

Types of Organizations and Origins of Modern Criminal Justice Institutions

Learning Objectives:

1. Describe the issue of “interest” in distinguishing organizations and its relationship to consensus and conflict approaches in criminology and criminal justice.
2. Define organizations and formal organizations.
3. Identify, describe, and analyze the different types of formal organizations.
4. Describe educational organizations and how they may work with criminal justice organizations.
5. Describe the methods of investigating non-government organizations and government organizations.

Introduction

You may be asking yourself “why do we need to learn about criminal justice organizations?” If you think about it, organizations are everywhere! Organizations have become the dominant feature of a modern society (Scott & Davis, 2007). They mark the transition from a traditional society with an agrarian based economy to a modern society dominated by industries. The industrial revolution ushered in an age of surplus production, specialized divisions of labor, and specialized non-production roles. As a result, organizations are in the business of “organizing.” Decisions must be made about the organization’s mission, goals, tasks to be performed, coordination of tasks, and hierarchy of authority.

You may have other questions, such as—Aren’t all organizations the same? Why won’t studying an organization text from the Business School or Sociology do the trick? Why bother to study organizational theory in a

criminal justice degree at all? We deal with the last question in our chapters on organizational theory (i.e., structure and interorganizational relationships), so let us start with the first two here.

The differences between the various organizations that comprise the criminal justice system and other governmental and non-governmental organizations will be a key theme of this text. For example, how is a police organization similar to or different from a religious organization (e.g., church, synagogue, mosque, temple)? How is a jail or prison distinct from or similar to a for-profit corporation? After all, aren't some jails and prisons run by either for-profit or non-profit organizations? Why do we have formal courts when private attorneys can mediate a range of issues for government? Finally, criminal organizations (such as gangs) are organizations, so how are they different from or similar to criminal justice organizations (CJOs)?

Differences

One of the first ways in which CJOs differ from other organization types is the issue of **“interest.”** Morgan (2006) describes interests as “predispositions embracing goals, values, desires, expectations, and other orientations and inclinations that lead a person to act in one way rather than another” (p. 156). In Morgan’s terms, then, interests operate at the individual level to lean toward a particular area of pursuit, such as law enforcement work. While this may help explain why someone might chose a particular organization for which to work, it does not explain the segment of society for which the organization “works.”

It is customary to divide criminal justice/criminological theories into “consensus” versus “conflict” approaches according to whose interests are served by the criminal justice system (CJS). Some writers treat “interactionist” approaches separately, but for our purposes, we will fold them into the broad “conflict” approach. The key difference between consensus and conflict approaches when it comes to “interest” is “whose interests?” Those associated with the consensus approach argue that the interests of the whole society are represented by CJOs. Those associated with conflict approaches see the interests of a range of groups and classes being represented by CJOs. The “pluralist” conflict theories see protected interests represented from multiple and shifting groups over time, not simply one group or class. The more extreme conflict theorists, especially “Marxist” and “critical” theorists, focus squarely on the interests of the “capitalist class.” Quinney (1977) provided a

Marxist conflict-oriented discussion of “interest” in the operation of the CJS: “Although justice is to be applied to individual cases, the general objective is the promotion of social order ... And in capitalist society the healthy order is the one that benefits the capitalist class, the class that owns and controls the productive process” (p. 3). Although the extreme critical theory position has mellowed a bit in the past 40 years or so, the role of those who control the primary organs of finance and commerce are still singled out—think the One Percent (1%)—as those whose interests are protected by the criminal law.

Our point here is that the interests of a for-profit corporation are clear. They represent the owners of the corporation and/or its shareholders. They do not represent the broad interests of the nation or world. Non-profit organizations represent something of a middle-range of interests. However, the interests represented and protected by CJOs will remain a matter of debate, at least as long as there are criminal justice and criminology faculty. This confusion about whose interests are protected by CJOs ties into other themes of this text—authority and legitimacy.

What Is a Formal Organization?

