the "invisible" community. To illustrate the first point, take an example of one police-community partnerships by Thacher (2001) where the community was sidetracked by "perceptions, assumptions, and unconfirmed information:"

> A homeowners association, after several incidents in an apartment complex near the homes, brought their concerns to the local city council and demanded "action" (in the form of traditional crackdowns). The city created an interdepartmental Action Team to respond to the situation. While the perception was that the apartment complex was riddled with illegal aliens, drugs, prostitution, and other illegal activity, upon investigation and analysis, the police found that this was not the case. First, through working with the community and analyzing data, the officers found that a few residents caused the problems associated with the building, at best, and non-residents visiting the complex. They dealt with this appropriately. Second, the officers documented that the problems at this complex did not constitute a hotspot; they were no different from other complexes of a similar size. Finally, when the team returned to the original homeowners association and presented the data, the police offered the homeowners an opportunity to walk through the complex and meet some of the residents; through this process, the homeowners changed their mindset and perceptions about the complex.

In this example, response to one community group with traditional police action, without careful analysis and examination, would have resulted in a grave injustice. The key piece of analysis in this example was to examine several sources of information, including the objective data, such as calls for service, complaints, and crime, the views of officers, the views of residents. All of this information, if layered, presents the accurate state of the community (Thacher, 2001). We will illustrate the second point, the "squeaky wheel," with another example from Thacher:

> In Lowell, Massachusetts, a well-connected neighborhood group sought to influence the location of a new precinct for the area. Two sites were chosen: the largely Cambodian Lower Highlands part of the neighborhood (the local Police Department's choice), and the predominately white Cupples Square section of the community. The Cupples Square community group was well connected to local politics and was able to exert pressure on the police department. The department, in return, felt that the greatest need for the precinct was in the Cambodian section

> of town, "that's where people were actually dying." So, the police put together a well-informed presentation of the two competing sites and presented this to a neighborhood meeting. In addition to the presentation, the department knew they had to actively recruit other constituencies, particularly members of the Cambodian neighborhood, to the meeting. The meeting proceeded as follows, "So here you have this group of two hundred or so white lower-middle class individuals who are pretty politically savvy. And all of a sudden, fifty or a hundred Cambodian people come in and sit down at the meeting. They don't know what to do. The people at the meeting didn't know how to handle this. And then we (the police) walked in and we put on a really good presentation with data and photos of what the two locations looked like." After the presentation and discussion that followed, sentiment had switched and the group overwhelming voted to go with the (Cambodian) site.

To address both of these issues, the partner, in this case the police department, used methods of inclusion, data analysis, and discussion to bring about a just community decision. This is all part of the process of *community voice* leading to *community dialog*. In this example, unless the Cambodian group moves on to organize themselves and enter into a partnership with other agencies and other community groups, this is merely an isolated example of one partner agency (the police) galvanizing the missing community voice. The Cambodian group experienced therapy, information, and consultation, and, in at the highest point could be placed on the *placation* rung of Arnstein's ladder, however, this example could be the impetus for the Cambodian group to organize themselves and enter the partnership.

Community groups and partners need access and the ability to use information, and a forum to discuss and debate issues in a democratic fashion. Sometimes the community group may not have the resources necessary to articulate community priorities, but another partner at the table can offer this resource. To rank and respond to problems, the community and partners need good data, whether it is quantitative information, such as GIS-based information and analysis, quantitative survey data, or qualitative interviews or focus groups. These data, preferably a variety of data, are a necessary part of presenting the community voice in context. It would be unwise to merely respond to citizen concerns without objective evaluation and analysis and

discussion of the situation. Once the problems are clearly defined and verified, the community and other agencies can generate solutions. These mechanisms ensure a non-partisan, participatory, democratic process as a vehicle for articulating each community's voice.

Leaders are an important part of this process because it is difficult to engage the entire community (Pranis, 1998). Leaders are often the starting point; they are the first to begin to generate this collective consultation and decision-making (Bennet, 1998) about problems among residents. They are the ones who are involved with the information sharing exchange with other agencies and carry that information back to the community. By their nature, leaders then reach out to educate others and facilitate their involvement in the process (Pranis, 1998).

Quantifying Leadership

Good leadership means different things to different people. Existing research on assessing and measuring leadership comes from a variety of sources, particularly business management and school administration, about quantifying leadership. Leadership attributes or leadership outcomes that a business looks for in a CEO may not be the same attributes that a community group looks for in a leader, but there are many overlapping qualities. Even within community justice, the nature of the partnership effort and the context of the community dictate the leadership skills required for the particular initiative. How, then, can one quantify leadership? We identified three dimensions of leadership: leadership traits, leadership styles, and leadership results.

Leaders can have different traits, and there are many psychological instruments measuring personality and leadership attributes. These tests may examine a person's traits, or individual characteristics, such as strong-willed, aggressive, amiable, charismatic, etc. An individual's traits are inherent characteristics of the person, and may affect the leadership styles the individual is capable of using.

Several studies have defined leadership styles (Achieving Styles Institute, 2002; Goleman, 2000; Parry, 1999) The most recent leadership styles study by Hay and McBer of nearly 4,000 business executives found six distinct leadership styles (Goleman, 2000). We found that the definition of transformational leadership as presented here possessed four of these six leadership styles: the authoritative, or mobilizing people towards a vision; the affiliative, or creating harmony and building emotional bonds; the democratic, or forging consensus through participation; and the coaching, or developing people for the future. Two of the leadership styles were not represented by transformational leadership, as defined here: the coercive style, which demands immediate compliance; and the pacesetting style, which sets high standards of performance and is typically used to get quick results from a highly motivated and competent team.

Parry (1999) reports that leadership has a positive impact of the "bottom line" of an organization, which we would capture as the outputs of the local community organization, however the impact is not direct. Leadership has an immediate impact on the psychology and then behavior of the group, therefore, these are the important variables of leadership results that we want to capture. Selected measurable direct outcomes of leadership within organizations described in Parry (1999) include: (1) level of follower motivation, (2) types of follower perception (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ, Bass and Avolio, 1997), (3) level of follower commitment (Organizational Commitment Scale, Mowday et al., 1979), (4) nature of organizational culture (see literature by Edgar Schein, 1992 on the impact of effective leadership on the enhancement of organizational culture); and (5) degree of understanding of organizational mission, through open-ended or semi-structured interviews to determine the level of understanding and agreement with organizational vision. Another outcome of leadership can be measured through members' perceptions of *leadership process*, such as (1) Does the leadership

effectively encourage different points of view in discussion? (2) Minimize personality differences? (3) Deal with power struggles and hidden agendas? (4) Encourage teamwork? and (5) Identify and celebrate milestones? (Community Organizational Assessment Tool, Bright,1998). Most of these questions presume a response by the members of an organization or external evaluators. The indirect outputs of leadership, or the results, successes and failures, will be captured as part of the activities and outcomes of the organization.

A relationship exists between leadership traits, styles, and outcomes. Jones and Bearly, (2000) warn that measuring leadership should focus less on leadership style and more on leadership results. Indeed, for our purposes, the *results* of leadership—the immediate outcomes of leadership—are vital to understanding organizational capacity to partner. The resulting products of strong leadership are fed into the partnership framework and influence end outcomes.

RESOURCES

To act as a capable partner, an organization must have some asset to bring to the partnership. This can be a tangible resource, such as money, supplies, or time, or an intangible resource, such as generating participation or having a strong understanding of community problems. We will define examples of three types of resources, with the understanding that an organization does not need each and every resource to be a competent partner. Resources are dynamic since the aspects of one resource, such as the presence of a phone and/or computer, may affect the aspects of another resource, such as recruiting more volunteers. Additionally, resources are closely related to community context. Communities with substantial economic resources will have to rely less on human resources and (Hunter and Staggenbord, 1988) and vice versa.

A combination of the organization's variables—funding source, funding base, technological resources, human resources, organization structure and type, among others—in turn, may

determine the capability of local organizations to secure funds for large efforts that would be better served through a partnership. Grants may have grant requirements, reporting requirements, technological requirements that may inhibit some organizations or jurisdictions from applying. For example, complex federal partnership grants may require elaborate grant writing processes and complex administrative arrangements and therefore attract only those types of organizations that can handle the requirements, while a locally-based grass-roots organization may attempt to acquire smaller, less intensive grants until they build their resource base and are capable of securing larger grants.

Organizations must recognize the importance of building the capacity to communicate with other organizations to leverage resources. As stated earlier, strong leaders enable development of local networks. Network building can occur horizontally with other community organizations (horizontal integration) and vertically with the traditional powerholders and local, state and national funders (vertical integration). The process takes time, and efforts are rewarded incrementally. As local organizations begin to secure funding and enter into partnership initiatives, their resource base grows. Once funding for a partnership is secured, many resource benefits, human, technological, and financial, may be available for the local community-based organization. These can include computers, technical assistance, cell phones, organizational housing, and direct funds. For example, in the Maryland HotSpot Communities Initiative, each local community organization received a $5000 yearly stipend (financial resource), access to technical assistance for grant writing and other education (human resources), a paid community organizer (human resources), and computers (technological), and some organizations received housing indirectly through other partners in the grant, such as the local police department. In this example, because of the partnership, local organizations can build on and increase all aspects of their resource foundation.

Human Resources

Human resources can be defined broadly as *knowledge and human capital*. Strong leadership is highly valued human resource. As stated earlier, leadership can help to gain and leverage other resources, outreach to the community and increase networks. Members of our focus group also mentioned inspirational individuals, internal or external to the organization, who can help mobilize the group for action and should be considered a human resource. Internally, the inspirational resource can be, for example, a single elderly woman in the neighborhood who was the catalyst for cleaning up a local park, by bringing the problem to the attention of local organizations. Externally, the inspirational resource can be a paid community organizer or motivational speaker who mobilizes the community.

Members and leaders of locally based organizations can bring significant knowledge to the partnership. This is their territory, they know the history of the community, can articulate the problems, and know what will and will not work locally. Locally based organizations can also call on members for assistance and have advantages in recruiting volunteers and other temporary assistance.

The core member group of the organization, whether it be a sole leader, or an organized core group, must be *committed*; they must be willing and able to maintain the organization in the face of withering support or a lack of consistent volunteers. Without a committed group of people, most of whom may be volunteers themselves, or the ability to recruit other peripheral volunteers to participate in events, an organization can literally disappear. Beyond the committed group of members in an organization, most organizations rely heavily on this peripheral volunteer group of residents. Both kinds of human resources—the committed core group and the peripheral volunteers and members—bring talent, skills, and labor to the organization, as well as financial support.

Financial resources

Financial resources are an important, but by no means definitive, characteristic of local organizations. The funding base and operating budget of local organizations varies tremendously, and can be an important variable in explaining productivity or success. The source of the funding is also an important variable. Funding arenas for the organization can include the federal government, state government, local government, businesses, foundations, religious organizations, and earned income (Milofsky and Romo, 1988). It is important to differentiate between groups that are financially supported by local government, as opposed to 501(c)(3) organizations, and totally informal groups with little to no funding. There are phases associated with funding as well; an organization may launch with only a strong leader, a vision, and a few members, but as momentum gains, the organization can begin to seek and obtain funding from a variety of sources and leverage resources from individuals, businesses, and organizations inside and outside of the community.

Technological resources

Technological resources such as databases, websites, tracking systems, and listservs, and access to email (DeVita and Fleming, 2001) can be used to help keep track of members, recruit members, increase resources, and plan events. Technology can be used to improve the organization and the organization's level of capacity; for example, asset mapping is a way to identify and assess all the capabilities or capacities of a community to improve, build, or transform the community. Once all of the institution information is consolidated in one place, the community may find they have all the resources they had hoped for, or, can easily now pinpoint the gaps in service, and become strong candidates for locally and federally funded projects.

Quantifying Resources

Resources can be quantified in a number of ways given the diversity of resource types (human, money, technology, inspirational). There is no research indicating how to weight each type. One strategy is to compile a list of possible resources. A list could include, for example:

Human	Financial	Technological
Number of members	Size and source of organization budget	Presence/use of computers
Percent increase in membership	Percent increase in budget	Phone lines/voicemail/email
Number of members who are on the advisory board of funders	Amount of organization budget raised from local sources	Directory of members and services
Presence/extent of core members	Number of grant proposals submitted	Database of members
Presence, extent, access to volunteers	Number of grant proposals funded	Website
	Number of special fundraising events held and amount collected	

Excerpt from resource list in the Aspen Institute Rural Economic Policy Program, 1996

Questions about resources could ask about the existence and use of specific applications. Does it use technology to increase outreach, such as to create posters, brochures, and newsletters? Broad questions may be sufficient to capture general resources. Questions can include: (1) Are the organization's resources sufficient to achieve its goals? and (2) Are the resources being used effectively?

ORGANIZATIONAL ORIENTATION TOWARDS TRADITIONAL POWER HOLDERS

Finally, a critical area of organizational capability is the determination of readiness for and commitment to engage in joint community justice efforts. We use the word orientation to capture this element. Orientation of the organization towards traditional power holders—level two and level three agencies— is a defining feature of community organizations in community justice initiatives. Factors such as the community climate, views of legitimacy of and trust in

government authority, and existing relations and experiences with other groups, can affect the capacity of an organization to partner as it moves through the stages of readiness to confront a local problem and enter into a partnership.

An organization can have strong leadership and ample resources, but if they are not ready, or oriented, to work with an official agency in the pursuit of community justice, then the organization will not move forward. The organization must be ready to think about collective problems, as opposed to a sum of individual issues, to problem solve with other agencies, to work through a process of *public deliberation* (Thacher, 2001) if it seeks to work under the guise of community justice. In short, the organization must be ready and willing to participate in the process of community dialogue with other agencies as defined in the leadership section.

Orientation is affected by many contextual features and affects the relationship between the partners. Race and culture are two community factors that can greatly influence orientation. Organizational orientation can change and develop as it is fed by experiences, new and old, and is shaped by context. Williams (1995) presents a definition of organizational orientation of community organizations with regard to their feelings about local partners such as law enforcement and government. The groups from each orientation had varying degrees of partnership success. William's organizational orientations are:

- **Delegational orientation.** This orientation is marked by active cooperation with government-designed solutions by seeking *incorporation in* and *formal interaction with* the government. Within this orientation, the government is legitimate and can be trusted; the citizen/community role is to share information with the government, or strive to be the "street-level arm of government."
- **Negotiational orientation.** The group seeks to assume grassroots vigilance over crime along with assuming vigilance over the response of the government. This approach increases the obligation of both the group and the community, yet demands more accountability from the government. In this interdependent relationship, it is important to have dialogue between the government and community groups. According to Williams, these groups work toward "broadening community involvement and developing self-governance."

- **Adversarial orientation.** "The government is responsible for the community's problems." This type of group responds to neighborhood crime by emphasizing internally generated solutions while maintaining independence from, and distrust of, government and police. They seek to narrow the obligation of the government while broadening that of the group and the community. The group cultivates estrangement, emphasizing the differences between the government and the community; it includes a need to resist government domination or police repression and use that sentiment as a mobilizing symbol.
- **Alienated orientation.** Acknowledge that independent action will not work or is dangerous, yet local police and politicians are not to be trusted. Groups with an alienated orientation usually collapse. Activists do not believe that they can influence local government or the police, therefore they do not organize effectively; they do not believe that they have the resources to defend themselves from the community crime or the police and local authorities.

The defining operational position of the organization will affect the role of the community within the organization as well as the role of the organization with other justice and non-justice partners. The overriding philosophical orientation of the organization will affect the interactions of the organization with local partners, such as law enforcement and local government. The orientation will color all of these interactions, such as the purpose of the partnership, roles and responsibilities, and appropriate partners. Good or bad experiences with other agencies and the extent of trust in other agencies may shape and frame the orientation as it moves from, for example, alienated to negotiational, as the organization becomes ready to enter a partnership.

Quantifying Orientation

The essence of orientation can be captured by a combination of several concepts: The community climate, legitimacy of government authority, and existing relations and experiences with other groups. The community climate can be measured by the general *trust* of other agencies, particularly government agencies, the extent of generational, racial, and cultural diversity issues, and the political climate in the area. It can also be measured by a group's feelings of legitimacy of government, police, and other organizations. Existing relationships can be captured by the history of partnership with other agencies and the experiences associated with

these partnerships, the number of collaborative projects, the success of these projects, the increase or decrease in collaborations, the number of collaborations that involve government agencies and the quality of these collaborations (discussed further in *pre-existing networks* later in this chapter). Many of these variables will be correlated to the stage of readiness in the community and the organization. Stages of readiness and measuring stages of readiness will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

OTHER ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

There are a myriad of other organizational characteristics that can be used to describe organizations. The characteristics described above are those that greatly influence an organization's ability to become part of partnership initiative. The characteristics described below may influence the ability of an organization to partner, but not to the same extent as leadership, resources, and orientation. The characteristics described below can be viewed simply as descriptive categories that enable full description of partnership characteristics.

Formality of Structure

Organizational structure can be characterized by the level of formality within an organization. A selection of organizational questions could include: (1) Does the coalition/organization have bylaws? (2) Does it produce agendas and minute from meetings? (3) Does it have a written description of decision-making processes? (4) What are those decision making processes? and (5) Does the group produce an annual report? Structural variables of the leadership and organization are: (1) Do committees have clear statement of purpose? (2) Do they have clear written goals and objectives? (3) Are the committee structure and membership reviewed annually for their relevancy? and (4) Is there a mechanism requiring short- and long term planning for the board and its committees? (Community Organizational Assessment Tool: Bright, 1998). Are leaders elected, appointed, or hired? Other organizational-structural variables

include the tax status of the organization, articles of incorporation, or other legal and financial apparatus. Taken together, organizations can be characterized by the level of formality of their leadership structure, or the complexity[5] of their structure, or the continuum from democracy to bureaucracy. Additionally, Zimmerman outlined another structural measure of leadership density[6] within organizations. However, not all community organizations are formal organizations with a clearly defined leadership structure; we could not find research about the efficacy of one model over another, or history of success under a certain organizational structure.

Organizational Mission

Organizational mission is an important characteristic, and it corresponds closely to products and outputs of the organization. Organizations can be grouped broadly according to main organizational purpose. Broad groups can include crime prevention (Crime Watch types), beautification groups (Local Garden Clubs), civic-focused groups (Elks Lodge, Kiwanis), politically focused groups, youth-focused groups (prevention and intervention), etc. The group's vision or mission can be articulated by a mission statement. This kind of statement should be clear and concise; it should define the organization's purpose and can be used as both a planning tool and performance measurement tool. For example, "if a community theater group's mission is to offer culturally diverse arts programs it can use "cultural diversity" as a criterion for assessing its program activities at the end of the year" (DeVita and Fleming, 2001).

Several studies have reported that a pure crime focus does not provide a strong foundation for a community organization. In general, crime-focused organizations seem to experience more

---

[5] An organization may have many layers, structured hierarchically, with formalized divisions of labor (Milofsky and Romo, 1988). Milofsky and Romo created constructs of structural diversity and complexity that incorporate many of the components we outline in this chapter. Structural complexity can be simply defined as the continuum of an organization from democracy to bureaucracy.

[6] Zimmerman (1992) developed a simple measure of leadership in organizations. Non participants were given a score of zero, participants who held no leadership positions were given a score of one, and organizational leaders were given a score of two. Individuals who reported being an officer, serving on a committee, or helping organize meetings during the last 12 months received a score of two on this variable.

difficulties in maintaining an active participant base, and often dissipate shortly after a crime-related target has been reached (Feins, 1983; Podolefsky and DuBow, 1981; Skogan, 1988; Bursik and Grasmick, 1993). Additionally, crime prevention efforts that focus on neighborhood disorganization do not by themselves provide neighbors with new connections to nonlocal resources (Hope, 1995). It is only through these "external linkages" to organizations for resources and expertise that true neighborhood improvement can take place. Organizations that focus on the causes and correlates of crime, such as housing, opportunities for youth, education, and interpersonal community relationships—what Bursik and Grasmik (1993) describe as "general multi-issue neighborhood organizations"—have great, albeit "less touted" success.

Outreach and Pre-existing Networks

Outreach activities such as education, dissemination and recruiting are vital to the maintenance of an organization; these activities help to preserve and build networks. As a subtopic of outreach, pre-existing networks can be captured the number and type of external linkages both of the organization and of the community, perhaps stratified by sector, such as "downtown connections" and "political mobility." (Skogan et al., 1999). Downtown connections is a measure of how well-connected organizations are to important political leaders and policy makers, whether the community representatives are aggressively pursuing community revitalization, whether government grants or private investments were visibly improving public areas of the beat, and if beat residents had "friends in high places" by virtue of their job or affiliation. "Political mobility," can be measured by readiness to mobilized against losing public facilities, electoral mobilization, who people vote for and whether the favored candidate had anything to give them (Skogan et al., 1999). In addition to downtown and political connections, we could also measure law enforcement connections and connections to other organizations. These variables may have strong explanatory power when measuring things such as informal

social control. For example, Skogan (1999) found that those neighborhoods with strong downtown connections and political mobility also experienced high organizational involvement and informal social control.

Products and Services

Products and services refer to the activities and outputs of the organization and the partnership. Organizational projects are on output of an organization; they are closely related to organizational mission and purpose, and organizations can pursue a wide variety of projects, with or without the partnership of a local government agency. For example, a local crime watch may pursue CPTED projects; a local garden club or environmental group may sponsor beautification projects; a neighborhood association can hold "clean-up" events; block or watch groups can conduct community patrol, such as the *Orange Hats* in Washington, D.C. and hold block parties and National Night Out events; and local youth-focused groups may provide prevention programs and activities for neighborhood youth. In addition to the types of programs and projects that the organization pursues, we could quantify the number of programs that serve neighborhood residents, the amount of pro-social opportunities for various age groups, and the general level of activity of the group and/or individuals.[7] Some of the preceding examples demonstrate possible police-local organization partnership project, such as conducting a community patrol or organizing National Night Out, while other projects, such as a local "clean-up" event or beautification project may be held exclusively by the local organization.

[7] Zimmerman attempted to measure organizational participation by the following variables: (1) Number of organizations of which respondents reported being a member, (2) leadership in the organization that respondents identified as their most important organizational affiliation, (3) amount of organizational activity (3-point Likert scale), and (4) community activities, using a 10-item checklist of activities such as attending a public meeting, writing to a public official, contributing money, etc.

SUMMARY

We drew from the nonprofit literature, organizational theory, community psychology, and community development, and from the results of our focus group discussion to understand characteristics of community organizations which are important to the development of capacity to partner for community justice initiatives. We identified three key organizational characteristics that influence the capacity of the organization to be an effective partnership participant. These characteristics are leadership, resources, and orientation. We also highlighted a number of other characteristics of community organizations that work dynamically with these concepts, such as formality of structure, mission, outreach, networks, products and services. We provided brief examples of strategies for measurement of these characteristics. These examples are not an exhaustive list of options and some have not ever been tested. They are intended to illustrate directions for future research.

In this chapter, we did not address the characteristics of other potential partner agencies in criminal justice initiatives, such as police, probation, or other governmental (level two and level three3) agencies. The characteristics highlighted in this chapter can and should be applied to these agencies. Government agencies, like formally structured organizations, in particular have several levels of players—traditionally the service delivery, middle management, and executive—often arranged in a conventional hierarchy (see Roth, Johnson, Moore, forthcoming). This structure adds another layer of detail, and it is important to capture many of these characteristics at each level. All organizational characteristics will not apply to all partners, but resources, orientation, and several leadership characteristics should be captured distinctly at the various organizational levels. Examining the important characteristics of government agencies is outside the scope of this report, however we touch briefly again on this issue in Chapter Six, *A Framework for Understanding Partnership Capacity*.

CHAPTER 5: The Partnership

Community justice partnerships enable the principles of community justice to be put into action. As discussed in Chapter Two, a partnership is a commitment among at least one criminal justice agency and one community organization to invest resources to bring about mutually beneficial *community* outcomes. The mutually beneficial community outcomes would not be possible through the actions of one agency or organization acting alone. Through partnerships, individual organizations join together with justice agencies for the common good of the community—whether the common good be defined explicitly or implicitly as public safety.

As stated in the introduction to our report, partnerships involve dynamic relationships that are constantly changing. Partnerships evolve as partners come in and out of the partnership, priorities change, obstacles are encountered, and efforts move from planning, through implementation and maintenance. Generally, there are four basic stages of partnerships as diagrammed in Figure 5-1—formation, implementation, maintenance and outcomes. After partnerships form, member entities begin the planning process. Implementation follows, and then maintenance of the partnership as activities are implemented. The last stage generally occurs after the partnership or program has been fully implemented and results start to be realized. The dynamic processes of partnerships coupled with the unique nature of every partnership yields a great challenge for evaluation research. We cannot emphasize this enough. The intent of this chapter is to provide a summary of important partnership dimensions that will enable a sufficient description or categorization of partnerships that will guide us in forming a conceptual framework.

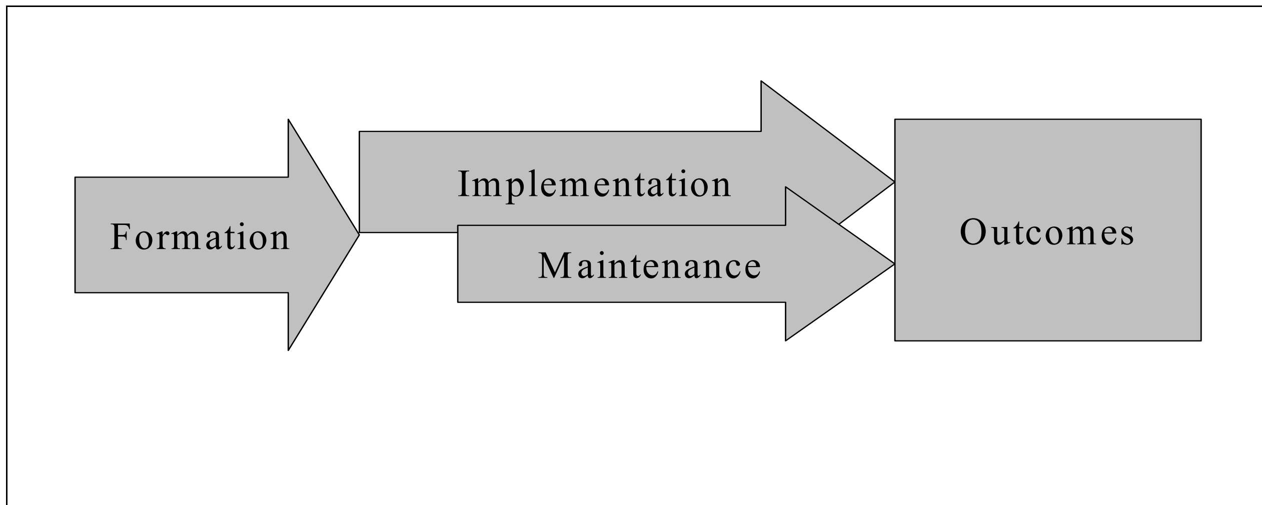


Figure 5-1. Stages of Partnerships.

DIMENSIONS OF PARTNERSHIPS

A framework to understand the capacity of community justice partnership would contain a number of dimensions (e.g., power structure, resources), regardless of the type of criminal justice agency—police, court, or corrections—that is involved in the partnership. The framework, discussed in detail in the next chapter, attempts to capture important dimensions of capacity that are relevant to all stages of partnership evolution. To understand the features and characteristics related to capacity, we briefly reviewed the literature on best practices of partnerships from a number of substantive arenas: community building and community practice, community psychology, criminal justice, public health, sociology, organizational development and evaluation research. From this review of the literature and the results of our focus group, we organize the findings into a number of dimensions and provide a summary that will serve to lay the groundwork to develop a more detailed framework for understanding and assessing the capacity of community justice partnerships.

