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CRIME IN AMERICA

Critical Issues, Trends, Costs, and Legal Remedies

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This chapter provides an overview and orientation to the critical issues, trends, policies, programs, and intervention strategies of the criminal justice system. The critical issues surrounding the criminal justice system and its subsystems have evoked strong emotions and debate. Public outcry and legislative support for change are often prompted by the media coverage and the public's fear about youth violence, drug abuse, murder, and other victimizations. In an effort to respond to these pressures while also doing their job, the components of the criminal justice system—including law enforcement agencies, the court system, the juvenile justice system, and the correctional system—are constantly in flux, seeking ways to maximize their efficiency.

This text focuses on the critical issues within the organizations and agencies administering justice services in American society. Chapter authors were selected because of their expertise in a particular topical area. Most of the chapters are original and have been specially written for this book. This volume is divided into six main parts:

1. Overview of Criminal Justice
2. Understanding Crime and Criminals

3. Critical Issues in Law Enforcement
4. Critical Issues in Juvenile Justice
5. Critical Issues in the Criminal Court System
6. Correctional Systems and Alternatives

Each of the chapters within the above sections of the book examines the most timely critical issues and controversies confronting cities and communities throughout the United States.

The American criminal justice system consists of the formal governmental agencies and personnel who are empowered with the responsibility of enforcing the criminal code. These agencies or components of the system, which are present at federal, state, and local levels, include the police, the prosecutor's office, the public defender's office or legal aid, the courts, and corrections. Police officers detect crime, investigate citizen complaints, attempt to control crime by making arrests, and provide emergency services to crime victims and the community. The courts handle defendants. They have the legal responsibility of enforcing the state criminal code against defendants who have been indicted for specific criminal acts. They are also empowered to

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protect the same defendants from the violation of their constitutional rights by criminal justice practitioners. Jails and short-term county correctional institutions confine pretrial detainees and sentenced misdemeanants. Corrections professionals supervise convicted offenders in county, state, and federal prisons as well as community correctional centers. County and city probation officers are responsible for supervising juvenile and adult offenders in the community. State parole officers supervise juvenile and adult offenders in the community. In the federal system, the functions of probation and parole are combined. As a result, we have federal probation and parole agents monitoring, supervising, and checking up on offenders in the community.

To provide a context for interpreting the critical issues raised in this book's chapters, I shall present a review of current crime statistics and trends.

THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF CRIME

Crime is one of the most serious social problems facing American society. The two most comprehensive statistical sources of crime data in America are the annual Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) and the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS). The UCR provides nationwide crime data based on "crimes known to the police" and police arrests in 20 crime categories made by almost 17,000 city, county, and state law enforcement agencies. The FBI provides all police agencies throughout the United States with standardized forms to report arrest data to the FBI. The NCVS is a massive victimization survey conducted by the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS), in cooperation with the U.S. Bureau of the Census, on approximately 45,000 to 60,000 households every 6 months. Household members are interviewed to determine whether they have been victims of the major crimes of rape, robbery, assault, burglary, personal and household larceny, or motor vehicle theft. The NCVS discloses the extent to which specific crimes are not reported to the police and the reasons victims give for not reporting crimes.

Figure 1.1 depicts a Crime Clock based on an aggregate representation of data from the UCR. The Crime Clock indicates that in 2000 there was one murder every 33.9 minutes, one

forcible rape every 5.8 minutes, one robbery every 1.3 minutes, one burglary every 15.4 seconds, one larceny-theft every 4.5 seconds, and one motor vehicle theft every 27.1 seconds. The FBI cautions that the Crime Clock should not be interpreted to imply regularity in the commission of crimes in the almost 17,000 police agencies contributing crime data; rather, it represents the annual ratio of crime to fixed time intervals.

The data reported by the FBI provide estimates of the extent of criminal activity known to law enforcement agencies. In 2000, there were over 1.4 million violent crimes reported to the police (Table 1.1). These included 90,186 forcible rapes, 910,744 assaults, and 15,517 murders. The murder rate for 2000, down 0.1% from the 1999 rate, was the lowest murder rate since 1965 (5.5 per 100,000 people). According to the supplemental UCR data, males composed 76.0% of the murder victims. Twenty- to 34-year-olds made up the largest portion of victims. Firearms were used in 7 out of 10 murders, and larger cities had a higher share of victims.

The frequency of major offenses has decreased considerably in the 10-year period of 1990 through 2000 (see Figure 1.2 and Table 1.2). The Crime Clock indicates that

- The frequency of murder declined from one every 22 minutes in 1990 to one every 33.9 minutes in 2000.
- The frequency of completed forcible rape declined slightly from one every 5 minutes in 1990 to one every 5.8 minutes in 2000.
- The frequency of robbery arrests decreased from one every 49 seconds in 1990 to one every 1.3 minutes in 2000.
- The frequency of reported burglary decreased from one every 10 seconds in 1990 to one every 15.4 seconds in 2000.
- The frequency of reported larceny-theft decreased slightly from one every 4 seconds in 1990 to one every 4.5 seconds in 2000.
- The frequency of motor vehicle thefts decreased from one every 19 seconds in 1990 to one every 27.1 seconds in the year 2000.

Nevertheless, both property crimes and violent crimes are still pervasive public health and social problems in American society.

The NCVS uses the panel survey method to collect information on personal and household

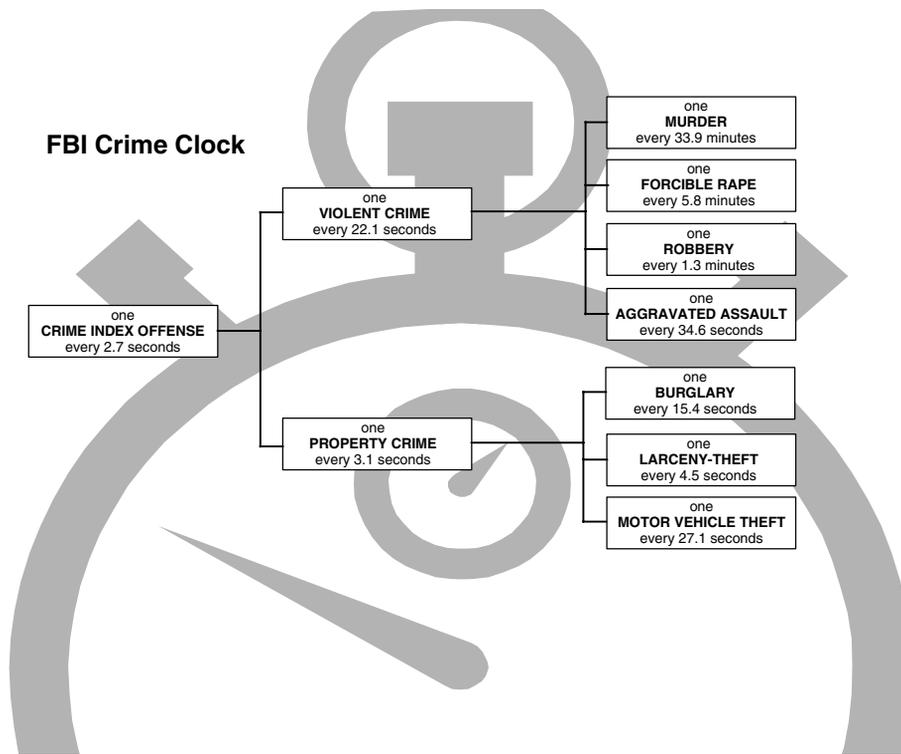


Figure 1.1 FBI Crime Clock

SOURCE: FBI (2001).