The remainder of this chapter will describe and distinguish the major types of organizations, followed by a discussion of the origins of modern criminal justice institutions. Generally, **organizations** can be defined as “social structures created by individuals to support the collaborative pursuit of specified goals” (Scott & Davis, 2007, p. 11). They may be described as collective actors, either human or juristic, that may “take actions, use resources, enter into contracts, and own property” (p. 6). Organizations are comprised of various components, “each of which affects and is affected by the others” (p. 24). These six major components form the structures and systems of a complex organization, into which we will delve further in our chapters on Structures and Strategies.

Our typology addresses formal organizations, rather than informal. **Formal organizations** are the juristic or “artificial structure[s] created to coordinate either people or groups and resources to achieve a mission or goal” (Peak, 2012, p. 58). Formal organizations may be grouped into three broad categories: for-profits, non-profits, and government. Before we start learning more about criminal justice organizations, it would be beneficial to learn what they are not. Organizations are created and governed in different

ways, which distinguishes criminal justice agencies from all others. Let us begin with for-profits.

For-Profits: Sole Proprietorships, Partnerships, Corporations, and Limited Liability Companies

Generally, a **for-profit** is a business created to generate profits for owners (Beatty & Samuelson, 1996). The simplest for-profit is a **sole proprietorship** which is owned by a single person. In a sole proprietorship, the owner and business are one and the same; they may sign documents or checks with “d/b/a” which designates “doing business as.” Essentially, the owner pays all the bills (e.g., rent, salaries, benefits, equipment, technology, malpractice insurance, etc.) and keeps the money that is left, if any, as income. Taxes are paid out of the owner’s income, while the business does not pay taxes. This model of business could be used by a single, independent attorney. Because the owner and business are essentially the same entity, the owner’s assets are vulnerable to liability law suits. In order to protect those personal assets, s/ he would purchase malpractice insurance.

All other for-profits have more than one owner, which requires the creation and regulation of relationships (Shade, 2010). According to Shade (2010), these relationships are called business associations. A **business association** “is a device through which individuals or entities conduct business” (Shade, 2010, p. 1). Business associations are about relationships and the specific rules and regulations of those relationships.

Generally, the three main categories of people involved inside a business association are: owners/investors, managers, and employees (Shade, 2010). Owners are given more specific names, depending on the type of business association. For example, in corporations, owners are called “shareholders” (whereas managers are called “directors” and “officers”). In limited partnerships, owners are called “general partners” or “limited partners,” and in a limited liability company, they are called “members.” State statutes are the primary mechanism for regulating relationships within business associations. However, common law may apply to some types of businesses and federal statutes may apply in certain situations.

In addition to relationships within an organization, a business association can develop relationships with external “third parties,” such as suppliers, attorneys, and accountants. These external relationships are governed through areas of the law, such as contracts, torts, and property (Shade, 2010). The

regulation of relationships with external third-parties is not the same as rules governing the relationships between the owners, managers, and employees within an organization. The distinctions between internal and external organizational relationships are a topic we will address further in our chapters on Structure and Interorganizational Relationships.

For-profit business associations come in many forms. The three general types are partnerships, corporations, and limited liability companies (Shade, 2010). Let's describe these business organizations and how they are created.

Partnerships

Partnerships vary in type according to whether the partnership is an independent legal entity (separate from its owners) and the degree of owner liability. The three major types of partnerships include: general partnerships, limited partnerships, and limited liability partnerships (Shade, 2010). The first of these, the **general partnership** ("GP"), is defined as "an association of two or more persons to carry on as co-owners of a business for profit" (p. 40). It is similar to a sole proprietorship in that a GP is "unincorporated." That is, a GP may be created without the filing of any documents with a government authority. Moreover, it is the only type of business association that does not require such filings due to its historic roots in common law. Like a sole proprietorship, a GP is not an entity separate from its owners. Each partner has unlimited joint and separate personal liability for the expenses and obligations of the business. Therefore, owners must protect their personal assets by purchasing insurance, such as malpractice insurance. And, like a sole proprietorship, the GP business does not file a tax return. Rather, taxes are only paid at the personal level, as the partners are taxed through their incomes returns (i.e., pass-through taxation). General partnerships are regulated primarily by state statutes, but partners can modify the statutory requirements through a written partnership agreement.