Community Readiness/Orientation

Community readiness or orientation is similar to organizational orientation discussed in Chapter Four, but pertains to the entire community and its influence on the nature and success of the partnership. We have identified eight general influences on a community's readiness to participate in community justice initiatives. These are

- The impetus for the partnership;
- Community structure;
- The capacity of the organizational partners;
- Prior history of collaborations in the community;
- The existence of politics or turf wars;
- The funding history and current uncertainties;
- Partnership over saturation; and
- A community's willingness to evolve and change.

Impetus for the Partnership

There are a number of reasons why a partnership might form. The community can be responding to a recent crisis or even an impending one, or the partnership can form as a desire to improve general community conditions or increase communication and collaboration among a few specified agencies. A new funding stream can also serve as the impetus, as is the case with Federal demonstration funding to test new program models (such as Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention sponsored SafeFutures program). Partnerships that are created around new funding streams are often wedded to a stated mission and timeframe, and are driven by expected outcomes. Short time frames may speed up community building activities that would normally need a longer timeframe to implement. As a result of a quicker timeframe, resident buy-in and civic participation may no longer be priorities (Goodman, Wheeler, and Lee, 1995; Mulroy, 2000) within community justice activities. In addition to the Federal government, state and local governments are under increasing pressure to find new and effective ways of conducting criminal justice activities. Hence, the public sector may turn to the community for

innovative methods for operating and financing community services (Deich, 2001). In general, partnerships where impetus comes from inside the community are more likely to succeed (Butterfooss, Goodman, and Wandersman, 1996; Edelman, 1987; Swift and Healey, 1986; Wolff, 2001). This is often because the community itself has deemed itself ready for the initiative. Impetus coming from within the community may reflect existing structures that are viewed as credible and legitimate (Sofaer, 1992). For instance, the community may have a collaborative history with police agencies thereby creating community trust, and as a result, the community is ready and willing to participate in a new partnership effort. However, outside impetus, such as funding from the Federal government, can enable partnerships to be successful, if the program architects create a flexible design that adjusts with the capacity of the local community. In some cases, government funding has been targeted to build capacity in communities that are not deemed ready for full implementation. This occurred in the Department of Justice-funded HotSpot demonstration, where funding was divided into rounds. Sites deemed "not ready" in Round 2 received funds that could be used for capacity building (Griffith, 2002).

Community Structure

Community structure plays an important role when trying to understand the role of partnerships in voicing community interests. When referring to a disadvantaged neighborhood, where "they do not own their houses, often do not have their own transport, cannot buy their way into better services, and do not attract the best providers, their only route to influence is to have a say" (Taylor, 2000). Sometimes, the voice is all they have. Without this important feature of collective voice, generated through good leadership, the community risks offering a disconnected, distorted, or myopic voice to other agencies. At the other extreme, the community may be unable to articulate the voice or bring their concerns to the table and therefore risk becoming part of the hidden community.

Empirical research has been uneven regarding how community justice initiatives function in various contexts, in part because the collection of data has not been systematic and there are few rigorous comparative studies of initiatives taking place under varied contexts. In addition, the rigorous multi-site evaluations that exist too often have such flexibility of program models that it is impossible to conclude how community environments influenced outcomes. Of particular importance is parsing out the explanatory features of the neighborhood such as race, income, residential stability, marital status, and home ownership. Some found that organizing is more difficult in low-income heterogeneous areas most in need of crime prevention assistance (Rosenbaum, 1988). Others, such as Portney and Berry (1997), found high participation in low-income areas; they examined neighborhood characteristics and participation in various organizations and found that black neighborhoods of all economic backgrounds demonstrate relatively high levels of political participation in neighborhood associations.

Skogan (1990) provides the best comparative results from their evaluation of the COPS program in fifteen police beats in Chicago. The research found that community capacity, measured by informal social control, organizational involvement, and "downtown connections," was high in three beats—an upper-middle income white neighborhood, a middle-income white neighborhood, and mixed middle and lower class African American neighborhood. The low capacity beats included two racially diverse neighborhoods with low home ownership and many apartment complexes and a Spanish speaking community, divided between Puerto Rican and Mexican-Americans Those neighborhoods with higher community capacity were also racially homogeneous. To summarize, capacity (as measured by Skogan) was highest in racially homogeneous, stable, home-owning, and affluent beats (Skogan, 1990). However, there was no direct association between community capacity and program implementation. The success of the COPS policing program, according to the research team, was greater in some of the lower

capacity areas. This demonstrates the challenge of understanding capacity, participation, and successful partnerships, as they relate to economic and racial diversity in neighborhoods across the country.

The Importance of Local Organizational Partners

At the partnership level, it is critical to have organizational partners that are truly community-based—that are *of* the community, not simply *in* the community. Residents often confer legitimacy only to insider organizations (Mulroy, 2000; Wolch, 1990) and therefore may distrust outsider agencies and organizations. Even programs that are based on strong models and have substantial funding may not prove successful if outsider agencies are used to represent community within the partnership. Outside agencies with professionally-derived academic knowledge may clash with the community as outside agencies try to partner with community organizations that represent expertise gained from indigenous community experience (Florin and Chavis, 1990). In these cases, partnerships should frame the mission effectively to show how each organization is needed and continually reiterate that one agency alone cannot achieve the level of success desired (DuBois and Hartnett, 2002). Initiatives with limited geographic scope may be more successful in that complex interorganizational and interpersonal relationships can be managed.

Existence of Politics or Turf Wars

Competition for scarce resources may exist among community organizations creating a strained atmosphere where groups and individuals do not want to come together. In addition, turf wars can exist because organizations do not trust each other or the government agency or see other organizations as outsiders or as not having the expertise that is needed within the collaboration or partnership. Research has shown that partnership practices that celebrate success and let outsiders see the residents as experts can help overcome politics (Mulroy, 2000).

Organizations who provide resources to the partnership may want to receive public recognition for their efforts. Not giving proper credit to efforts can cause serious strain in relationships especially if some are recognized and others not.

Collaborative History

Communities that have a history of collaboration on crime prevention and intervention efforts are more likely to have the necessary infrastructure to build multi-dimensional efforts that involve the community in problem solving. Policies and procedures may already be in place that assist in achieving full collaboration among partner agencies. However, it can also be the case that previous collaborations in the community have not been successful and community partners remain wary or distrustful. More likely, though, the groundwork has been laid and best practices have been discovered. Therefore, community partners can emphasize necessary elements for their continued presence in the partnership. As mentioned under "impetus for the partnership, " communities that have a collaborative history may be more likely to gain their own momentum within the community for the partnership, leading to improved chance of success.

The question remains: How does a partnership succeed in a community that has no history of partnerships or collaboration? Trust is an important building block behind community organizing and collaboration—community residents must feel that organizations and partnerships are legitimate and can be trusted. Within the community, residents may exhibit differing levels of trust towards other residents. Within the organization, leaders must build trust with members of the local community. Within a partnership, the organization may be very mistrustful of, for example, the police department. This mistrust may affect the organization's orientation towards collaboration. A number of studies have found that there are elevated levels of legal cynicism, or cynicism about the legitimacy of laws, dissatisfaction with police, or the ability of police to do their job in an effective and nondiscriminatory manner, and tolerance of

deviance in highly disadvantaged areas, associated with neighborhood context but not necessarily race (Jegium Bartusch,1998; Sampson, 2001; Skogan, 1999). This problem illustrates the importance of capturing all of the organizational and partnership variables we set forth in the conceptual framework in the following chapter. For example, an organization in a disadvantaged area may be a strong force in the neighborhood, but ignored by police or other government agencies. Therefore, this organization may have strong leadership and resources, but weak downtown connections and political mobility. We emphasize that we are not stating that residents in disadvantaged neighborhoods are not organized or cannot organize, but that other contextual variables may affect their success within a community justice partnership.

Funding History and Current Funding Uncertainties

Limited existing federal, state and local dollars can create competition among organizations for contracts and grants (NANVHSWO, 1991). Organizations that do not see defined benefits for joining a partnership may not want to collaborate. State and federal funding policies, for instance, may be set up to provide the same amount of funding to agencies, whether they are a collaborative of many or just one organization. Competent organizations may feel they will receive more support remaining independent in their mission. Smaller organizations may not trust larger organizations that have had success with receiving funding because they believe that the larger organizations may be unwilling to share power as part of a collaboration when they now have to give up some autonomy. Again, partnerships that encounter these issues must be able to articulate that all partners are needed at the table to achieve the desired goals.

Partnership Over-Saturation

Communities that have a large number of coalitions or partnerships may not be able to find the additional resources to create something new. Organizations may be overburdened and as a

result, do not want to join a new initiative that could take more time (going to meetings, paperwork involved in documenting or evaluating).

Willingness to Change and Evolve

All of the issues described above may impact a community's willingness to change and evolve. In addition, bureaucratic structures may exist that impede change, such as strict regulations regarding decision making structures and sharing of information. Communities need information that provides stakeholders with the tools to determine that the partnership efforts are needed, and that organizations that invest resources will get something in return. Research has suggested that communities that have the ability to assess community assets and deficits (through needs assessment or analysis of community indicators, for instance) may be more likely to obtain support from a diverse array of community stakeholders (Coulton, 1995; Kingsley, 1998). In addition, a strong leader can steer stakeholders in the direction of participation by establishing strong personal links and bringing hope and energy to the mission at hand in the partnership.

Readiness occurs as the social learning process progresses. Throughout the process, social learning takes place in several forms (Bennett, 1998). The first form is the ability to act collectively. At the pre-partnership stage, newer organizations may need to develop skills of collective decision making, more experienced groups may need to evaluate their membership and bring in new or excluded segments of the population, or a group may need to address a new issue, such as the issue of fear of retaliation from drug dealers or other groups (Bennet, 1998). The next form of social learning is the development of partnerships or cooperative relationships with other agencies. The third form of social learning occurs in the policy area—as residents address problems in their community, they increase knowledge (human capital) and can organize other solutions to the problem. Strong interpersonal skills help leaders to manage conflict and cultivate mutual goals throughout the phases of social learning.

Measuring Readiness[8]

Understanding how the variables discussed above influence partnerships is a complex and often laborious undertaking. With regard to specific partnership models, evaluators, practitioners and funders can begin by utilizing a readiness model to assess where a community is along the continuum from not ready to fully functional and already successfully dealing with the issue at hand. For instance, The Community Readiness Model includes nine stages of readiness: (1) no knowledge, (2) denial stage, (3) vague awareness stage, (4) preplanning stage, (5) preparation stage, (6) initiation stage, (7) stabilization stage, (8) confirmation/expansion stage, and (9) professionalization stage. The readiness model involves both attitudinal change and action.[9] The first several steps of the process engage an understanding and awareness of the problem. At the lowest level, a community has no knowledge of the problem; slowly organizations must be willing to face the problems in the community can become oriented towards the idea of community justice. Once the community moves into the preplanning and preparation stages, the readiness steps become active. Leaders are important (essential) to this process of becoming ready—they help to increase awareness in the formative stages, organize group events, and begin to build relationships with other agencies.

There are strategies associated with each stage of readiness to move the community or the partnership to the next stage. These general approaches can be tailored to a specific community (Edwards et al., 2000; Goodman et al., 1996). These strategies range from visits with community leaders and members; discussion; education and outreach of incidents related to the issue at hand (via meetings, media, and newspaper); initiating events to present information;

---

[8] Community Readiness theory is only five years old and was built on two research traditions: psychological readiness for treatment and community development. See Thurman, Plested, and Edwards, 2000 (The Center on Child Abuse and Neglect-CCAN) or Edwards, Jumper-Thurman, Plested, Oetting, and Swanson, 2000 (Journal of Community Psychology) for a history of the theory.

[9] These stages would fall within the “formation” phase of general partnership stages as diagrammed in Figure 5-1.

conducting focus groups; administering community surveys; conducting public forums for discussion; conducting training for community members and professionals; networking, etc. The authors found that sites were able to use the readiness model and activities successfully to move towards local goals. As they explored the stages of readiness in actual sites, they found that if sites assessed their readiness and took the appropriate steps towards the problem, they were successful. If a group was not making progress, they reassessed their stage of readiness, perhaps moved back a step, then resumed the movement towards readiness. National, state and local funding agencies can benefit by assessing readiness before funds are allocated so that the agencies can guide the priorities towards increasing capacity in those communities that are deemed not ready for full implementation of a specified model or partnership activities. End outcomes may take longer to achieve when funds must first be used to build capacity, but the probability increases that the partnership will have some effect on end outcomes.

A number of questionnaires exist that can be administered to partner entities to capture readiness. These include, but are not limited to the Community Key Leader Survey (Goodman and Wandersman, 1995) and the Collaborative Values Inventory (Gardner, no date). The Community Key Leader Survey is a survey of key community leaders to measure both individual and organizational awareness, concern, and action in the community related to the problem at hand (e.g., drug abuse, violent crime, reentry of prisoners). Originally drafted for readiness for drug abuse prevention programs, this questionnaire could be adapted to address other priorities or concerns.[10] Gardner's Collaborative Values Survey was originally developed with regard to childhood programs but could easily be adapted for public safety-related outcomes. The survey

[10]The survey is available through the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA*). Community Readiness for Drug Abuse Prevention: Issues, Tips and Tools.*

contains 21 items and is designed for member organizations within the partnership to assess how much a group shares ideas about the values that underlie its mission.

In addition to measuring concern, action, awareness and collaboration, readiness can be captured by measuring trust. Ferguson and Stoutland (1999) argued that trust can be captured through four questions: (1) What are the motives of the other party? (2) Are they competent? (3) Will they be dependable in fulfilling their responsibilities?, and (4) Will they be collegial, respectful, and fair?

Utilizing indicator data on community structure is another way to gauge readiness. Indicators are measures of community environment that are believed to influence community outcomes (for detailed discussion, see Coulton, 1995). Collection of contextual indicators—important demographic, social, economic, and education factors—is particularly useful in two scenarios: (1) examination of partnership outcomes over a number of years where key contextual variables change during that time and (2) comparison of initiatives across different community contexts (i.e., multi-site evaluations). Identification or selection of contextual indicators requires assumptions regarding how the environment may impact the dynamics of the partnership and both short and long term outcomes. The empirical research on the relationship between community structure and crime provides a strong baseline from which to select important contextual indicators for use in partnership measures. Traditional contextual variables related to community crime include race and racial heterogeneity, residential mobility, poverty rate, affluent neighbors, vacant and boarded houses, and drug arrests (Bursik and Grasmick, 1993; Coulton, 1995). These data can be collected at the individual level through questionnaires and aggregated to the neighborhood level or can be collected at the neighborhood level by obtaining administrative data (e.g., U.S. Census, local government data, etc.).

Partnership Intentions

Even within community contexts that seem resistant to change or are not ready for a new effort, early development of a shared vision for the future can help establish a common ground that will enable dialogue about partnership efforts. Communities that specify the particular mission and focus their activities to achieve that mission may be able to surmount community contextual barriers to partnerships. Best practices research has articulated that goals and objectives should be specific, attainable and measurable (Deich, 2001; Weiss, 1995; Wolff, 2001). For goals to be attainable they should take into consideration community context and readiness. Highly impoverished communities with little history of collaboration may require partnerships to place a priority on building community capacity. Partnerships that recognize at the outset both the importance of community participation and *how to* achieve high levels of community voice (i.e., move up Arnstein's ladder of participation) will be more successful.

Not only should goals and objectives be clear, but roles and responsibilities for each of the partners should be clear. Clear roles and responsibilities articulate expectations and enable measurement and assessment. It is important to understand what each member of the team can and can not do within the boundaries of the law, their mission, and their resources. Teams that understand the purpose of the partnership, and collaborate on projects with appropriate parties who understand their roles, may function better. To aid in the handling of information and role definition, formal Memorandums of Understanding (MOUs) between agencies and organizations facilitate this process. MOUs spell out party roles and requirements and aid communication and transfer of duties when the staff turnover occurs. By defining activities and who is responsible for them, the partnership can set forth the desired outputs from each activity, the capacity-related outcomes, and the end outcomes. Articulating the link between activities and outcomes enables partnerships to specify how the outcomes can be measured. Successful partnerships use

indicators or performance measures to track progress and outcomes (Coulton, 1995; Deich, 2001; Hatry, 1999).

In turn, having clear roles and responsibilities assists with establishing a feedback process that enables successes to be rewarded and continued planning that can incorporate changes if goals or expectations are not met. Rewarding successes and fixing problems is crucial to establishing and maintaining trust and creating the impetus for institutionalization (Mulroy, 2000).

Structural Complexity and Leadership

Different partnerships have different staffing, leadership and decision-making structures. A review of the research determined that there is no specific structure associated with effective partnerships. However, a key component of many successful community justice initiatives was having the resources for funded staff positions so staff could focus on the partnership mission. In addition, best practices included establishing solid lines of communication and having clear roles and responsibilities for partner agencies to aid an agreed-upon decision-making or governance structure. Some partnerships involve multiple partners across a number of service domains with each partner bringing a different resource to the partnership. Decision-making procedures that are spelled-out and clear lines of communication can help overcome old bureaucracies, reduce competition or friction among partners and facilitate the process of extending the partnership to newcomers (Abbot, Jordan, and Murtaza, 1993; Hodges, Nesman, Hernandez, 1999; Roth, Johnson and Moore, forthcoming). Strong leadership within the partnership and within each partner agency can aid the establishment of decision-making procedures. In addition, training in decision making to help community-level providers within service provision partnerships (e.g., case managed supervision of offenders) can aid this process. Establishing ground rules for communication such as meeting procedures and schedules can assist with necessary information

sharing that is critical for effective partnerships. Some partnerships have been successful by building on existing, successful governance structures to avoid creating duplication or angering partners by establishing new and different protocols.

Collaborative leadership that focuses on sharing power and facilitating decision-making has been highlighted as a component of successful initiatives. Good leaders, or transformational leaders as discussed in Chapter Four, embody the ability to articulate the community voice and move the "not ready" community toward readiness.

Networks Across Organizations and Among Levels

Partnerships that share power and resources across organizations may be more successful than those partnerships that do not have strong connections among the involved agencies. Successful partnerships are those where community organizations communicate with one another and can leverage the resources needed to achieve goals (Abbot, Jordan, and Murtaza, 1993; Burns and Spilka, 1997; Hodges, Nesman, Hernandez, 1999). Within a partnership, this is referred to as horizontal integration. Horizontal integration can be described along a continuum from support to full resource sharing and collaboration. Existing research on collaboration has defined levels of collaboration with regard to the extent of communication, joint planning and decision making (Bruner, 1991; Christenson and Robinson, 1989; Grobe et al., 1990; Lane and Dorfman, 1997). The first level is characterized as basic support—where only basic communication and networking take place. The second level moves to joint activities and the highest level achieves creation of joint goals as well as joint activities. At the highest level, the linkages are extensive and cross traditional boundaries. More specifically, the three levels can be described as communication, coordination and collaboration (Bruner, 1991):

- *Communication* can help people do their jobs better by providing more complete information, but it does not require any joint activity. Any linkages are limited and usually isolated to one task or objective.

- *Coordination* involves joint activity, but it allows individuals to maintain their own sets of goals, expectations, and responsibilities.
- In contrast, *collaboration* requires the creation of joint goals to guide the collaborators' actions.

Like individual organizations, effective partnerships are those that have the ability to secure public and private goods and services from entities at higher levels (level two and level three) (Bursik, 1999; Bursik and Grasmick, 1993; Sampson, 1999). This ability to secure goods and services from the traditional powerholders is often referred to as vertical integration. Vertical and horizontal integration are often closely interrelated. Partnerships that fall into the highest level of horizontal integration—achieving collaboration, are often partnerships that have strong relationships with government agencies. Vertical integration is the vehicle through which to examine relationships between community organizations and the traditional power holders. The vertical relations between community organizations and those in which citizens typically have less power is an important topic for evaluation. Mutually beneficial relationships may already exist between the community organizations and local police agencies, for instance, but if the partnership's mission requires presence of outsiders such as state leaders, the linkages between these agencies and the community organizations may hold particular influence on the success of the initiative.

Regardless of partnership's intent, we know from practice that in reality, some community justice partnerships are dominated by law enforcement agencies, and may only include the community in peripheral activities, such as monthly community meetings. Boston's *Operation Cease-Fire* is a multi-jurisdictional law-enforcement strategy to reduce and prevent firearm violence, which includes federal, state and local officials. Community leaders are listed as partners in the initiative, but their role is limited to assisting local law enforcement by providing tips and information and identifying "gang hotspots." In contrast, in a similar initiative in

Chicago, a parallel group of federal, state, and local enforcement and supervision agencies have joined forces with local community organizations to respond to gun violence. However, when a homicide or aggravated battery takes place in the community, not only will the police respond with a coordinated criminal investigation, the local community groups and churches also will organize a "rapid response" of community resources to the area of the incident. Such responses can include:

- Neighborhood canvass - distributing palm cards describing Operation Cease-Fire and encouraging citizens with information on the crime to call the Cease-Fire hotline.
- Distribution of flyers for the next Beat Community Meeting, encouraging citizens to participate in community policing initiatives.
- Community walks
- Prayer vigils[11]

Action, Advocacy and Membership

Successful partnerships are capable of sustaining momentum and energy to achieve goals. Partnerships that make their efforts visible to the public and reward small and large successes provide the community with the knowledge that partnerships can be effective, that the partnership cares about the community, and hence, that it is worth the risk of investing time and effort. It is important that partnerships carry out activities that are related to community concerns so as not to create frustration among those who believe the improving community outcomes should be a priority. Research shows that partnerships that place too much emphasis on internal activities such building relationships through training and retreats may lose the community's trust and respect. In addition, partnerships that place priority on internal processes may also overlook the need to build the capacity to communicate with higher powers such as local government or even state and Federal government. Researchers argue that the capacity to obtain extra-local resources from public agencies such as the police or public works is related to a

[11] http://www.ci.chi.il.us/CommunityPolicing/DistrictHome/District08/CeaseFire.html

community's stability and social control, and may be even more important than the horizontal networks between community organizations (Bursik and Grasmick, 1993; Hunter, 1985; Sampson, 1999). Partnerships should aim to achieve their goals through internal capacity building *and* external capacity building.

To build both types of capacity, successful partnerships should articulate their goals by having a detailed plan to realize their goals and publicize their successes through documentation (e.g., annual reports) and media publicity. Partnerships that contain paid staff positions are often in the position to create the needed publicity as well as carry out the day to day work of the partnership.

With regard to membership, research has shown that partnerships that have a broad array of partners representing different resources and perspectives helps partnership evolution and the obtainment of goals (Deich, 2001). The different partner agencies bring different constituencies that enable wider articulation of community voice. Diverse communities should be represented by diverse community justice partnerships. Partnerships that aim to solve issues related to youth should include leadership and membership roles for youth. Partnerships that have a very specific focused goal may not need a broad array of partner agencies. In these smaller partnership efforts, too many partners may cause friction and turf wars. Partnerships with clear mission statements will be better able to determine which partners agencies and organizations should be involved, including which public government agencies are needed to achieve intended goals. When partner agencies recognize the need for unique talents and resources, the agencies will be more likely to respect and value the agencies that provide the needed resources (Bergstrom et al., 1995). For instance, community efforts that get started because the community wants to reduce the incidence of vandalism and graffiti should involve police agencies as a partner. In addition, the community may want to partner with corrections or court agencies to provide their input in

adjudication of confirmed offenders. Strong leaders can help assure diversity and that the partnership represents the community. Strong leaders are flexible and able to continually re-evaluate the needs of the partnership to ensure that it is a welcoming partnership.

Resources

Partnerships need resources to tackle their mission, whether it be human, financial or technological resources. Resources allow a partnership to progress from the planning stages to implementation, to maintenance, and then institutionalization. Like organizations, partnership resources can include leadership, other human resources, financial resources, and technology drawn from staff or member organizations. In particular, successful fundraising—and diversified funding sources—helps to sustain partnership efforts (Drug Strategies, 2001; Hodges et al., 1998; Mulroy, 2000). However, there are partnerships that have succeeded without funding.

Training and technical assistance also can make a difference to partnerships, particularly in those cases where partnerships are developing activities that are new or require a unique type of expertise. In addition, partnerships can be aided by leadership development training and training related to fundraising.

SUMMARY

This chapter discussed a number of partnership characteristics that relate to partnership success. Partnerships are more likely to succeed in communities which understand the issue and are committed to tackle the issue; where partnership intentions are clear and agreed on; where partnership structures support multiple organizational contacts with clear lines of communication across organizations, as well as equal decision making among community organizations and government agencies. Finally, strong partnerships are those that undergo careful planning based on community needs and resources and are actively publicizing their successes and remaining open to increased community support through continued local action and diverse membership. In

essence, success appears likely to be achieved when both horizontal integration (among community organizations) and vertical integration (between community organizations and traditional power holders) are strong. Within our framework, discussed in Chapter Six, horizontal and vertical integration may be viewed as overarching dimensions that encompass characteristics like leadership, resources, degree of collaboration, and membership composition.

CHAPTER 6: A Framework for Understanding Partnership Capacity

The previous chapters have summarized the dimensions of organizations that enable capacity to partner as well as the best practices for successful initiatives at the partnership level. The intent is that these chapters lay the groundwork for developing a conceptual framework for understanding *partnership capacity* that will aid in evaluation of partnership effectiveness. Given the dynamic and complex nature of partnerships, a framework can help practitioners and researchers adopt what has been referred to as a "theory of change approach" to evaluation as advocated by a number of researchers (Connell, Aber and Walker, 1995; Connell and Kubish, 2001; Rogers et al., 2000; Weiss, 1972, 1995). The theory of change approach—delineating how and why the program will work—is a method to articulate expected causal relationships. For instance, an initiative with a central goal of decreasing youth crime might focus their efforts on increasing recreational activities for youth because program funders and community practitioners adhere to opportunity theories that link unsupervised youth time to increased opportunities for crime.[12] A theory of change approach is a not a sufficient method alone to test causal relationships (Rosenbaum, in press). Essentially, we view the conceptual framework as a tool that provides the link between process evaluation and impact evaluation. The conceptual framework can be used to guide the formation of logic or activity models, enabling practitioners, community participants, funders and evaluators to identify and capture dimensions of partnerships that can influence outcomes. As illustrated in Figure 6-1, our conceptual framework has five main components. These components are:

---

[12] For a summary of theories that underlie crime prevention strategies see Harrell and Gouvis (1994*). Community Decay and Crime: Issues for Policy Research*. Report to the National Institute of Justice, Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute. Grant NIJ-IJ-CX-K016

- Partnership members;
- Partnership characteristics;
- Goals;
- Activities; and
- Outcomes.

The framework first identifies who the players are within the partnership, then specifies the key characteristics and dimensions of partnerships. Once the players and the characteristics are described, the next step is specification of goals. Goals can be categorized into problem domains, such as youth prevention and intervention, and physical disorder; and both public safety and community capacity objectives. Then the framework calls for articulation of activities, and finally, specification of how objectives and activities are related to outcomes at different levels of change.

FRAMEWORK COMPONENT I: PARTNERSHIP MEMBERS

The *partnership members* component consists of the features of organizations that help describe and assess the capacity of individual member entities. These features, discussed in detail in Chapter Four, include leadership, resources, and readiness to participate in a change process. In addition, the level, structure, and mission of the organization shape its role in community justice initiatives.