Table 1.1 Crimes of Violence: National Crime Survey and Uniform Crime Reports, 2000

Crime	National Crime Survey		Uniform Crime Reports	
	Number*	Rate*	Number*	Rate*
Total Violent	6,323	27.9	1,424,289	52,300
Forcible Rape	261	1.2	90,186	3,200
Robbery	732	3.2	407,842	14,490
Aggravated Assault	1,293	5.7	910,744	32,360

*Rate is per 1,000 people

**The NCVS is based on interviews with victims and therefore cannot measure murder.

The total population age 12 or older was 226,804,610 in 2000.

SOURCE: Bureau of Justice Statistics (2001); FBI (2001).

victimizations. A representative sample of households is interviewed seven times at 6-month intervals. This method is called a “panel survey” because the same people are interviewed again. For example, 16,000 people over 12 years of age are interviewed in February. In the next month (March), and in each of the 4 successive months, an independent probability sample of the same

sample size is interviewed. In August, the apartment dwellers and homeowners first interviewed in February are revisited and interviewed again. Similarly, the original March subsample is revisited in September, the April subsample in October, and so on.

The NCVS has documented a large amount of unreported crime. In some cities, the disparity

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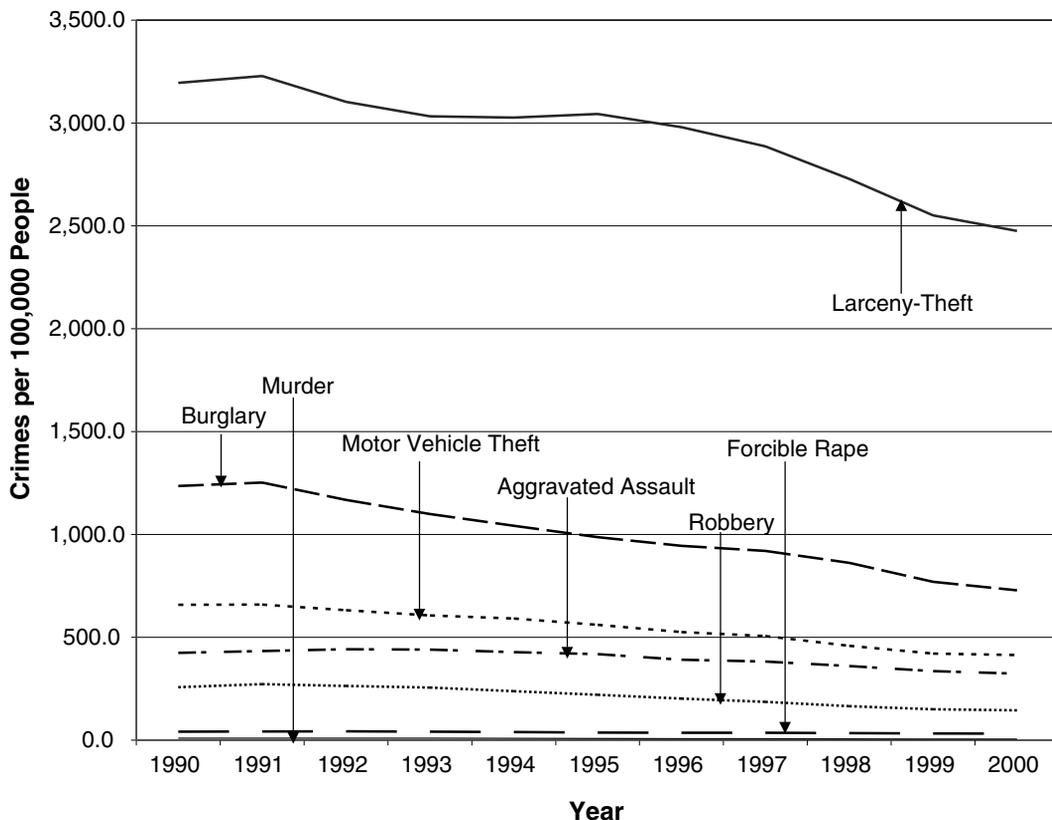


Figure 1.2 UCR Crime Rate, United States, 1990–2000

SOURCE: Bureau of Justice Statistics (1998); PBI (1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001).

NOTE This graph adapted to alter from color to patterns.

between unreported crime and “crimes known to the police” is as high as 4 to 1. According to the NCVS, the main reasons given by respondent victims for not reporting victimization incidents are general apathy and their belief that there is really nothing the police can do about the crimes.

Although crime in the United States is a serious and prevalent social problem, the good news is that property-related crime and violent victimizations in the year 2000 were the lowest since the NCVS began in 1973. In 1973, the NCVS reported 44 million criminal victimizations; therefore, the estimated 25.9 million victimizations in 2000 show a significant decline in the rates of violent and property crime (BJS, 2001a).

This estimate represents the continued large decline in criminal victimizations from a peak of 52 million in 1994 to 28.8 million in 1999 to a

low point of 25.9 million in 2000. During the year 2000, approximately three fourths of all victimizations were for property crimes such as residential burglary, theft, and motor vehicle theft. Violent crimes such as simple assault, aggravated assault, rape, and robbery against individuals 12 years of age or older constituted the other one fourth of the total victimizations. *In the year 2000, the cumulative violent crime, simple assault, and household theft rates reached the lowest rate ever recorded by the BJS.*

As reported in the NCVS trend data between 1993 and 2000, the overall rate for all violent crimes fell 44%. The most significant decline was the 71% drop for attempted rape, followed by a 52% decline for completed rapes and sexual assaults, a 53% decline for aggravated assault, and a 40% decline for simple assault. With regard to property crimes, the motor vehicle theft rate