It is not uncommon for attorneys to use a GP structure for their law firms. Partners of a law firm take distributions from the business. That is, excess business income is distributed between partners. The distributions may not be equal in amounts, however. A senior partner is likely to take a larger portion than a junior partner. This is one of the reasons why you hear that it is so important for attorneys to work their way up to becoming a "partner" in a law firm. Partners are considered "owners" and get to reap financial benefits from the excess income brought in by the salaried associate attorneys who are "employees." Employees may earn bonuses, should the partners decide to share the financial success of the business with non-partners.

The second common type of partnership is a **limited partnership** (“LP”) which contains two classes of partners. “There are one or more *general partners* who manage the business and one or more *limited partners* who are essentially passive investors and have virtually no management authority” (Shade, 2010, p. 42). This form of partnership is in limited use today, but allows limited partners to invest capital to a business without exposing their personal finances to liabilities beyond their original investment. General partners, however, have unlimited liability for debts and obligations. The partnership business does not pay taxes, as both general and limited partners pay taxes on their personal incomes. Unlike GPs, LPs are not based on common law and are strictly created according to statutory law. To create an LP, the general partners must execute and file a Certificate of Limited Partnership with the appropriate state official, most likely the Secretary of State. LPs are similar to GPs in that they may be governed by a contractual partner agreement.

The third type of partnership is the **limited liability partnership** (“LLP”) which is “a subset of a general partnership that permits general partners to limit their personal liability” (Shade, 2010, p. 44). LLPs are grounded in statutory laws, with Texas being the first to pass such laws in 1991. Because general persons are permitted to protect their personal assets from the partnership’s liabilities and obligations, LLPs have supplanted LPs. The creation of an LLP is relatively easy. Owners file a certificate with the state authority and adopt a name that includes “LLP” or similar designation. Like the other partnerships, the partners pay income taxes, while the LLP does not. Today, all 50 states have statutes that allow for the creation of LLPs, and they are typically used for professional partnerships such as law and accounting firms.

Corporations

Corporations are the second major category of for-profits. They are different from partnerships in that **corporations** are considered to be legally separate from their owners (Shade, 2010). They are treated by legislatures and courts as real persons or entities, and are required to identify themselves in their name by incorporating labels such as “Inc.” or “Corporation.” An example of separate entity status is Microsoft, as the company is capable of owning property, making contracts, and being sued independently from Bill Gates, and vice versa. Because the shareholder owners and the business are separate entities, they each pay taxes. After the corporation pays all the business-related expenses and its taxes, profits may be distributed to shareholders in the form

of dividends. Shareholders subsequently claim the dividends as income when filing their tax returns. A corporation is also characterized by its use of a board of directors (elected by the shareholders) which appoints the organization's officers, such as a chief executive officer (CEO) and chief financial officer (CFO), to manage the day-to-day operations. Because shareholders can buy and sell their shares freely, the corporation's existence or "life" continues beyond those of its owners.

Corporations are regulated by state statutes, and creating one is relatively easy in comparison to most government bureaucratic processes. To create a corporation, the initial owners file a document called *Articles of Incorporation* (i.e., Articles) along with a filing fee (Shade, 2010). The Articles are filed with the appropriate state authority, which is usually the Secretary of State. The initial "organizing" of a new corporation is completed through the preparation and adoption of the corporate *By-laws* which "provide the basic rules for governance of the corporation and define the duties and authority of various corporate officers. The bylaws are not filed with any governmental authority" (p. 71). The Articles typically identify the board of directors and is drafted in unison with the Bylaws. This allows the directors to hold their first annual meeting and vote for the adoption of the Bylaws, as well as appointing officers, designating the number of stock shares in the company, and any other acts deemed necessary for governance. Upon appointment by the directors, the officers are empowered to legitimately manage the business such as opening a corporate bank account, issuing stock certificates or shares, and filing for a tax identification number. As noted by Shade, these last steps enacted by the officers are typical for management purposes, but "they are not conditions to the creation of the corporation" (p. 72).