Organizational Structure

Given the importance of *who* is involved in the community justice initiative, the first factor within the *partnership members* component describes the partners and the formality of organizational structure using an informative typology of organizations. The typology of institutions, introduced in Chapter Three, captures the distinction between organizations by

classifying the *level* of the organization and institutional *sector*. There are webs of interaction, both horizontal and vertical, at each organizational level.

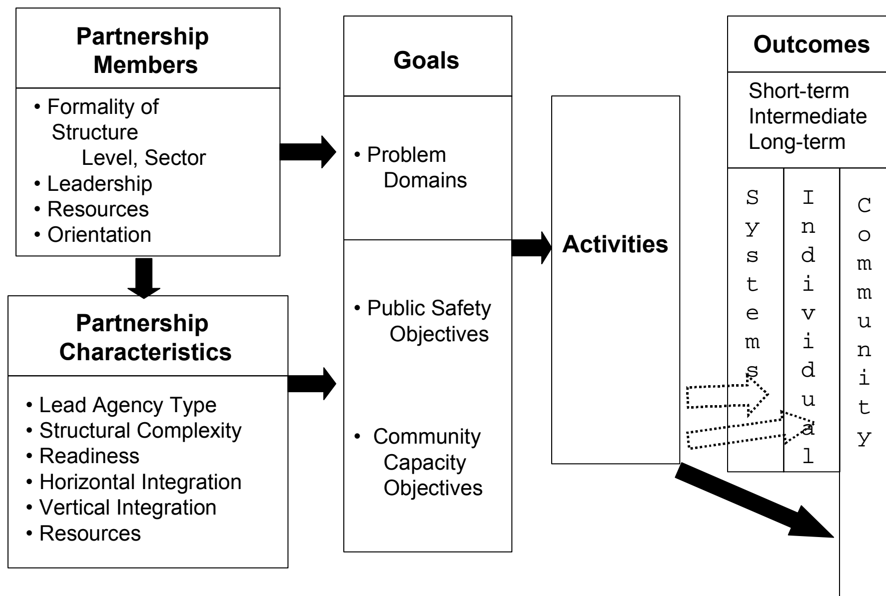


Figure 6-1. Conceptual Framework of Partnership Capacity

Leadership

In addition to formality of structure, organizational leadership is a key component for assessment at the organizational level. Leadership will influence the communication patterns between the organization and other agencies, as well as the level of success achieved in moving through stages of the partnership. Leadership can be assessed by examining the nature of the transformational leadership for each of the organizations. Effective transformational leadership involves developing leadership and effective followership, building interconnectedness, mobilizing and empowering the informal community, and articulating the community voice (Hickman, 1997). More detail on assessing leadership was provided in Chapter Four.

Resources

The resources identified as needed by organizations are human resources (in addition to leadership), financial resources and technology to be used to advance organizational outreach, internal organization, and fundraising.

Orientation

Orientation is an organization's readiness and commitment to engage in community justice efforts with traditional powerholders. Orientation runs along a continuum from fully integrated and trusting of traditional powerholders (delegational) to feeling powerless with regard to effecting positive community change (alienated). The operational position of the organization will affect the role of the community within the organization as well as the role of the organization with other justice and non-justice partners.

FRAMEWORK COMPONENT II: PARTNERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS

Component II moves away from the organizational level to the partnership level. The dimensions outlined below are viewed as complementary pieces to be described to enable a assessment of partnership process and outcomes. None of these dimensions are fixed, they will change as other dimensions or factors of partnerships and organizations change.

Lead Agency Type

Before specifying the more complex dimensions of partnerships, it is important to indicate the lead agency within the partnership. There are instances where no one agency will take the lead because emphasis is on equal decision making, but in most cases, some entity takes the lead. A new entity, such as a board or temporary body, may be created to lead the partnership. In any case, specification of lead agency provides a baseline from which relationships can be examined and assessed.

Assessment of leadership falls into the lead agency dimension. Transformational leadership is just as critical at the partnership level as within the organizational level (discussed in Chapter Four). A strong leader can guide the partnership through the evolutionary stages from pre-planning to implementation and institutionalization.

Structural Complexity

Structural complexity captures the overall configuration of the partnership based solely on the number of partner agencies within the partnership. The complexity is, in its simplest form, the number and type of partners and the basic arrangement of decision making processes within the partnership. We define three structures: simple, moderately complex, and complex.

A *simple* structure involves, at the least, one community organization, and one other agency, but at most three organizations. The structure is simple because there are only a few partners, from only one or two sectors; one organization manages the initiative, while the other organizations work towards the partnership goal, whether it is services or products. A *moderately complex* partnership involves shared management or decision making, among more than two partners, from at least three service or "product" sectors. Each partner carries responsibility within the partnership, and the partners span no more than two levels. A partnership moves from moderately complex to *complex* when either another *level* of organization enters the partnership, a new organization or alliance forms from the partnership, or more agencies from more sectors join the partnership. For example, a moderately complex partnership between the local police, local schools, A Street Business Association, and the Main St. Church, would become a complex partnership if either a Level three agency joins the partnership or these agencies and organizations form a new organization or alliance which takes on a new identity, such as the "Anytown Youth Task Force."

Complex partnerships are descriptive of multidimensional partnerships, also referred to as comprehensive community initiatives (CCIs) or collaboratives. Within these types of collaboratives there could be several separate but complementary partnerships and corresponding projects and purposes. The local police and school district can work together with parents and the community to have school resource officers, local police and probation officers can form a partnership with local service agencies, such as addiction recovery, to provide a monitored and service-oriented approach towards probation, and representatives from a local community group can sit alongside police officers and probation officers on a local youth intervention board, all under the direction of one large alliance or partnership.

Readiness

The preceding chapter, highlighting the literature on effective partnerships, discussed how partnerships can have the best intentions and best staff, but can still fail if the community is not ready to undertake the mission of the partnership. Because readiness can influence other partnership dimensions such as vertical and horizontal integration and resources, it is important for a partnership to gauge their readiness to tackle the proposed mission. The concept of readiness is not fixed; an organization can move towards readiness. Every community and organization will go through stages of community readiness.

Readiness is, in turn, influenced by a number of factors, including the impetus for the partnership, community structure, the capacity of the organizational partners, prior history of collaborations in the community, the existence of politics or turf wars, the funding history and current uncertainties, partnership over saturation, and a community's willingness to evolve and change.

Vertical and Horizontal Integration

As described in Chapter Two, Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation is a useful tool to capture the depth of participation by community organizations. We suggest that measurement of features of vertical integration use a typology similar to Arnstein's ladder. Community partnerships can utilize any number of existing questions to determine where organizations or specific partnership efforts fall along the rungs of the ladder. Evaluators can assess the strength of community participation at different stages of partnership evolution.

Horizontal integration refers to the extent of resource sharing and communication with other partner agencies. The first level is simply support where only basic communication and networking take place, the second level moves to joint activities and the highest level achieves creation of joint goals as well as joint activities. At the highest level, the linkages are extensive and cross traditional boundaries. More specifically, the three levels can be described as communication, coordination and collaboration (Bruner,1991).

Achieving collaboration is a process and may be more pertinent to specific functions of the partnership (such as strategic planning or provision of feedback) than others. Partnerships and the organizations within them are expected to evolve into different stages from pre-planning and formation to implementation, maintenance and outcomes. Communities should use meaningful indicators to guide the unique development of their partnerships. A large number of tools or indexes to measure the extent of collaboration have been developed. The Aspen Roundtable on Comprehensive Community Initiatives for Children, Youth and Families has created a website cataloging measures that can be used to evaluate community initiatives, including a number that measure the extent of collaboration (see www.aspenmeasures.org).

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

The resources that are brought to the partnership are often central to the success of initiatives. Each partner organization has their own capacity, as discussed in Chapter Four, which is brought to bear on the partnership. In addition, the partnership, as a unit, has resources that help define the partnership. Similar to the resources discussed in detail earlier, these resources are human, financial and technological. With regard to the partnership, however, resources are brought to the partnership generally through either (1) in-kind donations or pledges by partner agencies, (2) federal, state, local, or private grants, or (3) "fundraising" by the partnership through new activities related to the partnership mission (leveraged resources). This dimension of the framework provides a simple method to assess the significance of partnership resources.

Human resources

Human resources, including leadership and commitment from each partner agency, are a crucial asset to the collaboration. Representatives from partner agencies dedicate time and energy to the partnership. Without this commitment, there would be no partnership. To aid in the collaborative process, some partnerships create new positions such as organizers and assistants.

The presence of an official organizer within a partnership can provide a level of organizational capacity within the partnership. It also provides a liaison between the community, the organization, and the official partners. The presence of an organizer changes the structure of the partnership; he/she adds a layer to the partnership that often dictates the power arrangements and patterns of communication and collaboration. To act as a liaison, the organizer must keep in touch with the community and other partners. Communication with the community can be achieved in a variety of ways: through communication with a variety of community groups,

through surveys and other outreach to the community, and through periodic, such as monthly, meetings. Additionally, the organizer or another "assistant" (see below) can respond to the majority of administrative requests and reporting requirements. For some grants, these requirements can be very time consuming.

Creating new partnerships and expanding relationships and responsibilities can mean increased administrative work, especially at the outset. Some partnerships hire assistants to help with administrative aspects of the partnership. Other partnerships may outline roles and responsibilities for each party; partners must be willing to collaborate and willing to share information and perform their responsibilities within the partnership. The presence of and type of assistant is yet another important variable of the partnership.

To capture the features of both organizers and assistants, we can ask the following questions: Is there an organizer or assistant? Is the organizer full time or part time? Paid or volunteer? What are his/her responsibilities? And where is he/she housed?

Financial resources

In many partnerships, there is a "funding catalyst" and this catalyst mandates some of the structural characteristics of the partnership; the catalyst can be any federal, state, or local grant or other source of funding for the initiative. In other partnerships, there is no "funding catalyst" and either the partners or a lead agency will decide on some of the structural characteristics of the partnership. In cases of an outside grant, other financial benefits, such as program money and technical assistance (which can be expensive) may be available from the funder. In addition to this, both grant-funded and non-grant funded partnerships must learn to maximize their potential by leveraging resources from each other and other local agencies not directly involved in the partnership.

In some cases, partnerships may have outside grant assistance that provide training and technical assistance. Training and technical assistance also increases the human resources in the partnership and may assist partnerships in achieving their goals, particularly when the nature of the goals require specific technical skills. For instance, the SafeFutures partnership on the Ft. Belknap Indian reservation developed a youth program within a group home for criminally-at risk youth. SafeFutures staff were provided training regarding program models that have achieved success in rural sites around the country. Technical assistance provided in concert with the wishes of the members of the partnership often can be empowering to partner agencies (Kubish et al., 1999).

To capture features of financial resources, we can ask: Did the partnership form because of a funding catalyst? If so, who is the funder (Federal funds, state funds, city or county funds, private foundations, and/or private businesses)? How much is the funding? Is the funding from diversified sources? And what are the expressed mandates of the funder? How else does the partnership increase its financial resources? If there is no funding catalyst, how does the partnership raise money and leverage resources? Does the partnership actively write grants to increase resources?

Technological resources

The availability of data systems and technology for information transfer among the partner organizations is also part of partnership resources. In particular, partnerships that have systems change as an explicit goal will necessitate fluid exchange of information and data sharing capabilities. Information sharing, done properly, facilitates decisionmaking and decreasing the chances of conflict breaking out. With the great advances made to computer technology and concomitant decline of prices, innovative data systems and sharing arrangements are cropping up in a number of community justice partnerships around the country. In many

partnerships, the funder provides both hardware and software to facilitate data collection, reporting, and interagency communication.

To capture features of technological resources, we can ask: What is the supply and demand for computers in the partnership? Are computers used to share sensitive information, communicate on a regular basis, increase efficiency? If so, is there a centralized computer system or management information system (MIS) for sharing information and communication? Are partner entities trained in using the system? What is the overall satisfaction level with the MIS?

FRAMEWORK COMPONENT III: PARTNERSHIP GOALS

Perhaps the most defining feature of the partnership is the purpose or mission of the partnership. Sampson stated, "we must first recognize that social organization is *goal oriented*"[13] (2000:139). Thus, we must ask, "what is the goal of the organization/of the partnership?" or, "Collaboration for *what*?" Is the goal to reduce crime and create healthy communities? Improve neighborhood quality of life? Increase opportunities for youth? Surveillance? Change the physical environment? Co-produce block activities? The extent of a partnership's mission or goals, or purpose, will often dictate the size, shape, and target area of the partnership and the likely duration of its existence.

As discussed in Chapter Five, partnerships are more likely to succeed when all partner agencies can articulate and agree on a common mission. Hence, partnerships should be able to specify the priority objectives that will set the initiative along the path to achieve stated goals. In addition, it is impossible to track progress or evaluate initiatives without a clear understanding of program goals, implementation sequences, and the expected link between them and the expected

---

[13] In context, the quote reads, "Going back to Albert Reiss's insight, but also Ruth Kornhauser, we must first recognize that social organization is goal oriented."

program benefits (Butterfoss, et al. 1996b; Harrell et al., 1996). This component of our conceptual framework can facilitate the development of logic models or activity models in conjunction with Framework Component IV and V. Logic models provide a simplified description of the program, the intended immediate program products (outputs), and the intended outcomes. Activities models are similar to logic models, but provide more emphasis on the activities. Activities models specify how activities lead to other activities and eventually the desired outcome. Because empirical research evaluating community justice programs is so limited, we suggest that the detail provided by activities models may be expressly useful in building a solid body of research examining strategies and related outcomes. In addition to logic models and/or activities models, programs can benefit from having an action plan that specifies resources needed for each activity, partner entity leaders for each activity, a timeline, barriers that may be encountered, and plans for surmounting barriers. Plans can be viewed as important intermediate outcomes of partnership efforts (Burns and Spilka, 1997; Butterfoss, et al., 1996b), yet little systematic research has examined the relationship between planning efforts and outcomes. Butterfoss and colleagues (1996a) have developed a tool for measuring and improving the quality of plans. The Plan Quality Index (PQI) was developed to rate community prevention plans on the basis of whether they meet given criteria that define quality plans. The PQI can be used to build capacity for self-evaluation through continued structured feedback on plans and activities.

Problem Domains

We suggest that the first step within articulation of partnership mission be the specification of objectives under different "service" domains. Separation of objectives into domains will assist with linking activities to outcomes at multiple levels. It will also support the process of rational designation of outcomes as either short or long term. After examining the strategies used in

community crime prevention and community justice activities, we have suggested seven domains, in addition to the implicit "crime" domain:

- Social and physical disorder
- Other quality of life
- Community economic development
- Employment
- Other service and skills development
- Youth prevention and intervention
- Substance abuse

Objectives

Explicit objectives give community justice partnerships the ability to state measurable goals, thereby beginning the process of linking activities to outcomes. Different objectives require different methods or activities. For instance, if the goal is to reduce fear of crime, the objectives could include reducing physical and social disorder and increasing resident interaction on targeted blocks. Reducing physical and social disorder can simply involve any group of individuals, not necessarily community stakeholders, coming into the neighborhood to clean up the streets and remove loitering or disorderly individuals. However, within a community justice model, the objectives would include articulating goals that involve increasing the capacity of community stakeholders to achieve informal control by themselves or within a partnership with government agencies. Because community justice initiatives involve both public safety and community capacity objectives, designation of the two types of objectives is a central feature of the framework. To "fill out" the framework, the model should articulate that an additional objective is increasing resident interaction (through block cleanups).

COMPONENT IV: ACTIVITIES

Component IV is an extension of Component III. Component IV involves articulation of activities to achieve stated objectives. Articulation of activities is part of the planning process. And planning is essential to the success of the effort. A single activity could be targeted to

achieve both public safety and community capacity objectives. For instance, monthly block cleanups targeting the reduction of physical disorder may increase public safety by reducing fear, and at the same time increase community capacity as residents begin to interact with neighbors and volunteers on a regular basis. Specifying activities related to both increasing public safety and community capacity (even if they are the same activities) will assist with articulation of the underlying theory of change, and more specifically, how the activities can bring about the desired change.

Research shows that partnerships may begin to encounter difficulties translating plans into effective community actions that produce outcomes (Burns and Spilka, 1997; Butterfoss et al., 1996a; Butterfoss et al. 1996b; Fawcett, et al., 1997; Goodman et al., 1996). Goals may to be too ambitious relative to resources, or planning may have occurred without a needs assessment. Planning without a needs assessment may result in plans to target a problem that is not viewed as a community priority and hence, will elicit little community support. Partnerships with multi-faceted goals necessitate a variety of strategies and activities that have multiple components and targeted outcomes within different problem domains and across levels of change. One strategy for overcoming implementation problems at the activities stage is the utilization of tracking logs to monitor level of effort during implementation of program or activities. Logs can reflect activities accomplished, changes that occurred in the community, and the willingness of residents to join the effort. Logs can be reflective of changes and activities occurring at multiple levels of change including the organizational community and policy level. The logs provide a systematic method to assess how program activities may be related to changes within the community and the partnership itself.

FRAMEWORK COMPONENT V: OUTCOMES

By definition, community justice partnerships seek change at the community or neighborhood level. However, community justice partnerships can also seek change at the family and individual level, as well as at the systems level. Figure 6-1 displays this relationship using either a solid arrow (for targeted community change) or a dotted arrow, signifying that these are supplementary outcomes (individual and family and systems), which may or may not be an explicit outcome of the program or partnership.

Outcome levels

Community Level

All community justice partnerships target community level change. Community level change can be divided into two areas: the aggregate aspects of individual level change and changes with regard to community functioning and the development of community capacity. Aggregate characteristics would include, for instance, community crime and drug arrest rates, high school completion rates or drop out rates, and rates of teen birth. With advances made to computer hardware and software, collection of appropriate community-level indicators has become less arduous, but still holds great challenge. Problems exist with overcoming confidentiality issues and the presence of unreliable or invalid data. In some cases, existing data may not be accessed by the public or may be expensive to obtain, particularly parcel-level data. Existing data sources may be available but this data may not be exactly what is needed or may be incomplete. Primary data collection of indicators can be expensive and time consuming.

Community capacity, “community functioning” or quality of life-related indicators could include measures of community satisfaction, community confidence, voter turnout and participation in community organizations (i.e., civic engagement), and collective efficacy.

Criminal justice research illuminating the relationship between community justice activities and community functioning is in its infancy.

Individual and Family

Often, programs that have missions addressing the underlying causes of crime, target individual and family outcomes such as reductions in recidivism, substance use, gang affiliation and family violence. Activities often include providing individual social services or comprehensive services through case management. Comprehensive Community Initiatives that, by nature, encourage membership in coalitions across multiple service domains, usually target individual level outcomes, as well as community level outcomes.

Systems Change

Systems change is the process of changing how business gets done for the betterment of the community. It can involve anything from bringing together actors from different institutional contexts who logically need to interact, but had not previously done so to wholesale systems change, including changes in policies and practices of institutions brought about collaboratively/jointly to accomplish mutually agreed upon reforms. Systems change utilizes strategic planning, expansion and diversification of funding sources and strategies through the support of key leaders in government and community organizations. Systems change can occur within a single institution (organizational change), as well as across institutions. Systems change goals of community justice initiatives may be isolated to a limited geographic location or single jurisdiction, or may be introduced on a limited scale with the intent of expanding system wide at a later time if they appear successful.

Community justice partnerships having an explicit goal of systems change will have different priorities and may yield a different set of outcomes than partnerships that do not specify goals at the systems level. Partnership efforts may achieve systems change without specifying it

as an outcome. Partnerships that have the ambitious goal of systems change may need to: (1) agree on the nature and extent of the problems they wish to address and the processes by which these problems should be resolved, (2) be willing to examine and change current cultures, roles, world views, and level of resources, (3) collaborate in addressing problems by sharing data, financial resources, and personnel, and (4) work together to change local ordinances or state or national legislation. Evaluating systems change is as much about improving the *process* as well as achieving the end outcome. Systems change takes an extraordinary amount of resources as well as time. The large number of variables that have to change to create systems change make systems change an extremely difficult challenge.

Short term, Intermediate and Long Term Outcomes

In addition to levels of change, there are outcomes associated with the passage of time. Specific activities can cause immediate or short-term outcomes, such as changes in attitudes when activities provide knowledge about issues or problems (e.g., public awareness campaigns). Activities can be associated with intermediate outcomes or community functioning changes such as increased community satisfaction that may then be associated with longer-term outcomes such as reductions in disorder or crime. These intermediate outcomes are often referred to as mediating variables. Strong theory and repeated empirical examination of intermediate and long term outcomes facilitates the specification of outcomes over time.

APPLYING THE FRAMEWORK TO A HYPOTHETICAL PARTNERSHIP

The preceding sections of this report discuss the components of the conceptual framework. This section applies the framework to a fictional partnership as an example of how the framework can be used. We use a fictional example because applying the framework to a real partnership would involve a host of resources that is outside the realm of this study.

ABC Comprehensive Community Partnership

Component I. Member Characteristics

The ABC Comprehensive Community Partnership (ABCCCP) is a partnership composed of a number of justice agencies and a number of frontline community agencies. ABCCCP was formed to reduce neighborhood disorder and increase job opportunities and home ownership among households in ABC neighborhood. The City Police Department has block grant funds to work with community organizations and other justice partners to achieve a number of goals.

To begin to understand how the partnership works, we first examine and describe the individual partnership members (Component I). To assist in the description, we utilize a table to describe all agencies by level—the frontline community organizations (level one), the local support organizations (level two) and the state, regional, and national counterparts to level two organizations (level three)—and institutional sector, either government, non-profit, or for profit (Table 6-1).

Table 6-1. Initial Description of Partnership Members

	Level	Institutional Sector
Mayor's Office on Criminal Justice	2	Government, Local
City Police Department	2	Government, Local
ABC Research Dept.	3	Non-profit, National
State Department of Juvenile Justice	3	Government, State
Community Law Center	1	Non-profit, 501c(3)
Citizens Planning and Housing Association	1	Non-profit, 501c(3)
City Public Schools	2	Government, Local
Local X Community Association	1	Non-profit, membership based
Local Y Community Association	1	Non-profit, membership based
Housing Code Department	2	Government, Local
X Business	2	For profit, Local

After levels and sectors are attached to each organization, leadership characteristics can be assessed. The organizational leadership elements can be used to capture both leadership *climate*

(quality of leadership) and leadership *structure* of the organization. With regard to structure, organizations can be characterized by the level of formality of their leadership structure, or the complexity[14] of their structure, on a continuum from democracy to bureaucracy. Leadership variables related to structure closely align with the formality of the overall organizational structure. An evaluation can ask (Table 6-2): (1) Does the coalition/organization have bylaws? (2) Does it produce agendas and minute from meetings? (3) Does it have a written description of decision-making processes? (4) What are those decision-making processes? (5) Do committees have clear statement of purpose? (6) Do they have clear written goals and objectives? (7) Are the committee structure and membership reviewed annually for their relevancy? (Community Organizational Assessment Tool: Bright, 1998).

With regard to quality and type of leadership, organizations can be described by collecting individual-level data on perceptions of leadership from individuals involved in the organization to gain insight on such constructs as *follower motivation* and *commitment*. Research can also assess the extent to which individuals can articulate a common vision for the organization. Table 6-2 summarizes some relevant constructs of leadership and potential data collection methods for each construct for each organization involved in the partnership. Differences will exist on the types of information collected for level one versus level two and level three agencies involved in the partnership. Some constructs listed in the table will not apply to government agencies—such as follower motivation or commitment.

[14] An organization may have many layers, structured hierarchically, with formalized divisions of labor (Milofsky and Romo, 1988). Milofsky and Romo created constructs of structural diversity and complexity that incorporate many of the components we outline in this chapter. Structural complexity can be simply defined as the continuum of an organization from democracy to bureaucracy.

Table 6-2. Elements of Leadership Structure and Culture

Construct:	Leadership Structure	Follower Motivation	Follower Commitment	Understanding of Organizational Mission
Data Collection:	Bylaws? Agendas? Designated sub-committees? Annual reviews?	Multifactor Leadership questions	Organizational commitment scale	Open-ended or semi-structured interviews
Organizations				
Mayor's Office on Criminal Justice	NA	NA	NA	NA
City Police Dept.	NA	NA	NA	NA
ABC Research Dept.	NA	NA	NA	NA
State Department of Juvenile Justice	NA	NA	NA	NA
Community Law Center	NA	NA	NA	NA
Citizens Planning and Housing Association				
City Public Schools	NA	NA	NA	NA
Local X Community Association				
Local Y Community Association				
Housing Code Department	NA	NA	NA	NA
X Business	NA	NA	NA	NA

The next dimension to measure within Component I of the framework is *resources*. Table 6-3 provides a brief synopsis of the types of questions that could be asked to measure resources that relate to organizational capacity to partner. Producing resource tables or checklists for each organization in a partnership lays the groundwork from which to assess what each partner agencies contributes to the partnership (horizontal and vertical integration under Component II).

The final dimension under Component I is *orientation*. There are several questionnaires, as well as individual questions, that can be completed by each organization to measure an organization's orientation towards traditional power holders. These include the Community Key Leader Survey (Goodman and Wandersman, 1995) and the Collaborative Values Inventory

(Garnder, no date). These surveys are provided as suggestions. The surveys ask about general values and are not necessarily directed towards assessing trust between community organizations and traditional powerholders. More research is needed that examines how to operationalize organizational orientation.

Table 6-3. Organizational Resources (complete for each organization)

Human	Financial	Technological
___ Number of members	___ Size and source of organization budget	___ Presence/use of computers
___ Percent increase in membership	___ Percent increase in budget	___ Phone lines/voicemail/email
___ Number of members who are on the advisory board of funders	___ Amount of organization budget raised from local sources	___ Directory of members and services
___Presence/extent of core members	___ Number of grant proposals submitted	___ Database of members
___Presence, extent, access to peripheral? Volunteers	___ Number of grant proposals funded	___ Website
	___ Number of special fundraising events held and amount collected	

Component II. Partnership Characteristics

After member characteristics are defined, partnership characteristics can be assessed. Looking at Table 6-1, which contains the organizations participating in the ABC Comprehensive Community Partnership, we determine that the partnership has a complex structure (versus simple or moderately complex) because three levels of agencies are involved in the partnership and we know that the goals of the initiative span multiple problem domains because the mission is comprehensive.

The Mayor's Office has asked ABC Research Department to join the partnership as the local evaluator to conduct a formative evaluation to help guide the development of logic models and assess plan quality as plans take shape. Before the partnership begins to develop its plans,

ABC Research Department administers the Key Leader Survey to a number of community leaders. The leaders do not necessarily need to be part of the partnership. The goal of the Key Leader Survey is to assess overall community readiness. Readiness has a number of sub-dimensions as described in Chapter Five. The results of the survey administered to key leaders in ABC neighborhood show that: there is sufficient agreement on community priorities; there is sufficient agreement on causes of community problems; baseline data exist that illustrate the depth of the issues targeted; but no concerted action has yet taken place on the priority issues.

From this assessment, the partnership decides that they are in the “preparation stage” and can begin to create plans to achieve goals. At this point, the partnership has been meeting for six months and they are anxious to begin putting ideas into action. As the partnership begins to address planning, ABC Research Department administers a number of surveys that ask key informants to describe the networks that exist among partner entities (horizontal and vertical integration). If an unlimited supply of resources exist, a baseline detailed network analysis can be performed. If resources do not exist for a full network analysis, surveys such as the Collaboration Index (Wandersman, Hein and Seybolt, no date) can be used to explore the frequency of interactions with other organizations (for each organization) in terms of type of interaction (e.g., sharing information, sharing resources) as well as activity area. Seybolt, Hein and Wandersman, (1998) list four interaction types (networking, coordinating, cooperating and collaborating) and six activity areas (program activities, program development, technical resources, funding resources, evaluation and consultation and personnel and staff issues). The Collaboration Index can be used to assess collaboration between frontline community organizations (horizontal integration) and between frontline organizations and level two and level three agencies (vertical integration). It is also important to assess whether Memorandums of Understanding (MOUs) are utilized to accomplish activities. The Collaboration Index and data on MOUs will be collected at

various times corresponding to each stage of partnership evolution. These data can assist in the determination of where organizations stand on Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation as described in Chapter Two.