Table 1.2 Crime Index Rate, United States, 1990–2000

<i>Year</i>	<i>Crime Index Total</i>	<i>Violent Crime</i>	<i>Property Crime</i>	<i>Murder</i>	<i>Forcible Rape</i>	<i>Robbery</i>	<i>Aggravated Assault</i>	<i>Burglary</i>	<i>Larceny-Theft</i>	<i>Motor Vehicle Theft</i>
1990	5,820.3	731.8	5,088.5	9.4	41.2	257.0	424.1	1,235.9	3,194.8	657.8
1991	5,897.8	758.1	5,139.7	9.8	42.3	272.7	433.3	1,252.0	3,228.8	658.9
1992	5,660.2	757.5	4,902.7	9.3	42.8	263.6	441.8	1,168.2	3,103.0	631.5
1993	5,484.4	746.8	4,737.7	9.5	41.1	255.9	440.3	1,099.2	3,032.4	606.1
1994	5,373.5	713.6	4,660.0	9.0	39.3	237.7	427.6	1,042.0	3,026.7	591.3
1995	5,275.9	684.6	4,591.3	8.2	37.1	220.9	418.3	987.1	3,043.8	560.4
1996	5,086.6	636.5	4,450.1	7.4	36.3	201.9	390.9	944.8	2,979.7	525.5
1997	4,922.7	610.8	4,311.9	6.8	35.9	186.1	382.0	919.6	2,886.6	505.8
1998	4,615.5	566.4	4,049.1	6.3	34.4	165.2	360.5	862.0	2,728.1	459.0
1999	4,266.8	524.7	3,742.1	5.7	32.7	150.2	336.1	770.0	2,551.4	420.7
2000	4,124.0	506.1	3,617.9	5.5	32.0	144.9	323.6	728.4	2,475.3	414.2

NOTE: Rate = number of offenses per 100,000 inhabitants. The numbers presented in this spreadsheet are state-level estimates and therefore may vary from those available from other sources.
SOURCE: Bureau of Justice Statistics (1998); FBI (1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001).

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dropped significantly by 55% from 1993 to 2000. Over the same period, the household burglary rate dropped by 45%, and rates of theft declined 43%.

According to Table 1.3, victimization rates for all crimes decreased by 13.6% from 1999 to 2000, while the decrease for property crimes was 10.1%. The largest drop in the property crime victimization rate from 1999 to 2000 was for completed motor vehicle thefts, a 21.3% drop. The smallest decline in a property crime offense category from 1999 to 2000 was burglary: There was only a 1.7% decrease in the category of burglaries resulting from unlawful entry without force, and burglaries using forcible entry dropped 12.7%. The violent crime category that had the largest percent change from 1999 to 2000 was sexual assault, which dropped by 37.5%, while robberies without injuries dropped 33.3%. (For a discussion and explanation of why the crime rate has dropped, see Chapter 8 of this book.)

COSTS OF CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATIONS

Crime costs billions of dollars each year. There are two major types of costs: monetary and human. Monetary costs can be estimated by identifying criminal justice system operating costs and offender-processing costs. Human costs refer to the lost lives and unused human potential of the thousands of homicide victims each year. Professors James Alan Fox and Jack Levin in Chapter 4 shatter the nine common myths about serial murderers and replace them with facts and empirical knowledge. They also examine what was learned from the criminal investigations and apprehension of Herbert Mullen, Jeffrey Dahmer, Kenneth Biandie, Theodore Bundy, David Berkowitz, John Wayne Gacy, and Danny Rolling.

The total annual cost of crime has been estimated at approximately \$625 billion annually. Several component costs of the criminal justice system can be fairly accurately measured. These include tangible police, corrections, and court budgets. Other component costs are more difficult to measure accurately. These include net losses from robbery, burglary and larceny; credit card fraud; computer crime; automated teller machine fraud; federal income tax evasion; and counterfeit notes and currency.

Recent estimates of the total cost of victimization from criminal activity are:

Tangible economic losses—\$105 billion

Tangible criminal justice system costs—\$70 billion

Intangible psychological/mental health costs—\$450 billion

Tangible losses consist of direct losses from victimization, such as the cost of medical and mental health services, victim and witness assistance and concrete services, domestic violence

Injuries experienced by victims of personal violence are not limited to the immediate crime encounter. The crime victims may have been assaulted, robbed, raped, or murdered, or they may have had their automobile stolen, but the perpetrator's actions also have a residual effect—the crime usually causes victim survivors to experience intense psychological pain and emotional torment, medical injuries, trauma, and intense fear that they will be victimized again (Roberts, 1999). To better understand the impact of violent crime victimization, we can put a price tag or monetary value on victimization. A group of economists and criminologists estimated and measured the tangible losses from a rape-related death as \$1.03 million, while estimating the intangible cost of a human life at \$1.91 million. The tangible value of a crime victim's life was measured in terms of the person's occupation and age (e.g., a 25-year-old homicide victim translates into 40 years of wages and income lost) and the amount of money spent to reduce the risk of death (e.g., emergency medical care and ambulance), among other variables (Miller, Cohen, & Wiersema, 1996).

program and shelter costs, and loss of productivity in terms of wages and salary (e.g., days lost from school and/or work).

Monetary costs to crime victims seem to be astronomical! They include cash and property replacement costs for victims of robbery,

Table 1.3 Rates of Criminal Victimization and Percent Change, 1993–2000

<i>Type of Crime</i>	<i>1993</i>	<i>1994</i>	<i>1998</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>Percent Change^b</i>	
						<i>1994–2000</i>	<i>1999–2000</i>
Personal crimes^c	52.2^a	54.1	37.9	33.7	29.1	–46.2%*	–13.6%*
Crimes of violence	49.9	51.8	36.6	32.8	27.9	–46.1*	–14.9*
Completed violence	15.0	15.4	11.6	10.1	9.0	–41.6*	–10.9+
Attempted/threatened violence	34.9	36.4	25.0	22.6	18.9	–48.1*	–16.4*
Rape/Sexual assault	2.5	2.1	1.5	1.7	1.2	–42.9*	–29.4*
Rape/attempted rape	1.6	1.4	0.9	0.9	0.6	–57.1*	–33.3*
Rape	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.4	–42.9	–33.3+
Attempted rape	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.2	–71.4*	–33.3
Sexual assault	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.5	–16.7	–37.5*
Robbery	6.0	6.3	4.0	3.6	3.2	–49.2*	–11.1
Completed/property taken	3.8	4.0	2.7	2.4	2.3	–42.5*	–4.2
With injury	1.3	1.4	0.8	0.8	0.7	–50.0*	–12.5
Without injury	2.5	2.6	2.0	1.5	1.6	–38.5*	6.7
Attempted to take property	2.2	2.3	1.2	1.2	0.9	–60.9*	–25.0
With injury	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	–50.0*	0.0
Without injury	1.8	1.7	0.9	0.9	0.6	–64.7*	–33.3*
Assault	41.4	43.3	31.1	27.4	23.5	–45.7*	–14.2*
Aggravated	12.0	11.9	7.5	6.7	5.7	–52.1*	–14.9+
With injury	3.4	3.3	2.5	2.0	1.5	–54.5*	–25.0*
Threatened with weapon	8.6	8.6	5.1	4.7	4.2	–51.2*	–10.6
Simple	29.4	31.5	23.5	20.8	17.8	–43.5*	–14.4*
With minor injury	6.1	6.8	5.3	4.4	4.4	–35.3*	0.0
Without injury	23.3	24.7	18.2	16.3	13.4	–45.7*	–17.8*
Personal theft^d	2.3	2.4	1.3	0.9	1.2	–50.0*	33.3

(Continued)

Table 1.3 Rates of Criminal Victimization and Percent Change, 1993–2000 (continued)