Limited Liability Companies

A final type of for-profit organization is the **limited liability company** or LLC. An LLC is a hybrid business association which combines the characteristics of a partnership and corporation (Shade, 2010). LLCs are regulated by state statutes and contract laws, and they became widely used in the 1990s. An LLC "combines the tax treatment of a partnership with the limited liability of a corporation and allows more flexibility of management than either a corporation or partnership" (p. 49). LLCs are created by filing the appropriate documents with the state, wherein owner are called "members" rather than shareholders or partners. Most LLCs are "closely held" which means the stock is privately held and company stock is not publicly traded on the stock exchange. Members enjoy the limited liability of corporations,

single pass-through taxation of partnerships, and management flexibility beyond that of partnerships and corporations, making LLCs a more popular choice than other forms of partnerships.

Non-Profits: Faith-based, Non-Faith-Based, and Non-Governmental Organizations

Partnerships, corporations, and limited liability corporations exist for the purpose of generating profits for owners. They are distinctively different from numerous types of **tax-exempt organizations** which are allowed to generate funds without paying taxes (Taylor, 2011). Although government entities are technically tax-exempt, the types of organizations to which most refer are called “non-profits.” **Non-profits** are organizations formed for the common good or to further a social cause; therefore income is used to keep the organization operating. They are typically created to operate for “religious, charitable, scientific, or educational purposes, or for the prevention of cruelty to children or animals” (p. 11). Their tax exempt status is primarily regulated by the Internal Revenue Service (IRS), and obtaining tax-exempt status requires the filing of an application. They would also be incorporated through the filing of Articles of Incorporation with the proper state authority, like corporations and most partnerships. To maintain their status, most would file federal tax returns annually.

The majority of these organizations are referred to as “501(c)(3)s” which refers to the section (§) of the tax code that permits their exempt status (Taylor, 2011). *Section 501(c)(3) organizations* include: big money foundations (e.g., Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and MacArthur Foundation), community foundations (e.g., Silicon Valley Community Foundation (California)), big public charities (e.g., United Way and Salvation Army), healthcare organizations, colleges and universities, and groups for amateur athletics groups or prevention of cruelty to animals. Other tax-exempt sections include § 501(c)(6) for business groups such as the American Bar Association, § 501(c)(19) for veterans’ organizations like the American Legion, § 501(c)(5) for labor organizations such as the AFL-CIO, and § 501(c)(4) for social welfare or advocacy groups such as the National Rifle Association and AARP.

Interestingly, non-profit organizations “spin off” or create sister-organizations to qualify for particular tax code exemptions (Taylor, 2011). Organizations that qualify under § 501(c)(4) are politically active and are affiliated with the more common 501(c)(3)s that serve non-political functions.

“For example, the AARP Foundation, exempt under § 501(c)(3), is affiliated with AARP, the § 501(c)(4) organization that is politically active” (p. 29).

There is great diversity in the purposes and sizes of these organizations. Accordingly, researchers and criminal justice officials tend to distinguish them into various non-legal categories which may include the following: faith-based, non-faith-based, and non-government. **Faith-based organizations** (FBOs) are non-profits organized for religious purposes. **Non-faith-based organizations** (non-FBOs) are secular non-profit organizations created for purposes that may be charitable, scientific, educational, or political. **Non-governmental organizations** (NGOs) is a term commonly applied to service, professional, and occupational associations that may not fall under one of the § 501(c) categories. A note of caution to CJOs looking to partner with non-profits—not all who claim to be a “non-profit” are properly incorporated by filing the appropriate documents with the state.

We will return to the subject of how the range of non-governmental organizations described here interact with CJOs in our section on professional associations, research organizations, and social movement organizations. Again, we believe the impact of these organizations and the need for CJOs to interact with them is vastly under-examined in the academic criminal justice literature. The same may well be true of the professional literature in criminal justice.