The remaining dimension within Component II of the framework is *partnership resources*. Resources can be measured by asking:

- (Human resources) Is there an organizer or assistant dedicated to the partnership? Full or part time? Paid or volunteer? What are his/her responsibilities? Where is s/he housed?
- (Financial resources) Is there a funding catalyst? Who is the funder(s)? How much is the funding? What are the expressed mandates of the funder? How else does the partnership raise money and leverage resources? Does the partnership actively write grants to increase resources?
- (Technological) Are computers/MIS systems used? Is this system used to share sensitive (individual-level) information, communicate on a regular basis, increase efficiency, collect community indicators, and/or monitor community outcomes? What are the rules and methods of sharing information? How satisfied are the partners with the system?

Component III, IV, and V: Goals, Activities, Outcomes

In addition to partner member characteristics and partnership characteristics, ABC Research Department develops activity models based on stated goals in conjuction with input from partnership leaders. The first activity model relates to the planning phase and is depicted in Table 6-4. Tracking logs have been developed for each activity listed in the "activity" column. The logs (not shown) contain the time that was originally allotted for the activity and a listing of each partner that is involved in the activity and a description of the each partner's responsibility and resources to be committed to the activity. The activity model in conjunction with use of tracking logs provides the partnership with continual feedback during monthly committee meetings. After the planning phase nears completion, ABC Research begins to develop activities models for the implementation phase. A sample activities model is shown in Table 6-5.

Table 6-4. ABCCCP: Planning Phase Goals, Activities and Outcomes

Goal	Problem Domain	Activities	Outputs	Outcomes (level)
Increase recreational opportunities for youth	Youth prevention and intervention	1. Survey the community, find out current state of recreational opportunities, look for gaps in service and location. 2. Create fundraising plan within community: - Talk to local businesses - Begin bake sales - Write external grants	1. Survey completed, report written, major findings: x,y,z 2. Created fundraising plan. Collected money from bake sale, leveraged resources from Business X. 3. Wrote 2 grants	Not applicable at planning phase; no outcomes targeted, just outputs

Table 6-5. ABCCCP: Implementation Phase Goal, Activities and Outcomes

Goal	Problem Domain	Activities	Outputs	Outcomes (level)
Increase recreational opportunities for youth	Youth prevention and intervention	1. Add a new wing to the X recreation center, hire staff, expand hours of operation 2. Begin 10 p.m. basketball program 3. Expand after school programming	-# of youth attending basketball program; -# of youth attending after school program; -# of days after school program provided; -Average hours of service/assistance provided per youth; -Average number of parental involvement per youth.	**Individual level**: reduction in number of youth contacts with police. **Community level**: reduction in number of youth hanging out on street corners between 3 p.m. and 12 a.m.

ABC Research Department and other partnership staff dedicated an entire meeting to discussing feasible outcomes related to the goal of increasing recreational activities for youth. They determined that the partnership would need a management information system that could be linked to the database at ABC recreational center. A key leader from City Public Schools agreed to donate a school volunteer for the summer to develop a small database to track youth and services provided through the late night basketball program and the new after-school programs at the recreational center. In conjunction with the schools, the recreational center committee is beginning to develop consent forms for parents to sign so their youth can be tracked and police data obtained. The committee also is beginning to train community volunteers to conduct street observations between 3 p.m. and midnight. The street observation data and police contact data on individuals form the basis for assessing outcomes related to the targeted goal.

Summary of Partnership Example

The example provided above is only a small fraction of the information that can be collected on the conceptual framework dimensions. As this report has discussed, partnerships are complex entities that are constantly changing along a great number of dimensions. It is critical that partnerships include some type of formative evaluation approach where data can be collected throughout partnership stages in order to measure progress and overcome obstacles. In addition, as we show in the following chapter (Part II of the report), each partnership is unique—even those following similar prevention or intervention models. The conceptual framework provides a strong beginning to understanding and systematically evaluating partnership processes. However, much work remains to be done. We list a number of recommendations for research in Part III of this report.

PART II.
Community Justice Partnerships: A Catalog of Justice Agency Involvement, Program Types, Goals And Activities

Susan Jenkins and Kevonne M. Small

CHAPTER 7

Part II provides a brief summary of the main types of partnerships as defined by the primary justice or other non-community partner and continues, where possible, with more detailed examples. The examples demonstrate the wide range of partnership types, partners, goals, activities, and targeted outcomes. Each and every partnership, at a minimum, holds the goal of increasing public safety. These examples illustrate the potential of partnerships as vehicles to achieve community empowerment and betterment. It is not our assertion that the partnerships described in this chapter represent *successful* partnerships; our intent is to provide information on types of partnerships. The chapter concludes with a matrix summarizing a few key dimensions that can be compared across partnerships. As partnership research based in a framework approach accumulates over time, it may help us build similar matrices with richer detail that will enable identification of patterns across partnerships that can move us closer to answering “what works?”

TYPES OF COMMUNITY JUSTICE PARTNERSHIPS

The primary justice partner has an important effect on the structures, goals, and orientations of community justice partnerships. Therefore, the remainder of this chapter is divided into sections defined by the justice agency involved in the community justice partnerships discussed. These are:

- **Community-Police Partnerships**. Community policing was developed based on a realization that traditional policing activities were not effectively reducing crime and its negative impact on community members' quality of life (fear, disorder, etc). In addition, it was implemented to help repair relationships with communities that had grown to distrust the police. Community policing stresses the need to develop the capacity of a community to accept shared responsibility for public safety, and the willingness of police to access input from the community. Approaches include making communities inhospitable to crime through increasing police presence in the community and placing a high priority on crime control and order maintenance. By controlling minor disorders and enhancing the community's quality of life, community policing seeks to reduce fear of crime and ultimately disrupt the escalating cycle of community decay that generates serious crime. Community policing also attempts to build a sense of community where there is little or none and its methods are specifically geared to facilitate the growth of self-reliant communities. (Institute for Law and Justice 1997)

- **Community-Court Partnerships.** The impetus for community involvement in traditional court activities is based on a realization that these activities were not always working to deter crime or to address the problems underlying crime (Clarke 2001). Court administrators were frustrated because of overcrowded court dockets, offenders' problems (e.g. substance use, mental health, and underemployment) not being solved, high recidivism rates, overcrowding in correctional facilities, the overwhelming use of plea bargaining to dispose of cases quickly, and flagging morale among staff. Community members were frustrated because the quality of life in their neighborhoods was decreasing, they did not understand courts' tactics and policies, they sensed that their voice in these processes was being ignored, and they had diminished confidence in the system as a whole. Common court-community approaches include problem-solving courts that focus on matching clients with services to address the underlying reasons that they are committing crimes (e.g. substance abuse), and increasing communication between the courts and the community through encouraging participation in "specialty" or treatment courts and attention to victims services.

  Community-Lawyer/Prosecution Partnerships. The reasons behind the emergence of community oriented lawyering are similar in many ways to the reasons for the growth of specialty and community courts. Specifically, the old ways of case processing were not working as the same people were cycling through the system presenting the same problems resulting in staff frustration and burn out. Other reasons for these partnerships include pressure from community policing advocates and practitioners working with special populations, such as substance users and victims of family violence, to increase the community orientation of lawyers. Community lawyer/prosecution partnerships are designed to improve justice at several levels and can help restore public confidence in the justice system (Clarke 2001). Community lawyering involves changing the traditional lawyer's role in court proceedings (Coles 2000). Community lawyers work in a variety of areas, such as with police departments, in City Prosecutors' Offices, and in private practice. They focus primarily on civil dockets (e.g. code enforcement or enforcement of nuisance laws). Community prosecutors, on the other hand, focus more on criminal matters, but in a way that

both recognizes the importance of “low level” crimes as well as index offences. Their redefinition of crime is based on a commitment to focus on the priority areas of community members. Both types of lawyers view cases not in terms of conviction rates, but in terms of the people involved and their goal is to determine the best solution for the offender, the victim, and the larger community. Equally important in community lawyering as the outcome is ensuring that the legal process is satisfactory to all parties involved. Both sides are less adversarial and more likely to work together to arrive at a fair resolution for each case. These types of partnerships focus on increasing community involvement in the justice process and reducing crime by both holding offenders responsible to their community rather than to just the justice system and by aiding offenders in getting services or support to address their underlying reason for offending. Including the voices of the offender, the victim, and the community makes the process something that all have a stake in rather than “something that happened to them.”

- **Community-Corrections Partnerships**. Prison and jail crowding, fiscal constraints, public and criminal justice interest groups, and the demands for community supervision of offenders have brought community corrections to the foreground (Mactivish and Winter 1991). However, because of offenders’ post-adjudication status and penetration into the justice system in conjunction with their perceived threat to the community, corrections partnerships are the least flexible of the four types of justice system-community collaborations. There are two broad types of partnerships in this area: Community Corrections and Institutional Corrections. The primary approaches to community corrections include discouraging crime through intensive, community-based supervision, the provision of community-based services, the use of graduated sanctions and incentives, the inclusion of community service requirements in probation terms, and increasing system accountability through improved information sharing. Concerning institutional corrections, the focus is on encouraging volunteerism in correctional institutions and assisting offenders who are reentering the community after a period of confinement in ways that encourage community reintegration and recidivism reduction. Based on larger numbers of offenders being released from prison, after longer terms of confinement, with fewer resources and more problems, reentry initiatives work with offenders to link them with appropriate services and support offenders through their transitions back into their communities (Travis, Solomon and Waul 2001).

- **Comprehensive Community Partnerships (CCP).** In addition to partnerships between communities and one primary justice agency, there also exist partnerships between (1) communities and multiple justice agencies, (2) communities and non-justice Federal agencies, (3) communities and private foundations or organizations, and (4) a combination of the organizations listed in points 1-3. These types of partnerships focus on large-scale community improvement, target system-change, and/or have multi-pronged approaches. They often have significant planning periods and histories of prior collaboration. They seek to reduce crime through community strengthening activities such as economic development initiatives and community capacity building activities. Many of these initiatives also focus on public safety.

Community-Police Partnerships

Community Partners

A variety of community groups is involved in community-police partnerships. The community partners involved in any one initiative vary based on which community members are most affected by the problem to be addressed and which community members are in the best position to help solve that problem While residents and other membership-based groups tend to be involved in the majority of initiatives, institution-based groups tend to be involved in specialized initiatives that require some expertise or authority. These include things like Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) initiatives that rely, in part, on code enforcement and city planning. Or, it can include institution-based initiatives, such as school resource officers, that require the participation of a specific organization (the school district in this case.) On the other hand, issue-based groups tend to focus on initiatives closely linked to their primary issue area. For example, groups like Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America that match youth with mentors, focus on mentorship programs while Boys and Girls Clubs of America, which promote youth development, sponsor programs related to gangs, drug education/prevention, self-esteem building and life skill development. (See Exhibit 7-1.)

Initiative Types

Community-Police partnerships involve many types of initiatives. These include:

Situational crime prevention. These initiatives include activities designed to alter the physical environment in which crime takes place in order to reduce the opportunities for these crimes to occur. The basis of situational crime prevention is opportunity reduction. Opportunity reduction attempts to make a potential target of crime inaccessible or unattractive and to make the perpetration of a crime more risky or difficult for the offender (Sofweb 2002). The underlying strategies of situational crime prevention include (1) Target hardening, (2) Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED), (3) The use of detection devices, and (4) Developing and enforcing policies that support efforts to make targets of crime less accessible. Examples include:

- **Where:** Knoxville, Tennessee (http://ncpc.org/3cpted.htm)

  Partnership Members: Police, traffic engineers, public works officials, and residents.

Goals: To reduce drug trafficking and neighborhood nuisances such as excess vehicle traffic in residential areas.

Activities: They formed a task force to collaborate on a comprehensive strategy that resulted in street redesign, revised park schedules, and volunteer-led, security-survey teams. Police officers learned how to work with design professionals to make projects more compatible with CPTED principles.

Outcome: Community Level

- **Where:** Cincinnati, Ohio (http://ncpc.org/3cpted.htm)

  Partnership Members: A partnership of housing authority management, residents, and police officials

  Goals: To reduce high levels of crime

  Activities: Developed a CPTED plan that included community clean-ups, increased maintenance, new fencing, lease enforcement, and an array of on-site programs for parents and youth.

  Outcome: Community Level

Community Policing. Community policing is a law enforcement approach designed to seek information about the causes of crime and reduce community members' fear of crime and social disorder through problem-solving strategies and police-community partnerships (Hickman and Reaves 2001). It represents a fundamental shift from the traditional police approach of investigating crime after it occurs, to a focus on preventing crime before it occurs. Community policing officers learn about problems that contribute to crime, then facilitate cooperation among local agencies to provide needed services. Although community policing can address any of the traditional areas of policing, many programs focus on crime prevention and reduction through youth programs, employment assistance, safe recreation facilities, medical or social support services, neighborhood beautification, and substance abuse treatment (National Crime Prevention Council 2002). Examples include:

- **Where:** Newport News, Virginia

  Partnership Members: Police and residents of a low-income housing complex

  Goals: To reduce high rate of burglary

  Activities: By looking at data from a survey of residents and studying when the burglaries were committed, officers determined that the majority of apartments were broken into when no one was home. Officers were able to mobilize residents to form a crime watch group to lobby for better maintenance of complex property. In addition, the police department called upon the collaboration of other city agencies to focus on code enforcement and safety. Finally, officers conducted foot patrol in the apartment complex and were able to gain the trust and cooperation of residents

  Outcome: Community Level

Problem Oriented Policing. Problem Oriented Policing is based on the idea that recurrent law enforcement does not significantly reduced crime. It differs from traditional policing in that it involves identifying problems and prioritizing them incorporating community input; analyzing information about offenders, victims, and crime locations; designing innovative strategies that address the chronic character of priority problems; implementing the strategies through collaboration with the community and other city departments; and evaluating effectiveness through self-assessments to determine how well the plan has been carried out and what good has been accomplished (Skogen, Hernet, DuBois, Comey, Kaiser, and Lovig 2000). Specific examples include:

- **Where:** San Diego, California (http://www.usdoj.gov/cops/cp_resources/promise_prac/success_stories/ss_sd.htm)

  Partnership Members: Police, Judges, local businesses, community members

  Goals: To reduce prostitution

  Activities: The officers gathered information about the exact nature of a local prostitution problem. They determined that the best solution was to make prostitution in the area less lucrative by obtaining a temporary restraining order (TRO) against the prostitutes who frequented the area. Businesses applied for the TRO, and violations of the order resulted in an immediate five days in jail and a $1,000 fine.

  Outcome: Community Level

- **Where:** Danvers, Massachusetts (http://www.usdoj.gov/cops/pdf/cp_resources/ww_danvers_001.pdf)

  Partnership Members: Business owners, local property owners, pedestrians, motorists, youth, police, the local department of public works, and fire fighters.

  Goals: To reduce loitering and vandalism in the downtown business district. Many citizens, particularly elderly residents, were also intimidated by youth in the area and concerned about being injured by skateboards or in-line skaters.

  Activities: Police officers conducted interviews with merchants, customers and youth downtown. They also analyzed police calls for service, researched legislation and ordinances on bicycle and skateboard regulations, and reviewed accident reports for the area. An intern from a local college performed environmental surveys of the target location. Elected officials formed a Skateboard/In-line Skating Committee composed of a selectman, two youth (one skateboarder, one in-line skater), and representatives from the school, the recreation committee, the police department, the business community, and a citizen. The response to this problem was to build a skateboard park at Plains Park (an established recreational area in close proximity to downtown Danvers) and to pass a local ordinance prohibiting in-line skating and skateboarding within the downtown business area.

  Outcome: Community and Individual Levels.

- **Where:** Boston, Massachusetts (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/gun_violence/profile21.html)

Partnership Members: The Boston Police Department's Youth Violence Strike Force (YVSF), a multiagency task force composed of approximately 62 sworn officers, in collaboration with the Attorney for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and representatives from numerous agencies and institutions, including Federal, State, and local law enforcement; parole and probation officers; the mayor's office; city agencies; clergy; and several universities.

Goals: To reduce serious juvenile and gang violence in Boston, increase ownership and accountability among command and patrol staff, incorporate prevention and problem-solving approaches at every level of operation, and build partnerships with stakeholders on planning and tactical issues.

Activities: To accomplish these objectives, the police commissioner decentralized the department and instituted a "Same Cop, Same Neighborhood" patrol organization strategy, which assigned officers to certain blocks in neighborhoods so that they would become familiar with local issues and take a problem-solving approach in cooperation with the residents.

Outcomes: System and Community Levels

Place Oriented Policing. This approach is based on the idea that crime is not distributed evenly throughout a geographic area. Rather, criminal activity is concentrated in relatively small areas that generate disproportionate numbers of criminal activities. Therefore, rather than distributing crime fighting resources evenly throughout a geographic region, this philosophy supports the idea of concentrating resources in the criminal “Hot Spots”. Outcomes tend to be both at the systems and community levels (Clear 1996). The “Boston” example used under Problem Oriented Policing also contains elements of Place Oriented Policing.

Town Watches. The National Association of Town Watch provides support for National Night Out (NNO) coordination at national, state, and local levels by disseminating information and by providing technical assistance to federal and state agencies, units of local government, civic and neighborhood organizations, and residents. NNO assists in strengthening comprehensive community partnerships and supports the development and enhancement of innovative local crime, violence, and drug prevention initiatives. In many communities local businesses, corporations, and utility companies cosponsor NNO activities. Outcomes tend to be at the community level (National Association of Town Watch 2002).

- **Where:** Wheeling, West Virginia (http://nsn.nslsilus.org/wgkhome/WHLPOLIC/neighbor.html)

  Partnership Members: Police and community Members

  Goals: To reduce neighborhood crime

  Activities: The Crime Prevention Officer maintains lines of communication with the Neighborhood Watch Groups, supplying crime and suspect information, crime prevention

tips, and training on a variety of subjects. This is done through having Block Captains on each street. The Officer also works with the community to solve neighborhood problems. The system relies on the willingness of people to get involved, stay informed of area problems, and work together on solutions

Outcomes: Community Level

Residential Police Officers (RPO) Programs. Under the RPO Program, a veteran police officer moves into a selected public housing community or other crime-vulnerable neighborhood, which becomes the Residential Police Officer's patrol "beat." (City of Alexandria 1995). Examples include:

- **Where:** Alexandria, Virginia (http://ci.alexandria.va.us/city/annual_reports/report95/11publicsafety.html#2)

  Partnership Members: Police department and the Housing Authority, residents

  Goals: To reduce serious crime in one of the city's most vulnerable neighborhoods.

  Activities: RPO's patrol the neighborhood on foot, and the officer is on duty 24 hours a day and is responsible for enlisting residents in an organized effort to reduce crime and solve community problems. The RPO Program is unique in that it decentralizes authority and allows the Residential Police Officers the flexibility to design traditional and non-traditional law enforcement strategies. Their work schedules are designed to meet specific community objectives. Residents of the RPO Districts are encouraged to organize into community associations and together take charge of their neighborhoods.

  Outcome: System and Community Levels

School Resource Officers (SROs). SROs promote a better understanding of the laws, why they were enacted, and their benefits. They provide a visible and positive image of law enforcement and they serve as a confidential source of counseling to students concerning problems they face. They bring expertise into schools that help young people make more positive choices in their lives. They also work to protect the school environment and to maintain an atmosphere where teachers feel safe to teach and students feel safe enough to learn SROs typically focus their functions on the "Triad Model" consisting of law enforcement, student counseling, and law-related education (Girouard 2001). Many SROs are law enforcement officers from local or county law enforcement agencies assigned to schools in cooperative agreements with education officials. Examples include:

- **Where:** The Cherokee Indian Police Department (CIPD) (http://www.usdoj.gov/cops/pdf/cp_resources/cops_in_action/ss_chernc_001.pdf)

  Partnership Members: Police department and schools

  Goals: To reduce the numbers of students coming to school under the influence of drugs.

  Activities: Full time school resource officers (SRO) were stationed in the elementary, junior high, and high schools. These SROs teach DARE, crime prevention courses, and maintain a

presence to curb delinquent behavior. They also provide pro-social youth activities to engage kids and keep them off the streets.

Outcome: Individual Level

Educational/Supportive Services. Activities under this domain include programs conducted in coordination with the police that aim to prevent or reduce crime by working with those at-risk to offend. The majority of these programs focus on youth and involve mentoring, recreational, and life skills programs. Examples include:

- **Where:** Lansing, Michigan (http://ncpc.org/3com2dc.htm)

  Partnership Members: Law enforcement, code enforcement, and the Neighborhood Network Center

  Goals: To improve the quality of life in its neighborhood.

  Activities: The Neighborhood Network Center was established in the Sparrow Estates Neighborhood of Lansing, Michigan. The Center provides parenting classes, substance abuse and job counseling, health care advice, dropout prevention assistance, interpreters for non-English speaking residents, and a base of operations for law enforcement and code enforcement agency activities.

  Outcome: Individual Level

- **Boys and Girls Clubs of America**. Boys & Girls Clubs programs and services promote and enhance the development of boys and girls by instilling a sense of competence, usefulness, belonging and influence. They have programs related to gangs, drug education/prevention, self-esteem building, and life skill development (Boys and Girls Clubs of America 2002). As an example:

  Where: Pequannock, New Jersey (http://www.usdoj.gov/cops/pdf/cp_resources/cops_in_action/ss_peqnj_001.pdf)

  Partnership Members: Police Department, Boys and Girls Club, local youth

  Goals: To reach out to local youth, offer safe activities, and prevent juvenile delinquency.

  Activities: The police spend time in area schools talking with students and teachers, teaching drug and alcohol education classes, and participating in school activities. The officers work out of a substation in the Boys and Girls Club and counsel students who come to the center to participate in after-school activities and help students with their homework. They sponsor teen nights and other pro-social activities. The police department also sponsors the Cops 'n Jocks program designed to build trust between athletes and police.

  Outcome: Individual Level

- **Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America (BBBSA).** Throughout its history, Big Brothers Big Sisters of America has reached out to boys and girls from high-risk socioeconomic backgrounds. The first Big Brothers program, established in New York in 1904, matched volunteers with boys who had appeared before the city juvenile court system. Other Big Brother Big Sister programs in the United States during that period also served youth that

society considered both dangerous and hopeless (Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America 2001). As an example:

Where: Washington, D.C. (http://www.bbbsa.org/stories&news/big_stories.html)

Partnership Members: Washington, D.C. law firm Covington & Burling, youth, police officers, and BBBS of the National Capitol Area.

Goals: To help remove the stigma that all "at-risk" youth are bad and need to be locked up. This program gave officers an opportunity to see that some at-risk youth really want to better their lives. Also, it was designed to try to reduce delinquency/recidivism among these youth.

Activities: "Bigs In Blue" matches Washington DC police officers with little siblings who are considered at high risk for justice involvement.

Outcome: Individual Level

Citizen Police Academies (CPA). Citizen police academies bring police departments and the community together by making citizens aware of the duties police officers perform every day. Police officers develop and maintain a relationship with residents by involving residents in crime prevention efforts. The academy provides residents with a working knowledge of their law enforcement agency's mission, operation, policies and personnel, while creating mutual trust and cooperation between police and residents (Abutalebi, Garrett and Alsabrook 2000).. CPAs have been incorporated into community policing strategies. In 1985 the first CPA was established in the Orlando, Florida Police Department. The concept has quickly spread nationwide. Outcomes are primarily at the system level.

Community Ombudsperson. A community ombudsman is a police-community liaison who can do things like answer a telephone line or staff an information desk that provides information about non-emergency police and public safety services (National Crime Prevention Council 2002). The ombudsperson must be highly knowledgeable about the agency, able to interact well with the public, and have both diplomatic and problem solving skills. The position could be filled with a paid officer, a paid support staff person, or a trained volunteer from the community. Like a community relations board, an ombudsperson can help divert non-emergency questions and complaints from the 911 emergency telephone system. Outcomes are primarily at the community level.

- **Where:** Corpus Christi, Texas (http://www.ncpc.org/3law2dc.htm)

  Partnership Members: Police and community volunteers

  Goals: To improve relationships between the police and the community, and address community questions and concerns more quickly

  Activities: residents with nonemergency reports and complaints about service can meet with the ombudsperson in precinct stations.

  Outcomes: Community Level

Community-Court Partnerships

Community Partners

With regard to specialty courts, the primary community partners include organizations that offer services needed by the offenders participating in these courts. For example, with regard to drug courts, the primary partners would be substance abuse treatment providers and other providers offering needed ancillary services such as mental health treatment, housing, educational/vocational training, health care, and life skills training. Service providers can be affiliated either with institutional-based groups such as schools or Departments of Health and Human Services, or issue-based groups. Another important type of community partner is the advocate. With regard to community courts, community partners are broader and include community stakeholders such as religious organizations and merchants associations. Advocates involved with specialty and community courts tend to focus either on offender rights generally, or on the rights of members' sub-population on which the court focuses on (e.g. people with mental illness). Advocates can either be members of Issue-Based organizations, such as the National Association for Mental Illness, or Member-based groups such as community coalitions. (See Exhibit 7-2.)

Initiative Types

Activities of Community-Court partnerships are relatively constrained and on focus primarily on crime reduction through either the improvement of court functioning and addressing the underlying causes of crime using specialty or community courts or the use of restorative justice principles to help offenders, victims and communities heal after a crime has been committed. Outcomes are primarily at the system and individual levels. Please note that specific court examples are only offered when there is evidence of a significant community impact on the policies and procedures of the court.

Drug Courts. Traditionally a state's court system hears cases on all matters over which they had jurisdiction. But, in the early 1980s during the height of the "War on Drugs", drug courts emerged to help facilitate the overwhelming number of drug cases in the regular courts (Goldkamp 2000; Lee 2000; Roman and Harrell, 2001). Court administrators worked with these offenders to prevent them from recycling through the criminal justice system because their underlying substance use problems were not being effectively addressed. Through a drug court an offender was met with a more holistic, treatment oriented approach in an attempt to treat drug use and reduce his or her reasons for engaging in criminal activity. Overtime it has been shown that these high intensity, alternative court settings and collaborations with relevant treatment providers were beneficial in working with drug addicted defendants to reduce recidivism (Connor 2000).

DUI Courts. Similar in aim to drug courts are DUI courts. The American Council on Alcoholism has collaborated with the National Association of Drug Court professionals, and the National Commission Against Drunk Driving to promote and establish DUI treatment courts that specifically incorporate alcoholism treatment for drunk driving offenders. These courts aim to coordinate services, share information, and streamline practices between the criminal justice system and community-based organizations. This comprehensive approach is designed to address the underlying problems of offenders to help prevent repeated harm and to make communities stronger and safer.