<i>Type of Crime</i>	<i>1993</i>	<i>1994</i>	<i>1998</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>Percent Change^b</i>	
						<i>1994–2000</i>	<i>1999–2000</i>
Property crimes	318.9	310.2	217.4	198.0	178.1	–42.6%*	–10.1%*
Household burglary	58.2	56.3	38.5	34.1	31.8	–43.5*	–6.7
Completed	47.2	46.1	32.1	28.6	26.9	–41.6*	–5.9
Forcible entry	18.1	16.9	12.4	11.0	9.6	–43.2*	–12.7+
Unlawful entry without force	29.1	29.2	19.7	17.6	17.3	–40.8*	–1.7
Attempted forcible entry	10.9	10.2	6.4	5.5	4.9	–52.0*	–10.9
Motor vehicle theft	19.0	18.8	10.8	10.0	8.6	–54.3*	–14.0+
Completed	12.4	12.5	7.8	7.5	5.9	–52.8*	–21.3*
Attempted	6.6	6.3	3.0	2.4	2.7	–57.1*	12.5
Theft	241.7	235.1	168.1	153.9	137.7	–41.4*	–10.5*
Completed ^c	230.1	224.3	162.1	149.0	132.0	–41.2*	–11.4*
Less than \$50	98.7	93.5	58.6	53.2	43.4	–53.6*	–18.4*
\$50 to \$249	76.1	77.0	57.8	54.0	48.9	–36.5*	–9.4*
\$250 or more	41.6	41.8	35.1	31.7	29.3	–29.9*	–7.6
Attempted	11.6	10.8	6.0	5.0	5.7	–47.2*	14.0

NOTE: Victimization rates may differ from those reported previously because the estimates are now based on data collected in each calendar year rather than data about events within a calendar year. Completed violent crimes include rape, sexual assault, robbery with or without injury, aggravated assault with injury, and simple assault with minor injury. In 1993 the total population age 12 or older was 211,524,770; in 1994, 213,135,890; in 1998, 221,880,960; in 1999, 224,568,370; and in 2000, 226,804,610. The total number of households in 1993 was 99,927,410; in 1994, 100,568,060.

*The difference between the indicated years is significant at the 95%-confidence level.

+The difference between the indicated years is significant at the 90%-confidence level.

^aVictimization rates (per 1,000 persons age 12 or older or per 1,000 households)

^bDifferences in annual rates shown in each column do not take into account any changes that may have occurred during interim years.

^cThe NCVS is based on interviews with victims and therefore cannot measure murder.

^dIncludes pocket picking, purse snatching, and attempted purse snatching.

^eIncludes thefts with unknown losses.

SOURCE: Bureau of Justice Statistics (1998).

burglary, personal and household larceny, and motor vehicle theft. Annual monetary cost estimates include \$37 billion net loss from robbery, burglary, and larceny of banks; almost \$60 billion from drug abuse costs, plus an additional \$2 billion for health care related to drug abuse and drug treatment services; \$500 million for credit card fraud; \$13.2 billion for drunk driving costs resulting from DWI motor vehicle crashes; \$31.7 billion for private security costs; and over \$81 billion for federal income tax evasion. These cost estimates do not include the billions of dollars lost as a result of white-collar crime.

LAW ENFORCEMENT

Federal, state, and local law enforcement in the United States is a growth industry. Many billions of dollars are allocated annually to protect public safety and prevent crime. Our society's continuing concern for safe streets and neighborhoods and law and order, the availability of federal and state funding, increasing population size, and the possibility of a protracted war on terrorism all make the possibilities for future employment for criminal justice graduates excellent.

Local Law Enforcement

Local police departments were developed to protect public safety by enforcing laws, maintaining order, patrolling neighborhoods, and investigating crimes. Police also provide community and crime prevention services. During the past decade, most police departments throughout the United States implemented a community-oriented policing philosophy. Community policing is a collaborative model that involves community leaders and citizens volunteering for domestic violence crisis response teams, neighborhood crime watch or block programs, auxiliary police activities, police-sponsored athletic programs, neighborhood councils, police bicycle patrols, police Youth Explorer programs, and federally funded "Weed and Seed" programs (i.e., programs that remove violent criminals and drug traffickers from targeted neighborhoods and housing developments and use a number of social service programs to stabilize neighborhoods and prevent crime). Chapter 9 in this book, by

Joseph F. Ryan, provides a detailed examination of community policing programs nationwide and the impact of the COPS federal grants program.

From 1990 to 2000, 62 large-city police departments, in cities with populations of 250,000 or more, saw the number of full-time sworn police personnel increase by approximately 17%, from 130,242 to 152,858. More specifically, the five largest police departments were able to increase the number of full-time sworn police personnel as follows:

- New York City Police Department (NYPD): increase to 40,435 by the end of 2000
- Chicago Police Department: increase to 13,466 by the end of 2000
- Los Angeles Police Department: increase to 9,341 by the end of 2000
- Philadelphia Police Department: increase to 7,024 by the end of 2000
- Houston Police Department: increase to 5,343 by the end of 2000

The total number of police has grown steadily from 1990 to 2000, yet the size of each police department in relation to population and their deployment varies from place to place. Although most of the 15 largest city police departments increased in size during the 1990s, particularly as a result of the COPS federal grant program, two police departments in major cities decreased in size—Detroit's police department decreased from 4,595 in 1990 to 4,154 in 2000, and the police department of Washington, D.C., decreased from 4,506 in 1990 to 3,612 in 2000. For details on the number of sworn police personnel in the 15 largest local police departments, see Table 1.4.

For fiscal year 2000, the operating budgets for the 62 police departments serving large cities with a population of 250,000 or more were about \$13.1 billion (Reaves & Hickman, 2002, p. 4). After inflation was factored in, total operating budgets were 20% higher in 2000 than in 1990. The average police department budget in fiscal year 2000 was almost \$212 million, compared to approximately \$176 million for fiscal year 1990 (see Table 1.5). In 2000, the average minimum police chief's starting salary in cities with populations of over 500,000 residents was \$105,500, while the average minimum starting salaries for a sergeant or

Table 1.4 Sixty-Two Largest Local Police Departments Serving Cities With a Population of 250,000 or More, by Number of Full-Time Sworn Personnel and Number of Full-Time Sworn Personnel per 100,000 Residents Served, 1990 and 2000