Government: Criminal Justice Agencies and Non-Criminal Justice Agencies

The “tax exempt” status applies to the broad non-profit organizations described above. However, it also applies to government entities that enjoy immunity from the federal income under the general doctrine of intergovernmental tax immunity (Taylor, 2011). The **government** is a federal, state, or local agency or office, elected or appointed, with the authority to administer government functions. At the federal level, the U.S. Constitution expressly creates the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government. Congress is empowered to delegate authority via statutes, which has resulted in the creation of numerous regulating agencies, such as the Internal Revenue Service and Environmental Protection Agency. Likewise, state governments are structured according to the three branches of government, and they too have legislative powers to form regulatory agencies. States also delegate certain functions to local governments, however. The term “local” government typically refers to circuit, county, or municipal jurisdictions. The types of powers and services

conferred to them by the state include fire protection and education, as well as police, judicial, and jail services (McCarthy & Reynolds, 2003). All told, nearly 90,000 local government units exist in the United States.

Regular citizens may view government as one large, bureaucratic apparatus. However, those who work in criminal justice tend to distinguish themselves from other government agencies. Accordingly, **criminal justice organizations** (CJOs) are entities possessing the government's authority to use force against citizens in the primary areas of police, courts, and corrections. This authority is typically vested in an agency that provides direct government services, but it may be contracted out to non-government organizations. For example, G4S is an internationally known private contractor that provides various policing and correctional services. Other examples include CoreCivic (formerly Corrections Corporation of America) and Judicial Correction Services, Inc. Although government workers may consider private contractors to be interlopers, they may be included in the CJO reference.

In comparison to CJOs, **non-criminal justice organizations** (non-CJOs) are government entities tasked with administering government functions that are not included in the criminal justice system of police, courts, or corrections. The non-CJO term applies to the public fire protection and educational organizations mentioned earlier. However, some may use the non-CJO term to refer to other organizations, including for-profits and non-profits. Another term for any and all non-CJOs, for-profits, and non-profits is **community-based organizations** (CBOs).

Potential Partners: Educational Organizations and Sources of Information on Non-CJOs

Before we delve further into the description and historical background of CJOs, you may be asking why so much space and time has been dedicated to describing for-profits, non-profits, and non-CJOs. One reason is that many outsiders are surprised to find that state and local criminal justice agencies frequently seek out and apply for federal grants to plan, implement, and assess innovative programs to control and prevent crime. The Department of Justice provides numerous grants, many of which require some form of partnerships between CJOs and non-CJOs (see <http://ojp.gov/funding/index.htm>). Accordingly, we felt it necessary to introduce the broader categorizations and distinctions of various non-CJOs. And, we're not done quite yet. Our lead author's experience in community-based planning and evaluation, from a variety of organizational

perspectives, dictates that we elaborate on understanding potential CJO partners. First, we address educational organizations. Then, we provide methods of gathering information on organizations that may want to partner with CJOs.

We take a closer look at educational organizations for two reasons. First, educational organizations defy general descriptive categories. Second, the evaluations of federally funded programs often facilitate the need for CJOs to form partnerships with researchers. In general, **education organizations** are created for the purposes of education, and they are diverse in that they fall under all three broad categories of for-profit, non-profit, and government. They may also be described as public or private. There are three levels of education: primary, secondary, and tertiary. The first two levels, also known as elementary education and high school, are compulsory in the U.S. Local governments typically provide public education for these two levels. Non-profit organizations, such as those associated with religious institutions, may also provide education through private institutions. Some municipalities may contract with for-profits to provide services, as well. CJOs may find themselves working with schools at the primary and secondary levels in connection with issues of juvenile delinquency.

It is more likely, however, for CJOs to work with a variety of researchers employed in higher education. This third, tertiary level of education includes colleges, technical training institutes, nursing schools, and distance learning centers. Each state in the U.S. has established its own state university system that enjoys a government tax-exempt status (Taylor, 2011). These universities and colleges are public, and are financially supported by state budgets. However, state appropriations for higher education have been declining (or not kept pace with educational spending), making public universities increasingly reliant on federal funding through federal student loans, Pell grants, research grants, and veterans' educational benefits (Pew Charitable Trusts, 2015). State universities are even more complex due to their formation of § 501(c)(3) organizations to solicit endowments, hold investments, and produce income (Taylor, 2011). In comparison to state universities, private colleges and universities are also tax-exempt; however, it is due to their § 501(c)(3) status. Finally, although it is less common, a four-year or graduate college or university may be a for-profit. One nationally known for-profit example is the University of Phoenix. If this university is teaching in your state, they would have to file the appropriate documentation with the state to conduct business.