Mental Health Courts. With the increasing number of cases involving mentally ill defendants, mental health courts emerged as another alternative court (Goldkamp and Irons-Guynn 2000; Kondo and Ross 2000). Mental health courts focus on the mentally ill and mentally disabled offender. As the majority of criminal justice settings are not equipped to treat or properly care for offenders with mental illness, the objective of these courts is to prevent the jailing of the mentally ill and/or to secure their release from jail and to link them with appropriate services and support in the community. The idea is to approach the defendant's case as a problem that must be solved not with traditional justice remedies (e.g., plea bargain, detention), but with solutions worked out by a team of interested parties (e.g., courts, treatment agencies, community). Examples include:

- **Where:** Broward County, Florida (http://www.ncjrs.org/html/bja/mentalhealth/chap2.html)

  Partnership Members: Judiciary, community leaders in criminal justice, state and county government, mental health advocacy, mental health providers, and law enforcement

  Goals: To address serious problems existing regarding the care, handling and community placement of mentally ill defendants.

  Activities: The purpose of the court is to expedite the mentally ill defendant through the criminal justice system by balancing the needs of both the defendant and the community. The court focuses upon individuals arrested for misdemeanor offenses that are mentally ill or mentally retarded. The judge links participants in the mental health court with an appropriate community mental health provider. The collaboration between the community and the court system is what makes the mental health court a success. This court was showcased as a national "best practice" at the Department of Justice's Bureau of Justice Assistance National Partnership Meeting.

Family-Courts. Another adaptation of the drug court model is the emergence of the family-focused juvenile justice system model (Chase et al 2000; Gilbert, Grimm and Parhman 2001). Although the juvenile court has traditionally been considered an institution specifically established to holistically address a youth's needs, critics have found the conventional approach, in practice, to be lacking, especially when dealing with serious antisocial behavior. A number of jurisdictions have looked to the experiences of adult drug courts to determine how this alternative approach might be adapted for juvenile courts. The family-focused juvenile justice system model has two primary family-related objectives: (1) to motivate the family's participation in the treatment of the youth, and (2) to provide family intervention in a positive and supportive manner without alienating the parent or custodian. The idea is to integrate the youth and his/her family with community networks that support positive adaptation and facilitate the youth's positive adjustment with extra-familial social systems. This approach gets at the underlying problems of delinquency, such as substance abuse, family problems/abuse, and educational deficits, by having a team of interested members of the juvenile justice system work with community leaders and service providers. Examples include:

- **Where:** Syracuse, New York (Heilmann 2000).

  Partnership Members: judges, lawyers, mental health practitioners, educators, clergy, and parents

  Goals: To reduce negative impacts of separation and divorce on children.

  Activities: The philosophy behind this program is that if the community becomes informed about the needs of parents and children going through separation, the principles can be better supported and the community protected from the distress of broken families. A committee of twelve individuals with backgrounds in law, mental health, mediation, meet with the two parents every six weeks to carry out the program's goals and objectives. The program offers three, four-hour classes each month. Two-hour follow up classes are offered every quarter. These parent education classes are either mandated by a court, or voluntary. About one third of referrals come from judges, another third from therapists and attorneys, and the last third from the public at large through word of mouth and publicity efforts. Judges were interested in the program as a way to help parents communicate with their children and to encourage parents to resolve their issues out of the courtroom. Those who still needed decisions from the court saw the program as an intervention to keep them out of court after a decision had been rendered. Judges made referrals to classes at their discretion, but strongly realized that the court's connection to community resources was important in the life of the child and the parent.

Teen/Peer Courts. Another judicial innovation that is getting increasing visibility is the use of youth courts, also known as teen courts or peer courts. Teen courts are juvenile justice programs where peers sentence youth offenders. They operate largely like traditional courts. But, they differ in that teens, rather than adults, are sentencing their peers. Some of the benefits of teen courts include holding juvenile offenders accountable for their actions, promoting restorative justice principles, educating youth on the legal system, reinforcing and empowering youth to be active participants in community problem solving, and building good character traits in young people (Nessel 1999).

Community Courts. Community courts work toward partnership and problem-solving. They also focus on creating new relationships, both within the justice system and with outside stakeholders such as residents, merchants, churches and schools in order to test new and aggressive approaches to public safety rather than merely responding to crime after it has occurred (Rottman 1996). Examples include:

- **Where:** Manhattan, New York (http://www.communityjustice.org/frameset.asp?heading=Best+Practices%5F1&pt=y&pg=levelPages%2Easp&value=Community+Court+Principles%5F462)

  Partnership Members: Court, residents, businesses, social service agencies

  Goals: To restore citizen's confidence in the criminal justice system

  Activities: Launched in 1993 as the first community court in the country, the Manhattan Community Court targets low-level quality of life crimes such as prostitution, illegal vending, graffiti, shoplifting, fare evasion and vandalism. The court sentences low-level offenders to pay back the neighborhood through community services work such as painting over graffiti, cleaning subway stations, and stuffing envelopes for local non-profit organizations. At the same time, the court offers offenders help with problems that often underlie criminal behavior, providing on-site social services, including drug treatment, health care, counseling and educational services. The court also houses non-traditional programs like community mediation, job training and homeless outreach teams that are designed to address community problems. Residents, businesses and social service agencies collaborate with the court by supervising community service projects and by providing on-site social services. Local residents also participate in the court's neighborhood advisory board and in the community impact panels, at which offenders and community members meet face-to-face for facilitated conversation.

- **Where**: Philadelphia, PA (http://www.centercityphila.org/prelease030402.html)

  Partnership Members: Criminal justice and social service agencies

  Goals: To reduce quality of life crimes

  Activities: Defendants have expedited hearings at Community Court, usually within 36 hours of arrest. At the same time, on-site social workers and medical personnel provide direct connections to needed social or medical services to address the underlying causes of the criminal behavior. Treatment programs, either mandated by the Court or entered voluntarily by the offender, include, for example, drug treatment, health care, education or job training. Sentences emphasize community service and restitution to the community for the harm done by the offense.

- **Where:** Brooklyn, New York (http://www.communityjustice.org/frameset.asp?heading=Best+Practices%5F1&pt=y&pg=levelPages%2Easp&value=Community+Court+Principles%5F462)

  Partnership Members: U.S. Department of Justice, the City of New York, and the Unified Court System

Goals: To offer an integrated solution to solve neighborhood problems such as drugs, domestic violence, and landlord-tenant disputes, through coordinating the courts responses to families and the community.

Activities: Integrate under one roof the Family, Housing and Criminal Courts with drug treatment and other services in an effort to solve neighborhood problems and improve the quality of life for residents.

Balanced and Restorative Justice (BARJ). Another aspect of Community-Court partnerships is BARJ. According to the Office for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention's Guide for Implementing the Balanced and Restorative Justice Model (1998), BARJ is based on the principles that crime is injury that hurts individual victims, communities, and offenders and creates an obligation to make things right.; all parties should be invited to be a part of the response to the crime, including the victim, the community, and the offender; the victim's perspective is central to deciding how to repair the harm caused by the crime; accountability for the offender means accepting responsibility and acting to repair the harm done; the community is responsible for the well-being of all its members, including both victim and offender; and finally, all human beings have dignity and worth. With regard to restorative justice programs partners tend to be justice professionals, mediators, victims, and offenders. Outcomes are primarily at the system and individual levels. Examples of initiatives include:

Restorative Justice Circles. "Circles" are a process and structure to enhance local community involvement in matters of justice. In Native American cultures, the use of talking circles is part of an oral tradition handed down through the generations. For the participant among these cultures, the circle emerges out of shared living and embodies both power and mystery. Some jurisdictions are also using some form of circle involvement or exploring its use to enhance community/neighborhood involvement and stake in criminal justice, to provide victims with a safe setting in which to be heard, and to offer opportunities for offenders to "own" their actions and participate in constructing meaningful ways of being held accountable (Coates, Umbreit, and Vos 2000). Examples include:

- **Where:** Saint Paul, Minnesota (http://ssw.che.umn.edu/rjp/Resources/Documents/Circles.Final.Revised.pdf)

  Partnership Members: Dakota County Community Corrections, the South Saint Paul Restorative Justice Council (SSPRJC), South Saint Paul Police Department, offenders and victims of crime.

  Goals: To retain some ownership and pride in community while working out conflicts which naturally occur in any community

  Activities: Participation is voluntary, and participants talk through the crime committed and potential solutions. Once agreed upon the outcome is binding.

Victim Offender Conferencing. This process allows offenders to learn about the human consequences of their criminal acts. It utilizes a process of mediation that facilitates between victims and offenders. Once ground rules ensuring fairness are set, the involved parties have a chance to talk about the crime and its impact. Restitution agreements are then discussed

and agreed upon by all parties (Umbreit and Fercello, 1997). Conferencing may be conducted as part of a formal court disposition or as an alternative to court involvement.

- **Where:** New Jersey (http://www.judiciary.state.nj.us/family/fam-01.htm)

  Partnership Members: Judiciary, New Jersey citizens, juveniles, school personnel, juvenile police officers

  Goals: To better serve the needs of juvenile offenders.

  Activities: Juvenile Conference Committees (JCCs) are a group of six to nine trained volunteers who hear cases of minor juvenile offenders. Recommendations, if approved by the judge, become a court order, which is monitored by the JCC. JCCs represent a partnership between the judiciary and the citizenry of New Jersey to provide expanded services to youth that are at risk of becoming involved in delinquent behavior. The program provides the opportunity for focused intervention of youth and families within the community of residence. This volunteer program not only saves judges time, it helps build the collaboration between the court and the community that is necessary to respond effectively to juvenile delinquency.

Reparative Probation Program. The Reparative Probation Program directly involves community members meeting face to face with offenders to negotiate a "reparative agreement" that specifies how offenders will make reparation to their victims and other community members. Examples include:

- **Where:** Vermont (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/implementing/accountability.html#promising)

  Partnership Members: Vermont Department of Corrections, offenders convicted of misdemeanor or nonviolent felony crimes, and crime victims

  Goals: To encourage offender reparation to their victims

  Activities: A judge, using an administrative probation order with the condition that the offender has no further involvement in criminal activity, sentences the offender to the Reparative Probation Program following adjudication of guilt with a suspended sentence. The offender's requirement to complete the program is also a special condition of probation. If the agreement is satisfied, the probation board recommends the offender's discharge from probation. If the offender fails to satisfy the agreement within the required period, he or she may be returned to the court for further action or continued supervision.

Community-Lawyer/Prosecution Partnerships

Community Partners

Similar to the community partners in Community-Court partnerships, the community partners involved in these initiatives are institution-based partners such as Departments of

Human Services, issue-based groups such as community-based treatment providers, and membership-based groups such as victims of crime, offenders and their families, and other community members. (See Exhibit 7-3).

Initiative Types

The primary domains of these partnerships are changing the business of lawyering and the courts as well as addressing the needs of victims and the community. Outcomes encompass the system, community, and individual-levels.

Community Lawyering. Community oriented lawyering integrates a new approach with the conventional advocate's role (Connor 2000; Diamond 2000). Community oriented lawyers think in terms of the problems of particular people and places, not just crimes and cases. For community oriented lawyers the bottom line is solving problems, increasing neighborhood safety, preventing crime, improving the quality of life of both victims and offenders, and fostering economic development. To meet these goals community lawyers work closely with service and treatment agencies and organizations including, but not limited to, social service agencies, and substance abuse, primary and mental health, domestic violence, and educational service providers. Another important aspect is that the success of a particular judicial outcome is not based solely on justice system standards, but is also based on what the community defines as important and what constitutes success within the community context. Thus, community attorneys are oriented by the community as they become partners. They also treat conventional case processing as a tool, not as an end in itself. Instead of asking, "what happened?" they ask, "what is happening?" Examples include:

- **Where:** San Diego, California (Clarke 2001)

  Partnership Members: San Diego Public Defenders Office and the City's Domestic Violence Council

  Goals: To ensure quality treatment of offenders receiving domestic violence services

  Activities: Evaluate and monitor the success of community based domestic violence programs into which offenders are mandated.

- **Where:** Boston, Massachusetts (Clarke 2001)

  Partnership Members: Public defenders and the Children's Law Center of Massachusetts

  Goals: To improve schools and educational advocacy for youth in the Boston area

  Activities: Created the "EdLaw Project" to work more closely with parents, youth workers, and other lawyers. They coordinated the creation of an educational advocacy coalition.

Community Prosecution. While community lawyers focus largely on civil dockets, community prosecutors tend to focus on criminal offenses. These prosecutors are not simply case processors. Instead, they are problem solvers, looking to improve the quality of life for the communities they serve. By working directly with the community and learning about community problems and concerns directly from community members, they are able to respond more aggressively to criminal justice problems. How this is accomplished varies, but there are common components. They also gather data from communities that is input to the court to get the kind of resolution that is most appropriate given a particular neighborhood. Specifically, community prosecutors must:

- Get out of their offices and interact with the community;
- Be able to become proactive in their law enforcement efforts, to engage in community activism, and to address problems even minor ones;
- Establish partnerships with the community and law enforcement providers, as well as strong working relationships with relevant public and private agencies;
- Work closely with the citizens and police in particular neighborhoods (Coles 2000); and
- Gather data on offenders to shape appropriate resolution.

Examples include:

- **Where:** Indianapolis, Indiana (Coleman et al 2001)

  Partnership Members: Police and Community Groups

  Goals: To reduce homicides, bring the community into the problem-solving process, improve communication and relationships among all justice agencies in the Indianapolis area.

  Activities: The team analyzed homicide data and identified four common elements. They then began ordering chronic offenders to attend meetings with law enforcement, neighborhood residents, and representatives of social services agencies to inform offenders that their behavior would not be tolerated.

Victim Services. With community lawyering, victim services are beginning to be viewed as part of a continuum of care that fully serves the victim and makes him/her an integral part of the criminal justice process. Traditional victim services focused on services in areas such as domestic violence, sexual assault, and child abuse. These programs broke ground for the victims' movement that is now even more far-reaching. Community organizations can help in this process by partnering with courts to provide one-stop service to victims while they are in the courthouse. For example, the Office for Victims of Crime (OVC) is an agency located within the Office for Justice Programs of the United States Department of Justice. Congress formally established OVC in 1988 through an amendment to the Victims of Crime Act (VOCA) of 1984. Among other things, VOCA authorizes OVC to fund states to operate crime victim compensation programs. In 1998 OVC published the first comprehensive assessment of the Victims' movement since 1982 – *New Directions form the field: Victims Rights' and Services for the 21st Century*. Some of the major ideas and recommendations presented dealt with providing crime victims with access to comprehensive, quality services; supporting, improving, and replicating promising practices in victims' rights and services built upon sound research, advanced technology and multidisciplinary partnerships. These are just two of the five major global challenges that represent the driving force behind the projects that OVC now founds and the policies it supports. Examples include:

- **Where:** Denver, Colorado (http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/ovc/publications/bulletins/dv_10_2000_1/files/NCJ183397.pdf)

  Partnership Members: victim service agencies, allied professionals, community and criminal justice-based programs

  Goals: To improve services for crime victims.

  Activities: Victim Services 2000 (VS2000) is an OVC project. This initiative aims to build a network of comprehensive, integrated services for crime victims that can respond appropriately to victims' diverse needs. The city of Denver, Colorado, through the Denver Vale Board, was the first demonstration project to receive OVC funding to develop and implement a seamless, comprehensive, coordinated, interdisciplinary system of services for crime victims. The Denver Vale Board, VS2000 staff, and a steering committee comprised of over 50 Denver area service agencies, allied, professionals, and community and criminal justice-based programs worked together to achieve the project's goals.

Community-Corrections Partnerships

Community Partners

There are two primary types of community-corrections partnerships: Community corrections and institutional corrections. The type of partnership is closely related to the kinds of community partners involved (See exhibit 7-4). Specifically, community corrections focus on offenders who are in the community and tend to offer supportive services to offenders and, therefore, include institution-based organization such as social service agencies, or issue-based organizations, such as job training programs. However, these initiatives also involve membership-based organizations and individual community members. Common roles include the inclusion of victims of crime or offender's family members in making impact statements to the court or the inclusion of community coalitions and associations through re-entry courts. Outcomes are primarily at the individual level. On the other hand, institutional corrections initiatives focus on offender reentry into the community and encouraging volunteerism in correctional facilities. Again, outcomes tend to be at the individual level.

Initiative Types

As noted above, community-corrections partnerships encompass primarily two domains: community corrections and institutional corrections. Initiatives by Community-Corrections partnerships that focus on offering supportive services designed to reduce offenders' risk of re-offence include:

Offender Supervision in the Community. An example of how communities may be taken into consideration by probation departments includes Neighborhood-Based Supervision in which probation agents are assigned to geographical areas (neighborhoods) instead of to caseloads that are scattered throughout a city. The justice professional thereby views the community as his or her client or consumer of services. This practice encourages the development of community partnerships between justice professionals and community members that allow the professionals to more effectively join with the community in working with offenders to help prevent recidivism and promote community connections. Whenever possible, justice professionals assist the community in addressing underlying problems beyond the individual offender (a problem-oriented versus incident-driven approach) (OJJDP 1998). Outcomes tend to be on the system level. Examples include:

- **Where:** Allegheny County, Pennsylvania (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/implementing/case.html#cisp)

  Partnership Members: Courts, School, and Community service organizations

  Goals: To offer alternatives to detention

  Activities: Monitored school attendance, required attendance at the CISP neighborhood center 7 days a week from approximately 4 p.m. to 9 p.m., electronic monitoring, and drug and alcohol testing. Extensive community service opportunities provide structured supervised time.

- **Where:** Dakota County, Minnesota (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/implementing/case.html#dakota)

  Partnership Members: Courts, school, community service providers, families

  Goals: To provide an alternative to out-of-home placement and secure detention

  Activities: Juveniles attend an extended day-treatment program that includes school, life and communication skills development, health, substance abuse treatment, recreation, community work service, and tutoring. Evenings are spent at home under electronic monitoring and parental supervision.

- **Where:** Mercer County, New Jersey (http://www.corrections.com/njaca/pastquarterlys/fall98%5Fquarterly/intensive%5Fsupervision%5Fprogram.htm)

Partnership Members: The ISP Screening Board that consists of twelve volunteer citizen members. The Board includes members who have retired from private industry, education and medicine. All of the citizen members are active in other community organizations.

Goals: To reduce recidivism

Activities: The Screening Board is responsible for interviewing and recommending candidates to the ISP Resentencing Panel of Judges. The larger ISP program also undertakes extensive urine monitoring to detect drug abuse; refers offenders to substance abuse, alcoholism and psychological treatment providers; offers educational seminars are held for participants, community sponsors and family members on topics such as parenting skills, budgeting, child abuse, addiction, relapse, and AIDS; mandates employment and offers vocational support; and requires community service.

- **Where:** Hillsboro County, Florida (http://www.usdoj.gov/cops/cp_resources/promise_prac/success_stories/ss_hc.htm)

  Partnership Members: The gang unit coordinator for the sheriff's office organizes the "Paint Out" program and court ordered youth. The county government and other local organizations, including McDonald's and Home Depot, donate recycled paint, supplies and food. All materials are stored in a trailer that was seized in a gambling raid.

  Goals: Provide community service for youth, motivate youth in a positive manner, and clean up the neighborhood.

  Activities: Reserve deputies volunteer their time to supervise and motivate these youths while they clean up vandalized structures -- painting over graffiti, pulling weeds and generally improving the building. To encourage teamwork, the entire group must stay to make up the work of anyone who does not pull their own weight.

- **Where:** Arizona (http://www.bbbsa.org/stories&news/big_stories.html)

  Partnership Members: BBBSA affiliates in Arizona, Arizona Supreme Court, juvenile court.

  Goals: To reduce the recidivism rate of court-referred juveniles by half, from 32 percent to 16 percent.

  Activities: The affiliates developed Volunteers in Probation (VIP) to provide early intervention for first-time juvenile offenders by matching them with Big Brothers and Sisters

Intensive Community-Based Aftercare Programs. Sponsored by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP), the purpose of this research and development initiative was to assess, test, and disseminate information on intensive juvenile aftercare program models for serious, violent, and chronic juvenile offenders who initially require secure confinement. The target audience was serious offenders and the goals was to provide intensive supervision to ensure public safety, and services designed to facilitate the reintegration process may allow some offenders to be released earlier, as well as reduce recidivism among offenders released from residential facilities. Outcomes tend to be on the system and individual levels. Examples include:

- **Where:** Paterson, New Jersey (http://www.corrections.com/njaca/pastquarterlys/fall98%5Fquarterly/intensive%5Fsupervision%5Fprogram.htm)

  Partnership Members: County Probation Division, the JJC's After-Care/Parole Program, the Paterson police and other community organizations. Oversight for the program will be provided by an Education Board, which includes members from the juvenile justice system and agencies serving youth in Paterson. In addition an Operations Board, consisting of representatives from participating agencies, will meet weekly to address specific issues for the project or individual juveniles

  Goals: To reduce recidivism and gang related violence among Paterson youth on probation and parole through improved enforcement of court orders, protection of the community and services to juvenile offenders

  Activities: The one-year pilot project is modeled after Operation Night Light, which is credited with greatly reducing juvenile homicides and violations of probation in Boston. Specifically, goals will be accomplished by enhancing coordination among judges, the court system, the police, parole, the Paterson school system, the Prosecutor's Office, the religious community and social service providers. In addition to joint patrols and evening home visits by the police, probation and parole officers in high violence areas, this project will link youth involved with the juvenile justice system with services throughout the city.

Institutional corrections initiatives designed to encourage volunteerism in correctional institutions as well as those to help offenders prior to release and during the transition back into the community are described below.

Volunteerism. With regard to increasing community involvement in the corrections system, there are several examples within Volunteer Management Branch (VMB) of the Community Corrections and Detention Division of the Federal Bureau of Prisons (BOP). This program fosters volunteerism throughout the BOP in several program areas:

> **Citizen Participation.** Using volunteers, VMB is charged with developing an inmate reintegration program that will assist offenders in making the transition from the institution to the community and family. By role-modeling community values and helping inmates with their own self-development, volunteers have the opportunity to directly affect their lives. The BOP uses volunteers in all disciplines within the institution and community correction facilities. By expanding partnerships with the local community, citizens grow to understand the unique role of correctional facilities. VMB also assists graduate and undergraduate students who are interested in converting educational and specialized experience into volunteer hours. Outcomes tend to be at the individual level.

Victims services. The Victim Impact Program is a national initiative in which victims of crime relate to offenders the effects of criminal behavior that impact and alter their lives. The program's objectives are to stress to offenders their personal responsibility and consequences for their criminal behavior, while emphasizing the victim's perspective. There is also a residential program that addresses issues related to domestic abuse for female offenders. Victim awareness programs are currently being implemented in community-based programming through federally contracted halfway houses with operational programs in Baltimore, Maryland and Tampa, Florida. Outcomes tend to be at the individual level.

Community Relations Boards. These boards provide a means of mutual communication and support between institutions and their local communities. While such boards have no formal advisory function to institutions, their purposes are to serve as a two-way communication link between institution and community leadership, and to advance public education, understanding, and advocacy for issues concerning Federal prisons. Outcomes tend to be at the system and individual levels.

Pre-release programs. The Bureau of Prison's Release Preparation Program includes classes in areas such as resume writing, job seeking, and job retention. The program also includes presentations by community-based organizations that help ex-inmates find jobs and training opportunities after release. The Bureau places appropriate inmates in halfway houses prior to release to help them adjust to life in the community and find employment. Outcomes tend to be on the individual level. Examples include:

- **Where:** Texas (http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/168637.pdf)

  Partnership Members: the Texas Workforce Commission, where the program is housed, and the Texas Department of Criminal Justice, whose RIO-funded assessment specialists help prepare inmates for employment and whose parole officers refer re-leased inmates to the program

  Goals: To place parolees in jobs to reduce recidivism

  Activities: The program provides job preparation services to inmates while they are still incarcerated in State prisons so that they have a head start in post-release job hunting. At the same time, RIO's prison presence spreads the word to inmates that the program is waiting to help them find work the day they are released.

Reentry Partnerships. The Reentry Partnerships Initiative is a Federal effort to assist jurisdictions in facing the challenges presented by the return of offenders from prison to the community. The goal is to improve risk management of released offenders by enhancing surveillance and monitoring, strengthening individual and community support systems, and repairing the harm done to victims. These initiatives are part of an ambitious effort by the sponsoring Federal agencies to help address the continuing problem of offenders entering the community after incarceration with little or no surveillance, accountability or resource investment. Participating states include Florida, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, Nevada, South Carolina, Vermont and Washington. Reentry partnerships require three crucial partners -- state correction agencies, local law enforcement, and local community-based organizations -- to

develop reentry plans for offenders scheduled for release into the community and then oversee the implementation of those plans. Outcomes tend to be on the system level. Examples include:

- **Where:** Maryland (http://www.ci.baltimore.md.us/government/mocj/reentry.html)

  Partnership Members: Maryland Division of Correction, Enterprise Foundation, Mayor's Office on Criminal Justice, Maryland Division of Parole & Probation, Baltimore Police Department, Empower Baltimore Management Corporation, Baltimore City Health Department, Druid Heights Community Development Corporation, Sandtown-Winchester Community Development Corporation, Historic East Baltimore Community Action Coalition, Eden Jobs, Genesis Jobs

  Goals: To provide a seamless, comprehensive network of services to reentering ex-offenders to ensure a successful transition from prison to the community and to reduce recidivism, and improve the quality of life in Baltimore City

  Activities: During the pre-release phase, offenders will undergo a needs assessment in such areas as education, vocational training, substance abuse, self-help groups, boot camp, and work release location. Based upon the assessment, a case plan of structured services will be developed and DOC case management staff will monitor the offender's progress and case plan compliance. The group will be identified within 12-18 months of release.

  Reentry Courts. The reentry court concept draws upon the authority of the court to promote positive behavior of returning offenders, similar to the approach drug courts use in managing the behavior of drug offenders. Various tools, such as graduated sanctions and incentives, are an integral part of this process. Like the Reentry Partnerships Initiative, the Reentry Courts Initiative relies on the involvement of other crucial partners - such as institutional and community corrections, law enforcement, faith-based organizations, social services, victim support groups, and neighborhood organizations - to build the necessary monitoring, coordinating services, and community linkages essential to support the offender's successful reentry and enhance public safety (Tauber 1999). Outcomes tend to be on the system level.

Comprehensive Community Partnerships (CCP)

Community Partners

These multi-agency partnerships may be the hardest to define and describe because they tend to include large numbers of organizations and have very broad goals. All three types of community partners are involved with these types of initiatives.

Initiative Types

CCPs tend to be system-change initiatives aimed at reducing disorder and increasing coordination of system responses to crime and community health, as reflected in their economic

development and housing stock. Secondary goals can include individual level outcomes regarding addressing the underlying reasons for crimes. The examples included below were selected for illustration and are not exhaustive.

Multi-Justice Initiatives

National Institute of Justice. Initiatives include:

Breaking the Cycle. In four jurisdictions nationwide, justice system practitioners and treatment providers are working together to change the way their systems "do business" with drug-using adults and juveniles. "Breaking the Cycle," a joint project of the Office of National Drug Control Policy and the National Institute of Justice, tests the idea that early identification and assessment of drug using defendants, followed by individualized treatment, intensive supervision, and strong judicial oversight can reduce drug use and crime. This initiative involves a wide variety of community organizations as well as multiple justice departments. Specifically, The Breaking the Cycle model includes: (1) drug testing of all arrestees before the initial court hearing; (2) placement of drug users in appropriate treatment and monitoring programs; (3) intensive pretrial and post-sentence case management; (4) appropriate, graduated sanctions and incentives to address offender behavior; and (5) judicial oversight of offender compliance (National Institute of Justice 2002).