<i>No. of Full-Time Sworn Personnel</i>				<i>No. of Full-Time Sworn Personnel per 100,000 Residents</i>			
<i>City</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>2000</i>
New York (NY)	31,236	New York (NY)	40,435	Washington (DC)	742	Washington (DC)	631
Chicago (IL)	11,837	Chicago (IL)	13,466	Detroit (MI)	447	Newark (NJ)	536
Los Angeles (CA)	8,295	Los Angeles (CA)	9,341	New York (NY)	427	New York (NY)	505
Philadelphia (PA)	6,523	Philadelphia (PA)	7,024	Chicago (IL)	425	Baltimore (MD)	466
Detroit (MI)	4,595	Houston (TX)	5,343	Philadelphia (PA)	411	Chicago (IL)	465
Washington (DC)	4,506	Detroit (MI)	4,154	Atlanta (GA)	396	Philadelphia (PA)	463
Houston (TX)	4,104	Washington (DC)	3,612	Baltimore (MD)	389	Detroit (MI)	437
Baltimore (MD)	2,861	Baltimore (MD)	3,034	St. Louis (MO)	389	St. Louis (MO)	428
Dallas (TX)	2,635	Dallas (TX)	2,862	Newark (NJ)	368	Cleveland (OH)	381
Boston (MA)	2,053	Phoenix (AZ)	2,626	Boston (MA)	357	Boston (MA)	367
Phoenix (AZ)	1,949	San Francisco (CA)	2,227	Cleveland (OH)	348	Atlanta (GA)	354
Milwaukee (WI)	1,866	Las Vegas (NV)	2,168	Buffalo (NY)	315	New Orleans (LA)	343
San Diego (CA)	1,816	Boston (MA)	2,164	Pittsburgh (PA)	312	Milwaukee (WI)	335
Honolulu (HI)	1,781	San Diego (CA)	2,022	Miami (FL)	310	Buffalo (NY)	317
San Francisco (CA)	1,777	Milwaukee (WI)	1,998	Milwaukee (WI)	297	Cincinnati (OH)	311

SOURCE: Reaves and Hickman (2002).

equivalent rank was \$51,265. Entry-level patrol officers' minimum beginning salary in all small, medium, and large cities was approximately \$35,000 in fiscal year 2000.

Local police agencies in large cities have a number of specialized units that focus on specific crime-related areas and the delivery of services to persons and families. In both 1990 and 2000, over three fourths of the police departments had full-time specialized units assigned to child abuse units, domestic violence units, general crime prevention or burglary squads, gang resistance units, missing children bureaus, juvenile aid or juvenile crime units, victim assistance, bias-related crimes, repeat or habitual offenders, and drug education in the schools. For details on the percentage of police agencies that have full-time and/or part-time personnel assigned to special crime units, see Table 1.6.

State Law Enforcement

State police and state highway patrols each have several thousand sworn officers in their respective states. The largest state highway patrol agency is the California Highway Patrol, with approximately 6,000 officers, followed by the New York State Police, Illinois State Police, Indiana State Police, Pennsylvania State Police, Massachusetts State Police, and New Jersey State Police. Each of the latter six statewide police departments has several thousand sworn officers responsible for patrolling the interstate highways and providing police services and criminal investigations in rural areas of each state that do not have a local full-time police department.

Federal Law Enforcement

The FBI is responsible for enforcing over 250 federal laws and therefore has a wider jurisdiction than any of the remaining large federal law enforcement agencies: the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS), the U.S. Customs Service, or the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

The FBI is the chief investigative agency of the U.S. Department of Justice. In general, it has jurisdiction over all federal crimes that are not the sole responsibility of a different federal enforcement agency. Since its formation in

1908, the FBI's jurisdiction has focused on kidnapping, crimes against banks, organized crime, aircraft piracy, violations of the Civil Rights Act, interstate gambling, and interstate flight to avoid prosecution. After the horrendous terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, at the World Trade Center and the Pentagon, the FBI has made it a priority to investigate all tips on potential terrorist activities throughout the United States. In view of the numerous active terrorist threats surfacing during the spring of 2002, the FBI announced plans to hire 900 new FBI agents in order to mount a full-scale investigation of terrorism throughout the United States.

Issues in Law Enforcement

The section of this book entitled "Critical Issues in Law Enforcement" focuses on such questions as: Do international counterterrorism strategies seem to be effective in reducing terrorist acts? On the basis of a national evaluation, does community policing seem to work? Does COMPSTAT greatly improve the efficiency of police management and reduce crime? Do external control measures and early warning systems reduce incidents of police use of excessive force? Do mandatory arrest policies reduce domestic violence incidents significantly? And do thorough homicide investigations involving the collection of essential forensic evidence result in apprehending the murderer?

The study of law enforcement policies, counterterrorism policies, management practices, patrol functions, operational procedural guidelines, community policing, problem-solving policing strategies, COMPSTAT police management and crime, and crime-mapping technology is critically important to the efficiency of federal, state, and local criminal justice agencies. In addition to Chapter 9, by Joseph Ryan, on community policing, Part III of this volume includes Chapter 7, by Richard Ward and Sean Hill, dealing with international perspectives on counterterrorism; Chapter 8, by Vincent Henry, on current and futuristic perspectives on COMPSTAT, and its success in significantly reducing crime and improving the quality of life in New York City; Chapter 13, by Norman Cetuk, on homicide investigations and trends; and Chapter 10, by Mark Blumberg and Betsy

Table 1.5 Annual Operating Budget of Police Departments Serving Cities With a Population of 250,000 or More, 1990 and 2000

<i>Population Served</i>	<i>Annual Operating Budget</i>							
	<i>Per Agency</i>		<i>Per Resident</i>		<i>Per Employee</i>		<i>Per Sworn Employee</i>	
	<i>1990</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>2000</i>
Total	\$176,134,761	\$211,581,036	\$242	\$266	\$64,493	\$64,323	\$83,814	\$85,786
1,000,000 or more	\$586,494,149	\$695,642,921	\$272	\$290	\$64,024	\$60,061	\$82,450	\$79,804
500,000–999,999	138,511,331	165,117,265	228	250	64,667	69,391	84,109	91,127
350,000–499,999	77,063,388	99,818,601	200	237	67,715	73,811	91,352	102,539
250,000–349,999	59,757,009	71,229,731	196	229	62,470	65,788	81,747	89,364

NOTE: All data are presented in 2000 dollars.

SOURCE: Reaves and Hickman (2002).

Table 1.6 Special Units Operated by Police Departments Serving Cities With a Population of 250,000 or More, 1990 and 2000

<i>Type of Special Unit</i>	<i>Percent of Agencies With</i>			
	<i>Full-Time Special Unit</i>		<i>Full-Time Special Unit or Part-Time Personnel</i>	
	<i>1990</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>2000</i>
Victim assistance	32	47	45	71
Crime prevention	95	76	100	97
Repeat offenders	68	34	77	57
Prosecutor relations	66	31	76	58
Domestic violence	50	81	61	97
Child abuse	87	77	95	92
Missing children	89	66	95	95
Juvenile crime	81	68	94	84
Gangs	69	84	89	98
Drug education	90	73	98	95
Drunk drivers	56	40	76	81
Bias-related crimes	34	26	58	71

SOURCE: Reaves and Hickman (2002).

Wright Kreisel, on the various mechanisms, including civil litigation, criminal prosecution, and internal police departmental policies, used to control and lessen police officers' excessive use of force, avoid police misconduct, and attain the goal of police accountability. In Chapter 3, Mary Jackson focuses on a much overlooked area of law enforcement response, namely response to the activities of illegal street gangs, especially the Bloods, Crips, and Latin Kings, which continue to expand throughout the United States.