The complexity of state university systems, with their mixture of direct funding from states, indirect federal funding through students and research, and incorporation of non-profit structures for other revenue sources, illustrates

the need for CJOs to understand and investigate potential partners. It is common for criminal justice officials to partner with researchers at universities or research institutes, such as The Urban Institute or Rand Corporation, for program planning and evaluation. It is also likely that CJOs need to partner with other types of organizations to exchange information or provide various services, such as treating offenders or training officers. According to Taylor (2011), non-profits, in particular, may make good partners as they “control vast amounts of capital, exercise influence, and engage in substantial political activity” (p. 30). Of course, there’s the other side of the coin. Many organizations may have objectives too distantly related from those of CJOs or may not have the capacity to contribute to a partnership. Yet, they want to partner as a means of obtaining federal funding.

TABLE 1.1: TYPES OF FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS

- **For-profits**—businesses created to generate profits for owners
 - **Sole proprietorship**—an unincorporated business owned by a single person. Only the owner pays income tax.
 - **General partnership**—an unincorporated association of two or more co-owners who carry on a business for profit. Only the partners pay income taxes.
 - **Limited partnership**—a partnership that consists of two types of partners—general and limited. Only general partners are personally liable for losses incurred by the partnership. Partners pay taxes on incomes. The LP does not pay taxes.
 - **Limited liability partnership**—a partnership that permits general partners to limit their liability and are typically used for professional partnerships such as law and accounting firms. The partners pay income taxes, while the LLP does not.
 - **Corporations**—an incorporated business association of shareholders whose liabilities are limited to the cost of their shares. Corporations are separate legal entities that are taxed separately from their owners and exist perpetually beyond any individual’s position within the company. The business and shareholders each pay income taxes.
 - **Limited Liability Company**—offers the limited liability of a corporation and the tax status of a partnership.
 - **Other forms of organization**—includes business trusts, cooperatives, joint stock companies, and franchises.

- **Non-profits**—organizations formed for the common good or to further a social cause; income is used to keep the organization operating; may be incorporated as a “501(c)” which exempts them from some federal income taxes.
 - **Faith-based organization (FBO)**—a non-profit organized for religious purposes; may or may not be incorporated; FBO is not a legal term.
 - **Non-FBO**—a secular non-profit organization created for purposes that may be charitable, scientific, educational, or political.
 - **Non-governmental organization (NGO)**—another common term applied to service, professional, and occupational associations that may not fall under the 501(c) category.
- **Government**—a federal, state, or local agency or office, elected or appointed, with the authority to administer government functions.
 - **Criminal Justice agency (CJ)**—a government agency possessing the authority to use force against citizens in the primary areas of police, courts, and corrections.
 - **Non-CJ agency**—a government agency tasked with administering government functions that are not included in the criminal justice system of police, courts, or corrections.
- **Education**—organizations created for the purposes of education which may be for-profit or non-profit, and may also be described as public or private.
 - **Primary education**—compulsory education during early childhood; a/k/a elementary education.
 - **Secondary education**—the second stage of compulsory education in the U.S.; a/k/a high school.
 - **Tertiary education**—the third level of education which includes higher education at colleges, technical training institutes, nursing schools, and distance learning centers.

Not all organizations make good partners. CJO administrators will find most organizations faithfully believe in community partnerships (Humiston, 2014). However, not all organizations have the capacity (e.g., knowledge, personnel, other resources) to meaningfully contribute to criminal justice goals. Inviting everyone into a partnership initiative all at once may not be a constructive endeavor, for reasons we discuss later in our chapter on

Interorganizational Relationships. For now, we'll discuss ways to investigate potential organizational partners. A search of public documents allows CJOs to identify organizational leaders, their positions within an organization, and, in some instances, the organization's resources.