- **Where:** Birmingham, Alabama (http://www.dpo.uab.edu/~tasc/uabtasc.html)

  Partnership Members: Jefferson County Commission, Jefferson County Information Services, Jefferson County Sheriff's Department, Jefferson County Jail, Jefferson County District Attorney's Office, Office of Probation and Parole, Criminal Defense Bar, Circuit Clerk's Office, Judiciary Administrative Office of the Courts

  Goals: To reduce drug use, reduced criminality, reduced jail and prison populations, system re-design/reorganization, improved offender life skills and circumstances, and better allocation of system resources

  Activities: Criminal justice and service providers are now engaged in developing a seamless transition of drug treatment and supervision data from the pretrial stage to postadjudication supervision. Specific changes include shortening the time between arrest and substance abuse assessments and increasing the median length of supervision.

Weed and Seed. Weed and Seed is comprehensive multi-agency approach to law enforcement, crime prevention, and community revitalization. Operation Weed and Seed is foremost a strategy--rather than a grant program-- which aims to prevent, control, and reduce violent crime, drug abuse, and gang activity in targeted high-crime neighborhoods across the country. The strategy involves a two-pronged approach: law enforcement agencies and prosecutors cooperate in "weeding out" criminals who participate in violent crime and drug abuse, attempting to prevent their return to the targeted area; and "seeding" brings human services to the area,

encompassing prevention, intervention, treatment, and neighborhood revitalization. A community-orientated policing component bridges weeding and seeding strategies. Officers obtain helpful information from area residents for weeding efforts while they aid residents in obtaining information about community revitalization and seeding resources (Executive Office for Weed and Seed 2002).

- **Where:** Indianapolis, Indiana (http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/eows/pdftxt/healthy.pdf)

  Partnership Members: Volunteers from the Weed and Seed Steering Committee, the Weed and Seed Community Policing Committee, Indianapolis Police Department, Park Ranger Cadets, and Secina High School, McGruff the Crime Dog from the National Crime Prevention Council, the Indianapolis Mobile Community Outreach Police Station (MCOPS) van, the Indianapolis Fire Department, the Tobacco-Free Youth Initiative, HealthNet–Hoosier Health Wise, and NESCO's seven Safe Havens.

  Goals: To build better relationships with community youth and providing opportunities for youth to interact with both community residents and police officers.

  Activities: Youth from 6 to 16 years of age were given the opportunity to test their bike skills on bike courses designed by Indianapolis Police Department East District officers. Youth who completed all of the bike safety courses were eligible to participate in a raffle to win one of 23 bicycles donated by the Indianapolis Police Department from a collection of recovered and unclaimed stolen bikes.

Comprehensive Communities Program. The Comprehensive Communities Program is a Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) initiative that implements a community-based comprehensive approach to crime control and prevention. It promotes the engagement of Federal, State, and local governments; the private sector; and the community in combating violent crime and drug use and abuse in our communities. The objectives of the program are to: (1) suppress violence and restore the sense of community in the target neighborhoods; (2) focus on community problems by implementing comprehensive planning and improved intergovernmental and community relationships; (3) develop a comprehensive, multiagency strategy to identify the causes of violence in the target community, and to control and prevent violent crime; (4) implement community policing and other efforts that encourage citizens to take an active role in problem solving; and (5) coordinate and concentrate Federal, State, and local, government organizations and private resources to maximize their impact on reducing violent crime (Gist, 2000).

- **Where:** Baltimore, Maryland (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/gun_violence/profile01.html)

  Partnership Members: Two local nonprofit organizations, the Community Law Center (CLC) and the Citizens Planning and Housing Association (CPHA) working with local residents .

Goals: To reduce gun violence, drugs, and crime as well as to address issues of the residential population dwindling, and entire blocks of homes being abandoned by their owner that had been appropriated by drug dealers and addicts.

Activities: CLC helped neighborhood associations and other community groups file civil litigation based on the Drug Nuisance Abatement Law, the Community Bill of Rights, vacant house receivership law, and the Self-Help Abatement of Nuisances Law. Technical assistance, and legal education to community groups, CPHA was helping community residents organize to address drug, crime, and housing problems.

Office Of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Initiatives include:

Safe Futures. The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) has awarded demonstration grants of approximately $1.4 million a year for 5 years to each of six communities (four urban, one rural, and one tribal government) to assist with existing efforts to reduce youth violence and delinquency. The program emphasizes using comprehensive community strategies to help coordinate social, health, educational, and juvenile justice services and increase early intervention with at-risk youth and their families. SafeFutures encourages community collaboratives to tailor prevention, intervention, treatment, and graduated sanctions strategies to local needs and capacities (Morley, Rossman, Kopczynski, Buck and Gouvis 2000).

- **Where:** Fort Belknap, Montana (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/safefutures/fort.html)

  Partnership Members: Fort Belknap Community College's SafeFutures initiative will collaborate with Federal, State, and tribal organizations such as the Fort Belknap Housing Authority, Fort Belknap Tribal Court, Bureau of Indian Affairs Law Enforcement and Social Services, Indian Health Services Mental Health, City of Harlem, Phillips County Sheriff's Department, Blaine County Sheriff's Department, Harlem School District, Hays School District, Dodson School District, Tribal Education, and the AmeriCorps program

  Goals: To reduce risk of involvement in serious delinquency and violence among Native American youth ages 6-18, living on and adjacent to the reservation. There will be a special emphasis on girls.

  Activities: The six major components of the Fort Belknap approach are At-Risk and Delinquent Girls Program, Afterschool Program, Mentoring Program (JUMP), Family Strengthening Program , Delinquency Prevention Program, and Juvenile Justice System Planning.

Title V Grants. Through Title V Incentive Grants for Local Delinquency Prevention Programs (Community Prevention Grants), OJJDP allocated $20 million to local communities. These communities are using the Community Prevention Grants and matching funds to develop research-based delinquency prevention programs that are locally controlled. The programs supported by these grants seek to halt violent crime before it begins by offering young people opportunities to engage in productive and positive activities. A report on this program by

Bownes and Ingersoll (1997) recommends that youth programs address skill development in the following areas:

- Health and physical well being.
- Personal and social competence.
- Cognitive and educational competence.
- Preparation for work
- Leadership and citizenship.

Non-Justice Federal Initiatives

The Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). HUD is involved in several community development programs. One program, the Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) program provides annual grants on a formula basis to entitled cities, urban counties and states to develop viable urban communities by providing decent housing and a suitable living environment, and by expanding economic opportunities, principally for low- and moderate-income persons. Another example, Enterprise Zones/ Empowerment Communities (EZEC), is an innovative approach to revitalization. It brings communities together through public and private partnerships to attract the investment necessary for sustainable economic and community development.

- **Where:** Jackson, Mississippi (http://www5.hud.gov/urban/perms/f_display_ar2.asp)

  Partnership Members: The city of Jackson and the Mississippi Development Authority

  Goals: To reinvigorate the implementation of the strategic plan and to assume the day to day management of the Enterprise Community Program in that city

  Activities: The Jackson Enterprise Community Citizens Advisory Committee is a collaboration between Enterprise Community residents, community-based organizations, educational institutions, banking institutions, faith-based organizations, businesses, the city of Jackson and the Hinds County Board of Supervisors. The city of Jackson awarded Enterprise Community funds to eleven community-based organizations for projects related to the Safe/Healthy Sustainable Communities benchmark. Funds were awarded for projects and programs aimed at reducing alcohol and substance abuse, after-school care, educational enrichment, recreational programs for youth, and public safety initiatives.

- **Where:** Newark, New Jersey (http://www5.hud.gov/urban/tour/maintemplate.asp?state=NJ&community=Newark_RC&info1=Urban+Renewal+Community&ID=09072600001)

  Partnership Members: The city of Newark

  Goals: To enact the strategic vision of a Newark with sufficient jobs at decent wages, intact, functional families, and sustainable neighborhoods.

  Activities: The community planning process was extensive and involved representatives from the private sector, academic community, neighborhood residents, and social service

organizations. There is an intricate governance structure called the Enterprise Community Board, which consists of 38 members appointed by the Mayor. The composition of the governing board is reflective of EC neighborhood leadership, and most members have worked together in the past.

The Department of Education. The Department of Education is also involved in a wide variety of programs to prevent or reduce crime in schools as well as to offer offenders and other community members alternatives to crime through skills building or educational programs. Examples include:

Community Technology Centers (CTC). Community Technology Centers promote the development of programs that demonstrate the educational effectiveness of technology in urban and rural areas and economically distressed communities. Community technology centers provide computer access and educational services using information technology. The goal is to have CTCs that are diverse in the populations they serve and programs they offer, but similar in that they provide technology access to individuals, communities, and populations that typically would not otherwise have places to use computer and telecommunications technologies (Mark, Cornebise, and Wahl 1997).

Safe and Drug free Schools. The Safe and Drug-Free Schools Program is the Federal government's primary vehicle for reducing drug, alcohol and tobacco use, and violence, through education and prevention activities in our nation's schools. This program is designed to prevent violence in and around schools, and strengthen programs that prevent the illegal use of alcohol, tobacco, and drugs, involve parents, and are coordinated with related Federal, State and community efforts and resources. The Safe and Drug-Free Schools Program consists of two major programs: State Grants for Drug and Violence Prevention Programs, and National Programs. State Grants is a formula grant program that provides funds to State and local education agencies, as well as Governors, for a wide range of school- and community-based education and prevention activities. National Programs carries out a variety of discretionary initiatives that respond to emerging needs. Among these are direct grants to school districts and communities with severe drug and violence problems, program evaluation, and information development and dissemination (United States Department of Education 2002).

Office of Correctional Education. The Office of Correctional Education (OCE) provides technical assistance to States, local schools, and correctional institutions and shares information on correctional education.   This office oversee several initiatives designed to improve the literacy and life skills of incarcerated offenders while they are imprisoned with the aim of improving their integration back into their communities and reducing their risk to re-offend.

AMERICORP*VISTA . VISTA works with community based non-profit agencies, where they share skills and experience to address issues such as homelessness, illiteracy, economic development, and neighborhood revitalization. VISTA, along with the National Civilian Community Corps, is part of the AmeriCorps program, which offers participants educational vouchers in exchange for a term of service. AmeriCorps programs address the nation's education,

public safety, environmental, and human needs and achieve demonstrable results(Friends of VISTA 2002).

- **Where**: Chicago, Illinois (http://www.nal.usda.gov/pavnet/cp/cpchicag.htm)

  Partnership Members: Community organizations and residents and VISTA volunteers

  Goals: To reduce community disorganization

  Activities: Its mission is to build friendlier and safer communities. Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA) members work with CANS trainers and community organization staff members on recruiting volunteer participation in police beat, problem solving teams. These teams are comprised of local residents, police, area businesspersons, churches, local school groups, and social service and city agency representatives. The VISTA volunteers develop the community's capacity to be an effective partner and to address the rising crime rate and its effect on the community's quality of life.

Foundation Initiatives

Annie E Casey Foundation. In addition to programs that focus on areas that indirectly reduce crime, such as family strengthening, the foundation sponsors the following initiatives that are more closely linked to crime reduction:

> **The Rebuilding Communities Initiative** is a seven-year initiative of the Annie E. Casey Foundation, designed to provide the supports needed to help transform troubled, economically disenfranchised neighborhoods into safe, supportive and productive environments for children, youth and their families. The Foundation works in partnership with community-based organizations on comprehensive strategies to reverse social isolation and disinvestment in low-income neighborhoods. RCI focuses on social development, economic development, human development, physical development and organizational development.
>
> **Juvenile Detention Alternatives Initiative.** Its goal is to demonstrate that jurisdictions can establish more effective and efficient systems to accomplish the purposes of juvenile detention, the Foundation established the Juvenile Detention Alternatives Initiative (JDAI) in 1992. The objectives of JDAI are to reduce the number of children unnecessarily or inappropriately detained; to minimize the number of youth who fail to appear in court or reoffend pending adjudication; to redirect public funds toward successful reform strategies; and to improve conditions of confinement.

The Robert Wood Johnson Foundation. Initiatives include:

> **The Fighting Back Project** was created by the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation to test the hypothesis that a broad collaboration of community elements could develop a central strategy to harness and focus their collective resources to significantly reduce their most serious substance abuse problems The objectives of the Fighting Back Project include a reduction in drug-related crime. The participating communities focus on populations not larger than 300,000 persons.

Reclaiming Futures. The mission of the initiative is to provide leadership in building community solutions to substance abuse and delinquency. It promotes new standards of care within the juvenile justice system, develops judicial and community leadership, offers training and technical assistance for creating coordinated systems of comprehensive care, and disseminate research findings. The goal is to reinvent the way courts, police, detention facilities and communities address the needs of substance-abusing juvenile offenders. To accomplish this, Reclaiming Futures has awarded grants to 11 communities in order to develop and implement new models for comprehensive care networks that figure out how treatment, judicial and social services can work together to meet this urgent need.

SUMMARY

Each of the different types of community justice partnerships (police, courts, lawyering and prosecution, and comprehensive) tends to be associated with different types of community justice initiatives. Table 7-1 illustrates a selected excerpt of the partnership framework using generic partnership programs. For evaluation purposes, we will envision using the framework in its entirety to break down *individual* partnerships into component pieces described in Chapter Six. Specifically, Table 7-1 shows that partnerships with police agencies tend to be simple in structure, involve institution-based and membership-based groups, and focus on the domains of disorder, quality of life, and addressing underlying reasons for crime (e.g. substance abuse). Court and Lawyer/Prosecution partnerships tend to have moderately complex structures, involve the full range of community partners, and focus on quality of life, and the underlying reasons for crime. Corrections partnerships generally range from simple to moderately complex, with the more complex partnerships involving the full range of community partners and the simple partnerships primarily involving membership-based groups. They all focus to some degree on quality of life issues, but some also focus on the underlying reasons for crime. CCPs have complex partnership structures, involve a full range of community partners, and focus primarily on system or, in some cases, community-level change in the areas of disorder, quality of life and economic development.

Unfortunately, due to the limited information available about the community side of the community initiatives described above, it is impossible to completely fill out the framework with regard to member characteristics. But, as the framework is tested and revised, and evaluations of community initiatives begin to track some of the measures implied in earlier chapters of this report, the utility of the framework as a way of documenting the “community” in community justice will increase.

Table 7-1. Components of partnerships by Justice Partner

Justice Partner	Partnership Structure S=Simple, M=Moderate, C=Complex			Community Partner IN=Institution-based IS=Issue-based M=Membership-based			Activity Domain							Outcome Level S=System C=Community I= Individual		
	S	M	C	IN	IS	M	Physical Disorder	QOL	Econ. Dev.	Youth	Employ-ment	Substance abuse	Other services*	S	C	I
Police																
Situational	√			√		√	√		√						√	
Community Policing	√					√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Problem oriented	√					√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Place Oriented	√					√	√	√							√	
Town Watch	√					√	√								√	
RPO	√						√	√						√	√	
SRO	√			√						√			√			√
Ed/ Supportive	√	√			√					√	√	√	√			√
CPA	√					√		√								√
Ombuds-person	√					√		√							√	√
Court																
Specialty		√		√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Community		√		√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√
BARJ		√			√	√	√	√						√	√	√
Lawyer		√		√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Corrections																
Community		√	√	√	√	√		√		√	√	√	√	√		√
Institutional	√	√		√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√		√
CCP			√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	

* Other services include things like mental health, anger management, life skills, and learning disability services.

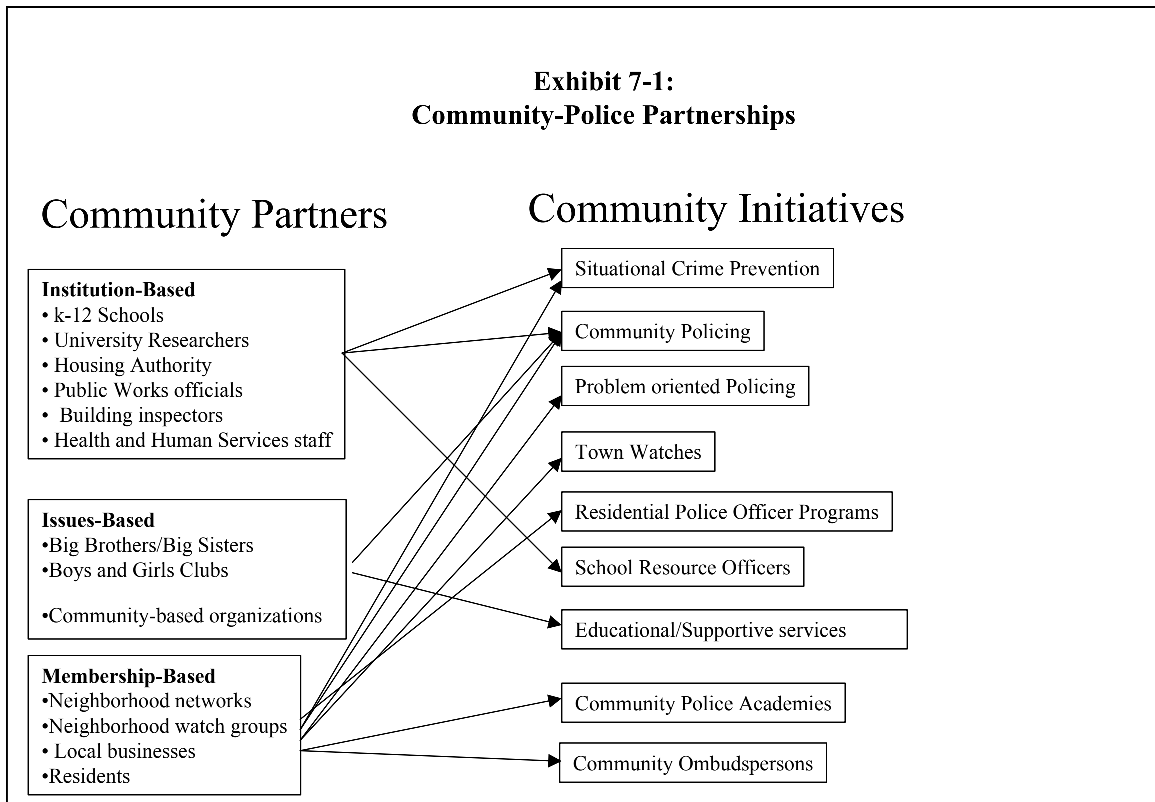


Exhibit 7-1:
Community-Police Partnerships
Community Partners
Community Initiatives
Institution-Based
• k-12 Schools
• University Researchers
• Housing Authority
• Public Works officials
• Building inspectors
• Health and Human Services staff
Issues-Based
•Big Brothers/Big Sisters
•Boys and Girls Clubs
•Community-based organizations
Membership-Based
•Neighborhood networks
•Neighborhood watch groups
• Local businesses
•Residents
Situational Crime Prevention
Community Policing
Problem oriented Policing
Town Watches
Residential Police Officer Programs
School Resource Officers
Educational/Supportive services
Community Police Academies
Community Ombudspersons

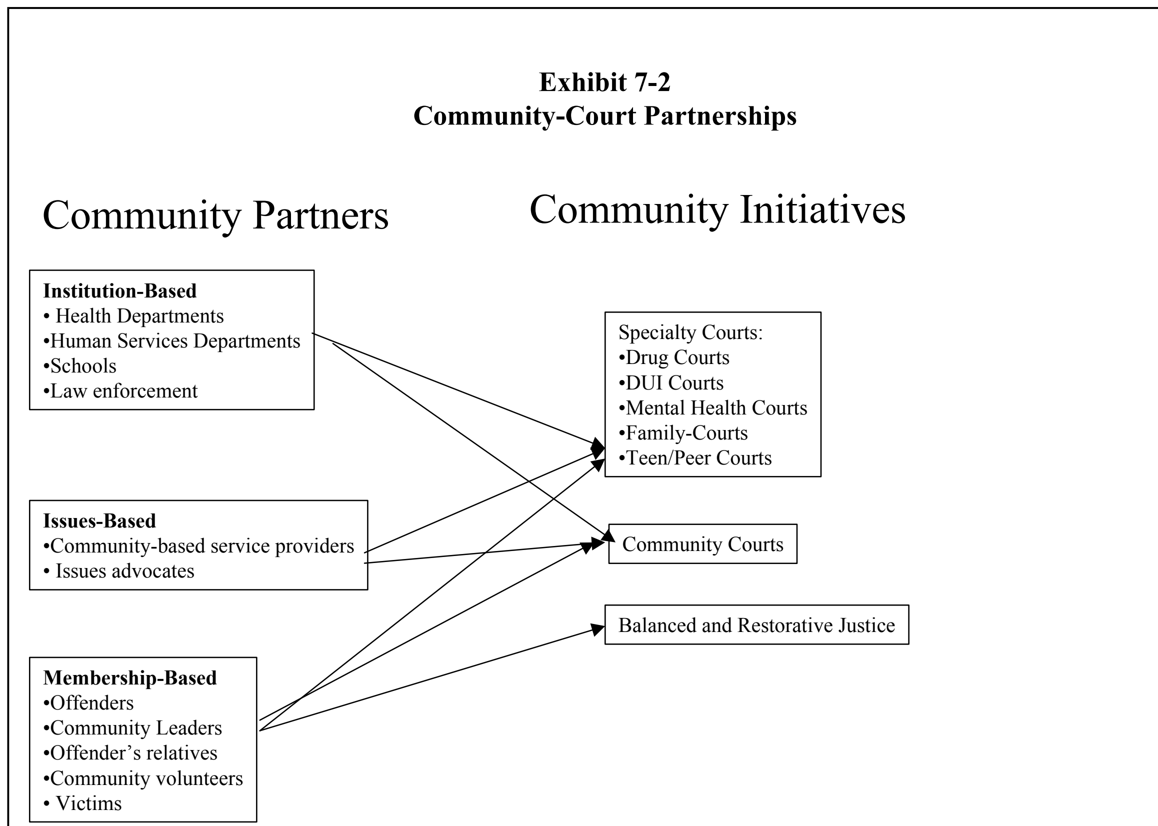


Exhibit 7-2
Community-Court Partnerships
Community Partners
Community Initiatives
Institution-Based
• Health Departments
•Human Services Departments
•Schools
•Law enforcement
Issues-Based
•Community-based service providers
• Issues advocates
Membership-Based
•Offenders
•Community Leaders
•Offender's relatives
•Community volunteers
• Victims
Specialty Courts:
•Drug Courts
•DUI Courts
•Mental Health Courts
•Family-Courts
•Teen/Peer Courts
Community Courts
Balanced and Restorative Justice

Exhibit 7-3:
Community-Lawyer/Community-Prosecution Partnerships

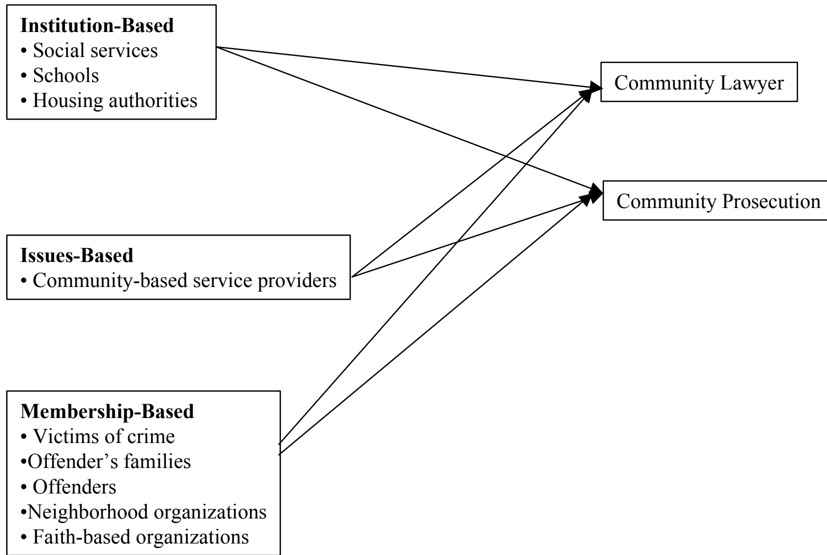
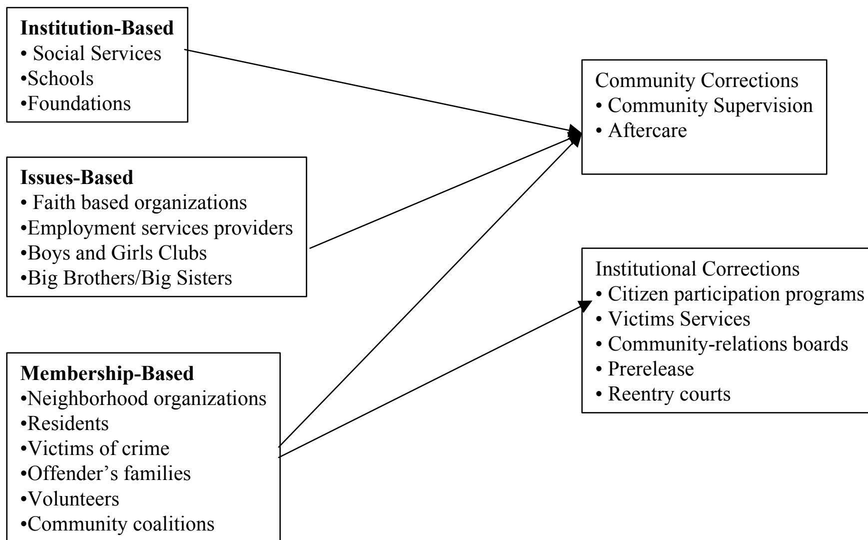


Exhibit 7-4:
Community-Corrections Partnerships



PART III.
Summary and Recommendations

Caterina Gouvis Roman, Gretchen E. Moore, Susan Jenkins and Kevonne M. Small

CHAPTER 8: The Conceptual Framework Revisited: Summary and Research Recommendations

SUMMARY

The preceding chapters explored the key concepts and characteristics of community organizations and partnerships that influence the success of community justice partnership initiatives. This report was designed to explore the following research questions:

- What are the factors that facilitate and strengthen the ability of community organizations to participate in community justice partnerships?
- How do these factors at the organizational level relate to the ability of partnerships to achieve their stated mission, goals, and objectives?

The report synthesized key dimensions that embody partnership capacity and created a conceptual framework designed to improve our understanding of how community justice initiatives work. The components of the framework included:

- Member characteristics that influence partnership characteristics;
- Partnership characteristics or dimensions that are related to outcomes;
- Goals, problem domains and objectives;
- Activities; and
- Outcomes at the community, individual and family and systems levels.

The components can be viewed as representing categories of variables that will enable outcome variables to be linked to activities and immediate outputs (i.e., "process" characteristics). Too often, process evaluations rest on describing inputs—such as number of participants or number of staff hired—without directly linking the actions and activities to short- and long-term outcomes (Connell and Kubish, 1999; Saxe et al., 1997).

Hence, the framework can work as a tool to guide outcomes—whether they are short term or long term—to be realistically based on the resources at hand and scope of objectives. The framework enables articulation of both capacity-related outcomes and end outcomes, as well as articulation of process and end outcomes *at multiple levels of change*. Partnerships may not be utilizing all possible measures of effectiveness if they perceive that their efforts are best captured end social outcomes such as reductions in recidivism or numbers of crimes rather than by outcomes related to increasing capacity. Demonstrating changes that can occur at multiple levels also has been noted as a challenge in evaluation research (Chavis, Lee and Jones, 2001; Fawcett et al., 1997; Kubish et al., 1999).

It is important to emphasize that the framework captures components that are deemed important for community justice partnership assessment and evaluation purposes. During our literature review and focus group discussion, we discovered many ways to define key words such as *community*, *capacity*, *organization*, *leadership*, *membership* and even *partnership*. Only some definitions held value in light of our research goals. In other words, some types of categorizations simply were not useful for analyzing relationships within and across components.