COURTS AND SENTENCING

Sentencing involves a difficult decision on the part of judges. It involves balancing justice for the community at large, the crime victim, and the defendant. Basically, the trial court judge is making a decision as to what sanctions or punishment should be imposed upon a person found guilty of a crime. In general, the criminal laws grant judges extensive discretionary powers in sentencing the offender. In most jurisdictions, judges have the leeway/discretion to sentence the offender to a wide range of options, such

as a long or short period of imprisonment, a suspended prison term and probation, probation and restitution, victim-offender mediation, and other community sanctions customized to the individual needs of the offender and the victim (e.g., home confinement with electronic monitoring, boot camp and shock incarceration, intensive drug treatment, and/or intensive probation supervision). Chapter 19 of this book, by Cassia C. Spohn, provides a detailed discussion of the critical issues related to sentencing reforms, court processing decisions, sentencing disparity, and the responsibilities of criminal court judges.

The overwhelming majority of adult offenders are given a sentence to be served in the community, usually probation. Approximately 4 million adults are currently on probation or parole in the United States. Eighty percent of offenders on probation are men, and a disproportionate segment are minorities. Probationers are better educated than incarcerated felons, with more than half (58%) having a high school diploma and 17.7% having a year or more of college (BJS, 1997). For detailed information on the strengths and weaknesses of probation programs and services, see Chapter 21 of this book.

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Table 1.7 Selected Prison Statistics

<i>Dec. 31</i>	<i>Number of Inmates</i>		<i>Sentenced Prisoners per 100,000 Resident Population</i>		<i>Population Housed as % of Highest Capacity</i>	
	<i>Federal</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Federal</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Federal</i>	<i>State</i>
1990	65,526	708,379	20	272	—	115%
1995	100,250	1,025,624	32	379	126%	114
1999	135,246	1,228,455	42	434	132	101
2000	145,416	1,236,476	45	432	131	100

—, Data not available

SOURCE: Bureau of Justice Statistics (2001b).

Sentencing decisions weigh heavily on the length of prison time served by offenders as well as parole decisions. Eligibility for parole depends on the requirements established by the criminal code and on the sentence given by a judge. In approximately half the states, the actual release date of each offender is based on the parole board's discretion. In the other states that have determinate sentences or strict parole guidelines, the inmate's release is mandatory once the required length of sentence is served. Most state parole boards make decisions based on statutory criteria, individual sentences, level of participation in inmate rehabilitation programs, and a prison record of no disciplinary infractions.

Although there is wide variation among state prison systems with regard to the average time served by first-time inmates for selected offenses, the average time served prior to release is slightly over 2 years. For example, a burglary offender may be given 36 to 48 months and serve 67% of his minimum term before being released after 24 months. By contrast, a convicted murderer may be sentenced from 8 to 20 years, or a maximum of 240 months. However, the average convicted murderer spends 127 months, or 10 years and 6 months, incarcerated in a state prison. If we examine the most common felony convictions, the average sentence for first-time incarcerated offenders is 17 months for illegal possession of controlled substances, 17 months for larceny, and 21 months for drug trafficking (BJS, 1997).

Some of the other most critical issues relate to probation failures and successes, the death

penalty, and capital punishment. Within Part V of this book, "Critical Issues in the Criminal Court System," some of the issues discussed include: Have excessive probation caseloads led to the failure of probation? With the implementation of new technology such as kiosks, are probation agencies documenting successful outcomes? Is it humane to execute a poor, black, mentally ill person? Does the death penalty help family members of murder victims to obtain closure and peace of mind? How likely is it that innocent persons are executed because of mistaken eyewitness testimony at their murder trial? In Chapter 20, Beau Breslin and David Karp discuss and debate the above-mentioned critical issues related to capital punishment. Chapter 21, by Michael Jacobson and Charles Lindner, focuses on the failures of probation and on the currently operating promising programs.

AMERICAN CORRECTIONS

The American correctional system is the most populated and overcrowded prison system in the world. By the end of 2000, the total number of prisoners incarcerated in federal and state correctional facilities and penitentiaries had increased dramatically to approximately 1.3 million—an 80% increase above the number imprisoned during the 1990s. In 1990, the total number of prisoners confined in federal or state correctional facilities had reached a record of 773,905, and by 1991 it had climbed slowly to 823,414 inmates (BJS, 1992, p. 8) (see Table 1.4).

As noted by Michael Welch in the first edition of this book, the majority of inmates in most county and city jails are pretrial detainees. Most of these pretrial detainees are too poor to make bail. Jails are populated by a disproportionate number of black, Hispanic, poor, uneducated, and unemployed men. More than half have drug and alcohol problems.

To assist parolees in the transition from prison life to re-entry into the community, reintegration programs have been established throughout the United States. These include work-release programs, prerelease guidance centers, and halfway houses. One of the most successful halfway house programs is San Francisco's Delancey Street, which prepares ex-offenders for jobs in the moving, restaurant, and florist businesses. The annual cost of incarcerating over 1.3 million individuals in our prisons and penitentiaries is estimated at \$20 billion. Prisons are expensive to build and operate. As states and counties have tried to handle the growing prison populations, prison budget allocations have also grown. During the past decade, state legislatures have appropriated over \$30 billion in capital spending to build new prisons and additional units. The annual operating and capital expenditures budget for adult and juvenile correctional institutions is \$16.06 billion for adult corrections and \$1.74 billion for juvenile corrections (American Correctional Association, 1993).

The primary purpose of most prisons for the past 100 years has been to change the offender into a law-abiding citizen. Positive behavior change is difficult for convicted felons who have failed in public schools, failed in work, and failed at crime by being caught, convicted, and incarcerated. In Chapter 25 of this book, Mary Bosworth examines education and work programs and drug treatment programs currently operational in two large state correctional systems, California and New York State, as well as throughout the Federal Bureau of Prisons. As Bosworth points out, over 600,000 men and women inmates return to the community each year. Expanding the academic education, vocational training, and work-release programs currently available only on a limited scale is crucial for preparing inmates to lead productive, law-abiding lives.

THE VICTIMS' MOVEMENT AND VICTIM ASSISTANCE

There are two major types of local programs designed to aid crime victims and witnesses. The first type is under the auspices of a city or county prosecutor and is located in a prosecutor's office, a county office building, or the local courthouse. The major goal of these victim/witness assistance programs is to alleviate the stress and trauma for victims and witnesses who testify in court. For example, prior to the court date, program staff accompany the victim to an empty courtroom to orient the individual to the physical layout and the courtroom procedures. Other services may include transportation to court, child care while the victim or witness is appearing at the court, apprising the victim of the progress of the court case, victim advocacy during a criminal trial, and referral to social service agencies.

The second major type of program operates under the auspices of a nonprofit social service agency, a city or county police department, or a probation department. These types of programs often provide victims with concrete services (e.g., emergency food vouchers) as well as crisis intervention at the crime scene, in the program office, or in the person's home. Victim service programs sometimes provide a range of additional services such as accompaniment to and advocacy in court, repair or replacement of broken locks, and emergency financial aid (Roberts, 1990).