Investigating non-government organizations (e.g., corporations, limited liability companies, and non-profits) typically involves a search for incorporation documents and may involve a search of tax return information. As discussed earlier, most organizations initially file documents, such as Articles of Incorporation, with the proper state authority. The exceptions are sole proprietorships and common law partnerships. Organizations that file Articles would also file Annual Reports or similar documents to disclose updated information. If a business was created in a different state, then the organization is identified as being "foreign." If an incorporated entity fails to file their annual reports, the state will automatically dissolve it.

The state authority which maintains public documentation of non-government organizations is usually the Secretary of State. In the case of Florida, the search of public documents can be performed through the Florida Department of State's Division of Corporations at <http://www.sunbiz.org/search.html>. The information garnered from these public documents may include the following: age of the business; name and address of the registered agent; names and addresses of directors, members, and partners; organization's current mailing address; federal employer identification (FEI) number; and names and addresses of officers or managing members.

Another source of information for some non-profits may be tax returns. According to Taylor (2011), the public can examine IRS Forms 990 and 990-EZ for exempt organizations at the Foundation Center using its online tool at <http://foundationcenter.org/find-funding/990-finder>. However, it does not include religious organizations because they do not file such IRS forms.

CJOs may also partner with other government entities. Investigating government organizations may involve searching annual reports, directories, budgets, local charters, and state or federal statutes. Like many non-government organizations, government organizations file public information. The best information may be found in an Annual Report. Government annual reports, directories, and budgets provide detailed information as to budgets, Constitutional officers (elected), and appointed administrators (not elected). It should also provide a clear organizational chart as to the government's structure, hierarchy, and functions. One example of a comprehensive description of a local government is Orange County Government, Florida, at <http://www.orangecountyfl.net/OpenGovernment/Budgets.aspx#>.

V9WkNfkrJpg where the public can find this type of information in the yearly adopted and proposed budgets.

Information on the powers of a government may be found in local charters, various statutes, and other various public websites. For example, investigating county powers may be done by reviewing their charters. In Florida, county charters have been compiled by the Florida Association of Counties, and may be found at <http://www.fl-counties.com/charter-county-information>. Of course, state and local county information can be found at other websites, such as Florida's Department of State: Division of Library and Information Services at <http://dos.myflorida.com/library-archives/research/florida-information/government/>. Florida statutes are found at <http://www.leg.state.fl.us/statutes/>. Finally, an examination of federal Title 26 tax codes and other statutes can be found in the United States Code at <https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/browse/collectionUScode.action?collectionCode=USCODE> (Taylor, 2011).

Conclusion

This chapter has provided a basic introduction to some of the differences among the types of organizations that are involved in the current criminal justice system. Leaders in the CJS are increasingly required to work across a range of other government and non-governmental organizations, yet we see relatively little mention of this in much of the academic criminal justice literature. This will serve as a foundation for the variety of organizational types that we will discuss in Section 3 of the text.

The current chapter also offered an introduction to the more legal- and administrative-based ways of researching organizations, as well as some of the key data sources for information on organizations. You will find this information can be used for a variety of courses in school, as well as in the CJ workplace. If you wind up working cases that involve any aspect of racketeering and/or organized crime, knowing to look in these areas will be a great help. We will return to those topics in Section 3. Next, we turn back to a more detailed discussion of government organizations in the criminal justice system.

Key Words

501(c)(3) organization
Annual Report
Articles of Incorporation

Business association
By-Laws
Community-based organization

Conflict	Limited liability partnerships
Consensus	Limited partnerships
Corporation	Marxist
Criminal justice organizations	Non-criminal justice organizations
Educational organization	Non-faith-based organization
Faith-based organization	Non-profit organizations
Formal organization	Non-governmental organizations
For-profit corporation	Organization
General partnerships	Partnerships
Government	Pluralist
Interest	Sole proprietorship
IRS form 990	Tax-exempt organizations
Limited liability corporation/ company	