Additionally, we emphasize that partnerships are dynamic entities that move and evolve through stages where the relationships between variables are constantly changing. The framework can be applied at all stages of partnerships in that is can guide researchers and

practitioners to examine framework dimensions at different periods of time throughout the life of the partnership.

Although this report was written about partnerships involving criminal justice agencies and utilizing principles of community justice, the material can be applied to any field where partnerships are utilized to achieve community outcomes. Beyond crime prevention and the criminal justice system, there is a growing literature on best practices and issues in evaluating comprehensive community initiatives (CCIs) (Connell, Aber and Walker, 1995; Connell and Kubish, 1999; Kubish, Weiss, Schorr, & Connell, 1995). The intractability of complex community issues such as poverty, economic isolation, drug use and crime, has led to the emergence of comprehensive initiatives that involve service providers from multiple sectors as well as community representatives from all types of organizations. These initiatives have shown some promise in tackling issues caused by a number of factors. This body of literature offers many lessons about implementing, managing and evaluating community initiatives that relate directly to building effective community justice partnerships.

The evaluation literature has emphasized that at the most basic level, the theoretical processes that undergird community change need to be explicit. Empirical studies can point to causes and correlates of crime, but little is known about how particular program activities may relate to success (Rosenbaum forthcoming; for a review of the effectiveness of anti-crime programs, see Rosenbaum et al., 1998). By articulating how individuals, communities, and institutions change with reference to program strategies, programs can begin to assess effectiveness using appropriate measures. We recognize that more than one theory may exist as an explanation for an initiative or particular activity, but the point is to specify the relationship so that the relative outcome can be measured.

FUTURE RESEARCH

So where should the research go from here? An examination of the key concepts reminds us that when definitions are fuzzy, so too are the *measures* of those concepts. Future research can begin with an elaboration of key constructs with continued empirical research to assess different dimensions of the constructs and how they influence partnership outcomes. This will facilitate both the linking of activities to outcomes and precise measurement of outcomes. We suggest research in a number of topical areas:

- **Levels of community participation or "community embeddedness" within community justice partnerships**. Sometime referred to articulation of community voice, community participation embodies community justice activities, but to date, there has been little or no research linking levels or types of community involvement with outcomes. An in-depth review of research and continued empirical examination would assist in the development of appropriate measures to define mutually exclusive levels of participation or community embeddedness. In addition, program evaluators should strive to document the extent to which power and leadership is shared among partner entities.
- Related to community participation is **the role of residents**. This report focused on the organization, not the residents themselves, as means to articulate the community voice and gain full participation in community justice activities. Although research emphasizes that engagement of citizens builds social and political capital, there is little systematic research examining how resident involvement is related to program benefits and outcomes. What happens when residents participate in community justice programs? How do programs move beyond simply delegating activities to residents to achieve true empowerment? How, when and why do residents participate? How does race influence participation?
- **The role of trust within community justice partnerships.** Building trust has been targeted as a method to increase the success of community justice partnerships, but trust is a complex construct—holding different meanings for different audiences. Furthermore, how does one build trust in an untrusting community that may have the most need for community justice activities? If trust exists, partnerships might not need to share power equally. Research needs to focus on defining and measuring the construct and the differences that exist among issues of trust involving different justice agencies and community-based organizations across a range of community contexts. For instance, race has been suggested as influencing trust, but given the large number of intertwining contextual variables, research has not been very successful in separating out effects. Research examining trust in existing partnerships can suggest why some partnerships fail and some succeed. Continued research of the development and measurement of trust can lead to the

development of systematic principles that communities can use to move antagonistic or alienated communities toward readiness to partner.

- **The role of an intermediary.** One method used by some partnerships to increase trust is the use of an intermediary. Research suggests that partnerships with an entity acting as a go-between among partner agencies, particularly between frontline organizations and the traditional powerholders, may be more likely to succeed because trust is higher and conflicts are managed by the intermediary (Ferguson and Stoutland, 1999. Intermediaries can provide training and technical assistance, manage all administrative activities and often can focus explicitly on managing the partnership. Partnerships with successful intermediaries may be achieving a unique type of systems change. The community development literature has begun to highlight the significance of the intermediary, but the research is lacking with regard to the role of intermediaries within community justice partnerships.
- Similarly, empirical research examining **networks of vertical and horizontal support** is limited in the criminal justice field. Theoretical and empirical research on informal social control mechanisms and differential social organization emphasizes the role of "stable interlocking organizations" (Sampson, 1999: 276) and organizational ties to extralocal resources (see Bursik and Grasmick, 1993; Sampson, 1999, for review), but criminal justice research is mostly limited to studies measuring community participation in organizations. A few researchers have applied network analysis techniques to examine the strength and depth of criminal justice collaborations (Ferguson, 2002; Hendricks, Ingraham and Rosenbaum, 2001; Kelling, et al., 1997; Moore and Roth, 2001) but this research is in its infancy.
- **The dimensions of leadership.** Transformational leadership has been proffered as a style of management for effective leadership within organizations. The criminal justice field could benefit with studies that review and summarize the large number of leadership studies that exist across substantive fields, including quantitative studies that factor analyze characteristics of leadership to examine how different leadership styles may be related to partnership outcomes.
- **Collaboration.** Collaboration is the key to successful horizontal and vertical networks and numerous surveys and instruments exist to capture collaboration. But how does one choose which survey or instruments to use? Are some more suitable for certain types of community justice initiatives? Are there instruments that measure collaboration at different stages of partnership evolution? A large body of literature exists on this topic, yet there are no standard practices for understanding or measuring collaboration within community justice programs and initiatives.
- **Community restoration and criminogenic problem solving.** Not only are community justice initiatives different from traditional crime prevention because the community becomes an active participant, but also the focus expands to include *building community capacity*. Research based solidly in theories of restoration and community building can further our knowledge of best practices with regard to how activities are linked to outcomes. This understanding will help advance the

movement toward more relevant outcome measures for community justice initiatives.

- **Community-level measures.** Very closely linked to understanding restoration and criminogenic problem solving is the need for further development of measures that tap community outcomes such as community confidence, community satisfaction, or increased participation. Many community justice initiatives utilize community satisfaction surveys after community justice activities take place, but little research has been conducted to assess the utility of these tools and their appropriateness for measuring immediate and intermediate community outcomes across police, court and corrections programs. Furthermore, communities that have become part of the agenda-setting process may have expectations that are not met with partnership activities. And community justice initiatives aimed at systems change may be unable to change community attitudes. We know very little about how expectations and targeted outcomes affect levels of satisfaction.

In addition to advancing knowledge and measurement of the above conceptual areas, researchers must continue to examine partnerships within different community contexts. Partnerships, and the problems associated with partnership building, will vary from city to city and even from neighborhood to neighborhood. This report only scratched the surface of how contextual factors such as race and culture and the presence of racial discrimination can influence the development and success of partnerships. Continued research similar to Skogan and colleague's (1999; 2000) systematic examination of community policing in a large number of neighborhoods within one city (Chicago) is critical to advancing knowledge of how neighborhood characteristics can influence outcomes.

With regard to outcomes, it is also critical to undertake research that distinguishes between short and long-term outcomes. Continued theory testing will advance the causal mechanisms that allow specification of mediating variables and short- and long-term outcomes. Understanding the processes that bring about short term or capacity building outcomes related to increased capacity will, in turn, improve our knowledge of end outcomes. Evaluators of partnership initiatives can advance the body of knowledge by using detailed logic and activities models to link activities to outcomes. Activities models are more detailed than logic models in that they provide a listing of

activities that then can be linked to outcomes. Appendix B offers an example of an activities model for a fictional partnership between the faith community and community corrections agencies. We emphasize that utilization of the conceptual framework and specification of logic and activities models are only one part to careful evaluation that will enable us to determine "what works" in community justice initiatives. These efforts must be joined with impact evaluations that utilize experimental designs or rigorous alternative methods, when feasible. But recognizing that experimental or quasi-experimental methods are often unfeasible, we must be left with sound information on how community justice partnerships function.

Also with regard to outcomes, future research on community justice partnerships should examine the extent to which systems change is a component of desired outcomes. Some participants in the focus group felt that systems change should be inherent in community justice partnerships because partnerships are about "doing business differently." The focus group participants agreed, however, that some partnerships will have contexts that make systems change almost impossible. The implications for research are to begin to focus on the conditions under which systems change is a possible outcome for community justice partnerships. In addition, existing evaluation and case study research may hold clues to the community and partnership structures necessary for systems change to be accomplished.

CONCLUSION

Criminal justice research is only beginning to address the dynamic nature of community justice partnerships. As we move forward developing and evaluating community justice partnership models, research should focus on the role of community organizations and how horizontal and vertical networks are created, strengthened, and influence the success of initiatives. Emphasis must be placed on longitudinal research, where researchers and evaluators

can track partnership activities and outcomes through the multiple stages of partnership evolution.

The conceptual framework developed in this report is only one step within a multi-step process moving towards understanding, articulating and measuring community justice partnership outcomes. Well-constructed experimentation is necessary where change can explicitly be modeled, coupled with research methods such as case studies, panel studies and rigorous process evaluation that provide the ability to achieve the level of knowledge discussed in this report. Indeed, research of this nature would require large budgets, but not knowing what works or why something works could cost infinitely more.

References

Abbot, B., P. Jordan & N. Murtaza (1993). "Interagency Collaboration for Children's Mental Health Services: The San Mateo County Model for Managed Care." *Administration and Policy in Mental Health* 22: 301-313.

Abutalebi, G., T. Garrett, and C. Alsabrook (2000). "The Citizen Police Academy: Success through community partnerships. " *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 69(5):16-21

Aldrich, Howard E. (1979). *Organizations and Environments*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Alinsky, Saul (1969). *Reveille for Radicals*. New York: Random House.

Anderson, Elijah (1990). *Streetwise*. Chicago, Il: University of Chicago Press.

Arnstein, Sherry R. (1969). "Ladder of Citizen Participation." Journal of the American Institute of Planners 35: 216-224.

ASI, Achieving Styles Institute. Retrieved March 29, 2002 (www.achievingstyles.com/connectivedefs.asp)

The Aspen Institute, Rural Economic Policy Program (1996). *Measuring Community Capacity Building: A Workbook-in-Progress for Rural Communities* (Version 3-96).

Atkinson, Rob (1999). "Discourses of Partnership and Empowerment in Contemporary British Urban Regeneration." *Urban Studies*, 36 (1): 59-72.

Avolio, Bruce J. (1997). "The Great Leadership Migration to a Full Range Leadership Development System." In KLSP: Transformational Leadership, Working Papers. Academy of Leadership Press.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. New York: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A Social Learning Analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bass, B.M. (1990) *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership*: New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M. & B. J. Avolio (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks CA: Sage.

Bass, B. M. & B. J. Avolio (1995). MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. California: Mind Garden.

Bazemore, Gordon (2000). "Community Justice and a Vision of Collective Efficacy: The Case of Restorative Conferencing." Pp. 225-297 in *Policies, Processes, and Decisions of the Criminal Justice System*; *Criminal Justice 2000*, edited by Julie Horney. V3. NCJ-182410.

Bazemore, Gordon (1999). "After the Shaming, Whither Reintegration: Restorative Justice and Relational Rehabilitation," In *Restorative Juvenile Justice: Repairing the Harm of Youth Crime*, G. Bazemore and L. Walgrave (eds.). Monsey, New York: Criminal Justice Press.

Bazemore, Gordon (1997). "The Community in Community Justice: Issues, Themes and Questions for the New Neighborhood Sanctioning Models." *Justice System Journal*, 19 (2): 193-228.

Bazemore, Gordon and Kay Pranis (1997). "Restorative Justice: Hazards Along the Way." *Corrections Today* (December).

Bennett, Susan F. (1995, 1998). "Community Organizations and Crime." Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 539, May. Reprinted in David R. Karp (ed.) *Community Justice: An Emerging Field.* (1998). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Bergstrom, A., R. Clark, T. Hougue, T. Iyechad, J. Miller, S. Mullen, D. Perkins, R. Rowe, J. Russell, V. Simon-Brown, M. Slinski, A. Snider, F. Thurston (1995). *Collaboration Framework—Addressing Community Capacity.* National Network for Collaboration Framework. Retrieved March 4, 2002 (http://crs.uvm.edu/nnco/collab/framework.html)

Bernstein, David (1998). *Restorative Justice Values and Principles: A Colorado Perspective.* Denver, CO: Colorado Forum on Community & Restorative Justice.

Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America (2001). "Stories and News." Retrieved December 28, 2001. http://www.bbbsa.org/stories&news/big_stories.html.

Bilchik, Shay. 1998. "Guide for Implementing the Balanced and Restorative Justice Model: Report ". Retrieved May 15, 2002. http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/167887.pdf

Borden, Lynn M. and Daniel F. Perkins (1999). "Assessing Your Collaboration: A Self Evaluation Tool." *Journal of Extension* 37 (2).

Bowen, Gary L., James A. Martin, Jay A. Mancini, and John P. Nelson (2000). "Community Capacity: Antecedents and Consequences." *Journal of Community Practice* 8 (2): 1-21.

Bowen, Gary L., Dennis K. Orthner, James A. Martin, and Jay A. Mancini (2001). *Building Community Capacity: A Manual for U.S. Air Force Family Support Centers.* Chapel Hill, NC: A Better Image Printing.

Bownes, Donna and Sarah Ingersoll (1997). "Mobilizing Communities to Prevent Juvenile Crime." *OJJDP Juvenile Justice Bulletin* DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Boys and Girls Clubs of America (2001). “Who We Are.” Retrieved January 17, 2002 (http://www.bgca.org/whoweare/)

Braithwaite, John (2002). *Restorative Justice and Responsive Regulation*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Brantingham, P.J., and P. L. Brantingham. (1995). “Criminality of Place: Crime Generators and Crime Attractors*.” European Journal of Criminal Policy and Research,* 3:5-26.

Breton, M. (1994). "On the Meaning of Empowerment and Empowerment-oriented Social Work Practice." *Social Work with Groups,* 17 (3), 23-38.

Briggs, Xavier de Souza, Elizabeth J. Mueller, and Mercer Sullivan (1997). *From Neighborhood to Community: Evidence on the Social Effects of Community Development*. New York: New School for Social Research, Community Development Research Center.

Bright, Robert D. (1998). *Community Organizational Assessment Tool*. Adapted from materials prepared by the Citizens Involvement Training Program, University of Massachusetts-Amherst, and from the Family Community Leadership, Western Rural Development Center.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper.

Burns, T. and G. Spilka (1997). *The Planning Phase of the Rebuilding Communities Initiative*. Prepared for the Annie E. Casey Foundation. Philadelphia: The OMG Center for Collaborative Learning.

Bursik, R. J. (1999). “The Informal Control of Neighborhood Networks.” *Sociological Focus* 32: 85-97.

Bursik, R.J., Jr., and H.G. Grasmick (1993). Neighborhoods and Crime: The Dimensions of Effective Community Control. Lexington Books.

Butterfoss, Frances Dunn, Robert M. Goodman, and Abraham Wandersman (1996a). “Community Coalitions for Prevention and Health Promotion: Factors Predicting Satisfaction, Participation, and Planning.” *Health Education Quarterly* 23 (1), 65-79.

Butterfoss, Frances Dunn, Robert M. Goodman, and Abraham Wandersman, Robert F. Valois, Matthew Chinman (1996b). “The Plan Quality Index.” In Fetterman, David M., Shakeh J. Kaftarian, and Abraham Wandersman, eds. (1996). *Empowerment Evaluation: Knowledge and Tools for Self-Assessment & Accountability.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Center for Community Change (1992). *25 Years of Community Change.* Washington, DC: Center for Community Change.

Chase, D. J., et al. (2000). “Courts responding to communities: Community courts and family law.” *Journal of the Center for Children & the Courts*, 2:37.

Chaskin, Robert J., Prudence Brown, Sudhir Venkatesh, and Avis Vidal (2001*). Building Community Capacity.* Hawthorne, New York: Aldine De Gruyter.

Chavis, David M. and Abraham Wandersman (1990). "Sense of Community in the Urban Environment: A Catalyst for Participation and Community Development*." American Journal of Community Psychology* 18 (1).

Chiricos, Ted, Michale Hogan, and Marc Gertz (1997). "Racial Composition of Neighborhood and Fear of Crime." *Criminology* 35 (1): 107-131.

City of Alexandria (1995). “Accomplishments and Events: Public Safety.” *City of Alexandria, Virginia: annual Report 1995.* Retrieved December 28, 2001 (http://ci.alexandria.va.us/city/annual_reports/report95/11publicsafety.html#2)

Clarke, Cait (2001). “Community Defenders in the 21st Century: Building on a Tradition of Problem-Solving for Clients, Families and Needy Communities.” *United States Attorneys' Bulletin.*49:20-29.

Clear, Todd (1996). “Towards a Corrections of “Place”: The Challenge of “Community” in Corrections." *National Institute of Justice Journal* 231:52-56.

Coates, Robert B., Mark Umbreit and Betty Vos (2000). *Restorative Justice Circles In South Saint Paul, Minnesota.* Minnesota: University of Minnesota.

Cohen, Lawrence. and Marcus Felson (1979). “Social Change and Crime Rate Trends: a Routine Activity Approach,” *American Sociological Review*, 44: 588-608.

Cohen, Sheldon, Lynn G. Underwood, and Benjamin H. Gottlieb (2000). *Social Support Measurement and Intervention: A Guide for Health and Social Scientists*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Coleman, James S. (1988). "Social Capital and the Creation of Human Capital." *American Journal of Sociology* 94: 95-120.

Coleman, James S. (1990). *Foundations of Social Theory*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Coleman, Veronia F., Walter C. Holton, Kristine Olson, Stephen C. Robinson and Timothy Morrison (2001). “Using Knowledge and Teamwork to Reduce Crime.” *United States Attorneys' Bulletin.*49:11-19.

Coles, Catherine M. (2000). “Community Prosecution, Problem Solving, and Public Accountability: The Evolving Strategy of the American Prosecutor.” Working Paper No. 00-02-04. Program in Criminal Justice Policy and Management of the Malcolm Wiener

Center for Social Policy, John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.

Connell, James P. and Anne C. Kubish (2001). "Community Approaches to Improving Outcomes for Urban Children, Youth, and Families: Current Trends and Future Directions." Pp. 177-203 in *Does It Take a Village? Community Effects on Children, Adolescents and Families,* edited by Alan Booth and Ann C. Crouter. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers.

Connell, James P., Anne C. Kubisch, Lisbeth B. Schoor, and Carol H. Weiss, eds. (1995). *New Approaches to Evaluating Community Initiatives: Concepts, Methods, and Contexts.* Washington, DC: The Aspen Institute.

Connell, James P., J. Lawrence Aber, and Gary Walker (1995). "How Do Urban Communities Affect Youth? Using Social Science Research to Inform the Design and Evaluation of Comprehensive Community Initiatives." Pp. 93-126 in *New Approaches to Evaluating Community Initiatives: Concepts, Methods, and Contexts*, edited by Connell et al. Washington, DC: The Aspen Institute.

Conner, Roger (2000). "Community Oriented Lawyering: An Emerging Approach to Legal Practice." *National Institute of Justice Journal* 231:7-10.

Coolbaugh, Kathleen and Cynthia J. Hansel (2000). "The Comprehensive Strategy: Lessons Learned from the Pilot Sites." OJJDP Juvenile Justice Bulletin, March. Washington, D.C.: OJJDP.

Coulton, Claudia J. (1995). "Using Community-Level Indicators of Children's Well-Being in Comprehensive Community Initiatives." Pp. 173-200 in *New Approaches to Evaluating Community Initiatives: Concepts, Methods, and Contexts*, edited by Connell et al. Washington, DC: The Aspen Institute.

Couto, Richard A. (1997). "Social Capital and Leadership." In KLSP: Transformational Leadership, Working Papers. Academy of Leadership Press.

Deich, Sharon (2001). *A Guide to Successful Public-Private Partnerships for Out-of-School Time and Community School Initiatives.* The Finance Project. Retrieved March 4, 2002 www.financeproject.org/ostpartnershipguide.pdf

DeVita, Carol J. and Cory Fleming (2001). *Building Capacity in Nonprofit Organizations*. Washington, DC: The Urban Institute Press.

Diamond, Michael (2000). "Community Lawyering: Revisiting the old neighborhood." *Columbia Human Rights Law Review*, 32:67

Drug Strategies (2001). *Assessing Community Coalitions.* Retrieved March 18, 2002 http://www.drugstrategies.org/acrobat/CommCoal.pdf

DuBois, Jill and Susan M. Hartnett (2002). “Making the Community Side of Community Policing Work: What Needs to Be Done,” In Dennis J. Stevens, ed., *Policing and Community Partnerships.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Duffee, David E. (1996). "Working with Communities," Pp. 85-96 in *Community Policing in a Rural Setting*, edited by Q. C. Thurman and E. F. McGarrell. Cincinnati: Anderson.

Dunlap, Karen L. (1998). *Community Justice: Concepts and Strategies*. Lexington, KY: American Probation and Parole Association.

Edelman, M. W. (1987). *Families in Peril: An Agenda for Social Change*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Edwards, Ruth W., Pamela Jumper-Thurman, Barbara A. Plested, Eugene R. Oetting, and Louis Swanson (2000). "Community Readiness: Research to Practice." *Journal of Community Psychology* 28 (3): 291-307.

Executive Office for Weed and Seed. 2002. “Operation Weed and Seed”. Retrieved May 15, 2002. http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/eows/nutshell.htm#Strategy.

Fawcett, Stephen B. Adrienne Paine-Andrews, Vincent T. Francisco, Jerry A. Schultz, Kimber P. Richter, Rhonda K. Lewis, Ella L. Williams, Kari J. Harris, Jannette Y. Berkley, Jacqueline L. Fisher and Christine M. Lopez (1995). "Using Empowerment Theory in Collaborative Partnerships for Community Health and Development." *American Journal of Community Psychology* 23 (5): 677-696.

Feins, Judith D. (1983*). Partnerships for Neighborhood Crime Prevention. Issues and Practices Report*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

Felson, Marcus (1987). “Routine Activities and Crime Prevention in the Developing Metropolis,” *Criminology* 25 (4): 911-931.

Ferguson, Carroy U. (2002). “Creative Community Policing Initiatives in Columbia, South Carolina.” In Stevens, Dennis J., ed. (2002). *Policing and Community Partnerships*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Ferguson, Ronald F., and William T. Dickens (1999). “Introduction.” In *Urban Problems and Community Development*, edited by R. F Ferguson and W.T. Dickens. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Ferguson, Ronald F. and Sara Stoutland (1999). "Reconceiving the Community Development Field," Pp. 33-57 in *Urban Problems and Community Development*, edited by R.F. Ferguson and W.T. Dickens. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Fetterman, David M., Shakeh J. Kaftarian, and Abraham Wandersman, eds. (1996). *Empowerment Evaluation: Knowledge and Tools for Self-Assessment & Accountability.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Fishman, Michael, Mary Farell, Vincena Allen, and Elizabeth Eiseman (2000). Evaluating Community Collaborations: A Research Synthesis. Research Report Prepared for Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Secretary.

Flippen, Chenoa (2001). "Neighborhood Transition and Social Organization: The White to Hispanic Case." *Social Problems* 48 (3): 299-321.

Florin, P., and D.M. Chavis (1990). *Community Development and Substance Abuse Prevention*. Prevention Office, Bureau of Drug Abuse Services, Department of Health, County of Santa Clara, May 112, San Jose, CA.

Fredericksen, Patricia J. (1996). "Community Collaboration and Public Policy Making." *American Behavioral Scientist* 39 (5), March/April.

Friedman, Warren (1998). "Volunteerism and the Decline of Violent Crime." *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology* 88 (4): 1453-1474.

Friends of VISTA (2002). "AmeriCorps*VISTA - Frequently Asked Questions." Retrieved April 10, 2002 (http://www.friendsofvista.org/vfaq.html).

Fukuyama, Francis (2000). "Social Capital and Civil Society" IMF Working Paper WP/00/74, April. Retrieved April 2, 2002 (http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/seminar/1999/reforms/fukuyama.htm)

Gardner, Sid (1992). Using Community-Wide Collaboration to Foster Resiliency in Kids: A Conceptual Framework. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Galaskiewicz, J., and Bielefeld, W. (1998). *Nonprofit Organizations in an Age of Uncertainty.* New York: Aldine de Gruyter.

Geis, Karlyn J. and Catherine E. Ross (1998). "A New Look at Urban Alienation: The Effect of Neighborhood Disorder on Perceived Powerlessness." *Social Psychology Quarterly* 61 (3): 232-246.

Gilbert, J., R. Grimm, and J. Parnham (2001). "Applying Therapeutic Principles to a Family-Focused Juvenile Justice Model." *Alabama Law Review*, 52:1153.

Girouard, Cathy (2001). "School Resource Officer Training Program." *OJJDP FactSheet* 05:March

Gist, Nancy. 2000. "Comprehensive Communities Program: A Unique Way To Reduce Crime and Enhance Public Safety". *Bureau of Justice Assistance Fact Sheet,* FS 000267.

Gittell, Ross and Avis Vidal (1998). *Community Organizing: Building Social Capital as a Development Strategy*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Glickman, Norman J. and Lisa J. Servon (1998). "More than Bricks and Sticks: Five Components of Community Development Corporation Capacity." *Housing Policy Debate* 9 (3): 497-539.

Goleman, Daniel (2000). "Leadership That Gets Results." *Harvard Business Review* (March/April): 79-90.

Goodman, Robert, Abraham Wandersman, M. Chinman, P. Imm, & E. Morrissey (1996). "An Ecological Assessment of Community-based Interventions for Prevention and Health Promotion: Approaches to Measuring Community Coalitions." *American Journal of Community Psychology* 24 (1): 33-61.

Goodman, Robert and Abraham Wandersman (1996). Community Key Leader Survey. Retrieved April 19, 2002 (http://www.secapt.org/science1crsurvey.html)

Goodman, R.M., Wheeler, F.C., and Lee, P.R. (1995). "Evaluation of The Heart To Heart Project: Lessons from a Community-based Chronic Disease Prevention Project." *American Journal of Health Promotion* 9: 443-455.

Goldkamp, John S. (2000). "The drug court response: Issues and implications for justice change." *Albany Law Review*, 63:923.

Goldkamp, John S., and Cheryl Irons-Guynn (2000). "Emerging Judicial Strategies for the Mentally Ill in the Criminal Caseload: Mental Health Courts In Fort Lauderdale, Seattle, San Bernardino, And Anchorage" *Bureau of Justice Assistance Monograph:* NCJ 182504. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Griffith, Elizabeth (2002). National Institute of Justice. Written comments to authors, May 12, 2002.

Harrell, Adele with Martha Burt, Harry Hatry, Shelli Rossman, Jeffrey Roth, and William Sabol (1996). *Evaluation Strategies for Human Services Programs: A Guide for Policymakers and Providers.* Washington, DC: The Urban Institute.

Hatry, Harry P. (1999). *Performance Measurement: Getting Results.* Washington, DC: The Urban Institute.

Heilmann, R. W. (2000). "A community-based parent education program for separating parents." *Family and Conciliation Courts Review*, 38(4):514-524.

Hendrix, Pamela Nicole, Jennifer Ingraham and Dennis P. Rosenbaum. "Understanding Partnerships in SACSI: Preliminary Network Analysis and Survey Results," Paper presented at the Annual American Society of Criminology Meetings, November 2000.