In a growing number of communities, victim services and witness assistance programs have expanded to meet the special needs of child, adult, and elderly crime victims and their families. In some communities throughout the United States, victim services have been expanded to include crisis intervention, support groups, emergency food vouchers and financial aid, shelter and transitional housing for battered women, lock repair and replacement, child care for witnesses' children while they testify in court, victim advocacy in the courtroom, home visits, short-term therapy, relocation assistance to transitional housing, and intervention with witnesses' employers. However, a number of cities and towns still do not have a fully staffed

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and comprehensive victim assistance program (Roberts, 1997).

The victims' movement has made slow and steady progress since 1975, when a federal agency, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), allocated funding for just 14 projects geared to helping crime victims and witnesses. With the demise of LEAA in 1981, many cities and counties did not have the funds to continue victim assistance projects. Therefore, the majority of the prosecutor-based witness assistance programs ended in the late 1970s and early 1980s. However, in the mid-1980s and mid-1990s, three important events led to increases in funding to help crime victims:

1. The passage of the Victims of Crime Act (VOCA) of 1984, funded by federal criminal penalties. Federal VOCA funding has been distributed to the states to fund prosecutor-based witness assistance programs, sexual assault programs, and battered women's shelters. By 1992, VOCA was funding close to 2,500 victim-oriented programs.
2. The enactment of legislation in 28 states to fund new programs to aid crime victims and witnesses (Roberts, 1990). The majority of these states fund victim services through penalty assessments and fines.
3. The passage of the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA I) in 1994 with \$1.2 billion of federal funding and the passage of VAWA II in 2000 with \$3.3 billion in federal funding earmarked for the next 5 years for domestic violence training, programs, and services (Roberts, 2002).

Between 1984 and 2002, the U.S. Department of Justice's Office for Victims of Crime and state attorney generals have allocated several billion dollars to aid crime victims and witnesses. Victim/witness assistance and domestic violence programs are now a major growth industry.

The criminalization of woman battering and the implementation of policies mandating police arrest of batterers have improved markedly in the past decade. The terms *spousal* and *partner abuse* refer to intentional abuse by adult men or

women of their intimate partners by methods that cause bruises, scratches, cuts, bleeding, injuries, pain, or suffering. Two significant events led to widespread social and legal reforms in the area of domestic violence. The first was the 1984 Minneapolis Police Experimental Study, which indicated that arresting batterers seemed to deter further incidents of family violence. Five replication studies in different regions of the United States also indicated that arresting batterers who were employed at the time of the police complaint usually led to a decrease in battering incidents at follow-up. The second influential event was the landmark Supreme Court decision in *Thurman v. City of Torrington* (1984), which held the police liable for their negligence in failing to protect Tracy Thurman from severe and repeated injuries from her husband. Tracy Thurman was awarded \$1.9 million in damages from the city of Torrington. Other major lawsuits were filed during the 1980s against city and town police departments for failing to protect battered women victims. As a direct result of the above two events, police departments throughout the United States passed mandatory arrest policies as well as probable-cause arrest policies. In addition, both recruit and in-service police training on domestic violence rapidly expanded in county and city police training academies nationwide. For a detailed discussion of the criminal justice system's response to woman battering and the evolution of change to batterers' accountability, see Lisa Frisch's chapter in this book (Chapter 11). Also, for a qualitative pilot study on battered women's perceptions of the usefulness of police arrest policies as well as temporary restraining orders, see Gina Pisano-Robertiello's chapter in this book (Chapter 12).

When compared to the almost complete lack of support services given to victims during the 1960s and 1970s, victim services have certainly improved. However, there is still a way to go. Only about 200 police departments have either 24-hour crisis intervention units or victim service programs. One major stumbling block to creating comprehensive 24-hour victim assistance programs is the shortage of trained forensic mental health specialists, family therapists, and victim advocates willing to work at night or

on weekends, when most violent victimizations take place. Finally, whereas most state prisons employ an average of 350 correctional officers, most prosecutor-based witness assistance programs and police-based domestic violence units have only two to four full-time staff. Each victim or witness assistance program has the potential to serve thousands of violent crime victims in its area, but most states and counties refuse to allocate the funds for critically needed new staff positions to treat crime victims.

CHARACTERISTICS OF OFFENDERS

Michael Welch, in his chapter in the first edition of this book, characterized the inmates in our city jails as the growing underclass: a group of people who have the misfortune of populating our jails as pretrial detainees because they do not have the money to post bail. Cole (1992) estimated that about 5 million of the 33 million Americans with incomes below the official poverty line are members of this new group. This group tends to be overrepresented by minorities: African Americans and Hispanics. Being part of this underclass is more a way of life than a social or economic condition. Their behavior patterns typically include antisocial behavior, habitual criminality, chemical dependency, out-of-wedlock births, very erratic work histories and long periods of unemployment, welfare dependency, school failure, and illiteracy. For the most part, this group lacks hope for leading a productive life. Their lives have been filled with pain and despair as they see their friends and relatives incarcerated, addicted to drugs, dealing in drugs, sick or dying from AIDS, or victims of brutal crimes. The inner-city youths that get caught up in the criminal justice system are usually products of decaying urban neighborhoods and families where the primary role model is a parent or older sibling who is either dealing drugs or serving time in a state prison for a felony offense.

Almost 30 years ago, the author identified and discussed the five most prevalent handicaps among prison inmates: (a) character disorder: an antisocial defect resulting from undersocialization and inappropriate acting-out responses to the stresses of daily living; (b) unemployability:

lack of motivation to work as well as marketable vocational skills; (c) relationship hangups: lack of close interpersonal ties with family and friends; (d) social stigma: being labeled a felon; and (e) immaturity: lack of the capability to take responsibility for one's actions and a general inability to make socially acceptable decisions (Roberts, 1974, p. 6). Many of the above handicaps characterize today's juvenile and adult offenders. However, with the phenomenal increase in drug abuse and mental illness during the 1990s, incarcerated offenders have become increasingly prone to violence when they fail to take their neuroleptic medications.

Some of the most critical concerns among criminal justice professionals in the 1990s are what to do with young murderers, the proliferation of youth gangs, the chronic use of drugs by juvenile and adult offenders, and the increased spread of infectious and deadly diseases (i.e., AIDS and tuberculosis). The rates of AIDS and drug abuse in the criminal justice system continue to rise each year. Chapter 15, by Kathleen Heide, examines the etiology and biopsychosocial characteristics of youth homicide, as well as effective treatment approaches with young killers. Chapter 3, by Mary Jackson, reviews the growth in youth gangs and the emerging role for police gang suppression units. As increased numbers of sex offenders are sentenced to probation and other community-based alternatives, the threat of transmission of the HIV virus to victims of sexual assault intensifies. In Chapter 6, Lori Scott reports on the prevalence of reported and investigated sex crimes over the last decade and the mostly inadequate management of these crimes by the criminal justice system to date. Scott also describes several community-based sex offender treatment programs in Arizona, Connecticut, and California.

Most convicted offenders do not possess the academic or vocational skills for legitimate employment. Unfortunately, with only limited opportunities to earn money legally, they turn to illegal activity at an early age. It is extremely difficult to convince youthful offenders that it is better in the long run to stay in school and prepare for a law-abiding career when they see their peers making \$1,000 a week trafficking in illegal drugs. Their future is dismal, many die before they reach the age of 30, and many more spend

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their most productive years in jail or state prison. Chapter 27, by Joan Petersilia, focuses on the political, economic, and social realities of recently released prisoners and their need for reintegrative, transitional, and aftercare services.

The majority of crimes are committed by repeat offenders. Generally, these individuals have no respect for others and are unable to maintain normal relationships of love, respect, and trust with a significant other. Recent surveys indicate that only one third of the inmates in state prisons have completed high school and that 20% dropped out in the eighth grade or earlier.

The profile of the typical offender is that of a young black or Hispanic male who has grown up in poverty and has not received the nurturance of a close family. His values and morals are typically learned from television or the street, and he tends to be a drug abuser or heavy drinker. His career in crime usually begins at an early age. He is intermittently involved in antisocial and delinquent acts and shows no remorse.

REMEDIES

Basically, criminal justice practitioners and policy makers hold one of three philosophies with regard to the criminal law, crime, and offenders: (a) punishment, (b) rehabilitation and treatment, or (c) a combination of punishment and rehabilitation.

As a result of tougher and determinate sentencing laws administered by judges, primarily in response to public outcries, the number of inmates under the jurisdiction of federal or state correctional agencies climbed to a record high of 1.3 million by 2000. Examining the trend in the offense composition of state prison admissions reveals a significant increase in offenders convicted of drug offenses and offenders violating probation or parole conditions. In 1980, drug offenses accounted for only 1 out of every 15 court-committed admissions to state correctional facilities. However, by 1990, approximately 1 in 3 newly sentenced offenders had been convicted of drug offenses (Gilliard, 1993). During the same 12-year period, probation and parole violators committed by the courts to state prisons increased from just under

17% to approximately 30% of the total admissions.

Jails and prisons are human warehouses for the new underclass: the thousands of drug-abusing, unemployed, and repeat offenders. Prisons are overpopulated, and recidivism rates are high. We have learned that building more prisons is not the solution. Many of our nation's prisons have become schools for crime, places where offenders become more incorrigible and violent as a result of the unsanitary, degrading, and inhumane conditions in many prisons.

By 2000 there were approximately 1.3 million inmates in our nation's state and federal correctional facilities. How do they typically spend their time each day? Usually in one or two ways: (a) "hanging out" in the prison yard or recreation area or locked in their cells or (b) working a full day in prison industries that provide skills in dead-end jobs like making license plates for the state or desks and file cabinets for state offices. Productivity standards are comparable to those of manufacturers on the outside. The inmate workers receive token amounts of pay below minimum wage. They are required to turn over their wages to the state or federal prison in order to provide monetary restitution to their victims and to send payments to the inmates' dependents. A small sum of money is put aside each week in a "going home" savings account in preparation for the inmates' release.

Putting inmates to work in labor-intensive manufacturing and production jobs is a realistic alternative to inmate idleness and potential prison riots. Several different organizational models of prison industries had emerged on a selective basis in the 1990s:

1. The state government model, in which prison industries produce products solely for state and local governmental agencies' use, such as desks, chairs, and file cabinets or laundry for the state hospitals.
2. The joint venture model, in which prison industries contract with a private corporation to produce products that the corporation will market and distribute.
3. The corporate model, similar to that of a private sector business, in which inmates are hired,

trained, and transported daily (work-release) to a manufacturing facility near the prison.

In the first edition of this book, Professors McNally and Dwyer provided a review of new and expanded prison industries during the first half of the 1990s. Their chapter described inmates' work assignments at Zephyr Products, Inc., in Kansas and discussed the past, present, and future of prison industry alliances with the private sector. McNally and Dwyer documented the development of prison industry partnership programs with private sector companies on a limited basis in 23 states. They concluded by enumerating the specific benefits of prison industry enhancement programs to taxpayers, corporations, prisons, labor, and the offenders themselves. In sharp contrast to federal correctional institutions, where the overwhelming majority of inmates work in prison industries (Unicor), the majority of inmates in state prisons are locked in their cells and taking naps, "hanging out" in the prison yards, or "pumping iron" in weightlifting rooms. Back in 1994, it was my earnest hope that correctional administrators would follow the recommendations of McNally and Dwyer. Unfortunately, as documented in Bosworth's chapter in this second edition, correctional administrators have done very little in the past 9 years to improve state prison industry partnerships with the private sector.

The remedies that need to be expanded in the 21st century include juvenile structured wilderness programs, juvenile family counseling programs, boot camps for juveniles, inmate transitional and aftercare programs, prison industry-private sector partnership programs, and intermediate sanctions such as intensive probation and parole supervision, electronic monitoring, community residential centers, community service, fines, victim-offender mediation, and restitution. See Chapter 14, by Albert Roberts, on juvenile justice policies and programs, Chapter 18, by Gaylene Armstrong,

Doris Layton MacKenzie, and David Wilson, on the effectiveness of different boot camp models nationwide, and Chapter 17, by Scott K. Okamoto and Meda Chesney-Lind, on the critical issues regarding female juvenile delinquency.

CONCLUSION

Victimization rates for violent crimes have declined significantly from 1993 to 2001. A growing number of large cities seem to be safer, cleaner, and much less crime ridden.

Several surveys confirm that a geographically and demographically representative sample of citizens in Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Alabama firmly support alternatives to prison sentences. The three preferred sanctions for nonviolent offenders are boot camps, carefully monitored probation plus restitution, and intensive probation supervision (IPS) plus community service. The public is beginning to realize that mandating the offender to a work assignment or to giving money back to the victim is less expensive than prison and more likely to rehabilitate the offender (Farkas, 1993, pp. 1, 15).

The underlying philosophy rooted in all intermediate sanctions is that convicted offenders can be punished fairly, consistently, and humanely in the community. Offenders in IPS are required to maintain employment or attend school, abide by a strict curfew, be available for routine drug testing, and provide community service or restitution to victims. Offenders committing infractions are quickly punished with additional fines, restitution, or incarceration.

The main problem is that without adequate funding to hire needed staff, these programs can become the failures of the 21st century. With adequate planning, program development, and increased monitoring and accounting, intensive probation surveillance programs and restitution programs for certain types of offenders could save states and counties billions of dollars.

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In America, the crime clock continues to click: one murder every 22 minutes, one rape every 5 minutes, one robbery every 49 seconds, and one burglary every 10 seconds. And the cost of crime continues to mount: \$78 billion for the criminal justice system, \$64 billion for private protection, \$202 billion in loss of life and work, \$120 billion in crimes against business, \$60 billion in stolen goods and fraud, \$40 billion from drug abuse, and \$110 billion from drunk driving.