Hickman, Gill Robinson (1997). "Transforming Organizations to Transform Society." In KLSP: Transformational Leadership, Working Papers. Academy of Leadership Press.

Hickman, Mathew j. and Brian A Reaves. 2001. “Community Policing in Local Police Departments, 1997 and 1999”. *Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report,* NCJ 184794.

Hodges, S., Nesman, T., & Hernandez, M. (1999). “Promising Practices: Building Collaboration in Systems of Care.” *Systems of care: Promising practices in children's mental health,* 1998 Series, Volume VI. Washington, DC: Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice, American Institutes for Research.

Hope, Tim (1995). "Community Crime Prevention." Pp. 21-90 in *Building a Safer Society,* edited by Michael Tonry and David P. Farrington. Crime and Justice, 19. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Hunter, Albert (1978). "Persistence of Local Sentiments in Mass Society." Pp. 741-760 in *Handbook of Contemporary Urban Life*, edited by D. Street. San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Hunter, Albert (1985). “Private, Parochial and Public School Orders: The Problem of Crime and Incivilities in Urban Communities.” Pp. 230-242 in *The Challenge of Social Control: Citizenship and Institution Building in Modern Society*, edited by Gerald D. Suttles and Mayer N. Zald. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing.

Hunter, Albert and Suzanne Staggenborg (1988). "Local Communities and Organized Action." Pp. 243-280 in *Community Organizations: Studies in Resource Mobilization and Exchange*, edited by Carl Milofsky. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Hunter, Albert and Gerald Suttles (1972). "The Expanding Community of Limited Liability." Pp. 44-81 in *The Social Construction of Communities* by Gerald Suttles. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Institute for Law and Justice & Center for Community Interest (1997). *Citizen Action for Neighborhood Safety: Community Strategies for Improving Quality of Life*. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Janowitz, Morris (1951). *The Community Press in an Urban Settings*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.

Jones, John E., and William L. Bearley (1996a). *360 degree Feedback: Strategies, Tactics, and Techniques for Developing Leaders.* Amherst, MA: HRD Press. Retrieved April 29, 2002 (www.centerpointsystems.com/ARTdevelopinstruments.htm)

Karp, David R., ed. (1998). *Community Justice: An Emerging Field*. Lanham, Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Karp, David R. And Todd R. Clear (2000). "Community Justice: A Conceptual Framework." Pp. 323-368 in *Boundary Changes in Criminal Justice Organizations; Criminal Justice 2000*, edited by Charles M. Friel. Vol. 2. NCJ-182409.

Karp, David R. And Todd R. Clear (1999*). The Community Justice Ideal. Preventing Crime and Achieving Justice*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Kaye, Gillian (1990). "A Community Organizer's Perspective on Citizen Participation Research and the Researcher-Practitioner Partnership." *American Journal of Community Psychology* 18 (1): 151-157.

Kelling, George L. and Catherine M. Coles (1996). *Fixing Broken Windows*. New York: Free Press.

Kelling, George L., Sandra K. Costello, Mona Hochberg, and Ann Marie Rocheleau, Dennis P. Rosenbaum, Jeffrey A. Roth, Wesley G. Skogan, and William Sousa. (1997). Preliminary Cross-Site Analysis of the Bureau of Justice Assistance Comprehensive Communities Program. Botec Analysis Corporation: Cambridge, MA.

Kennedy, David M. (1994). *Showcase and Sandtown: In Search of Neighborhood Revitalization*. Issues and Practices report prepared for the National Institute of Justice.

Keyes, Langley (1992). *Strategies and Saints: Fighting Drugs in Subsidized Housing*. Washington, Urban Institute.

Kingsley, G. Thomas (1998). *Neighborhood Indicators: Taking Advantage of the New Potential*. Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute.

Kondo, L. and D. Ross (2000). “Advocacy of the establishment of mental health specialty courts in the provision of therapeutic justice for mentally ill offenders.” *Seattle University Law Review*, 24:373

Kordesh, Richard S. (2000). "Esperanza Familiar: A University-Community Partnership as a Social Learning Network." *Cityscape: A Journal of Policy Development and Research*, 5 (1): 75-90.

Kornhauser, Ruth. (1978). *Social Sources of Delinquency*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kotter, J.P. (1990). A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management. New York: Free Press.

Kretzmann, John P. and John L. McKnight (1993). *Building Communities from the Inside Out: a Path Toward Finding and Mobilizing a Community's Assets.* Evanston, IL: Center for Urban Affairs and Policy Research.

Kubisch, Anne C., Prudence Brown, Robert Chaskin, Janice Hirota, Mark Joseph, Harold Richman, and Michelle Roberts (1999). *Voices from the Field: Learning from the Early Work of Comprehensive Community Initiatives.* New York, NY: The Aspen Institute. Retrieved February 6, 2002 (http://www.aspenroundtable.org/voices/ack.htm)

Lane, Brett, and Diane Dorfman (1997). *Strengthening Community Networks: The Basis for Sustainable Community Renewal*. NW Regional Educational Laboratory.

Lashway, Larry (1997). "Measuring Leadership." *Research Roundup* 14 (2). Retrieved March 20, 2002 (http://eric.uoregon.edu/publications.roundup/W97-98.html)

Lederach, John Paul (1997). *Building Peace: Sustainable Reconciliation in Divided Societies*. Washington, DC: Endowment of the United States Institute of Peace.

Lee, Eric. (2000). "Community courts: An evolving model." *Bureau of Justice Assistance Monograph: Community Justice Series #2*, Washington DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Lipman-Bluen, Jean (1997). "Connective Leadership: A New Paradigm." *Drucker Magazine* 1 (1): 12-19,38.

Mactivish, Marie and Virginia Winter. 1991. "A Practical Planning Guide for Community Corrections Managers". Retrieved January 23, 2002. http://www.nicic.org/pubs/1991/009018.pdf.

Mancini, Jay A., James A. Martin, and Gary L. Bowen (2001). "Community Capacity and Social Organization: The Role of Community in the Promotion of Health and the Prevention of Illness." (in press) in *Encyclopedia of Primary Prevention and Health Promotion*, edited by Thomas Gullotta and Martin Bloom. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.

Mark, June, Janet Cornebise and Ellen Wahl (1997). "Community Technology Centers: Impact on
Individual Participants and Their Communities." *Report submitted to Informal Science Division/ESIE National Science Foundation: Education and Human Resources.* Document Retrieved January 17, 2002 (http://www.ctcnet.org/eval.html).

Mayer, Neil S. (1984). *Neighborhood Organizations and Community Development: Making Revitalization Work.* Washington, DC: Urban Institute Press.

Mayer, Steven E. (1994). *Building Community Capacity: The Potential of Community Foundations.* Minneapolis, MN: Rainbow Research, Inc.

Mayfield, Loomis and Edgar P. Lucas, Jr. (2000). "Mutual Awareness, Mutual Respect: The Community and the University Interact." *Cityscape: A Journal of Policy Development and Research*, 5 (1): 173-184.

Mayfield, Loomis, Maureen Hellwig and Brian Banks (1998). "The Chicago Response to Urban Problems: Building University/Community Collaborations." A Great Cities Institute Working Paper. Chicago, Il.: University of Illinois at Chicago.

McKnight, John L. (1995). *The Careless Society: Community and Its Counterfeits*. New York, NY: BasicBooks.

McKnight, John L., and John P. Kretzmann (1990). *Mapping Community Capacity.* Evanston, Il: Center for Urban Affairs and Policy Research at Northwestern University.

Meithe, Terance D. and Robert F. Meier (1994). *Crime and Its Social Context: Towards and Integrated Theory of Offenders, Victims, and Situations* (SUNY series in Deviance and Social Control). State University of New York Press.

Milofsky, Carl, ed. (1988). *Community Organizations: Studies in Resource Mobilization and Exchange.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Milofsky, Carl (1988). "Networks, Markets, Culture, and Contracts: Understanding Community Organizations." Pp. 1-15 in *Community Organizations: Studies in Resource Mobilization and Exchange*, edited by Carl Milofsky. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Milofsky, Carl and Frank Romo (1988). "The Structure of Funding Arenas for Neighborhood Based Organizations." Pp. 217-242 in *Community Organizations: Studies in Resource Mobilization and Exchange*, edited by Carl Milofsky. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Milton, Catherine (1994). "National Service: Secret Weapon in the Fight Against Crime." *Public Management*, July: 2-7.

Moore, Gretchen E. and Jeffrey A. Roth (2001). *Comparative Analysis of Team Networks in Maryland's HotSpot Communities Initiative.* Draft Report to the National Institute of Justice. Washington, DC: The Urban Institute.

Moore, Mark H. (1999). "Security and Community Development," In *Urban Problems and Community Development*, edited by R.F. Ferguson and W.T. Dickens. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Morenoff, J.D. and R.J. Sampson (1997). "Violent Crime and The Spatial Dynamics of Neighborhood Transition: Chicago, 1970-1990." *Social Forces,* 76: 31-64.

Morenoff, J.D., R.J. Sampson and S. Raudenbush (2001). "Neighborhood Inequality, Collective Efficacy, and the Spatial Dynamics of Urban Violence." *Criminology* 39: 517-560.

Morley, Elaine, Shelli B. Rossman, Mary Kopczynski, Janeen Buck and Caterina Gouvis (2000). "Comprehensive Responses to Youth At Risk: Interim Findings From the SafeFutures Initiative." Washington DC: U.S Department of Justice. Document Retrieved January 8, 2000 (.http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles1/ojjdp/183841.pdf)

Morris, Rebecca (2000). *National Night Out: Building Police and Community Partnerships to Prevent Crime.* Bulletin from the Field, Practitioner Perspectives. Washington, DC: US Department of Justice.

Mulroy, Elizabeth A. (2000). "Starting Small: Strategy and the Evolution of Structure in a Community-Based Collaboration." *Journal of Community Practice,* 8 (4): 27-42.

National Assembly of National Voluntary Health and Social Welfare Organizations [NANVHSWO] (1991). *The Community Collaboration Manual.* Washington, D.C.: The National Assembly of Voluntary Health and Social Welfare Organizations.

National Association of Town Watch (2002). "About the National Association of Town Watch." Retrieved January 14, 2002 (http://www.nationaltownwatch.org/natw/about.html)

National Crime Prevention Council (2002). "Crime Prevention and Community Policing." Washington DC: National Crime Prevention Council. Retrieved January 7, 2002 (http://ncpc.org/3cpted.htm).

National Crime Prevention Council (2002). "Community Ombudsman." Washington DC: National Crime Prevention Council. Retrieved January 17, 2002 (http://www.ncpc.org/3law2dc.htm).

National Institute of Justice. 2002. "Breaking the Cycle". Retrieved May 15, 2002. http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/brekprog.htm.

Nessel, Paula A. (1999). "Teen Courts and Law-Related Education." (ERIC Digest). Bloomington, Indiana: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education. Retrieved December 29, 2001 (http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed429031.html).

Nye, Nancy and Norman J. Glickman (2000). "Working Together: Building Capacity for Community Development." *Housing Policy Debate*, 11 (1): 163-198.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (1998). "*Guide for Implementing the Balanced and Restorative Justice Model.*" OJJDP Report: NCJ 167887.

Parry, Ken W. (1999). "The Case for Organizational Leadership Audits." *Management Development Forum* 2 (1). Retrieved March 20, 2002 (www.esc.edu/ESConline/Across_WSC/Forumjournal.nsf)

Pacific Institute for Community Organization. Retrieved February 6, 2002 (http://www.piconetwork.org/)

Perkins, D.D., B.B. Brown, C. Larsen, and G. Brown (2001). "Psychological Predictors of Neighborhood Revitalization: A Sense of Place in a Changing Community." Paper presented at Urban Affairs Association Annual Meetings, Detroit, MI.

Perkins, D.D., B.B. Brown and R.B. Taylor (1996). "The Ecology of Empowerment: Predicting Participation in Community Organization." *Journal of Social Issues* 52: 85-110.

Perkins, D.D., P. Florin, R.C. Rich, A. Wandersman, and D.M. Chavis (1990). "Participation and the Social and Physical Environment of Residential Blocks: Crime and the Community Context." *American Journal of Community Psychology* 17: 83-115.

Podolefsky, A.M. and F. E. DuBow (1981). *Strategies for Community Crime Prevention: Collective Responses to Crime in Urban America*. Springfield, IL: Thomas Pub.

Portney, Kent E., and Jeffrey M. Berry (1997). "Mobilizing Minority Communities." *American Behavioral Scientist* 40 (5): 632-645.

Potapchuk, William R. (1999). "Building an Infrastructure of Community Collaboration." *National Civic Review* 88 (3).

Potapchuk, William R. and Jarle P. Crocker Jr. (1999). "Exploring the Elements of Civic Capital." *National Civic Review* 88 (3): 175-200.

Potapchuk, William, William Schechter, Jarle Crocker, Christine Benero, and Maggie Bailey (1999). "Exploring the Elements of Civic Capital: A Discussion Manager's Guide." Washington, D.C.: Program for Community Problem Solving.

Pranis, Kay (1998). *Engaging the Community in Restorative Justice*. Washington, DC: OJJDP, Balanced and Restorative Justice Project.

Putnam, Robert, D. (1993). *Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Putnam, Robert D. (2000). *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Reiss, Albert & Jeffrey A. Roth, eds. (1993). *Understanding and Preventing Violence (Four volume series)*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

Reiss, Albert J. and Michael Tonry, eds. (1986). *Communities and Crime: A Review of Research*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Rogers, P.J., T.A. Hacsi, A. Petrosino, A. Huebner (eds., 2000). *Program Theory in Evaluation: Challenges and Opportunities*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Roman, J. and A. Harrell (2001). “Assessing the Costs and Benefits Accruing to the Public from the Washington, DC Superior Drug Intervention Program.” *Journal of Law and Policy*. . Volume 23, No. 2. 237-268.

Rosenbaum, Dennis P. (forthcoming). "Evaluating Multi-Agency Anti-Crime Partnership: Theory, Design, and Measurement Issues." *Crime Prevention Studies Series*, Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

Rosenbaum, Dennis P. (1988). “Community Crime Prevention: A Review and Synthesis of the Literature.” *Justice Quarterly* 5 (September): 323-395.

Rosenbaum, Dennis P., ed. (1986). *Community Crime Prevention: Does It Work?* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Rosenbaum, Dennis P., Arthur J. Lurigio, and Robert C. Davis (1998). *The Prevention of Crime: Social and Situational Strategies.* The Wasdworth Contemporary Issues in Crime and Justice Series. Canada: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Rost, J.C. (1993). "Leadership Development in the New Millennium." *The Journal of Leadership Studies* (November): 91-110.

Roth, Jeffrey A., Calvin C. Johnson, and Gretchen E. Moore (2001). The Maryland HotSpot Communities: Process Evaluation of the Original HotSpot Sites. *Under review at the National Institute of Justice.* Washington, DC: The Urban Institute.

Rottman, David B. (1996). "Community Courts: Prospects and Limits." *National Institute of Justice Journal* 231:46-51.

Sampson, Robert J. (2001). "How do Communities Undergird or Undermine Human Development? Relevant Contexts and Social Mechanisms." Pp. 1-30 in *Does it Take a Village? Community Effects on Children, Adolescents and Families,* edited by Alan Booth and Ann C. Crouter. Mahway, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

______(2000). "Organized for What? Recasting Theories of Social (Dis)organization." Pp. 136-157 in *Crime and Social Organization: Advances in Criminological Theory,* edited by Elin Waring and David Weisburd. Series editors Adler, Freda and William J. Laufer. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction.

______ (1999). "What "Community" Supplies." in *Urban Problems and Community Development*, edited by R.F. Ferguson and W.T. Dickens. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Sampson, Robert J. and Dawn Jeglum Bartusch (1998). "Legal Cynicism and (Subcultural?) Tolerance of Deviance: The Neighborhood Context of Racial Differences." *Law & Society Review* 32 (4): 777-803.

Sampson Robert J. Jeffrey Morenoff, and Felton Earls (1999). "Beyond Social Capital: Spatial Dynamics of Collective Efficacy for Children." *American Sociological Review* 64: 633-660.

Sampson, Robert J. and Stephen W. Raudenbush (1999). "Systematic Social Observation of Public Spaces: A New Look at Disorder in Urban Neighborhoods." *American Journal of Sociology,* 105: 603-651.

Sampson, Robert J., Stephen W. Raudenbush, and Felton Earls (1997). "Neighborhoods and Violent Crime: A Multi-level Study of Collective Efficacy." *Science* 277: 918-24.

Sampson, Robert J. and J. Wooldredge (1997). "Linking Micro-level Dimensions of Lifestyle Routine Activity and Opportunity Models of Predatory Victimization." *Journal of Quantitative Criminology* 3: 371-393.

Sampson, Robert J., Stephen Raudenbush and Felton Earls (1997). "Neighborhoods and Violent Crime: A Multi-level Study of Collective Efficacy." *Science* 277 (9): 18-24.

Saxe, Leonard, Emily Reber, Denise Hallfors, Charles Kadushin, Delmos Joness, David Rindskopf, and Andrew Beveridge (1997). "Think Globally, Act Locally: Assessing the Impact of Community-Based Substance Abuse Prevention." *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 20 (3): 357-366.

Seybolt, Diana C., Sally L. Hein, and Abraham Wandersman (1998). A Sytematic Look at Collaboration Within Mental Health Public-Academic Consortium: Strategies and Lessons Learned in Collaboration. University of South Carolina Research Paper.

Sharp, Jeff S. (2000). "Locating the Community Field: A Study of Interorganizational Network Structure and Capacity for Community Action." *Rural Sociology* 66 (3): 403-424.

Sirianni, Carmen, and Lewis Friedland (1995). "Social Capital and Civic Innovation: Learning and Capacity Building from the 1960s to the 1990s." Presented at the Social Capital session of the 1995 American Sociological Association Annual Meetings in Washington, DC. Retrieved March 29, 2002 (www.cpn.org/cpn/sections/new_citizenship/theory/socialcapital_civicinnov.html)

Skogan, Wes (1990). *Disorder and decline: Crime and the spiral of decay in American neighborhoods.* New York: Free Press.

_________. (1988). "Community Organizations and Crime." In Tonry, Michael and N. Morris, eds. *Crime and Justice: A Review of the Research*. Chicago: University of Chicago

Skogan, Wes, Susan M. Hartnett, Jill DuBois, Jennifer T. Comey, Marianne Kaiser, and Justine Loving (1999). *On the Beat: Police and Community Problem Solving*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Skogan, Wesley G., Susan M. Hartnett, Jill DuBois, Jennifer T. Comey, Marianne Kaiser, and Justine H. Lovig (2000). "Problem Solving in Practice: Implementing Community Policing in Chicago". *National Institute of Justice Report,* NCJ 179556

Slayton, Julie (2000). "Establishing and Maintaining Interagency Information Sharing." *JAIBG Bulletin,* March. Washington, D.C.: OJJDP.

Sofaer, S. (1992). *Coalitions and Public Health: A Program Manager's Guide to the Issues*. Prepared for the National AIDS Information and Education Program. Atlanta: Centers for Disease Control.

Sofweb (2002). "Situational Crime Prevention." Retrieved February 8, 2002 (http://www.sofweb.vic.edu.au/emerg/crimprev/situatCP.htm)

Speer, Paul W. and Joseph Hughey (1995). "Community Organizing: An Ecological Route to Empowerment and Power." *American Journal of Community Psychology* 23 (5): 729-748.

Spergel, Irving A. (1976) "Interactions Between Community Structure, Delinquency, and Social Policy in the Inner City." Pp. 55-100 in *The Juvenile Justice System*, edited by Mark Klein. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Stevens, Dennis J., ed. (2002). *Policing and Community Partnerships*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Strang, Heather and John Braithwaite (2001). *Restorative Justice and Civil Society.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Swift, M.S and Healey, K.N. (1986). "Translating Research into Practice." Pp. 205-234 in *A Decade of Progress in Primary Prevention*, edited by M. Kessler and S.E. Goldston. Hanover, MA: University Press of New England.

Tauber, Jeffery (1999). "Reentry Drug Courts." *Monograph Series 3*. Virginia: National Drug Court Institute.

Temkin, Kenneth and William M. Rohe (1998). "Social Capital and Neighborhood Stability: An Empirical Investigation." *Housing Policy Debate*, Volume 9, Issue 1: 61-88.

Thacher, David (2001). "Equity and Community Policing: A New View of Community Partnerships." *Criminal Justice Ethics*, Winter/Spring: 3-16.

Thurman, Pamela J., Barbara Plested, and Ruth W. Edwards (2000). *Community Readiness: A Promising Model for Community Healing.* Washington, DC: USDOJ, Office for Victims of Crime.

Travis, Jeremy, Amy Solomon and Michele Waul. (2001). "From Prison to Home: The Dimensions and Consequences of Prisoner Reentry". Retrieved December 28, 2001. http://www.urban.org/pdfs/from_prison_to_home.pdf.

Turk, Herman (1973). *Interorganizational Activation in Urban Communities: Deductions from the Concept of System*. Washington, D.C.: The American Sociological Association.

__________. (1977). *Organizations in Modern Life*: *Cities and Other Large Networks.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Limited.

Umbreit, Mark and Claudia Fercello (1997). "Interim Report: Client Evaluation of The Victim/Offender Conferencing Program in Washington County (MN)." *Center for Restorative Justice and Mediation.* Retrieved March 12, 2002 (http://ssw.che.umn.edu/rjp/Resources/Documents/UmbFer7b.PDF).

United States Department of Education (2002). "About Safe and Drug Free Schools Program." Retrieved January 17, 2002 (http://www.ed.gov/offices/OESE/SDFS/aboutsdf.html).

Wacquant, L.J.D. (1993). “Urban Outcasts: Stigma and Division in the Black American Ghetto and the French Urban Periphery,” *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research* 17: 366-83.

Walker, Christopher (1999). *Partnership for Parks: Lessons from the Lila Wallace-Reader's Digest Urban Parks Program.* Washington, DC: The Urban Institute Press.

Walker, Christopher and Mark Weinheimer (1998). *Community Development in the 1990s.* Washington, DC: The Urban Institute Press.

Wandersman, Abraham, Sally L. Hein, and Diana C. Seybolt (no date). *The Collaboration Index*. University of South Carolina. Information available at: http://www.aspenmeasures.org/html/final_results.asp?table=instrument&id=155

Waring, Elin and David Weisburd, eds. (2000). *Crime and Social Organization: Advances in Criminological Theory*, Vol. 10. Freda Adler and William J. Laufer, series editors.

Weisel, Deborah Lamm, Caterina Gouvis, and Adele V. Harrell (1994*). Addressing Community Decay and Crime: Alternative Approaches and Explanation*. Report to the National Institute of Justice, Washington, D.C.: The Police Executive Research Forum.

Weiss, Carol H. (1972). *Evaluation Research: Methods for Assessing Program Effectiveness*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Weiss, Carol H. (1995). "Nothing as Practical as Good Theory: Exploring Theory-Based Evaluation for Comprehensive Community Initiatives for Children and Families." Pp. 65-92 in *New Approaches to Evaluating Community Initiatives: Concepts, Methods, and Contexts,* edited by Connell et al. Washington, DC: The Aspen Institute.

Weiss, Janet A. (1988). "Substance versus Symbol in Administrative Reform: The Case of Human Services Coordination." Pp. 101-108 in *Community Organizations: Studies in Resource Mobilization and Exchange,* edited by Carl Milofsky. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Wellman, Barry and Barry Leighton (1979). "Networks, Neighborhoods, and Communities: Approaches to the Study of the Community Question." *Urban Affairs Quarterly*, 14 (3): 363-390.

Wellman, Barry and S. D. Berkowitz, eds. (1988). *Social Structure: A Network Approach. Contemporary Studies in Sociology, Vol. 15*. Greenwich, Connecticut: JAI Press, Inc.

Wiewel, Wim and Michael Lieber (1998). "Goal Achievement, Relationship Building, and Incrementalism: The Challenges of University-Community Partnerships." A Great Cities Institute Working Paper. Chicago, Il.: University of Illinois at Chicago.

Wilkinson, Kenneth P. (1991). *The Community in Rural America.* New York: Greenwood Press.

Williams, Kevin A. (1995). "Community Mobilization Against Urban Crime: Guiding Orientations and Strategic Choices in Grassroots Politics." *Urban Affairs Review* 30 (3): 407-430.

Wilson, W.J. (1987). *The Truly Disadvantaged: The Inner City, the Underclass, and Public Policy*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

_______. (1996). *When Work Disappears: The World of the New Urban Poor*. New York: Knopf.

Wolch, J. (1990). *The Shadow State*. New York: The Foundation Center.

Wray, Lyle and Jody Hauer (1997). "Performance Measurement to Achieve Quality of life: Adding Value Through Citizens." *Public Management*, August: 4-9.

Yukl, G. (2001). *Leadership in organizations*. 5th edition, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Zimmerman, Marc A., Barbara A. Israel, Amy Schulz, and Barry Checkoway (1992). "Further Explorations in Empowerment Theory: An Empirical Analysis of Psychological Empowerment." *American Journal of Community Psychology* 20 (6): 707-727.

Appendix A. Focus Group Participants, February 26, 2002

Sarah Bryer
Deputy Director
Community Justice Project
CASES
346 Broadway, 3rd Fl West
New York, NY 10013

Catherine M. Coles
Fellow, Program in Criminal Justice Policy and Management
JFK School of Government
Harvard University
Boston, MA 02138

James Copple
Vice President & COO
National Crime Prevention Council
1000 Connecticut Avenue, 13th Floor
Washington, DC 20036

David R. Karp
Department of Sociology
Skidmore College
Saratoga Springs, NY 12866

Phyllis McDonald
Director of Research
Department of Public Safety Management
John Hopkins University
201 N. Charles Street, Suit 310
Baltimore, MD 21201

Susan Motika
Director
Community Justice Unit
Denver District Attorney's Office
300 West Colfax, Suite 1300
Denver, CO 80204

Shelli Rossman
Senior Research Associate
Justice Policy Center
The Urban Institute
2100 M Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037

Carol Shapiro
Executive Director, Family Justice
272 E. 3rd St.
New York, NY 10009

Arnold K. Sherman
Grants Program Intergration and Strategy Manager
Governor's Office of Crime Control and Prevention
300 E. Joppa Road, Suite 1105
Baltimore, MD 21286

Avis Vidal
Chair, Department of Geography and Urban Planning
College of Urban, Labor and Metropolitan Affairs
Wayne State University
225 State Hall
Detroit, MI 48202

Appendix B. Sample Activities Model

Required Input/ Resources (ongoing)	Planning Phase Activities (2001-2002)	Planning Phase Outcomes (2002)	Short-Term Implementation Phase Activities (2002-)
1. Community leaders committed to development of shared vision for improved reentry services. 2. Philosophy of continued improvement through shared, data driven decision-making and capacity building. 3. Group leaders to catalyze and integrate reform. 4. Strategic planning, management, marketing, evaluation.	1. Establish administrative structure for process. 2. Conduct community meetings to gain feedback for vision and planning. 3. Develop strategic plan. 4. Design and implement communication and outreach activities.	1.Linkages formed between government agencies and faith community. 2. Structure and staff for Partnership established. 3. Vision for mentor process approved. 4. Policy changes such as new procedures for data exchange and feedback identified. 5. Public support evident for mentor program and plan to enhance services through faith community linkages.	1.Development of MOUs, exchange protocols. 2. Development of training and TA to facilitate mentor strategy. 3. Build stakeholder capacity to influence local policy through community outreach activities.Community outreach includes sponsored lunch and dinner meetings as well as community forum advertised through city and neighborhood newspapers 4. Development of mentor recruitment strategy.